

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF PRESS, RADIO AND TELEVISION**Mass Communication**

Mass communication is a process in which professional communicators use media to disseminate messages widely, rapidly and continuously to arouse intended meanings in large and diverse audiences in attempts to influence them in a variety of ways. (DeFleur Dennis, Understanding Mass communication)

By exercising the criteria set forth in this definition, we can identify precisely what we consider to be mass media in the present text: the major mass media are print (including books, magazines, newspapers), film (principally commercial motion pictures) and broadcasting (mainly radio and TV but also other several associated forms such as cable and VCRs).

Brief Survey Of Origin And Development Of Press**Development of Printing Press**

One of the technologies that became important historically in the development of print as a medium was the manufacture of PAPER. The Chinese had started making inked impressions from carved blocks shortly after 175 A.D., when they first developed paper. Whole books developed by Koreans and Japanese during eighth century still survive today. Gutenberg refined the technique in 1440 with the first widespread use of movable type, where the characters are separate parts that are inserted to make the text. Gutenberg is also credited with the first use of an oil-based ink, and using "rag" paper introduced into Europe from China by way of Muslims, who had a paper mill in operation in Baghdad as early as 794.

Development of Newspapers

In mid-1500s, leaders of Venice regularly made available to the public printed News sheets about the war in Dalamatia. In early 1600s, Corantos were being published periodically for the commercial community in several countries.

The newspapers of modern times have several characteristics not found in early publications. Edwin Emery, a distinguished historian of journalism has defined newspaper in the following terms.

A true newspaper:

- Is published at least weekly.
- Is produced by a mechanical printing process.
- Is available (for a price), to people of all walks of life.
- Prints news of general interest rather than items on specialized topics such as religion or business.
- Is readable by people of ordinary literacy.
- Is timely.
- Is stable over time.

By this definition the first newspaper was Oxford gazette, later called London Gazette. It was first published in 1665 under the authority of King Charles II.

The first daily newspaper in English, the Daily Courant began publishing in London on March 11, 1702. In 1631 The Gazette, the first French newspaper was founded. In 1690, Publick Occurrences in Boston became the first newspaper published in America. It was important both because it was first in time and because it spoke against the government. However it does not really fit DeFleur's definition of newspaper. According to definition the first American paper was The Boston News-Letter which first appeared in April 1704.

In 1803, just 15 years after the first British penal colony was established, Australia's military government published the Sydney Gazette and the New South Wales Advertiser, Australia's first newspapers.

In 1721 James Franklin, started his paper, the New England Courant. It was something of a departure from restrictive colonial tradition because it was not published by authority and had no connection with post office. It was aimed at well-educate and prosperous elite and appealed only to those who likes literary essays and controversial political opinions.

Freedom of Press

Of great importance in the unfolding struggle to establish a free press was the conflict that developed between John Peter Zenger and William Cosby, Governor of New York. Zenger started a newspaper in 1733, The New York weekly Journal with an idea to have a paper in opposition to the officially authorized New York gazette. He was jailed on a charge of seditious Libel. However Zenger won the case at the end, significance of Zenger's trial was that it set an important legal precedent: the press should be allowed to criticize the government.

Press in Sub-continent

For at least one hundred years people in subcontinent remained unaware of the printing technology. They, however, had some idea of printed material when ships would come from UK and bring some newspapers and magazines generally for the Englishmen serving in subcontinent.

In the subcontinent the print media surfaced because of the foreign rulers. India did not know about printing or mass communication by the middle of 18th century. Since the influence of the English rulers was more in the South India, most early papers also appeared in the southern cities before the print medium came to western and northern parts.

Colonial journalism

The history of media in united India is colored by the colonial experience. William Bolts, an ex-employee of the British East India Company attempted to start the first newspaper in India in 1776. Bolts had to beat a retreat under the disapproving gaze of the Court of Directors of the Company.

Bengal

The Hickey's Bengal Gazette or the Calcutta General Advertiser was started by James Augustus Hickey in 1780 and is regarded as the first regular publication from the Indian soil. The *Gazette*, a two-sheet newspaper, specialized in writing on the private lives of the Sahibs of the Company. He dared even to mount scurrilous attacks on the Governor-General, Warren Hastings', wife, which soon landed him in hot waters.

Hickey was sentenced to a 4 months jail term and Rs.500 fine, which did not deter him. After a bitter attack on the Governor-General and the Chief Justice, Hickey was sentenced to one year in prison and fined Rs.5000, which finally drove him to penury. These were the first tentative steps of journalism in India.

Calcutta

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

Madras (Chennai)

The *Madras Courier* was started in 1785 in the southern stronghold of Madras, which is now called Chennai. Richard Johnson, its founder, was a government printer. Madras got its second newspaper when, in 1791, Hugh Boyd, who was the editor of the *Courier* quit and founded the *Hurkaru*.

Tragically for the paper, it ceased publication when Boyd died within a year of its founding. It was only in 1795 that competitors to the *Courier* emerged with the founding of the *Madras Gazette* followed by the *India Herald*. The latter was an "unauthorised" publication, which led to the deportation of its founder Humphreys. The *Madras Courier* was designated the purveyor of official information in the Presidency.

In 1878, The Hindu was founded, and played a vital role in promoting the cause of Indian independence from the colonial yoke. Its founder, Kasturi Ranga Iyengar, was a lawyer, and his son, K Srinivasan assumed editorship of this pioneering newspaper during for the first half of the 20th century. Today this paper enjoys the highest circulation in South India, and is among the top five nationally.

Bombay

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

'A Chronicle of Media and the State', by Jeebesh Bagchi in the *Sarai Reader 2001* is a handy timeline on the role of the state in the development of media in India for more than a century. Bagchi divides the timeline into three 'ages'. The Age of Formulation, which starts with the Indian Telegraph Act in 1885 and ends with the Report of the Sub-Committee on Communication, National Planning Committee in 1948.

Urdu Press

In 1822 the Persian weekly Jam-e-Jahan Numa first time published in Urdu. Some time it publishes in Urdu, some time in Persian and some time in both the languages. During the earlier days of journalism newspapers were either weeklies or biweeklies, none of them was a daily. On January 14, 1850 Munshi Harsukh Rai started weekly Kohinoor. With a circulation of only 350 it was the largest circulated newspaper of that time. The circulation of other newspapers on that time was only 100 to 200.

Urdu Guide was the first daily newspaper, which was started by Maulvi Kabeeruddin from Kolkata in 1858. In the very same year as a second daily Roznamcha-e-Punjab started from Lahore. As a first Urdu daily of Bihar, Dini Bihar started in 1876 from Arah district. Zameendar, which was the best newspaper of that time, was started in 1903 from Lahore. It was the first newspaper, which used the news from erstwhile news agencies. This newspaper highly supported the freedom struggle. At that time the circulation of Zameendar was 30,000. Before Zameendar, in 1884 Munshi Mehar Baksh started a morning (Naseem-e-Subah) and an evening newspaper (Sham-e-Wisal). Maulvi Saiful Haq started the daily Rahbar-e-Hind from Lahore in 1885. In 1902 Maulvi Sanaullah Khan started the weekly Watan which regularly published for 33 years. Maulana Muhammed Ali Jauhar started Naqeeb-e-Hamdard in 1912. Later it called only Hamdard. In the very same year Maulana Abul Kalam Azad started Al-Hilal. After Zameendar it was the largest circulated newspaper. On March 20, 1919 Mahashai Krishn started Partap. Partap was the first newspaper, which started supplements.

Newspapers and movement for independence

Before the freedom following newspapers and magazines were started to support the freedom struggle. Khilafat, Siasat, Ujala, Taj, Roznama-e-Hind, Ajmal, Hilal, Milap, Partap, Tej, Qaumi Awaz, Jung, Anjam, Inqalab, Nawa-e-Waqt, Hindustan, Aftab, Jumhuriat, Iqbal, Asr-e-Jadeed, Azad-e-Hind, Sandesh, Vakeel, Khidmat, Musalman, Azad, Paswan Weer Bharat and Al-Jamiath. Jawaharlal Nehru started Qaumi Awaz from Lucknow in 1945. Later it also started from Patna and Delhi. This time it is publishing only from Delhi and is in very poor condition. After Indias freedom Hafiz Ali Khan Bahadur started weekly Daur-e-Jadeed. Jamat-e-Islami Hind started weekly Dawat. This time it is publishing regularly as Bi-weekly. Dawat has a particular readership and it is very popular among its readers due to its views on current issues. Maulana Abdul Waheed Siddiqui started Nai Duniya, which is still publishing under the editorship of his son Shahid Siddiqui. This time it is the famous Urdu weekly in India. Sahara Group Had started monthly Rashtriya Sahara but later it became daily. This time it is the most popular Urdu daily of North India publishing simultaneously from Delhi, Lucknow and Gorakhpur. Recently this group has launched a weekly Aalmi Sahara.

Penny Press

On Sept. 3, 1833 Benjamin Day started a paper from New York with the name The New York Sun. It was designed to appeal not to everyone but to the less sophisticated people. He for the first hired a salaried reporter in his newspaper and therefore set a tradition. Another important feature was that it was sold on streets by newsboys for only a penny. The paper was an instant success soon selling more than 8000 copies per day. The Sun spurred a revolution in newspaper publishing. Within a few months it had competitors and the mass media was a reality. Together all the competing newspapers were known as the penny press. Particularly noteworthy was the New York Herald founded in 1835 by James Gordon Bennett. He also added many features like financial page, editorial comment and more serious local, foreign and national news. The penny press were vulgar, sensational and trivial in many respects. But publishers like Bennett began to put some worth reading material as well.

Yellow Journalism

During the last decade of 19th century the competition for readers led to a trend towards sensational journalism.

The penny press took the first step with their emphasis on crime, human interest and humour. Then in early 1890s, Joseph Pulitzer succeeded in building the circulation of New York Sunday World to over 300,000. To do this he combined good reporting with Crusades, with an emphasis on disasters and melodramatics, sensational photographs, and comic strips – all to intensify reader intensity. He pioneered the use of colour printing of comics in newspapers, which did much to spur the circulation of his Sunday editions. One of the famous cartoons published in this paper was a bald-headed, toothless, grinning kid, clad in a yellow sack-like garment. It was called Yellow Kid and it depicted life in the slums of New York and the cartoon became very popular. This new style came to be called Yellow Journalism. Historians believe that the label was derived from the cartoon character symbolizing the newspapers' mindless intellectual level.

Brief Survey Of Origin And Development Of Radio

Starting in 1840s the new technologies came quickly one after the other, within a span of about fifty years.

The first was the electric dot and dash telegraph (1844), followed by the telephone (1876), the wireless telegraph (1896) and finally radio telephone (1906). With the adaptations of radiotelephone technology in early 1920s, radio became a mass medium for household use.

A German Scientist, Heinrich Hertz, had been experimenting with some curious electromagnetic phenomena that had produced in the laboratory. By 1887 he had demonstrated the existence of what we know today as radio waves. This discovery became the foundation of radio broadcasting. Later, in 1895 Marconi succeeded in sending coded messages over a considerable distance across his father's estate. He took his invention to London in 1897 and obtained a patent as well as financial backing to develop his "wireless telegraph" further. In 1897 he established the world's first Radio Station on the Isle of Wight, England. By 1901, he had built a much more powerful transmitter and succeeded in sending a message across the Atlantic. On Christmas Eve, 1906, Reginald Fessenden (using his heterodyne principle) transmitted the first radio audio broadcast in history from Brant Rock, Massachusetts. Ships at sea heard a broadcast that included Fessenden playing the song *O Holy Night* on the violin and reading a passage from the Bible.

He founded the American Marconi Company in 1909 and by 1913 it had a virtual monopoly on the use of wireless telegraph in USA.

The world's first radio news programme was broadcast August 31st 1920 by station 8MK in Detroit, Michigan. The world's first regular wireless broadcasts for entertainment commenced in 1922 from the Marconi Research Centre at Writtle near Chelmsford, England, which was also the location of the world's first "wireless" factory.

Early radios ran the entire power of the transmitter through a carbon microphone. While some early radios used some type of amplification through electric current or battery, through the mid 1920s the most common type of receiver was the Crystal set. In the 1920s, amplifying vacuum tubes revolutionized both radio receivers and radio transmitters.

After World War I, in increasing numbers, amateur radio fans were attracted to the medium. Before radio broadcasting could be a Mass medium, it had to make the transition from a long-range rather cumbersome device for maritime, commercial and governmental communication to an easy-to-use system that would bring program content to people in their homes. In 1916, David Sarnoff, had gone to work for the American Marconi Company and wrote a now famous memorandum to his boss that outlined the way that radio could become a medium for home use. However his proposal was rejected by his authorities. A sort of amateur version of broadcasts started in Pittsburgh in April 1920 by Dr. Frank Conrad. Westinghouse, seeing the growing public interest in home radio decided to establish a radio station for regularly scheduled broadcasts in Pittsburgh area.

Regulating the airwaves

It was the International telegraphic Convention, organized in 1895 by twenty five European countries to work out agreements on telegraphic and cable operators. The first conference devoted specifically to radio was held in Berlin in 1903, and important rules were agreed upon.

Radio during Great Depression

Radio got huge popularity in the era of Great Depression 1930s. In the mid 1930s things happened that were very important to the future of broadcasting. One of which was the development of an entirely different technology for broadcasting called frequency Modulation (FM).

AM and FM

In 1933 Edwin Armstrong developed a new kind of radio signal based on frequency modulation rather than amplitude modulation. These FM radio signals were able to carry much higher and lower audio frequencies.

AM signals travel from transmitter in all directions. It can carry signals over very long distances. The FM signal is different; at very high and ultra high frequencies it simply goes in a straight line in all directions and does not bounce up and down.

Radio in Sub-Continent

March 1926	The Indian Broadcasting Company. A private company was formed.
23rd July, 1927	IBC started a station at Bombay. The beginning of broadcasting in sub-continent.
1928	A small transmitting station was set up at Lahore.
April 1930	Broadcasting under the direct control of Govt. under the title of
Indian State Broadcasting Service	
Jan 1934	The Indian Wireless Telegraphy Act 1933 came into force.
Jan 1935	Peshawar Radio Station was set up by NWFP Government –
250 watts transmitter.	
Jan 1936	Delhi Radio Station was Opened.
A.S. Bukhari – Station Director.	
June 1936	Indian State Broadcasting Service was changed into All India
Radio.	
Dec 1937	The Lahore Radio Station went on air
1939	Dhaka Radio station was opened
12th Nov 1939	Quaid-e-Azam's first radio broadcast from Bombay on Eid-
Day	
July 1942	Peshawar Radio Station formally inaugurated

3rd June 1947 Quaid-e-Azam makes historic address on All India Radio and announced the creation of newly independent state of Pakistan for the Muslims of the Sub-Continent

The 1st news bulletin went on air from Radio Pakistan on—AUG.14, 1947.

Since independence various AM broadcasting stations have been developed in different parts of the country to cater the information and entertainment needs of the nation. However along with AM radio stations, FM radio stations are also working all over the country. In Pakistan, FM transmission started in 1990s and gained popularity immediately after its introduction for two reasons; one it was directly targeting youth second, it used music as a tool to catch audiences. For quite a time now private FM channels are being introduced that has allowed competition in the market and has also played a part in reviving radio's status as a popular mass medium.

PBC SERVICES:

- Home Service (Domestic Network) 21 languages.
- World Service for Overseas Pakistanis (Middle-East and Western Europe)
- External Service (in almost all important international languages)
- News and Current Affairs
- Saut ul Quran (Religious Broadcasting)

Brief Survey Of Origin And Development Of Television

The history of TV goes a lot further back than people suppose. In 1884 a German experimenter, Paul Nipkow, developed a rotating disk with small holes arranged in a spiral pattern that when used with a light source had unusual properties. Although the scanning disk was unique to early TV experiments, the entire histories of radio and television are closely intertwined. All of the inventions and technologies that made radio broadcasting possible are also part of the history of television. In addition the social and economic organization of the industry was already set before TV became a reality.

Early in 1920s, corporations as General electric and RCA allocated budgets for experiments with TV. The idea seemed far-fetched and futuristic to many in the industry, but television research was authorized in the hope that it would eventually pay-off.

Ernst Alexanderson had developed a workable system based on Nipkow Disk. However, it was not to be the system that the industry finally adopted.

The inventor of television, the device responsible for receiving voice as well as images, is John Logie Baird of Scotland. But obviously the new invention has been the result of the extensive work done by scores of other scientists as well.

Although Logie Baird had been developing his own methods of televised images for many years it was in 1924 that he first demonstrated a mechanically scanned television system which transmitted objects in outline and went on the following year to show the head of a dummy, not just in outline but as a real image. First Pictures were shown on Sept 7, 1927.

By 1935, mechanical systems for transmitting black-and-white images were replaced completely by electronic methods that could generate hundreds of horizontal bands at 30 frames per second. Vladimir K. Zworykin, a Russian immigrant who first worked for Westinghouse, patented an electronic camera tube based on the cathode tube. Philo T. Farnsworth and Allen B. Dumont, both Americans, developed a pickup tube that became the home television receiver by 1939.

The Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) had entered the color TV fray and battled with RCA to perfect color television, initially with mechanical methods until an all-electronic color system could be

developed. Rival broadcasts appeared throughout the 1940s although progress was slowed by both World War II and the Korean War.

Commercial color television broadcasts were underway in the United States by 1954. By 1946, FCC had issued 24 new licenses for television transmitters.

1948-1952 is considered as the Big Freeze in USA when FCC ordered a freeze on the issuance of new licenses and construction permits. The reason was that the signals of one station sometimes interfered with those of another. During the freeze FCC developed a master plan that still governs TV broadcasting in USA. The system prevents one station from interfering with the broadcasts of another thus avoiding the chaos that characterized early radio broadcasting. The freeze was lifted in 1952.

In 1953 FCC approved a system developed by RCA. In Dec. 1954, RCA introduced their 21" color TV. Although the number recorded in history books is 5,000 units sold, the common belief (amongst collectors) is that the actual number sold to the public was considerably less.

1950-1959 was an exciting time period for television. In the USA, B&W television exploded onto the scene at the beginning of the decade, mid-decade saw electronic color television and remote controls launched, and at the end of the decade the public witnessed some interesting styling changes and the introduction of transistorized television.

TV Transmission Systems

There are currently 3 main television transmission standards used throughout the world:

NTSC - National Television Standards Committee. The oldest existing standard, developed in the USA. First used in 1954. Consists of 525 horizontal lines of display and 60 vertical lines.

SECAM - Système Électronique pour Couleur avec Mémoire. Developed in France. First used in 1967. A 625-line vertical, 50-line horizontal display.

PAL - Phase Alternating Line. Developed by German engineer Walter Bruch who patented his invention 1963 and the first commercial application of the PAL system was in August 1967. Also a 625/50-line display and alternative of NTSC.

Television in Pakistan

Before partition people of sub-continent were aware of broadcasting in the shape and form of Radio; however, TV as a mass medium to them was not a reality. Even after partition for quite a time TV was not introduced to the people mainly due to the reason that no trained technical staff was available to run a TV station. The efforts continued, however, and bore fruit when on Nov 26, 1964 country's first TV station was set up in Lahore.

By this time TV had advanced to color transmission in a number of countries, PTV was a B/W version. Nonetheless the enthusiasm of starting a TV broadcasting house was overflowing and the staff – both on the technical as well as programming sides, showed determination to make this venture a success.

The most prominent feature of PTV's early years was the live transmission for it did not have the recording facilities. It was not the news to be read in real time only, but the talks, plays and music was also broadcast live. It was a unique experience for all the directors, producers, performers and the technical staff.

In 1973 when all the TV stations in the country were linked by a microwave network, enabling live telecast of different programs which helped the PTV save time and money. Now a drama at Lahore station could be watched by viewers in Karachi and Islamabad at the same time and similar transmission from Karachi could be made for the upcountry stations. This facility was fully exploited at the time of Lahore Islamic Summit of Feb 1974. Though the Islamic conference coverage was very successful, many

thought it would have been far better had it been a colored transmission. Another reason to do away with the black and white broadcast was that in most part of the world the TV transmission was getting colored and companies were now not making parts for the equipment used in the B/W transmission. The day came soon when in 1976 COLOUR TRANSMISSION STARTED on experimental basis. Regular Color transmission started from Feb 18, 1982.

PTV excelled in broadcasting various programs – news analysis, talk shows especially for the youth and entertainment purposes. But what earned it distinction was its drama production.

Another area where TV in Pakistan has been a major source of entertainment is the coverage of sporting events. PTV keeps people glued for hours to watch sports of their interest. It also brings business to TV.

As a business and industry television broadcasting is undergoing a lot of changes. New patterns of ownership have emerged on the broadcasting scene. Private TV stations have started functioning since 2002 when first private TV channel got its license for PEMRA i.e. Pakistan electronic media regulatory authority. Since then various private entertainment, news and sports based channels are working in the country that are helping not just in the development of industry but have also created a lot of job opportunities for various creative individuals who were before relying just on one state-controlled channel i.e. PTV.

LESSON 02**ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF MOTION PICTURES & NEW MEDIA**

The history of motion pictures as a mass medium is short, spanning less than a century. But the events that led to motion pictures go back many centuries. The first steps in this story involved solving a series of complex technical problems. A motion picture, after all, is a series of still pictures rapidly projected on a screen in such a way that the viewer perceives smooth motion. To achieve this illustration of motion, problems in optics, chemistry and even human physiology had to be overcome. Lenses, projectors, cameras and roll film had to be invented only then “the movies” were born.

We will not go into the details of how photographic camera and film was developed as you would have definitely studied that in the core courses of the BS program, rather we’ll begin here from the time when movie cameras were underdevelopment.

During 1880s and 1890s various crude motion picture cameras were underdevelopment and a number of showmen were entertaining people with motion pictures based on serially projected drawings. Then during 1890s applications of film and viewing procedures virtually exploded. By 1895 greatly impressed French audiences were seeing brief motion pictures projected on a screen by August Lumière and Luis Lumière. Other applicants of the new technology soon followed and several individuals clamoured for the title of inventor of the motion picture. But it was William Dickson, assistant to Thomas Alva Edison, who perfected the motion picture camera.

Meanwhile Edison and Thomas Armat developed a practical and reliable projection system to which the called Vitascope. Vitascope had many shortcomings but its major flaw was that it projected at a wasteful 48 frames per second, whereas 16 frames easily provide the illusion of smooth motion.

After that Edison decided to exhibit his moving pictures in a peep-show device that he called the Kinetoscope. By 1896, Edison was projecting motion pictures to the public in New York for the first time in America.

By 1903, both European and American producers were making “one reelers” that lasted ten to twelve minutes and told a story. One-reel films were produced on every conceivable topic from prize-fights to religious plays. In New York City alone, more than a million patrons attended the nickelodeons (theatre) each week in the early 1900s. However the young medium not only bore the stigma of low taste but was also associated with least prestigious elements of society. To shake this image and bring middle-class patrons to the box office, attractive theatre were built in the better neighborhoods and movie “palaces” opened in the business districts. By 1914, an estimated 40 million patrons attended movies every week, including an increasing number of women and children. Meanwhile, as Europe entered World War I, Hollywood had been established as the center of American movie making. The film industries in Europe had to close because of the war, leaving production and the world market American film makers. They took advantage of the opportunity, and a huge growth in film attendance occurred all over the globe. American films have been popular in the world market ever since.

Talkies




Since, 1890s inventors had tried to combine the phonograph and the motion picture to produce movies with synchronized sound. Few of their contraptions worked well. The sound was either weak and scratchy or poorly coordinated with the action in the film. But the difficulties were overcome by the mid-1900s. American Telephone and Telegraph (AT&T) used its enormous capital resources to produce a reliable sound system. By 1926 Warner Brothers had signed an agreement with AT&T and the transition to sound was underway. Warner produced a new feature film *The Jazz Singer*, including sound for 1927-28 season.



Major Film Studios: The Big Five

1920-1930 was the decade between the end of the Great War and the Depression following the Stock Market Crash. Film theaters and studios were not initially affected in this decade by the Crash in late 1929. The basic patterns and foundations of the film industry (and its economic organization) were established in the 1920s. The studio system was essentially born with long-term contracts for stars, lavish

production values, and increasingly rigid control of directors and stars by the studio's production chief and in-house publicity departments. After World War I and into the early 1920s, America was the leading producer of films in the world - using Thomas Ince's "factory system" of production, although the system did limit the creativity of many directors. Production was in the hands of the major studios (that really flourished after 1927 for almost 20 years), and the star system was burgeoning.

Originally, in the earliest years of the motion picture industry, production, distribution, and exhibition were separately controlled. When the industry rapidly grew, these functions became integrated under one directorship to maximize profits, something called **vertical integration**. There were eight major (and minor) studios (see below) that dominated the industry. They were the ones that had most successfully consolidated and integrated all aspects of a film's development. By 1929, the film-making firms that were to rule and monopolize Hollywood for the next half-century were the giants or the majors, sometimes dubbed **The Big Five**. They produced more than 90 percent of the fiction films in America and distributed their films both nationally and internationally. Each studio somewhat differentiated its products from other studios.

	The Big Five Studios	Logo
1.	Warner Bros. Pictures, incorporated in 1923 by Polish brothers (Jack, Harry, Albert, and Sam); in 1925, Warner Brothers merged with First National, forming Warner Bros.-First National Pictures; the studio's first principal asset was Rin Tin Tin; became prominent by 1927 due to its introduction of talkies (<i>The Jazz Singer</i> (1927)) and early 30s <i>gangster films</i> ; it was known as the "Depression studio"; in the 40s, it specialized in <i>Bugs Bunny</i> animations and other cartoons	 <p>Warner Bros.</p>
2.	Adolph Zukor's Famous Players (1912) and Jesse Lasky's Feature Play - merged in 1916 to form Famous Players-Lasky Corporation; it spent \$1 million on United Studios' property (on Marathon Street) in 1926; the Famous Players-Lasky Corporation became Paramount studios in 1927, and was officially named Paramount Pictures in 1935; its greatest silent era stars were Mary Pickford and Douglas Fairbanks; Golden Age stars included Mae West, W.C. Fields, Bing Crosby, Bob Hope, and director Cecil B. DeMille	 <p>Famous Players-Lasky (Paramount)</p>
3.	RKO (Radio-Keith-Orpheum) Pictures, evolved from the Mutual Film Corporation (1912), was established in 1928 as a subsidiary of RCA; it was formed by RCA, Keith-Orpheum Theaters, and the FBO Company (Film Booker's Organization) - which was owned by Joseph P. Kennedy (who had already purchased what remained of Mutual); this was the smallest studio of the majors; kept financially afloat with top-grossing Astaire-Rogers <i>musicals</i> in the 30s, <i>King Kong</i> (1933), and <i>Citizen Kane</i> (1941); at one time, RKO was acquired by eccentric millionaire Howard Hughes	 <p>RKO</p>

<p>4.</p>	<p>Marcus Loew of Loew's, Inc., was the parent firm of what eventually became Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer. Metro Pictures Corporation was a production company founded in 1916 by Richard A. Rowland and Louis B. Mayer. In 1918, Mayer left this partnership to start up his own production company in 1918, called Louis B. Mayer Pictures. In 1920, Metro Pictures Corporation (with its already-acquired Goldwyn Pictures Corporation) was purchased by early theater exhibitor Marcus Loew of Loew's Inc. In another acquisition, Loew merged his 'Metro-Goldwyn production company with Louis B. Mayer Pictures.</p> <p>So, in summary, MGM, first named Metro-Goldwyn Pictures, was ultimately formed in 1924 from the merger of three US film production companies: Metro Pictures Corporation (1916), Goldwyn Pictures Corporation (1917), and the Louis B. Mayer Pictures Company (1918); Irving Thalberg (nicknamed the 'boy wonder') was head of production at MGM from 1924 until his death in 1936; the famous MGM lion roar in the studio's opening logo was first recorded and viewed in a film in 1928; its greatest early successes were <i>The Big Parade</i> (1925), <i>Broadway Melody</i> (1929), <i>Grand Hotel</i> (1932), <i>Mutiny on the Bounty</i> (1935), <i>A Night at the Opera</i> (1935), <i>The Good Earth</i> (1937), <i>Gone With the Wind</i> (1939), <i>The Wizard of Oz</i> (1939), as well as <i>Tarzan</i> films, <i>Tom and Jerry</i> cartoons, and stars such as Clark Gable, Greta Garbo, and Spencer Tracy</p>	 <p>Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer</p>
<p>5.</p>	<p>Fox Film Corporation/Foundation, founded in 1912 by NY nickelodeon owner William Fox (originally a garment industry worker), was first known for Fox Movietone news and then B-westerns; its first film was <i>Life's Shop Window</i> (1914); it later became 20th-Century Fox, formed through the 1935 merger of 20th Century Pictures Company (founded in 1933 by Darryl F. Zanuck) and Fox; it became famous for Shirley Temple films in the mid-30s and Betty Grable musicals in the 40s.</p>  <p>20th-Century Fox</p>	 <p>Movietone Newsreels</p>   <p>20th Century Pictures</p>

The Big-Five studios had vast studios with elaborate sets for film production. They owned their own film-exhibiting theatres (about 50% of the seating capacity in the US in mostly *first-run* houses in major cities), as well as production and distribution facilities. They distributed their films to this network of

studio-owned, first-run theaters (or movie palaces), mostly in urban areas, which charged high ticket prices and drew huge audiences. They required *blind* or *block bookings* of films, whereby theatre owners were required to rent a block of films (often cheaply-made, less-desirable *B-pictures*) in order for the studio to agree to distribute the one prestige *A-level picture* that the theatre owner wanted to exhibit. This technique set the terms for a film's release and patterns of exhibition and guaranteed success for the studio's productions. [Monopolistic studio control lasted twenty years until the late 1940s, when a federal decree (in *U.S. vs. Paramount*) ordered the studios to divest their theatres, similar to the rulings against the MPPC - the Edison Trust.

Decline

Box office receipts held steady until late 1940s. Movies were especially popular during the war years (1941-1945). By 1946, some 90 million tickets were being sold weekly in US. Then, with extraordinary rapidity, a new medium came on the scene that was to have a devastating impact on motion pictures as a family entertainment industry. With the rise of television, the movies underwent a precipitous decline. By 1970 only about 15 million tickets were being sold during an average week. To try to draw patrons back to the theatres, movie makers turned to a variety of gimmicks and innovations. They tried increasing the use of colour, escalating levels of violence, increasingly explicit sexual portrayals, horror themes, spectacular special effects, space fantasies, and even an occasional three-dimensional production. To a very limited extent those efforts helped. In 1982, average weekly ticket sales rose to more than 22 million.

Films in sub-continent

The Lumière Brothers of France exhibited their short films in December 1895 at Grande Cafe, Paris. The following year, they brought the show to India and held its premiere at the Watson Hotel in Bombay on 7 July 1896. It was a package of 6 films viz, Entry of cinematograph, Arrival of the train, The sea bath, A demolition, Leaving the factory and Ladies and Soldiers on wheels. From 18 July 1896, films were released at the Novelty Theatre on a regular basis. Entrance tickets ranged from four annas to one rupee.

Raja Harishchandra (1913) was the first silent feature film made in subcontinent. It was made by Dadasaheb Phalke. By the 1930s, the industry was producing over 200 films per annum. The first Indian sound film, Ardeshir Irani's Alam Ara (1931), was a super hit. There was clearly a huge market for talkies and musicals; Bollywood and all the regional film industries quickly switched to sound filming.

The 1930s and 1940s were tumultuous times: like the whole world the subcontinent was rocked by the Great Depression, World War II, the Indian independence movement, and the violence of the Partition. There were a number of filmmakers who tackled tough social issues, or used the struggle for independence as a backdrop for their plots. In late 1950s, Bollywood films moved from black-and-white to colour. Lavish romantic musicals and melodramas were the staple fare at the cinema. Successful actors included Dev Anand, Dilip Kumar and Raj Kapoor.

Controversies

Accusations of plagiarism

Constrained by rushed production schedules and small budgets, some writers and musicians have been known to resort to plagiarism. They copy ideas, plot lines, tunes from sources Hollywood and other Western movies, Western pop hits).

In past times, this could be done with impunity. Copyright enforcement was lax here. As for the Western sources, the film industry was largely unknown to Westerners, who would not even be aware that their material was being copied. Audiences also may not have been aware of the plagiarism, since many in the Indian audience were unfamiliar with Western films and tunes.

While copyright enforcements are more familiar with foreign movies and music, flagrant plagiarism may have diminished -- however, there is no general agreement that it has.

First local film showings

Raja Harish Chandra

Director Dada Saheb Phalke made a studio in Dadar Main Road, wrote the scenario, erected the set and started shooting for his first venture Raja Harishchandra in 1912. The first full-length story film of Phalke was completed in 1912 and released at the Coronation cinema on April 21, 1913, for special invitees and members of the Press. The film was widely acclaimed by one and all and proved to be a great success.

South subcontinent

The first film in Southern India was made in 1916 by R Nataraja Mudaliar- Keechaka Vadham. As the title indicates the subject is again a mythological from the Mahabharata. Another film made in Madras - Valli Thiru-Manam (1921) by Whittaker drew critical acclaim and box office success.

In **Bengal**, a region rich in culture and intellectual activity, the first Bengali feature film in 1917, was remake of Phalke's Raja Harishchandra. Titled Satyawadi Raja Harishchandra, it was directed by Rustomjee Dotiwala. Less prolific than Bombay based film industry, around 122 feature films were made in Calcutta in the Silent Era.

The first feature film in **Tamil**, also the first in entire South India, Keechakavatham was made during 1916-17, directed by Nataraja Mudaliar.

Calcutta film Industry

Madan Theatres of Calcutta produced Shirin Farhad and Laila Majnu (1931) well composed and recorded musicals. Both films replete with songs had a tremendous impact on the audience and can be said to have established the unshakeable hold of songs on our films. Chandidas (1932, Bengali), the story of a Vaishnavite poet-priest who falls in love with a low caste washerwoman and defies convention, was a super-hit. P C Barua produced Devdas (1935) based on Saratchandra Chatterjee's famous story about frustrated love, influenced a generation of viewers and filmmakers.

Cinema Starts Talking

In the early thirties, the silent Indian cinema began to talk, sing and dance. Alam Ara produced by Ardeshir Irani, released on March 14, 1931 was the first Indian cinema with a sound track.

Mumbai became the hub of the Indian film industry having a number of self-contained production units. The thirties saw hits like Madhuri (1932), Indira, M A (1934), Anarkali (1935), Miss Frontier Mail (1936), and Punjab Mail (1939).

Ardeshir Irani's *Kisan Kanya* (1937) was **the first color** film. Sohrab Modi's Jhansi Ki Rani (1953) was the first **Techni-color** film shot in India.

PAKISTAN film history from 1896-1947

Pakistan shared its film history with India (Bharat) from 1896 to 1947. Lahore produced many films and a big number of Pakistani artists debuted in this period.

The first silent film from Lahore was **The Daughter of Today** released in **1924** and the inaugural **Punjabi or talkie** film from Lahore was **Heer Ranjha** in **1932**. (Alam Ara was released in 1931, which means Lahore was going as fast and one top film-home after Bombay in the subcontinent.

After partition – 1948

Inaugural Pakistani film.

Teri Yaad (Urdu)

Teri Yaad became the first ever released film but not the first film production in Pakistan. It was completed in a record time. Lahore was the third biggest film center in sub-continent - after Bombay and

Calcutta - and there were many films under production in 1947. It was released in Lahore on August 7th, 1948.

Pheray

First Silver Jubilee Punjabi Film.

The first ever Punjabi and the sixth film in the list of released Pakistani films celebrated a great success in cinemas. Veteran Producer and Director Nazir got the honour to become the first Silver Jubilee film maker. He was also the only choice as hero in 1949.

Pakistan's first ever produced Punjabi film **Pheray** was a re-make of Nazir's Indian Urdu/Hindi film "*Gaon ki Gori*" (1945). It was a big musical hit and the Music Director G. A. Chishti wrote, composed and recorded six songs of this film in a single day! Chishti was also the most productive Music Director in the first 25 years of Pakistan.

Functions of Films

For the people who make films, the medium provides an avenue for expression and an opportunity to practice a complex craft. It is also a means to wealth for some or simply a livelihood for others. The end product may be frivolous and diverting; it may provide information or training; it may make a social or political statement; it may have important aesthetic qualities. Thus it may seek to amuse by providing diversion and enjoyment, to educate as many documentaries do; to influence, as in the case of wartime propaganda films; or to enrich our cultural experiences. Most often a film will have combined functions, seeking to amuse while it also enriches, informs or persuades. For the audience the film may be an escape and an engaging lesson in history, morality or human relationships. For their producers, films are a source of profit. For directors and actors films can be a means of supporting artistic values, whereas for writers, films may be a way of raising consciousness about social causes.

Film's function is of course partly in the eye of the beholder. Most people consider vintage Walt Disney family films to be wholesome entertainment; but others interpret them as rigid ideological statements that praise an unrealistic image of America, showing artificial WASP communities devoid of social problems.

It is safe to say however that the main function of American films has been, throughout their history to entertain. In one very important respect movies differ from print and broadcast media. We refer not to their mechanical aspect but to the traditional functions inherent in their origins. The origins of magazines and newspapers were related to the functions of providing information and influencing opinions. But films grew from the traditions of both theater and popular amusements. These traditions had far less to do with transmitting information and opinion. Their central focus was always on entertainment. Films then continue those traditions and their principal function has always been to take their viewers away from the pressing issues and mundane details of everyday life, rather than to focus their attention on them.

NEW MEDIA

New media refers to forms of human and media communication that have been transformed by the creative use of technology to fulfill the basic social need to interact and transact. It is the marriage of technology, communication and design. Making or developing ideas that may take the form of future technology.

New Media is anything that is technologically on the cutting edge. This includes everything that deals with technology from iPhones, to mash ups, and real time gaming.

Although the technologies for new media have been in existence for decades, it is only in recent years that these technologies have become intuitive enough non-experts to use. Improved usability, coupled with innovative uses of new media, have resulted in its increased popularity. The new media buzz is also fed by spirals of new media innovations.

Some New Media advantages are:

- No longer must anyone who wants to individually communicate a unique message to each recipient be restricted to communicating with only one person at a time.

- No longer must anyone who wants to communicate simultaneous messages to a mass of recipients be unable to individualize the content of the message for each recipient.

What counts as new media is often debated, and is dependent on the definitions used. However, there are a few that have been widely accepted as forms of New Media. The following are fairly firmly established as part of the remit of at least some companies that claim to deal in new media:

- Video games and virtual worlds as they impact marketing and public relations.
- Multimedia CD-ROMs
- Software
- Web sites including brochureware
- blogs and wikis
- Email and attachments
- Electronic kiosks
- Interactive television
- Mobile devices
- Podcasting
- Hypertext fiction
- Mashup (web application hybrid)
- Graphical User Interfaces

Old media and new media

The distinction between "new media" and old media is not distinct. From 1995 to 2004, old media started to expand into producing new media, thus blurring the boundaries between the two. Much old media content was re-purposed in a new digital format, but with little substantial change, but 'old media' producers are now starting to make content specifically for new media audiences. In a sense, the oldest media have never died, but the tools we've used have. Recorded sound is content of artistic expression, CDs and records are merely delivery technologies: media to deliver the content.

The term 'new media' gained popular currency in the mid 1990s as part of a marketing pitch for the proliferation of interactive educational and entertainment CD-ROMs. One of the key features of this early new media was the implication that corporations, not individual creators, would control copyright. The term then became far more widely used as the mass consumer internet began to emerge from 1995 onwards. The term 'new media' can be traced back to the 70s when it was described more as an impact on cultural studies of different aspects such as economic as well as social, it is only within the last 15 years that the term has taken on a more advanced meaning.

Using the terms "New Media" and "Old Media" is not always clear. To the people living technologically advanced areas like the US or Japan, new media becomes old media fast. When it comes to third world countries and smaller underdeveloped countries, our old media is new media to them.

New media industry

The new media industry shares a close association with many market segments in areas such as software/video game design, television, radio, and particularly advertising and marketing, which seeks to gain from the advantages of two-way dialogue with consumers primarily through the internet. The advertising industry has capitalized the proliferation of new media with large agencies running multi-million dollar interactive advertising subsidiaries. In a number of cases advertising agencies have also set up new divisions to study new media.

Within the advertising business there is a blurring of the distinction between creative (content) and the media (the delivery of this content). Now media itself is considered to be creative and the medium has indeed become the message.

In 1999 a Newsweek cover story featured the 20 "New Stars of the New Media." The magazine claimed a handful of newpreneurs were "changing the way Americans get their news."

Origins

New media can be seen to be a convergence between the history of two separate technologies: media and computing. These technologies both began back in the 1830s with Daguerre's daguerreotype and Babbage's Analytical Engine.

Computers (for performing calculations) and modern media technologies (e.g. celluloid film, photographic plates, gramophone records) started to become inter-connected during the 20th Century and these trajectories began to converge by the translation of existing media into binary information to be stored digitally on computers.

Therefore, new media can now be defined as "graphics, moving images, sounds, shapes, spaces, and texts that have become computable; that is, they comprise simply another set of computer data."

New media not only be defined by things you can see such as graphics, moving images, shapes, texts, and such. It is also things that can not be seen, such a WIFI connection. It is a concept, no one can see the waves in the air floating through the air. We can not forget that New media is also concept based while also being a solid object.

21st Century Media

Two significant but contrasting events heralded the beginning of 21st century media.

10th January 2000: "AOL and Time Warner merger". Two media giants from different media backgrounds: AOL (internet based) and Time Warner (print, film, television, radio). Overnight they became a bigger entity than Coca Cola or Brazil.

This is important because it demonstrates that the 21st century began with the old media conglomerates becoming larger and serving the world its media from once source, but through more avenues.

It is also significant because the Internet was at its centre. AOL bought Time Warner not the other way around.

30th November 1999: (WTO Ministerial Conference of 1999 protest activity)

N30 was the launch of a new millennial round of trade negotiations, quickly overshadowed by massive and controversial street protests outside the hotels and the Seattle Convention Center, in what became the second phase of the anti-globalization movement in the United States.

The significant part for the media was not however the WTO meeting but the protest activities and the way they used the internet to organise, publicise and mobilise their actions. The entire event was coordinated online through the emerging "Independent Media Center"

At the same time as media corporations are merging, expanding and becoming more transcendent, the people are deciding that in the 21st century the news is too important to be left to the media. Lawrence Lessig states that this 21st century media balance is the opening up of a new kind of free media (not financially, but democratically free) against the media giants who have ownership over all the current forms of media.

New Media in the Business World

In the business world, New Media Technology work along each company to strategize branding and co-branding, assemble press release campaigns, provide and optimize one-of-a-kind quality content, create text-linking opportunities and result in advanced rankings on the search engines.

New Media Panics

The term 'moral panic' can be defined as an occurrence which is categorized by a stylized and stereotypical representation by the mass media, which in return develops a threat to societal values and interests (Cohen, 2004)

One form of media that is causing a wide world panic, is the use of the Internet. The Internet is a growing source of information that can be widely accessed from many points all across the world. It is this sense of easy accessibility and its varied exposure of topics that has caused many types of moral panics within society.

Moral Panics within the Internet evolved from concern that pornography was being widely exposed to children. Pornography is one central issue that is created out of moral panics and the use of the Internet. Traditionally, the Internet was used by scientists, academics and engineers to send emails and share information. Today, the internet is used not only for these things, but is used for the downloading of music, the forming of virtual communities, and the establishment of news groups. With this in mind, there continues to be this contradiction of the internet's original purpose, in comparison with its current perceived purpose, in which anyone can use and gain information from the Internet (2004)

This issue of indecent exposure to users brings on the moral panic concern of behaviours. This can be associated both with children and adults. The information content that is apparent on Internet sites is seen to change the behavioral patterns of those who participate, whether it is with online games, or through chat rooms. It can promote psychiatric problems, homicide, and even suicide (Miller, 2002)

Constant usage of the Internet has also created a moral panic within society. The Internet seems to involve people within its cyberspace, creating an online identity for the user. However, it also decreases the user's physical identity amongst their families, peers and co-workers. People tend to become isolated from the rest of the world as they continue to live in a fantasy of unreal identities. This is causing concern within society as people are thought to lose their sense of reality, interaction, and their personal identity.

There are many communities that are developed out of the Internet that can cause concern for a moral panic within society. The Internet is being used as a medium for such groups to be able to achieve successful and easy communication. Being able to be part of an online community may seem harmless, however, it can still be used as an opportunity for those negative groups who want to secretly plan and plot desired tasks. This can include communities who create bombs, start riots or protests, or even those who develop viruses to send to computers. This may not be a major concern at this present time, but these types of communities do exist within cyberspace society, and can affect people's behaviours and actions.

The politics of moral panics and the Internet involves the idea of censorship. Within schools, sites can be banned from being accessed by students, mostly pornographic sites. While this may reduce some panic within society, it does not fully decrease the exposure and accessibility of negative websites to children or adults. Users can still locate such sites as there is no constant monitoring within schools or at home, this proving that children and adults can still be exposed to the many types of unwanted information (2004)

There is a negative future for the Internet if society keeps allowing itself to be taken over by this sense of a moral panic. Governments, businesses, schools and families can possibly desert the Internet, and find other possible alternatives. There continues to be the preference for networks that are clearly signed and free from hostile, threatening or unpleasant material or activities. (Thompson, 1998, p.138)

Moral panics and the Internet is just one issue concerning the new media technology industry. It is important to understand this issue as it can affect not only yourself, but your loved ones. The internet can change behaviours, introduce innocents to new and dangerous ideas, all the while starting an upright panic within society. Associated issues include Video Games, Virtual Communities, Computer Technology and Children, and Online Censorship.

The information content that is apparent on Internet sites is seen to change the behavioural patterns of those who participate, especially in concern with children. There is the issue of indecent exposure in regards to online games, chat rooms, and information content on the Internet. All these issues are creating a moral panic within society. However, is it really the Internet that is to blame, or more the lack of parental guidance and support with children?

Much of the present concern about the Internet centres on the perceived risks posed to children, through exposure to undesirable or controversial on-line content (Spalding, Gilding, & Patrick, 1996, p.14). It is this factor that is putting an increasing amount of blame onto the Internet, as the source of corruption amongst teenagers and children (Wilkins, 1997). With the Internet containing much information on a

variety of topics, it is no wonder that the Internet is receiving much designated blame on the corruption of children. One of these topics that is causing great concern is the widely held belief that pornography is easily accessible to all children who are using the Internet (Wilkins, 1997)

Another issue that has caused fear amongst society is the retrievance of instructions on how to make bombs from the Internet. With further research, one will find that the source for obtaining this information comes from a book published in 1971 *The Anarchists Cookbook* (2004). While information on creating bombs was around long before the introduction of the World Wild Web, people are tending to blame the Internet for their children's behaviours just because the information is more easily accessible. So the question that needs to be asked is the Internet really causing a panic within society in regards to the safety and well being of children, or is it just the sharp reality that parents need to be more aware of their children's actions?

Internet pornography

Internet pornography and its accessibility to children has been perhaps the longest-running moral panic of recent times (Grayson, 2004). It is this widely held belief that has caused great concern within society.

Cyber-porn is a real threat to families and has quickly become an alarming issue for parents who want to protect their children. Any child who clicks on a home computer can see lurid images of loveless sex, sexual positions, and rape (1995)

Other lurid images that can be found on the Internet include pedophilia, bondage, sadomasochism, urination, defecation, and sex acts with barnyard animals (1995). This sums up the type of pornography that is being exposed to users of the Internet.

The introduction of *the Protection of Children from Computer Pornography Act of 1995* has minimized some aspects of pornography on the Internet; however, not all viewers are safe from this exposure. Pop-ups for all sorts of sexual acts and favours still do exist and are uncovered for all to see, even without purposely looking for it.

While there may be a lot of pornographic content available on the Internet that people of all ages can access, there is one reason that may put a concerned parents mind at ease in regards to this issue. This has to do with the fact that many people are not willing to go to the trouble and expense of putting pornography up on the Internet and then just let anybody have access to it without some kind of compensation (2004). Like every other business, money is the driving force behind those people who display and post pornographic sites. There is no reason to provide free entertainment, especially if there are no beneficial aspects.

So while action has taken place in order to minimize pornographic images and websites, there will always be the notion that pornography does exist within a virtual reality, and that it can still be easily accessed.

MAJOR MEDIA ORGANIZATIONS OF THE WORLD & GLOBALIZATION**Newspapers And Magazines****Audit Bureau of Circulations (ABC)**

The Audit Bureau of Circulations is one of the several organizations of the same name operating in different parts of the world. It audits circulation, readership, and audience information for the magazines, newspapers, and other publications produced by its members.

The majority of Bureaus are members of the International Federation of Audit Bureau of Circulations. The Audit Bureau of Circulations is similar to BPA Worldwide.

The Audit Bureau of Circulations (ABC) of North America is the world's first and largest not-for-profit circulation-auditing organization. ABC is a forum of the world's leading magazine and newspaper publishers, advertisers and advertising agencies. As a non-profit association, ABC is funded by dues and service fees by advertisers, advertising agencies and publishers.

ABC provides credible, verified information critical to the media buying and selling process by conducting independent, third-party audits of print circulation, readership and Web site activity. ABC also maintains the world's foremost electronic database of audited circulation and readership media.

Membership

Membership in ABC provides publishers, advertisers and advertising agencies with an industry forum to collaborate and discuss current market issues and the rules that govern them, information critical to the media buying and selling process. Membership is open to all publishers, advertisers and advertising agencies. Additionally, any individual, firm or corporation who requires access to circulation data may apply for an associate membership.

World's Biggest Newspaper

Yomiuri Shimbun of Japan is the biggest newspaper of the world. Reporters for Yomiuri Shimbun travel in the style that newspapermen elsewhere only think they should: in chauffeur-driven limousines adorned with the newspaper's red-and-white corporate flag. If a chauffeur exceeds the speed limit, no policeman is likely to issue a ticket; instead, a deferential officer may call out, "Yomiurisan, please take pains to slow down. Many thanks."

The paper also operates Japan's foremost professional baseball team, the Yomiuri Giants, founded in 1934 as a circulation gimmick; a 150-acre amusement park called Yomiuriland; a symphony orchestra that has been conducted by Zubin Mehta and Mstislav Rostropovich; and periodic exhibits of paintings by such artists as Renoir and Van Gogh. Probably no other newspaper anywhere operates on so grand a scale or plays so varied a role in its nation. But then, Yomiuri Shimbun is not just Japan's biggest newspaper, it is the world's biggest newspaper. Its still growing morning and evening circulation of 13.6 million (including a 30,000-copy daily edition in English) is bigger than that of the 17 largest U.S. dailies put together. Yomiuri operates 436 bureaus in Japan and 28 in the rest of the world. Its editorial staff of 3,059, quadruple that of the New York Times, produces a daily paper of 24 to 32 pages with numerous updated and regional editions. The paper reaches 38% of Japan's 34 million households, almost all by home delivery. More than 60% of the subscribers buy both morning and evening editions (joint price: about \$11 a month).

The Japanese newspaper field includes four other giants: Asahi Shimbun (circ. 12.1 million), which is Yomiuri's longtime rival; Mainichi (circ. 6.9 million); Sankei (circ. 3.1 million); and the business-oriented Nihon Keizai, or "Nikkei" (circ. 3 million). Though the 119 million Japanese are known as a TV-obsessed society, they buy 68 million copies of 125 daily newspapers, making them perhaps the world's most devoted newspaper readers.

The major newspapers, especially Yomiuri Shimbun, consider themselves independent from political figures, and advertisers: only 40% of Yomiuri's revenues come from advertising, vs. up to 70% for big U.S. papers. Most of Yomiuri's top officers are former reporters or editors.

World Association of Newspapers

The World Association of Newspapers (WAN) is a non-profit, non-governmental organization made up of 76 national newspaper associations, 12 news agencies, 10 regional press organizations and individual newspaper executives in 100 countries.

Founded in 1948, the association represents more than 18,000 publications on five continents. Its main objectives are to:

- Defend and promote press freedom and the economic independence of newspapers as an essential condition for that freedom.
- Support the development of newspaper publishing around the world by fostering communications and contacts between newspaper executives from different regions and cultures.
- Promote co-operation between its member organizations, whether national, regional or worldwide.

In pursuit of these objectives, the World Association of Newspapers:

- Represents the newspaper industry in all international discussions on media issues, to defend both press freedom and the professional and business interests of the press.
- Promotes a world-wide exchange of information and ideas on producing better and more profitable newspapers.
- Opposes restrictions of all kinds on the free flow of information, on the circulation of newspapers and on advertising.
- Campaigns vigorously against press freedom violations and obstacles.
- helps newspapers in developing countries, through training and other co-operation projects;
- Channels legal, material and humanitarian aid to victimized publishers and journalists.

WAN is a member of the International Freedom of Expression Exchange, a global network of non-governmental organizations that monitors free expression violations worldwide and defends journalists, writers, internet users and others who are persecuted for exercising their right to freedom of expression.

The World Association of Newspapers has formal consultative status to represent the newspaper industry at UNESCO, the United Nations and the Council of Europe.

WAN administers the Golden Pen of Freedom Award, a prestigious prize that honours a journalist or media organization anywhere in the world that has made an outstanding contribution to the defense and promotion of press freedom.

Circulation of Newspapers

Newspaper's circulation is the number of copies it distributes on an average day, although circulation rates are decreasing. It is one of the principal factors used to set advertising rates. Circulation is not always the same as copies sold, often called paid circulation, since some newspapers are distributed without cost to the reader. Readership figures are usually higher than circulation figures because of the assumption that a typical copy of the newspaper is read by more than one person.

In many countries, circulations are audited by independent bodies such as the **Audit Bureau of Circulations** to assure advertisers that a given newspaper does indeed reach the number of people claimed by the publisher.

World newspapers with the largest circulation

The World Association of Newspapers (WAN) publishes a list of newspapers with the largest circulation. In 2005, China topped the list in term of total newspaper circulation with 93.5 million a day, India came second with 78.8 million, followed by Japan, with 70.4 million; the United States, with 48.3 million; and Germany, with 22.1 million. Around 75% of the 100 best selling newspapers are in Asia and seven out of top ten are Japanese newspapers.

The Japanese Yomiuri Shimbun, Asahi Shimbun, and Mainichi Shimbun are still the best-selling newspapers in the world. Germany's Bild became the only entry in the top ten from outside of Asia. Cankao Xiaoxi is the most popular paper in China. The highest selling from the United States is USA Today, which is 13th in the world.

Individual countries**Russia**

According to the Guinness Book of Records, the daily circulation of the Soviet newspaper Trud exceeded 21,500,000 in 1990, while the Soviet weekly Argumenty i fakty boasted the circulation of 33,500,000 in 1991.

India

The 2006 National Readership Survey findings show the largest read local language newspapers to be Dainik Jagran (with 21.2 million readers) and Rajasthan Patrika manoj(with 21.0 million readers), both published in Hindi. The Times of India is the most widely read English language newspaper (7.9 million), followed by The Hindu (4.05 million), and Hindustan Times (3.85 million).

Japan

The 2004 circulation figures for the morning editions of Japan's five largest newspapers: Yomiuri Shimbun, 10,077,410; The Asahi Shimbun 8,284,513; Mainichi Shimbun, 3,957,410; Nihon Keizai Shimbun, 3,009,253; Sankei Shimbun, 2,086,391.

United Kingdom

Best-selling papers as of July 2, 2006, according to the Audit Bureau of Circulations, [3] are News of the World, 3,471,415; The Sun, 3,148,700 and The Daily Mail, 2,340,255.

United States

The heyday of the newspaper industry was the 1940s, but the percentage of Americans reading newspapers began to decline with the increased competition from radio and television. A growing population helped the absolute circulation numbers continue to increase until the 1970s, where it remained stable until the 1990s, when absolute circulation numbers began declining.

Newspaper circulation numbers are reported to the Audit Bureau of Circulations. Best-selling papers as of September 30, 2006 in the U.S.A., according to the Audit Bureau of Circulations, are USA Today, 2,549,695; The Wall Street Journal, 2,074,127 and The New York Times, 1,623,697.

Canada

The most widely read paper in the country is the Toronto Star, which, as of the six-month period ending on March 31, 2006, averaged 640,367 copies sold on Saturday, 435,650 Monday to Friday, and 439,982 on Sunday. The second most widely read paper is Toronto-based national newspaper The Globe and Mail, which averaged 410,266 copies on Saturdays, and 320,835 Monday to Friday. The most widely read French-language newspaper is Le Journal de Montréal, which averaged 314,575 copies on Saturday, 266,835 Monday to Friday, and 261,375 on Sunday. It should be noted that unlike in the United States, newspapers in Canada published their biggest and mostly widely read editions on Saturdays, and that most papers don't publish on Sundays.

Magazine circulation

A magazine's circulation is the number of copies it distributes of an average issue, be that weekly, monthly or at some other frequency of publication. It is one of the principal factors used to set advertising rates.

Circulation is not always the same as copies sold, often called paid circulation, since many magazines, especially those dealing with business and professional topics, are distributed without cost to the reader. Readership figures are usually higher than circulation figures because of the assumption that a typical copy of the magazine is read by more than one person.

In many countries, circulations are audited by independent bodies such as the Audit Bureau of Circulations to assure advertisers that a given magazine does indeed reach the number of people claimed by the publisher.

Broadcasting Corporations (Radio & TV Channels And Corporations)**Some major broadcasting corporations all over the world are:**

ABC (American Broadcasting Company)
 AOL
 ABC (Australian Broadcasting Corporation)
 BBC
 CBC
 CBS
 CNN
 CPB
 PBS
 News Corporation
 NBC
 Time Warner
 Viacom

British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)

The British Broadcasting Corporation, which is usually known as the BBC, is the largest broadcasting corporation in the world in terms of audience numbers and of revenue. It has 26,000 employees in the United Kingdom alone and a budget of more than GBP£4 billion.

Founded on October 18th, 1922 as the British Broadcasting Company Ltd, it was subsequently granted a Royal Charter and made a state-owned corporation in 1927. The corporation produces programmes and information services, broadcasting globally on television, radio, and the Internet. The stated mission of the BBC is "to inform, educate and entertain"; its motto is "Nation Shall Speak Peace unto Nation".

The BBC is a quasi-autonomous Public Corporation operating as a public service broadcaster. The Corporation is run by the BBC Trust; however, the BBC is, per its charter, to be "free from both political and commercial influence and answers only to its viewers and listeners".

Its domestic programming and broadcasts are primarily funded by levying television license fees (under the Wireless Telegraphy Act 1949), although money is also raised through commercial activities such as sale of merchandise and programming — the BBC World Service, however, is funded through a grant-in-aid by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office. In order to justify the license fee, the BBC is expected to produce a number of high-rating shows in addition to programmes that commercial broadcasters would not normally broadcast.

Competition to the BBC was introduced in 1955 with the commercially and independently operated television network ITV. The BBC monopoly on radio services persisted until the 1970s. As a result of the Pilkington Committee report of 1962, in which the BBC was lauded and ITV was very heavily criticized

for not providing enough quality programming, the BBC was awarded a second TV channel, BBC2, in 1964, renaming the existing channel BBC1.

Voice of America (VOA)

Voice of America (VOA), is the official external radio and television broadcasting service of the United States federal government. Its oversight entity is the Broadcasting Board of Governors (BBG).

VOA broadcasts by satellite and on FM, AM and shortwave radio frequencies. Its programs are also available through the Internet in both streaming media and downloadable formats. VOA has affiliate and contract agreements with many radio and television stations and cable networks worldwide.

The Voice of America currently broadcasts in 46 languages. The number of languages broadcast and the number of hours broadcast in each language vary according to the priorities of the United States Government and the world situation. In 2001, according to an International Broadcasting Bureau (IBB) fact sheet, VOA broadcast in 53 languages with 12 televised.

VOA began broadcasting on February 24, 1942. In 1952, the Voice of America installed a studio and relay facility aboard a converted U.S. Coast Guard cutter renamed Courier whose target audience was Russia and its allies. During the Cold War, the U.S. government placed VOA under the U.S. Information Agency to transmit worldwide, including to the countries behind the Iron Curtain and to the People's Republic of China (PRC). In the 1980s, the USIA established the WORLDNET satellite television service, and in 2004 WORLDNET was merged into VOA.

In 1994, the Voice of America became the first broadcast-news organization to offer continuously updated programs on the Internet. Content in English and 44 other languages is currently available online through a distributed network of commercial providers, using more than 20,000 servers across 71 countries. Since many listeners in Africa and other areas still receive much of their information via radio and have only limited access to computers, VOA continues to maintain regular shortwave-radio broadcasts.

Urdu Service

The Voice of America program *Beyond the Headlines* is telecast in Pakistan by GEO TV, VOA's affiliate and one of the country's most popular stations. This half-hour program features reports on politics, social issues, science, sports, culture, entertainment and other issues of interest to Pakistanis.

Two-Source Rule

An internal policy of VOA News to build reliability is that any story broadcast must have two independently corroborating sources or have a staff correspondent actually witnessing an event, according to former VOA correspondent Alan Heil. This rule was confirmed by Ted Iliff, Associate Director for Central Programming for VOA.

American Broadcasting Company

The American Broadcasting Company (ABC) operates a television network in the United States and is also shown on basic cable in Canada. Created in 1943 from the former NBC Blue radio network, ABC is owned by The Walt Disney Company and is part of Disney-ABC Television Group. It first broadcast on television in 1948.

From the organization of the first true radio networks in the late 1940s, broadcasting in the United States was dominated by two companies, CBS and RCA's NBC. Prior to NBC's 1926 formation, RCA had acquired AT&T's New York station WEAf (later WNBC, now WFAN).

Faced with huge expenses in building a radio network, ABC was in no position to take on the additional costs demanded by a television network. To secure a place at the table, though, in 1947, ABC submitted requests for licenses in the five cities where it owned radio stations. All five requests were for each station to broadcast on channel 7; ABC executives thought at the time that the low-band (channels 2 through 6) TV channels would be discontinued, thus making these five stations broadcasting on VHF channel 7 the

lowest on the TV dial and therefore the best channel positions. (Such a move never occurred in the analog era; though with the poor digital TV performance of low-band channels it could conceivably happen in the future, DTV's use of logical channel numbers will protect the lower dial positions.)

On April 19, 1948, the ABC television network went on the air. Interestingly, the network picked up its first affiliate, WFIL-TV in Philadelphia (now WPVI-TV) before its first owned and operated station ("O&O"), WJZ-TV in New York (now WABC-TV) signed on in August.

For the next several years, ABC was a television network mostly in name. Except for the largest markets, most cities had only one or two stations. The FCC froze applications for new stations in 1948 while it sorted out the thousands of applicants, and re-thought the technical and allocation standards set down in 1938. What was meant to be a six-month freeze lasted until 1952, and until that time there were only 101 stations in the United States. For a late-comer like ABC, this meant being relegated to secondary status in many markets. ABC commanded little affiliate loyalty, though unlike fellow startup network DuMont, it at least had a radio network on which to draw loyalty and revenue. It also had a full complement of five O&Os, which included stations in the critical Chicago (WENR-TV, now WLS-TV) and Los Angeles (KECA-TV, now KABC-TV) markets. Even then, by 1951 ABC found itself badly overextended and on the verge of bankruptcy. It had only nine full-time affiliates to augment its five O&Os --WJZ, WENR, KECA, WXYZ-TV in Detroit and KGO-TV in San Francisco.

In 1955, ABC started a record label division, ABC-Paramount Records, which later became ABC Records in 1965.

During the period of the 1960s, ABC founded an in-house production unit, ABC Films, to create new material especially for the network. Shortly after the death of producer David O. Selznick, ABC acquired the rights to a considerable amount of the Selznick theatrical film library, including *Rebecca* and *Portrait of Jennie* (but not including *Gone with the Wind*, which Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer had acquired outright in the 1940s).

ABC acquired majority control of the fast-growing ESPN sports network in 1984. ABC's dominance carried into the early 1980s. But by 1985, veteran shows like *The Love Boat* and *Benson* had run their courses, while Silverman-era hits like *Three's Company* and *Laverne & Shirley* were gone. As a resurgent NBC was leading in the ratings, ABC shifted its focus to such situation comedies as *Webster*, *Mr. Belvedere*, *Growing Pains*, and *Perfect Strangers*. During this period, While the network enjoyed huge ratings with shows like *Dynasty*, *Who's The Boss?*, and *Hotel*, ABC seemed to have lost the momentum that once propelled it in the 1970s; there was little offered that was innovative or compelling.

In 1996, The Walt Disney Company acquired Capital Cities/ABC, and renamed the broadcasting group ABC, Inc., although the network continues to also use American Broadcasting Companies, such as on TV productions it owns.

ABC's relationship with Disney dates back to 1953, when Leonard Goldenson pledged enough money so that the "Disneyland" theme park could be completed. ABC continued to hold Disney notes and stock until 1960, and also had first call on the "Disneyland" television series in 1954. With this new relationship came an attempt at cross-promotion, with attractions based on ABC shows at Disney parks and an annual soap festival at Walt Disney World.

ABC is currently the United States' second-most watched network, with help from shows *Desperate Housewives*, *Grey's Anatomy*, and *Lost* and its not just popular and watched in US but is also very famous in various parts of the world..

Borrowing a Disney formula, there have been attempts to broaden the ABC brand name. In 2004, ABC launched a news channel called ABC News Now. Its aim is to provide round-the-clock news on over-the-air digital TV, cable TV, the Internet, and mobile phones.

With the Disney merger, Touchstone Television began to produce the bulk of ABC's primetime series. This culminated in the studio's name change to ABC Studios in 2007, as part of a Disney strategy to focus on the 3 "core brands": ABC, Disney, and ESPN. Buena Vista Television, the studio's syndication arm also changed their name, to Disney-ABC Domestic Television.

In 2007, ABC unveiled their new imaging campaign, revolving around the slogan ABC: Start Here, which signifies the network's news content and entertainment programming being accessible through not only television, but also the Internet, portable media devices, podcasting, and mobile device-specific content from the network.

While many of ABC's radio stations and network programs remain strong revenue producers, growth in the radio industry began to slow dramatically after the dot-com boom of the early 2000s and the consolidation that followed the Telecommunications Act of 1996. In 2005, Disney CEO Bob Iger sought to sell the ABC Radio division, having declared it a "non-core asset." On February 6, 2006, Disney announced ABC Radio would be spun off and merged with Citadel Broadcasting Corporation, to form a new company named Citadel Communications. In March 2007 the Federal Communications Commission approved the transfer of ABC's 24 radio station licenses to Citadel; the merger closed on June 12, 2007 after seeking FCC approval. ABC News – a unit of the ABC Television Network – will continue producing ABC News Radio, which Citadel has agreed to distribute for at least ten years.

With the sale of ABC Radio, ABC becomes the second heritage American television network to sell its original radio properties. NBC sold its radio division to Westwood One in 1987. CBS is now the only broadcast television network with its original radio link, though both Fox News and CNN have a significant radio presence.

ABC presently operates on a 92½-hour regular network programming schedule. It provides 22 hours of prime time programming to affiliated stations: 8-11pm Monday to Saturday (all times ET/PT) and 7-11pm on Sundays.

In addition, sports programming is also provided weekend afternoons any time from 12-6pm (all times ET/PT).

Columbia Broadcasting Service

CBS Broadcasting, Inc. (CBS) is one of the largest radio and television networks in the United States. The name is derived from the initialism of Columbia Broadcasting System, its former legal name. The network is sometimes referred to as the Tiffany Network, which alludes to the perceived quality of CBS programming during the tenure of its founder William S. Paley. It can also refer to some of CBS's first demonstrations of color television, which were held in a former Tiffany & Co. building in New York City in 1950.

The network has its origins in United Independent Broadcasters Inc., a collection of 16 radio stations that was bought by William S. Paley in 1928 and renamed the Columbia Broadcasting System. Under Paley's guidance, CBS would first become one of the largest radio networks in the United States and then one of the big three American broadcast television networks. In 1974, CBS dropped its full name and became known simply as CBS, Inc. The Westinghouse Electric Corporation acquired the network in 1995 and eventually adopted the name of the company it had bought to become CBS Corporation. In 2000, CBS came under the control of Viacom, which coincidentally had begun as a spin-off of CBS in 1971. In late 2005, Viacom split itself and reestablished CBS Corporation with the CBS television network at its core. CBS Corporation and the new Viacom are controlled by Sumner Redstone through National Amusements, the parent of the two companies.

CBS moved at a deliberate pace into television; as late as 1950 it owned only one station; radio continued to be the backbone of the company. Gradually, as the television network took shape, big radio stars began to drift to television. When CBS announced in 1956 that its radio operations had lost money, while the television network had made money, it was clear where the future lie. When the soap opera *Ma Perkins* went off the air November 25, 1960 only eight, relatively minor series remained. Prime-time radio ended on September 30, 1962 when, the legendary *Suspense*, aired for the final time

CBS's first television broadcasts were experimental, often only for one hour a day, and reaching a limited area in and around New York City. To catch up with rival RCA, CBS bought Hytron Laboratories in 1939, and immediately moved into set production and color broadcasting. Though there were many competing patents and systems, RCA dictated the content of the FCC's technical standards, and grabbed

the spotlight from CBS, DuMont and others by introducing television to the general public at the 1939 New York World's Fair. The FCC began licensing commercial television stations on July 1, 1941; the first license went to RCA and NBC's WNBT (now WNBC); the second license, issued that same day, was to WCBW, (now WCBS). CBS-Hytron offered a practical color system in 1941, but it was not compatible with the black-and-white standards set down by RCA. In time, and after considerable dithering, the FCC rejected CBS's technology in favor of that backed by RCA.

During the World War II years, commercial television broadcasting was reduced dramatically. Toward the end of the war, commercial television began to ramp up again, with an increased level of programming evident in the 1945-1947 period on the three New York television stations which operated in those years (the local stations of NBC, CBS and DuMont) But as RCA and DuMont raced to establish networks and offer upgraded programming, CBS lagged, advocating an industry-wide shift and re-start to UHF for their incompatible (with black and white) color system. Only in 1950, when NBC was dominant in television and black and white transmission was widespread, did CBS begin to buy or build their own stations (outside of New York) in Los Angeles, Chicago and other major cities. The "talent raid" on NBC of the mid-forties had brought over established radio stars; they now became stars of CBS television as well.

When CBS faltered, under-performing units were given the axe. Among the first properties to go, and among the most prestigious, was the CBS Records group, which had been part of the company since 1938. CBS Records was a record label group (as Columbia Records in the US and Canada) owned by CBS since 1938. CBS sold CBS Records to Sony in 1988 and the record label company was re-christened Sony Music Entertainment in 1991, as Sony had a short term license on the CBS name. Eventually the entity known as Sony Music Entertainment would become Sony BMG Music Entertainment when Sony and BMG merged in 2004.

Tisch also shut down in 1986 the CBS Technology Center in Stamford, CT, which had started in New York City in 1930s as CBS Laboratories and evolved to be the company's technology R&D unit.

CBS made a brief, unsuccessful move into film production in the late 1960s, creating Cinema Center Films. This profit-free unit was shut down in 1972, today the distribution rights to the Cinema Center library rest with Paramount Pictures for home video (via CBS DVD) and theatrical release, and with CBS Paramount Television for TV distribution (most other ancillary rights remain with CBS). Yet ten years later, CBS was talked into another try at Hollywood, in a joint venture with Columbia Pictures and HBO called Tri-Star Pictures.

CBS entered into the home video market, when joined with MGM to form MGM/CBS Home Video in 1978, but the joint venture was broken by 1983. CBS joined another studio: 20th Century Fox, to form CBS/Fox Video. CBS's duty was to release some of the movies by Tri-Star under the CBS-FOX Home Video label.

CBS has become a broadcasting giant now and in 1999, entertainment conglomerate Viacom, a company long-before created to syndicate old CBS series, announced it was taking over CBS in a deal valued at \$37 billion. Following completion of this effort in 2000, Viacom was ranked as the second-largest entertainment company in the world.

Having assembled all the elements of a communications empire, Viacom found that the promised synergy was not there, and at the end of 2005 it split itself into two. CBS became the center of a new company, CBS Corporation, which included the broadcasting elements, Paramount Television's production operations (renamed CBS Paramount Television), Viacom Outdoor advertising (renamed CBS Outdoor), Showtime, Simon & Schuster, and Paramount Parks, which the company sold in May 2006.

The second company, keeping the Viacom name, kept Paramount Pictures (ironically a former share holder in CBS, see above, also owned a stake in the DuMont Television Network, whose Pittsburgh O&O is now CBS-owned KDKA-TV), assorted MTV Networks, BET, and until May 2007, Famous Music, which was sold to Sony-ATV Music Publishing.

As a result of the aforementioned Viacom/CBS corporate split, as well as other acquisitions over recent years, CBS (under the moniker CBS Studios) owns a massive television library spanning over six decades.

Both CBS Corporation and the new Viacom are still owned by Sumner Redstone's company, National Amusements.

Fox Broadcasting Company

The Fox Broadcasting Company, usually referred to as just Fox (the company itself prefers the capitalized version FOX), is a television network in the United States. It is owned by Fox Entertainment Group, part of Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation. Since its launch on October 9, 1986, Fox has grown from an upstart "netlet" to the highest-rated broadcast network among young adults.

The Fox name has been used on other entertainment channels internationally that are affiliated with News Corp., including in Australia (FOX8), Japan, Italy, Serbia, South Korea, Spain, Portugal, South America, and Turkey although these do not necessarily air the same programming as the U.S. network. Most viewers in Canada have access to at least one affiliate of the U.S. network.

The network is named after sister company 20th Century Fox, and indirectly for producer William Fox, who founded one of the movie studio's predecessors.

History

In October 1985, Murdoch announced his intentions to form an independent television system which would compete with the three major U.S. television networks (ABC, CBS and NBC). He planned to use the combination of the Fox studios and the former Metromedia stations both to produce programming and distribute it. Organizational plans for the network were held off until the Metromedia acquisitions cleared regulatory hurdles in March 1986.

Despite a few successful shows, the network did not have a significant market share until the mid-1990s when News Corp. bought more TV station groups. The first was New World Communications, which had signed an affiliation deal with Fox in 1994. Later, in 2000, Fox bought several stations owned by Chris-Craft Industries and its subsidiaries BHC Communications and United Television (most of these were UPN affiliates, although one later converted to Fox). This made Fox one of the largest owners of television stations in the United States. Though Fox was growing rapidly as a network and had established itself as a presence, it was still not considered a major competitor to the big three broadcast networks (ABC, CBS and NBC).

However it all changed when Fox lured the National Football League away from CBS in 1993.

The early and mid-1990s saw the launch of several soap-opera dramas aimed at younger audiences that became quick hits: Beverly Hills 90210, Melrose Place, and Party of Five. September 1993 saw the heavy promotion and debut of a short-lived Western with science-fiction elements, The Adventures of Brisco County, Jr. However, it was the Friday night show that debuted immediately following it, The X-Files, which would find long-lasting success, and would be Fox's first series to crack Nielsen's year-end Top 25. Around 1996, Fox was exploring plans to merge with The WB however the effort just didn't go well.

By 2005, Fox's most popular show was the talent search American Idol, peaking at up to 30 million viewers on certain episodes and finishing the 2004–05 and 2005–06 seasons as the nation's highest-rated program. House, airing after Idol on Tuesday nights and having had a successful run of summer repeats in 2005, has also positioned itself as a top-ten hit as of the 2005–06 season.

GLOBALIZATION

Globalization is the increasing interconnectedness of people and places as a result of advances in transport, communication and information technologies that cause political, economic and cultural convergence.

Globalization is:

- The worldwide integration of economic, cultural, political, religious and social systems.

- The increasing interdependence, integration and interaction among people and corporations in disparate locations around the world. It is an umbrella term which refers to a complex of economic, trade, social, technological, cultural and political interrelationships.

Historical Perspective

The term "globalization" was popularized by Theodore Levitt, a professor at Harvard University. Levitt has been erroneously credited with coining the term in 1983, but the word "globalization" can be traced back to 1944. The term has been used by economists since 1981, however its concepts did not permeate popular consciousness until the latter half of the 1990s. Various social scientists have tried to demonstrate continuity between contemporary trends of globalization and earlier periods.

The first era of globalization during the 19th century was the rapid growth of international trade between the European imperial powers, the European colonies, and the United States. Because of the first era of globalization, World War I was started. After World War II, globalization was restarted and was driven by major advances in technology, which led to lower trading costs. The term "globalization" has often been linked to the rise of corporate dominance, and is often used synonymously with the term "corporate giant", first coined by Charles Taze Russell in 1897.

Liberalization in the 19th century is sometimes called "The First Era of Globalization", a period characterized by rapid growth in international trade and investment, between the European imperial powers, their colonies, and, later, the United States. The "First Era of Globalization" began to break down at the beginning with the first World War, and later collapsed during the gold standard crisis in the late 1920s and early 1930s. Lenin's Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism (1916) provided a seminal critique of this period as being characterized by the exploitation of the third world by those in the first. This theme forms the basis of many recent critiques of globalisation.

Globalization in the era since World War II has been driven by advances in technology which have reduced the costs of trade, and trade negotiation rounds, originally under the auspices of GATT, which led to a series of agreements to remove restrictions on free trade. The Uruguay round (1984 to 1995) led to a treaty to create the World Trade Organization (WTO), to mediate trade disputes and set up a uniform platform of trading. Other bi- and trilateral trade agreements, including sections of Europe's Maastricht Treaty and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) have also been signed in pursuit of the goal of reducing tariffs and barriers to trade grand.

Globalization and Internationalization

Globalization, considered by many to be the inevitable wave of the future, is frequently confused with internationalization, but is in fact something totally different.

Internationalization refers to the increasing importance of international trade, international relations, treaties, alliances, etc. Inter-national, of course, means between or among nations. The basic unit remains the nation, even as relations among nations become increasingly necessary and important.

Globalization refers to global economic integration of many formerly national economies into one global economy, mainly by free trade and free capital mobility, but also by easy or uncontrolled migration. It is the effective erasure of national boundaries for economic purposes. International trade (governed by comparative advantage) becomes interregional trade (governed by absolute advantage). What was many becomes one.

It should also not be narrowly confused with **economic globalization**, which is only one aspect, however important it is. In that respect, there are several definitions, many of which mention the increasing connectivity of economies and ways of life across the world. While some scholars and observers of globalization stress convergence of patterns of production and consumption and a resulting homogenization of culture, others stress that globalization has the potential to take many diverse forms.

In economics, globalization is the convergence of prices, products, wages, rates of interest and profits towards developed country norms. Globalization of the economy depends on the role of human migration, international trade, movement of capital, and integration of financial markets.

Measuring globalization

Looking specifically at economic globalization, it can be measured in different ways. These centre around the four main economic flows that characterize globalization:

- Goods and services, e.g. exports plus imports as a proportion of national income or per capita of population.
- Labor/people, e.g. net migration rates; inward or outward migration flows, weighted by population.
- Capital, e.g. inward or outward direct investment as a proportion of national income or per head of population.
- Technology, e.g. international research & development flows; proportion of populations (and rates of change thereof) using particular inventions (especially 'factor-neutral' technological advances such as the telephone, motorcar, broadband).

To what extent a nation-state or culture is globalized in a particular year has until most recently been measured employing simple proxies like flows of trade, migration, or foreign direct investment.

As globalization is not only an economic phenomenon, a multivariate approach to measuring globalization is the recent index calculated by the Swiss Think tank KOF. The index measures the three main dimensions of globalization: economic, social, and political. In addition to three indices measuring these dimensions, an overall index of globalization and sub-indices referring to actual economic flows, economic restrictions, data on personal contact, data on information flows, and data on cultural proximity is calculated. Data are available on a yearly basis for 122 countries. According to the index, the world's most globalized country is Belgium, followed by Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. The least globalized countries according to the KOF-index are Haiti, Myanmar the Central African Republic and Burundi.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Globalization

The advantages and disadvantages of globalization have been heavily scrutinized and debated in recent years. Proponents of globalization say that it helps developing nations "catch up" to industrialized nations much faster through increased employment and technological advances. Critics of globalization say that it weakens national sovereignty and allows rich nations to ship domestic jobs overseas where labor is much cheaper.

PRO-GLOBALIZATION

Globalization means that world trade and financial markets are becoming more integrated. But just how far have developing countries been involved in this integration? According to a survey, their experience in catching up with the advanced economies has been mixed. Some countries, especially in Asia, per capita incomes have been moving quickly toward levels in the industrial countries since 1970. A larger number of developing countries have made only slow progress or have lost ground. In particular, per capita incomes in Africa have declined relative to the industrial countries and in some countries have declined in absolute terms.

Consider four aspects of globalization:

- **Trade:** Developing countries as a whole have increased their share of world trade—from 19 percent in 1971 to 29 percent in 1999. But great variations among the major regions have been observed. For instance, the newly industrialized economies (NIEs) of Asia have done well, while Africa as a whole has fared poorly. The composition of what countries export is also important. The strongest rise by far has been in the export of manufactured goods. The share of primary

commodities in world exports—such as food and raw materials—that are often produced by the poorest countries, has declined.

- **Capital movements:** What many people associate with globalization, sharply increased private capital flows to developing countries during much of the 1990s. It also shows that (a) the increase followed a particularly "dry" period in the 1980s; (b) net official flows of "aid" or development assistance have fallen significantly since the early 1980s; and (c) the composition of private flows has changed dramatically. Direct foreign investment has become the most important category. Both portfolio investment and bank credit rose but they have been more volatile, falling sharply in the wake of the financial crises of the late 1990s.
- **Movement of people:** Workers move from one country to another partly to find better employment opportunities. The numbers involved are still quite small, but in the period 1965-90, the proportion of labor forces round the world that was foreign born increased by about one-half. Most migration occurs between developing countries. But the flow of migrants to advanced economies is likely to provide a means through which global wages converge. There is also the potential for skills to be transferred back to the developing countries and for wages in those countries to rise.
- **Spread of knowledge (and technology):** Information exchange is an integral, often overlooked, aspect of globalization. For instance, direct foreign investment brings not only an expansion of the physical capital stock, but also technical innovation. More generally, knowledge about production methods, management techniques, export markets and economic policies is available at very low cost, and it represents a highly valuable resource for the developing countries.

ANTI-GLOBALIZATION

The critics of globalization typically emphasize that globalization is a process that is mediated according to corporate interests, and typically raise the possibility of alternative global institutions and policies, which they believe address the moral claims of poor and working classes throughout the globe, as well as environmental concerns in a more equitable way.

Inequality and Social Exclusion

The trend among many analysts and ideologists is to praise the processes which create uniformity, as if they in and of themselves were sufficient to create wealth and equity. The themes of differentiation are, however, decisive and perhaps constitute the essence of the construction of a political perspective for globalization. In truth, the issue of the rise in inequality and social exclusion which Globalization appears in some way to exacerbate is intricate and hard to combat. It is manifested both on the international plane and on the internal plane by both developed and developing countries. It is paradoxical; one might even say ironic that the increase of inequality occurs precisely at the moment in which, with the end of the Cold War and greater opening to the world of the most hard-line socialist regimes, we move towards institutional uniformity and a greater universal convergence of values.

In the dimension of interpersonal relations, inequality can be regarded less as the fruit of "capitalist exploitation" or of distortions of the model of accumulation, than of the qualitative differences in labor and of innate or acquired skills and abilities. Material inequality is perversely identified as the result of a natural process of differentiation among individuals. This break in the sense of solidarity has serious repercussions on the very idea of national identity itself, as was pointed out by Robert Reich, the Secretary of Labor of the Clinton Administration.

In the dimension of the relations between states, inequality is perceived not so much as a historical, political, economic or cultural phenomenon, but rather as an incapacity to adapt to the institutional and ideological framework which prevails in "nations who are winners". This waning of the economic, sociological, historical or ethical explanation for inequality leads to the growth of indifference and intolerance with regard to losers", who are classified as the only ones responsible for their own backwardness.

Still on the plane of the relations between States, the concept that development requires that States "do their homework" satisfactorily, so as to establish the internal conditions of competitiveness has greater currency than the call for international cooperation for development, or for mobilization of the international community in the struggle against the segregation of the poorer countries. Perversely, the existence of inequality and exclusion is thus considered a natural datum reflecting reality, thus losing one of the most important elements of traditional "conservative" thinking, which, is solidarity; the protection of the weak and dispossessed in the name of the defense of a higher value, of the cohesion or of the harmony of the social fabric.

The real challenge is thus to go beyond conservatism. We know that it is indispensable to rediscover community values and recreate an ethics of solidarity. It is, however, no easy task to re-arrange the instruments and institutions which have the effective capacity to address inequality and exclusion.

Rise in Unemployment

The issue of unemployment is another theme which raises concern on the part of governments and citizens, especially because it is an aggravating factor in the process of deepening inequality and social exclusion.

Some preliminary statements are necessary so as to avoid our contemplating the future with our eyes turned back to the past. The first of these is that we have already come up against _ and we will have to increasingly face _ the extremely serious problem of so-called "structural unemployment" which is a consequence of both the loss of competitiveness of certain sectors of the economy which were formerly protected by almost unassailable tariff or non-tariff barriers, and the enormous productivity gains per work unit. The second, that was referred to earlier, has to do with the phenomenon of the outsourcing of the economy and has contributed to the transformation of the nature of work on a global scale. In Brazil, for example, the tertiary sector responds for more than 60% of the total of jobs in the economy. This is a fact of great significance in the decision-making processes of Governments.

Even the developed countries are not immune to the problem of unemployment. Among OECD member countries, unemployment rose by a factor of three between 1970 and 1992, according to data published in a 1993 UNDP Report on Human Development. And as a consequence of migratory movements, the problems of unemployment, both in the North and in the South, began to interconnect more clearly.

The fear of the worsening of this situation in the countries of the North was what led to certain attempts to "react" to the process of Globalization, as was the case of more closed schemes of regionalism and the advocating of such theses as "social dumping" or of "green protection". Market shares which we had worked hard to obtain by being more competitive began to be subject to discriminatory or illegal surtaxes or, worse still, had to face mechanisms of unfair competition, in flagrant disrespect for multilateral rules, as is clearly illustrated by the issue of agricultural subsidies in the developed countries.

Effects of Global Culture on Native/ Local Cultures

Global Culture is usually defined as one world culture. Encyclopedia Britannica defines globalization as: "process by which the experience of everyday life ... is becoming standardized around the world."

Globalisation has produced flows of people internationally and domestically for a variety of reasons. Significant developments in transport and technology have given rise to a burgeoning tourism industry. Advertising and tourism have gone hand in hand in the promotion of a multi-billion dollar global industry. From the information superhighway to the international trade in drugs and arms, to the phenomenal impact of Mac World, Nike and the global media, the subject of globalization has come to concern all and sundry. At the core of most discussions of the issue is the extraordinary explosion of both technology and information, in ways that have considerably reduced the twin concepts of time and space. In particular, information and communications technology (ICT) has emerged as perhaps the most dominant force in the global system of production, albeit with significant ramifications in all other spheres of contemporary human existence.

Over all what is less known and less obvious to the people are the negative impacts of globalization (or the origin of Global Culture) on some indigenous cultures. Some argue that globalisation is a threat to local cultures by creating a homogenised world culture. Others believe we are witnessing an increasing hybridisation of cultures.

The reason why globalization and global culture is becoming a threat to underdeveloped and developing countries is the fact that in the name of globalization and global culture developed countries (who are enjoying monopoly in Electronic Media due to their resources) are taking over the culture and even the economy of these struggling countries. Developed countries via their strong electronic media (TV and radio) are affecting the cultures of underdeveloped and developing countries. Technically and justified too, Global Culture should be a mixture of all cultures and should not represent or project one culture but when we look around and see what actually global culture is we find that it is more like Westernization or even according to some experts Americanization than Globalization. Media hegemony of western world is influencing the culture and tradition of North, South and East, which to most experts is not Globalization in its true sense.

Free flow of Information, People's right to know and Globalization

The people's right to know is a foundation of democracy. Throughout history, the cardinal element in the formation of democratic societies -- the element most feared and suppressed by totalitarian rulers -- has been an informed, active citizenry. The more citizens know, the better prepared and more motivated they are to participate effectively in the decisions that affect their lives, their property, and their physical and economic well being.

Unfortunately, shortsighted policymakers and self-interested industries are working to cut off information and weaken this important resource for democracy. If the saying "Information is the Currency of Democracy" has meaning, then the people are being pick-pocketed. Under the label of "homeland security," information is being removed, restricted and destroyed resulting in a less informed citizenry that is less able to participate in the government.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

On December 10, 1948 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted and proclaimed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Following this historic act the Assembly called upon all Member countries to publicize the text of the Declaration and "to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions, without distinction based on the political status of countries or territories."

Article 19

"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."

Globalization of media has paved way for concentration of ownership within mainstream global media which is coming in the way of freedom of expression and free flow of information. This issue is discussed in detail in next lectures.

LESSON 04

**GLOBAL MEDIA GIANTS & NEW WORLD INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION
ORDER**

A specter now haunts the world: a global commercial media system dominated by a small number of super powerful, mostly U.S.-based transnational media corporations. It is a system that works to advance the cause of the global market and promote commercial values, while denigrating journalism and culture not conducive to the immediate bottom line or long-run **corporate interests**.

The global commercial system is a very recent development. Until the 1980s, media systems were generally national in scope. While there have been imports of books, films, music and TV shows for decades, the basic broadcasting systems and newspaper industries were domestically owned and regulated. Beginning in the 1980s, pressure from the IMF, World Bank and U.S. government to deregulate and privatize media and communication systems coincided with new satellite and digital technologies, resulting in the rise of transnational media giants.

How quickly has the global media system emerged? The two largest media firms in the world, **Time Warner** and **Disney**, generated around 15 percent of their income outside of the United States in 1990. By 1997, that figure was in the 30 percent-35 percent range.

The global media system is now dominated by a first tier of nine giant firms. The five largest are **Time Warner** (1997 sales: \$24 billion), **Disney** (\$22 billion), **Bertelsmann** (\$15 billion), **Viacom** (\$13 billion), and **Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation** (\$11 billion). Besides needing global scope to compete, the rules of thumb for global media giants are twofold: First, get bigger so you dominate markets and your competition can't buy you out. Firms like **Disney** and **Time Warner** have almost tripled in size this decade.

Second, have interests in numerous media industries, such as film production, book publishing, music, TV channels and networks, retail stores, amusement parks, magazines, newspapers and the like. The profit whole for the global media giant can be vastly greater than the sum of the media parts. A film, for example, should also generate a soundtrack, a book, and merchandise, and possibly spin-off TV shows, CD-ROMs, video games and amusement park rides. Firms that do not have conglomerated media holdings simply cannot compete in this market.

The first tier is rounded out by **TCI**, the largest U.S. cable company that also has U.S. and global media holdings in scores of ventures too numerous to mention. The other three first-tier global media firms are all part of much larger industrial corporate powerhouses: **General Electric** (1997 sales: \$80 billion), owner of **NBC**; **Sony** (1997 sales: \$48 billion), owner of Columbia & Tri Star Pictures and major recording interests; and **Seagram** (1997 sales: \$14 billion), owner of Universal film and music interests. The media holdings of these last four firms do between \$6 billion and \$9 billion in business per year. While they are not as diverse as the media holdings of the first five global media giants, these four firms have global distribution and production in the areas where they compete. And firms like **Sony** and **GE** have the resources to make deals to get a lot bigger very quickly if they so desire.

Behind these firms is a second tier of some three or four dozen media firms that do between \$1 billion and \$8 billion per year in media-related business. These firms tend to have national or regional strongholds or to specialize in global niche markets. About one-half of them come from North America, including the likes of **CBS**, the **New York Times Co.**, **Hearst**, **Comcast** and **Gannett**. Most of the rest come from Europe, with a handful based in East Asia and Latin America.

In short, the overwhelming majority (in revenue terms) of the world's film production, TV show production, cable channel ownership, cable and satellite system ownership, book publishing, magazine publishing and music production is provided by these 50 or so firms, and the first nine firms thoroughly dominate many of these sectors. By any standard of democracy, such a concentration of media power is troubling, if not unacceptable.

But that hardly explains how concentrated and uncompetitive this global media power actually is. In addition, these firms are all actively engaged in equity joint ventures where they share ownership of concerns with their "competitors" so as to reduce competition and risk. Each of the nine first-tier media giants, for example, has joint ventures with, on average, two-thirds of the other eight first-tier media giants. And the second tier is every bit as aggressive about making joint ventures.

In some ways, the emerging global commercial media system is not an entirely negative proposition. It occasionally promotes anti-racist, anti-sexist or anti-authoritarian messages that can be welcome in some of the more repressive corners of the world. But on balance the system has minimal interest in journalism or public affairs except for that which serves the business and upper-middle classes, and it privileges just a few lucrative genres that it can do quite well--like sports, light entertainment and action movies--over other fare. Even at its best the entire system is saturated by a hyper-commercialism, a veritable commercial carpet bombing of every aspect of human life. As the C.E.O. of **Westinghouse** put it (*Advertising Age*, 2/3/97), "We are here to serve advertisers. That is our raison d'etre."

Someone once posited that the rise of the **Internet** would eliminate the monopoly power of the global media giants. Such talk has declined recently as the largest media, telecommunication and computer firms have done everything within their immense powers to colonize the Internet, or at least neutralize its threat. The global media cartel may be evolving into a global communication cartel.

But the entire global media and communication system is still in flux. While we are probably not too far from crystallization, there will likely be considerable merger and joint venture activity in the coming years. Indeed, by the time you read this, there may already be some shifts in who owns what or whom. What is tragic is that this entire process of global media concentration has taken place with little public debate, especially in the U.S., despite the clear implications for politics and culture. After World War II, the Allies restricted media concentration in occupied Germany and Japan because they noted that such concentration promoted anti-democratic, even fascist, political cultures. It may be time for the United States and everyone else to take a dose of that medicine. But for that to happen will require concerted effort to educate and organize people around media issues. That is the task before us.

Time Warner (\$25 billion - 1997 sales)

Time Warner, the largest media corporation in the world, was formed in 1989 through the merger of Time Inc. and Warner Communications. In 1992, Time Warner split off its entertainment group, and sold 25 percent of it to U.S. West, and 5.6 percent of it to each of the Japanese conglomerates Itochu and Toshiba. It regained from Disney its position as the world's largest media firm with the 1996 acquisition of Turner Broadcasting.

Time Warner is moving toward being a fully global company, with over 200 subsidiaries worldwide. In 1996, approximately two-thirds of Time Warner's income came from the United States. Time Warner expects globalization to provide growth tonic; it projects that its annual sales growth rate of 14 percent in the middle 1990s will climb to over 20 percent by the end of the decade.

Music accounts for just over 20 percent of Time Warner's business, as does the news division of magazine and book publishing and cable television news. Time Warner's U.S. cable systems account for over 10 percent of income. The remainder is accounted for largely by Time Warner's extensive entertainment film, video and television holdings. Time Warner is a major force in virtually every medium and on every continent.

Time Warner has zeroed in on global television as the most lucrative area for growth. Unlike News Corporation, however, Time Warner has devoted itself to producing programming and channels rather than developing entire satellite systems. Time Warner is also one of the largest movie theater owners in the world, with approximately 1,000 screens outside of the United States and further expansion projected. The Time Warner strategy is to merge the former Turner global channels--CNN and TNT/Cartoon Channel--with their HBO International and recently launched Warner channels to make a four-pronged assault on the global market. HBO International has already established itself as the leading subscription

TV channel in the world; it has a family of pay channels and is available in over 35 countries. HBO President Jeffrey Bewkes states that global expansion is HBO's "manifest destiny."

CNN International, a subsidiary of CNN, is also established as the premier global television news channel, beamed via ten satellites to over 200 nations and 90 million subscribers by 1994, a 27 percent increase over 1993. The long-term goal for CNN International is to operate (or participate in joint ventures to establish) CNN channels in French, Japanese, Hindi, Arabic and perhaps one or two other regional languages. CNN launched a Spanish-language service for Latin America in 1997, based in Atlanta. CNN International will also draw on the Time Warner journalism resources as it faces new challenges from news channels launched by News Corporation and NBC-Microsoft.

Before their 1996 merger, Turner and Time Warner were both global television powers with the TNT/Cartoon Network and Warner channels, drawing upon their respective large libraries of cartoons and motion pictures. Now these channels will be redeployed to better utilize each other's resources, with plans being drawn up to develop several more global cable channels to take advantage of the world's largest film, television and cartoon libraries.

Time Warner selected holdings:

- Majority interest in WB, a U.S. television network launched in 1995 to provide a distribution platform for Time Warner films and programs. It is carried on the Tribune Company's 16 U.S. television stations, which reach 25 percent of U.S. TV households.
- Significant interests in non-U.S. broadcasting joint ventures.
- The largest cable system in the United States, controlling 22 of the largest 100 markets.
- Several U.S. and global cable television channels, including CNN, Headline News, CNNfn, TBS, TNT, Turner Classic Movies, The Cartoon Network and CNN-SI (a cross-production with Sports Illustrated).
- Partial ownership of the cable channel Comedy Central and a controlling stake in Court TV.
- HBO and Cinemax pay cable channels.
- Minority stake in Prime Star, U.S. satellite television service.
- Warner Brothers and New Line Cinema film studios.
- More than 1,000 movie screens outside of the United States.
- A library of over 6,000 films, 25,000 television programs, books, music and thousands of cartoons.
- Twenty-four magazines, including Time, People and Sports Illustrated.
- Fifty percent of DC Comics, publisher of Superman, Batman and 60 other titles.
- The second largest book-publishing business in the world, including Time-Life Books (42 percent of sales outside of the United States) and the Book-of-the-Month Club.
- Warner Music Group, one of the largest global music businesses with nearly 60 percent of revenues from outside the United States.
- Six Flags theme park chain; The Atlanta Hawks and Atlanta Braves professional sports teams; Retail stores, including over 150 Warner Bros. stores and Turner Retail Group; Minority interests in toy companies Atari and Hasbro.

Disney (\$24 billion - 1997 sales)

Disney is the closest challenger to Time Warner for the status of world's largest media firm. In the early 1990s, Disney successfully shifted its emphasis from its theme parks and resorts to its film and television divisions. In 1995, Disney made the move from being a dominant global content producer to being a fully integrated media giant with the purchase of Capital Cities/ABC for \$19 billion, one of the biggest acquisitions in business history.

Disney now generates 31 percent of its income from broadcasting, 23 percent from theme parks, and the balance from "creative content," meaning films, publishing and merchandising. The ABC deal provided Disney, already regarded as the industry leader at using cross-selling and cross-promotion to maximize revenues, with a U.S. broadcasting network and widespread global media holdings to incorporate into its activities.

Consequently, according to **Advertising Age** (8/7/95), Disney "is uniquely positioned to fulfill virtually any marketing option, on any scale, almost anywhere in the world." It has already included the new Capital Cities/ABC brands in its exclusive global marketing deals with McDonald's and Mattel toymakers. Although Disney has traditionally preferred to operate on its own, C.E.O. Michael Eisner has announced Disney's plans to expand aggressively overseas through joint ventures with local firms or other global players, or through further acquisitions. Disney's stated goal is to expand its non-U.S. share of revenues from 23 percent in 1995 to 50 percent by 2000.

Historically, Disney has been strong in entertainment and animation, two areas that do well in the global market. In 1996 Disney reorganized, putting all its global television activities into a single division, Disney/ABC International Television. Its first order of business is to expand the children- and family-oriented Disney Channel into a global force, capitalizing upon the enormous Disney resources. Disney is also developing an advertising-supported children's channel to complement the subscription Disney Channel.

For the most part, Disney's success has been restricted to English-language channels in North America, Britain and Australia. Disney's absence has permitted the children's channels of News Corporation, Time Warner and especially Viacom to dominate the lucrative global market. Disney launched a Chinese-language Disney Channel based in Taiwan in 1995, and plans to launch Disney Channels in France, Italy, Germany and the Middle East. "The Disney Channel should be the killer children's service throughout the world," Disney's executive in charge of international television states.

With the purchase of ABC's ESPN, the television sports network, Disney has possession of the unquestioned global leader. ESPN has three U.S. cable channels, a radio network with 420 affiliates, and the ESPN Sports-Zone website, one of the most heavily used locales on the Internet. One Disney executive notes that with ESPN and the family-oriented Disney Channel, Disney has "two horses to ride in foreign markets, not just one."

ESPN International dominates televised sport, broadcasting on a 24-hour basis in 21 languages to over 165 countries. It reaches the one desirable audience that had eluded Disney in the past: young, single, middle-class men. "Our plan is to think globally but to customize locally," states the senior VP of ESPN International. In Latin America the emphasis is on soccer, in Asia it is table tennis, and in India ESPN provided over 1,000 hours of cricket in 1995.

Disney plans to exploit the "synergies" of ESPN much as it has exploited its cartoon characters. "We know that when we lay Mickey Mouse or Goofy on top of products, we get pretty creative stuff," Eisner states. "ESPN has the potential to be that kind of brand." Disney plans call for a chain of ESPN theme sports bars, ESPN product merchandising, and possibly a chain of ESPN entertainment centers based on the Club ESPN at Walt Disney World. ESPN has released five music CDs, two of which have sold over 500,000 copies. In late 1996, Disney began negotiations with Hearst and Petersen Publishing to produce ESPN Sports Weekly magazine, to be a "branded competitor to Sports Illustrated."

Disney selected holdings:

- The U.S. ABC television and radio networks.
- Ten U.S. television stations and 21 U.S. radio stations.
- U.S. and global cable television channels Disney Channel, ESPN, ESPN2 and ESPNNews; holdings in Lifetime, A & E and History channels.
- Americast, interactive TV joint venture with several telephone companies.
- Several major film, video and television production studios including Disney, Miramax and Buena Vista.
- Magazine and newspaper publishing, through its subsidiaries, Fairchild Publications and Chilton Publications.
- Book publishing, including Hyperion Books and Chilton Publications.
- Several music labels, including Hollywood Records, Mammoth Records and Walt Disney Records.
- Theme parks and resorts, including Disneyland, Disney World and stakes in major theme parks in France and Japan.

- Disney Cruise Line.
- Disney Quest, a chain of high-tech arcade game stores.
- Controlling interests in the NHL Anaheim Mighty Ducks and major league baseball's Anaheim Angels.
- Consumer products, including more than 550 Disney retail stores worldwide.

Bertelsmann (\$15 billion - 1996 sales)

Bertelsmann is the one European firm in the first tier of media giants. The Bertelsmann empire was built on global networks of book and music clubs. Music and television provide 31 percent of its income, book publishing 33 percent, magazines and newspapers 20 percent, and a global printing business accounts for the remainder. In 1994 its income was distributed among Germany (36 percent), the rest of Europe (32 percent), the United States (24 percent) and the rest of the world (8 percent).

Bertelsmann's stated goal is to evolve "from a media enterprise with international activities into a truly global communications group." Bertelsmann's strengths in global expansion are its global distribution network for music, its global book and music clubs, and its facility with languages other than English. It is working to strengthen its music holdings to become the world leader, through a possible buyout of—or merger with—EMI and through establishing joint ventures with local music companies in emerging markets. Bertelsmann is considered to be the best contender of all the media giants to exploit the Eastern European markets.

Bertelsmann has two severe competitive disadvantages in the global media sweepstakes. It has no significant film or television production studios or film library, and it has minimal involvement in global television, where much of the growth is taking place. The company began to address this problem in 1996 by merging its television interests (Ufa) into a joint venture with Compagnie Luxembourgeoise de Telediffusion (CLT), the Luxembourg-based European commercial broadcasting power. According to a Bertelsmann executive, the CLT deal was "a strategic step to become a major media player, especially in light of the recent European and American mergers."

Bertelsmann selected holdings

- German television channels RTL, RTL2, Super RTL and Vox
- Part ownership of Premiere, Germany's largest pay-TV channel
- Stakes in British, French and Dutch TV channels
- 50 percent stake in CLT-Ufa, which owns 19 European TV channels and 23 European radio stations
- Eighteen European radio stations
- Newspaper and magazine publishing, including more than 100 magazines
- Book publishing, with some 40 publishing houses, concentrating on German-, French- and English-language (Bantam and Doubleday Dell) titles
- Major recording studios Arista and RCA
- Leading book and record clubs in the world.

Viacom (\$13 billion - 1997 sales)

C.E.O. Sumner Redstone, who controls 39 percent of Viacom's stock, orchestrated the deals that led to the acquisitions of Paramount and Blockbuster in 1994, thereby promoting the firm from \$2 billion in 1993 sales to the front ranks. Viacom generates 33 percent of its income from its film studios, 33 percent from its music, video rentals and theme parks, 18 percent from broadcasting, and 14 percent from publishing. Red stone's strategy is for Viacom to become the world's "premier software driven growth company."

Viacom's growth strategy is twofold. First, it is implementing an aggressive policy of using company-wide cross-promotions to improve sales. It proved invaluable that **MTV** constantly plugged the film *Clueless* in 1995, and the same strategy will be applied to the Paramount television program based on the movie. Simon & Schuster is establishing a Nickelodeon book imprint and a "Beavis and Butthead" book

series based on the **MTV** characters. Viacom also has plans to establish a comic-book imprint based upon Paramount characters, it is considering creating a record label to exploit its **MTV** brand name and it has plans to open a chain of retail stores to capitalize upon its "brands" ^ la Disney and Time Warner. In 1997 Paramount will begin producing three Nickelodeon and three MTV movies annually. "We're just now beginning to realize the benefits of the Paramount and Block buster mergers," Redstone stated in 1996. Second, Viacom has targeted global growth, with a stated goal of earning 40 percent of its revenues outside of the United States by 2000As one Wall Street analyst puts it, Redstone wants Viacom "playing in the same international league" with News Corporation and Time Warner. Since 1992 Viacom has invested between \$750 million and \$1 billion in international expansion. "We're not taking our foot off the accelerator," one Viacom executive states. Viacom's two main weapons are **Nickelodeon** and **MTV**. **Nickelodeon** has been a global powerhouse, expanding to every continent but Antarctica in 1996 and 1997 and offering programming in several languages. It is already a world leader in children's television, reaching 90 million TV households in 70 countries other than the United States--where it can be seen in 68 million households and completely dominates children's television.

MTV is the preeminent global music television channel, available in 250 million homes worldwide and in scores of nations. In 1996 Viacom announced further plans to "significantly expand" its global operations. **MTV** has used new digital technologies to make it possible to customize programming inexpensively for different regions and nations around the world.

Viacom selected holdings

- Thirteen U.S. television stations;
- A 50 percent interest in the U.S. UPN television network with Chris-Craft Industries;
- U.S. and global cable television networks, including MTV, M2, VH1, Nickelodeon, Showtime, TV Land and Paramount Networks;
- A 50 percent interest in Comedy Central channel (with Time Warner);
- Film, video and television production, including Paramount Pictures;
- 50 percent stake in United Cinemas International, one of the world's three largest theater companies;
- Blockbuster Video and Music stores, the world's largest video rental stores
- Book publishing, including Simon & Schuster, Scribners and Macmillan
- Five theme parks.

News Corporation (\$10 billion - 1996 sales)

The News Corporation is often identified with its head, Rupert Murdoch, whose family controls some 30 percent of its stock. Murdoch's goal is for News Corporation to own multiple forms of programming--news, sports, films and children's shows--and beam them via satellite or TV stations to homes in the United States, Europe, Asia and South America. Viacom CEO Sumner Redstone says of Murdoch that "he basically wants to conquer the world." And he seems to be doing it. Redstone, Disney CEO Michael Eisner, and Time Warner CEO Gerald Levin have each commented that Murdoch is the one media executive they most respect and fear, and the one whose moves they study. TCI's John Malone states that global media vertical integration is all about trying to catch Rupert. Time Warner executive Ted Turner views Murdoch in a more sinister fashion, having likened him to Adolf Hitler. After establishing News Corporation in his native Australia, Murdoch entered the British market in the 1960s and by the 1980s had become a dominant force in the U.S. market. News Corporation went heavily into debt to subsidize its purchase of Twentieth Century Fox and the formation of the **Fox** television network in the 1980s; by the mid-1990s News Corporation had eliminated much of that debt. News Corporation operates in nine different media on six continents. Its 1995 revenues were distributed relatively evenly among filmed entertainment (26 percent), newspapers (24 percent), television (21 percent), magazines (14 percent) and book publishing (12 percent). News Corporation has been masterful in utilizing its various properties for cross-promotional purposes, and at using its media power to curry influence with public officials worldwide. "Murdoch seems to have Washington in his back pocket," observed one industry analyst after News Corporation received another favorable ruling (New York Times, 7/26/96). The only media sector in

which News Corporation lacks a major presence is music, but it has a half-interest in the **Channel V** music television channel in Asia. Although News Corporation earned 70 percent of its 1995 income in the United States, its plan for global expansion looks to continental Europe, Asia and Latin America, areas where growth is expected to be greatest for commercial media. Until around 2005, Murdoch expects the surest profits in the developed world, especially Europe and Japan. News Corporation is putting most of its eggs in the basket of television, specifically digital satellite television. It plans to draw on its experience in establishing the most profitable satellite television system in the world, the booming **British Sky Broadcasting (BSkyB)**.

News Corporation can also use its U.S. **Fox** television network to provide programming for its nascent satellite ventures. News Corporation is spending billions of dollars to establish these systems around the world; although the risk is considerable, if only a few of them establish monopoly or duopoly positions the entire project should prove lucrative.

News Corporation selected holdings:

- The U.S. **Fox** broadcasting network
- Twenty-two U.S. television stations, the largest U.S. station group, covering over 40 percent of U.S. TV households
- Fox News Channel
- A 50 percent stake (with TCI's Liberty Media) in several U.S. and global cable networks, including fx, fxM and Fox Sports Net
- 50 percent stake in Fox Kids Worldwide, production studio and owner of U.S. cable Family Channel
- Ownership or major interests in satellite services reaching Europe, U.S., Asia, and Latin America, often under the Sky Broadcasting brand
- Twentieth Century Fox, a major film, television and video production center, which has a library of over 2,000 films to exploit
- Some 132 newspapers (primarily in Australia, Britain and the United States, including the London Times and the New York Post), making it one of the three largest newspaper groups in the world
- Twenty-five magazines, most notably TV Guide
- Book publishing interests, including HarperCollins
- Los Angeles Dodgers baseball team.

Sony (\$9 billion - 1997 sales (media only))

Sony's media holdings are concentrated in music (the former CBS records) and film and television production (the former Columbia Pictures), each of which it purchased in 1989. Music accounts for about 60 percent of Sony's media income and film and television production account for the rest. Sony is a dominant entertainment producer, and its media sales are expected to surpass \$9 billion in 1997. It also has major holdings in movie theaters in joint venture with Seagram. As Sony's media activities seem divorced from its other extensive activities--Sony expects \$50 billion in company-wide sales in 1997--there is ongoing speculation that it will sell its valuable production studios to vertically integrated chains that can better exploit them. Sony was foiled in its initial attempts to find synergies between hardware and software, but it anticipates that digital communication will provide the basis for new synergies. Sony hopes to capitalize up on its vast copyrighted library of films, music and TV programs to leap to the front of the digital video disc market, where it is poised to be one of the two global leaders with Matsushita. Sony also enjoys a 25 percent share of the multi-billion-dollar video games industry; with the shift to digital formats these games can now be converted into channels in digital television systems.

TCI (\$7 billion - 1996 sales)

TCI (Tele-Communications Inc.) is smaller than the other firms in the first tier, but its unique position in the media industry has made it a central player in the global media system. TCI's foundation is its dominant position as the second biggest U.S. cable television system provider. C.E.O. John Malone, who

has effective controlling interest over TCI, has been able to use the steady cash influx from the lucrative semi-monopolistic cable business to build an empire. Malone understands the importance of the U.S. cable base to bankroll TCI's expansion; in 1995 and 1996 he bought several smaller cable systems to consolidate TCI's hold on the U.S. cable market. TCI faces a direct and potentially very damaging challenge to its U.S. market share from digital satellite broadcasting. It is responding by converting its cable systems to digital format so as to increase channel capacity to 200. TCI is also using its satellite spin-off to position itself in the rival satellite business and retain some of the 15 to 20 million Americans expected to switch from cable broadcasting to satellite broadcasting by 2000. In addition to owning two satellites valued at \$600 million, TCI holds a 21 percent stake in Prime Star, a U.S. satellite television joint venture with the other leading U.S. cable companies, News Corporation and General Electric, which already had 1.2 million subscribers in 1996.

TCI has used its control of cable systems to acquire equity stakes in many of the cable channels that need to be carried over TCI to be viable. TCI has significant interests in Discovery, QVC, Fox Sports Net, Court TV, E!, Home Shopping Network and Black Entertainment TV, among others. In 1996, TCI negotiated the right to purchase a 20 percent stake in News Corporation's new **Fox News Channel** in return for access to TCI systems. Through its subsidiary Liberty Media, TCI has interests in 91 U.S. program services. Nor does TCI restrict its investments to cable channels and content producers. It has a 10 percent stake in Time Warner as well as a 20 percent stake in Silver King Communications, where former Fox network builder Barry Diller is putting together another U.S. television network.

TCI has applied its expansionist strategy to the global as well as domestic media market. On the one hand, TCI develops its core cable business and has become the global leader in cable systems, with strong units in Britain, Japan and Chile. Merrill Lynch estimates that TCI International's cable base outside of the United States will increase from 3 million subscribers in 1995 to 10 million in 1999. On the other hand, TCI uses its cable resources to invest across all global media and to engage in numerous non-cable joint ventures. "When you are the largest cable operator in the world," a TCI executive states, "people find a way to do business with you." It already has 30 media deals outside of the United States, including a venture with Sega Enterprises to launch computer game channels, a joint venture with News Corporation for a global sports channel, and a 10 percent stake in Sky Latin America.

Universal (Seagram) \$7 billion - 1997 sales

Effectively controlled by the Bronfman family, the global beverage firm Seagram purchased Universal (then MCA) from Matsushita for \$5.7 billion in 1995. Matsushita was unable to make a success of MCA and had refused to go along with MCA executives who had wanted to acquire CBS in the early 1990s. Universal is expected to account for approximately half of Seagram's \$14 billion in sales in 1997.

Over half of Universal's income is generated by the Universal Studios' production of films and television programs. Universal is also a major music producer and book publisher and operates several theme parks. As many of the broadcast networks and cable channels vertically integrate with production companies, Universal has fewer options for sales and is less secure in its future. It owns the cable **USA Network** and the **Sci-Fi Network**, after buying out its uneasy partner Viacom.

NBC (GE) \$5 billion - 1996 sales

General Electric is one of the leading electronics and manufacturing firms in the world with nearly \$80 billion in sales in 1996. Its operations have become increasingly global, with non-U.S. revenues increasing from 20 percent of the total in 1985 to 38 percent in 1995, and an expected 50 percent in 2000. Although NBC currently constitutes only a small portion of GE's total activity, after years of rapid growth it is considered to be the core of GE's strategy for long-term global growth.

NBC owns U.S. television and radio networks and 11 television stations. It has been aggressive in expanding into cable, where it now owns several cable channels outright, like **CNBC**, as well as shares in some 20 other channels, including the **A&E** network. The most dramatic expression of GE's media-centered strategy is its 1996 alliance and joint investment with Microsoft to produce the cable news channel **MSNBC**, along with a complementary on-line service. From this initial \$500 million investment, NBC and Microsoft plan to expand **MSNBC** quickly into a global news channel, followed perhaps by a

global entertainment and sports channel. NBC and Microsoft are also developing a series of TV channels in Europe aimed at computer users.

THE SECOND TIER

Below the global giants in the media food chain is a second tier of corporations that fill regional or niche markets. Some of these firms are as large as the smaller global companies, but lack their world-wide reach. A few second-tier companies may attempt, through aggressive mergers and acquisitions of like-sized firms, to become full-blown first-tier global media giants; others will likely be swallowed by larger companies amassing ever greater empires.

U.S.

- Westinghouse \$5 billion
- Advance Publications \$4.9 billion
- Gannett \$4.0 billion
- Cox Enterprises \$3.8 billion
- Times-Mirror \$3.5 billion
- Comcast \$3.4 billion
- McGraw Hill \$3 billion
- Reader's Digest \$3 billion
- Knight-Ridder \$2.9 billion
- Dow Jones \$2.5 billion
- New York Times Co. \$2.5 billion
- Tribune Co. \$2.2 billion
- Hearst \$2 billion
- Washington Post Co. \$1.8 billion
- Cablevision \$1.1 billion
- DirecTV (Owned by General Motors)
- DreamWorks

Canada

- Thomson \$7.3 billion
- Rogers Communications \$2 billion
- Hollinger

Latin America

- Cisneros Group (Venezuela) \$3.2 billion
- Globo (Brazil) \$2.2 billion
- Clarin (Argentina) \$1.2 billion
- Televisa (Mexico) \$1.2 billion

Europe

- Havas (France) \$8.8 billion
- Reed Elsevier (Britain/Netherlands) \$5.5 billion
- EMI (Britain) \$5.4 billion
- Hachette (France) \$5.3 billion
- Reuters (Britain) \$4.1 billion
- Kirch Group (Germany) \$4 billion
- Granada Group (Britain) \$3.6 billion
- BBC (Britain) \$3.5 billion
- Axel Springer (Germany) \$3 billion
- Canal Plus (France) \$3 billion
- CLT (Luxembourg) \$3 billion
- Pearson PLC (Britain) \$2.9 billion
- United News & Media (Britain) \$2.9 billion
- Carlton Communications (Britain) \$2.5 billion
- Mediaset (Italy) \$2 billion

- Kinnevik (Sweden) \$1.8 billion
- Television Francais 1 (France) \$1.8 billion
- Verlagsgruppe Bauer (Germany) \$1.7 billion
- Wolters Kluwer (Netherlands) \$1.7 billion
- RCS Editori Spa (Italy) \$1.6 billion
- VNU (Netherlands) \$1.4 billion
- Prisa Group (Spain)
- Antena 3 (Spain)
- CEP Communications (France)

Asia/Pacific

- NHK (Japan) \$5.6 billion
- Fuji Television (Japan) \$2.6 billion
- Nippon Television Network (Japan) \$2.2 billion
- Cheil Jedang (Korea) \$2.1 billion
- Tokyo Broadcasting System (Japan) \$2.1 billion
- Modi (India) \$2 billion
- Asahi National Broadcasting Co. (Japan) \$1.6 billion
- Toho Company (Japan) \$1.6 billion
- PBL (Australia) \$750 million
- TVB International (China)
- Chinese Entertainment Television (China)
- Asia Broadcasting and Communication Network (Thailand)
- ABS-CBN (Philippines)
- Doordarshan (India)
- Chinese Central Television (China)

NEW WORLD INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION ORDER

The unfortunate fact about mass media is that there are few developed countries that are enjoying monopoly over mass media. Their news agencies, broadcasting houses, TV channels and films are ruling over the world of mass media. They can build and change any country's image according to their own wish. To get rid of this monopoly and to give third world countries their share in mass media in October 1980, the 21st General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), meeting in Belgrade, received a report and issued a declaration on communication that caused a furor in the Western press. The New York Times featured an editorial titled "UNESCO as Censor." Time magazine issued a full-page editorial statement on "The Global First Amendment War." Hundreds of newspapers carried stories similar to Editor and Publisher's "Press Groups Denounce UNESCO Plan on Media."

In 1976 UNESCO's Director General Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow was authorized to appoint an International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems. The commission, under the leadership of Sean MacBride (former foreign minister of Ireland and recipient of both the Nobel and Lenin Peace Prizes), completed its work in time for the General Conference in Belgrade, October 1980. The report, *Many Voices, One World* (Unipub, 1980), supported the principles of free reporting of news, but it also encouraged state regulation of the media and suggested that UNESCO give priority to "the elaboration of international norms" in its communication program.

The Belgrade Assembly merely referred the MacBride Commission report to its member governments, without endorsing any of its conclusions. However, the assembly went on to produce its own shocks to the West. The Group of 77, a bloc of more than 100 developing countries, had come with a detailed description of a "New World Information Order." After strenuous negotiations, the sections that were most offensive to the West were removed. These included "the right of peoples . . . to comprehensive and true information," "the right of each nation" to inform the world about its affairs, and "the right of each

nation to protect its cultural and social identity against the false or distorted information which may cause harm.”

In the end, however, all of the participating nations for the first time accepted a document saying that it is possible to define a new information order. Only the United Kingdom stated that it would have opposed the resolution had it come to a vote (instead, it was adopted by consensus). The U.K. objected to the very idea of defining the new order; its position got no votes from other Western nations.

Belgrade affirmed that UNESCO should lay “a major role in the examination and solution of problems in this domain.” The assembly also agreed on a number of guidelines for the new information order:

1. Elimination of the imbalances and inequalities which characterize the present solution.
2. Elimination of the negative effects of certain monopolies, public or private, and excessive concentrations.
3. Removal of the internal and external obstacles to a free flow and wider and better balanced dissemination of information and ideas.
4. Plurality of sources and channels of information.
5. Freedom of the press and information.
6. The freedom of journalists . . . a freedom inseparable from responsibility.
7. The capacity of developing countries to achieve improvement of their own situations, notably by providing their own equipment, by training their personnel, by improving their infrastructures and by making their information and communication means suitable to their needs and aspirations.
8. The sincere will of developed countries to help them attain these objectives.
9. Respect for each people’s cultural identity and the right of each nation to inform the world public about its interests, its aspirations and its social and cultural values.

In May 1981, some 100 representatives of print and broadcast organizations from the U.S. and 20 other nations met in the French Alps, where they adopted the “Declaration of Talloires,” calling on UNESCO to “abandon attempts to regulate news content and formulate rules for the press.” In June, Elliott Abrams, assistant secretary of state for international organization affairs, charged that UNESCO had “lent itself to a massive assault on the free flow of information” and challenged General Secretary M’Bow that if he did not remain “neutral” and avoid confrontation on the issue, he faced a battle with the U.S. “This is a war UNESCO cannot win,” Abrams declared.

In 1984, the United States withheld its contributions and withdrew from the UNESCO in protest, followed by the United Kingdom in 1985 and Singapore in 1986. Following the change in government in 1997, the UK rejoined; the United States rejoined in 2003. (As of 2007, Singapore has still not rejoined.) During this period, considerable reforms had been implemented in the organization. The attitude that media giants showed towards new world information & communications order and Mac Bridge’s report failed the idea and therefore it could not be implemented practically.

LESSON 05

MEDIA CONGLOMERATES, MEGA MERGERS, CONCENTRATION OF OWNERSHIP

What is Concentration of media ownership?

Concentration of media ownership (also known as media consolidation) is a commonly used term among those who are concerned that the majority of the media outlets are owned by a small number of conglomerates and corporations- especially those who view such consolidation as detrimental, dangerous, or otherwise worrying- to characterize ownership structure of mass media industries. These individual media industries are often referred to as a 'Media Institution'. Media ownership may refer to states of oligopoly or monopoly in a given media industry, or to the importance of a low number of media conglomerates.

Some nations can influence and control their media greatly. In addition, powerful corporations also have enormous influence on mainstream media. The idea of corporate media itself may not be a bad thing, for it can foster healthy competition and provide a check against governments. However, the concern is when there is a *concentration* of ownership due to the risk of increased economic and political influence that can itself be unaccountable.

Global conglomerates can at times have a progressive impact on culture, especially when they enter nations that had been tightly controlled by corrupt crony media systems or nations that had significant state censorship over media. The global commercial-media system is radical in that it will respect no tradition or custom, on balance, if it stands in the way of profits. But ultimately it is politically conservative, because the media giants are significant beneficiaries of the current social structure around the world, and any upheaval in property or social relations—particularly to the extent that it reduces the power of business—is not in their interest. — *Robert W. McChesney, The New Global Media; It's a Small World of Big Conglomerates, The Nation Magazine, November 29, 1999*

We are here to serve advertisers. That is our raison d'être. — *the C.E.O. of Westinghouse(CBS), Advertising Age, February 3, 97*

Having a few huge corporations control our outlets of expression could lead to less aggressive news coverage and a more muted marketplace of ideas. — *Rifka Rosenwein, Why Media Mergers Matter, Brill's Content, December 1999*

It is useful to remind ourselves that free expression is threatened not just blatantly by authoritarian governments and all those in the private sector who fear public exposure, but also more subtly by the handful of global media conglomerates that have reduced meaningful diversity of expression in much of the globe. — *Gerald Caplan, Advancing Free Media, Open Markets, Open Media forum, November 1997*

There have been a lot of mergers and buyouts of media and entertainment companies since the 1980s. Mainstream media has since become more concentrated in terms of ownership and the influences of advertisers and owning companies both have an enormous in how mainstream media shapes itself and society.

Mother Jones magazine once reported that by the end of 2006, there will be only 8 giant media companies dominating the US media, from which most people get their news and information:

- Disney (market value: \$72.8 billion)
- AOL-Time Warner (market value: \$90.7 billion)
- Viacom (market value: \$53.9 billion)
- General Electric (owner of NBC, market value: \$390.6 billion)
- News Corporation (market value: \$56.7 billion)
- Yahoo! (market value: \$40.1 billion)
- Microsoft (market value: \$306.8 billion)

- Google (market value: \$154.6 billion)

Yahoo!, Microsoft, and Google are new media companies compared to the other “traditional” 5 players. Most of these companies are in the global elite of media companies, too.

At the end of the 1990s, there were 9 corporations (mainly US) that dominated the media world:

- AOL-Time Warner
- Disney
- Bertelsmann
- Viacom
- News Corporation
- TCI
- General Electric (owner of NBC)
- Sony (owner of Columbia and TriStar Pictures and major recording interests), and
- Seagram (owner of Universal film and music interests).

As Robert McChesney, a media critic, and author of *Rich Media Poor Democracy*, (University of Illinois Press, 1999) describes, these are the “first tier” companies and following them are around 50 or so “second tier” companies doing media-related business at either national or regional level. All of these companies each do more than one billion dollars worth of business. Compared to the 1980s, this is quite a limited market in terms of diversity of ownership:

How does all of this affect concrete media coverage?

“If media moguls control media content and media distribution, then they have a lock on the extent and range of diverse views and information,” says Chuck Lewis, executive director of the Centre for Public Integrity. “That kind of grip on commercial and political power is potentially dangerous for any democracy.”— *Miren Gutierrez, Fewer Players, Less Freedom, Inter Press Service, March 20, 2004*

At first thought, one might ask, what is wrong with a few companies becoming so big? Isn’t that how business works? Even from a business perspective, the oligopolies or monopolies is not desirable. Considering the important role that a free and diverse media takes on in a functioning democracy, these questions become even more important. One of the major concerns that arise from such concentration is that there are very few media owners in the mainstream that reach out to the masses. As a result, there is the risk of **reduced diversity of issues and perspectives** as well as undue political influence and interests from a few affecting the many.

Most citizens get their views and understandings of the world around them from the mainstream media. It is therefore critical to understand some of these underlying issues.

Vertical Integration

Many of the large media company owners are entertainment companies and have vertical integration (i.e. own operations and businesses) across various industries and verticals, such as distribution networks, toys and clothing manufacture and/or retailing etc. That means that while this is good for their business, the diversity of opinions and issues we can see being discussed by them will be less well covered. (One cannot expect Disney, for example, to talk too much about sweatshop labor when it is accused of being involved in such things itself.) The wider ramifications are highlighted well in this following quote:

Vertical Integration was once looked upon with alarm by government. It was understood that corporations which have control of a total process, from raw material to fabrication to sales, also have few motives for genuine innovation and the power to seize out anyone else who tries to compete. This situation distorts the economy with monopolistic control over prices. Today, government has become sympathetic to dominant vertical corporations that have merged into ever larger total systems. These corporations, including those in the media, have remained largely unrestrained. — *Ben H. Bagdikian, The Media Monopoly, Sixth Edition, (Beacon Press, 2000)*

Vertical integration is also a part of a business strategy that serves to enhance market power, by allowing cross-promotion and cross-selling. Robert McChesney highlights this well:

The pressure to become a conglomerate is also due to something perhaps even more profound than the need for vertical integration. It was and is stimulated by the desire to increase market power by cross-promoting and cross-selling media properties or “brands” across numerous, different sectors of the media that are not linked in the manner suggested by vertical integration. ... “When you make a movie for an average cost of \$10 million and then cross promote and sell it off of magazines, books, products, television shows out of your own company,” Viacom’s Redstone said, “the profit potential is enormous.” — *Robert W. McChesney, Rich Media Poor Democracy; Communication Politics in Dubious Times, (University of Illinois Press, 1999), p.22*

It is interesting to note how a film goes beyond box office take, but goes towards larger market share and profit through all the cross-selling. That is, a film may generate certain revenue, but the overall profit will be even more than the revenue.

On such television channels or newspapers/magazines owned by such large corporations, you are understandably not going to read much criticism about those companies. Furthermore, you are not likely to see much deep criticism about economic, political or other policies that go against the interest of that parent company. So, while it is understandable why a company would aim for such cross selling and integration, the threat to diversity and meaningful competition is real. For smaller companies (who might still have multi million dollars backing) without such an arsenal of distribution and cross-selling possibilities, the competition is very difficult, and they face either going out of business, or being bought out, or try to emulate them.

Interlocking Directorates

Interlocking directorates is also another issue. Interlocking is where a director of one company may sit on a board of another company. As pointed out by U.S. media watchdog, *Fairness an Accuracy In Reporting (FAIR)* for example, Media corporations share members of the board of directors with a variety of other large corporations, including banks, investment companies, oil companies, health care and pharmaceutical companies and technology companies.

Ben H Bagdikian, in his book, *The Media Monopoly*, details some of the impacts of this interlocking. In these cases where directors from numerous large corporations sit on each others boards and own or sit on boards of large media companies, he points out that conflicts of interest can be numerous. Furthermore, he also points out that it is difficult to show beyond doubt that these conflicts of interest make their way into media decisions:

The deeper social loss of giantism in the media is not in its unfair advantage in profits and power; this is real and it is serious. But the gravest loss is in the self-serving censorship of political and social ideas, in news, magazine articles, books, broadcasting, and movies. Some intervention by owners is direct and blunt. But most of the screening is subtle, some not even occurring at a conscious level, as when subordinates learn by habit to conform to owners' ideas. But subtle or not, the ultimate result is distorted reality and impoverished ideas. — *Ben H. Bagdikian, The Media Monopoly, Sixth Edition, (Beacon Press, 2000), pp. 35—36, 45.*

Many stations report news on the very same stories at the exact same time and have commercial breaks at the same time! The sensationalism they compete for is what they hope will drive audiences to their channel.

This type of competition affects the ability to provide quality news and affects the depth and even reputation of professional journalism.

Media executives speak in the language of war—of bombarding audiences, targeting markets, capturing grosses, killing the competition, and winning, by which they mean making more money than the other guy. Some news organisations even refer to their employees as “the troops”. It is hard for media workers, including journalists, to operate outside the ethos of hyper-competition and ratings mania. As willing or

unwilling conscripts in the media war, journalists imbibe its values and become warriors themselves. — *Danny Schechter, Chapter 2, Peace Journalism and Media War: the Fight to Reform Journalism, What Are Journalists For?, presented on the Conflict and Peace Forums, September 1998.*

For example, George Bush must have been delighted to learn from a Washington Post-ABC News poll that 56 percent of Americans still think Iraq had weapons of mass destruction before the start of the war, while six in 10 said they believe Iraq provided direct support to the al-Qaida terrorist network — notions that have long since been thoroughly debunked by everyone from the U.S. Senate Intelligence Committee to both of Bush's handpicked weapons inspectors, Charles Duelfer and David Kay.

Americans believe these lies not because they are stupid, but because they are good **media consumers**. The media have become an echo chamber for those in power. Rather than challenge the fraudulent claims of the Bush administration, they've had a media acting as a **conveyor belt** for the government's lies.

As the Pentagon has learned, deploying the American media is more powerful than any bomb. The explosive effect is amplified as a few pro-war, pro-government media moguls consolidate their grip over the majority of news outlets. Media monopoly and militarism go hand in hand.

When it comes to issues of war and peace, the results of having a compliant media are as deadly to our democracy as they are to our soldiers. Why do the corporate media cheerlead for war? One answer lies in the corporations themselves — the ones that own the major news outlets.

At the time of the first Persian Gulf War, CBS was owned by Westinghouse and NBC by General Electric. Two of the major nuclear weapons manufacturers owned two of the major networks. Westinghouse and GE made most of the parts for many of the weapons in the Persian Gulf War. It was no surprise, then, that much of the coverage on those networks looked like a military hardware show.

We see reporters in the cockpits of war planes, interviewing pilots about how it feels to be at the controls. We almost never see journalists at the target end, asking people huddled in their homes what it feels like not to know what the next moment will bring.

The media have a responsibility to show the true face of war. It is bloody. It is brutal. Real people die. Women and children are killed. Families are wiped out; villages are razed. If the media would show for one week the same unsanitized images of war that the rest of the world sees, people in the U.S. would say no, war is not an answer to conflict in the 21st century.

But we don't see the real images of war. We don't need government censors, because we have corporations sanitizing the news. A study released by American University's School of Communications revealed that media outlets acknowledged they self-censored their reporting on the Iraq invasion out of concerns about public reaction to graphic images and content.

The media organizations in charge of vetting our images of war have become fewer and bigger — and the news more uniform and gung ho. Six huge corporations now control the major U.S. media: Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation (FOX, HarperCollins, New York Post, Weekly Standard, TV Guide, DirecTV and 35 TV stations), General Electric (NBC, CNBC, MSNBC, Telemundo, Bravo, Universal Pictures and 28 TV stations), Time Warner (AOL, CNN, Warner Bros., Time and its 130-plus magazines), Disney (ABC, Disney Channel, ESPN, 10 TV and 72 radio stations), Viacom (CBS, MTV, Nickelodeon, Paramount Pictures, Simon & Schuster and 183 U.S. radio stations), and Bertelsmann (Random House and its more than 120 imprints worldwide, and Gruner + Jahr and its more than 110 magazines in 10 countries).

As Phil Donahue, the former host of MSNBC's highest-rated show who was fired by the network in February 2003 for bringing on anti-war voices, told "Democracy Now!," "We have more TV outlets now, but most of them sell the Bowflex machine. The rest of them are Jesus and jewelry. There really isn't diversity in the media anymore. Dissent? Forget about it."

The lack of diversity in ownership helps explain the **lack of diversity in the news**. When George W. Bush first came to power, the media watchers Fairness and Accuracy in Reporting (FAIR) looked at who appeared on the evening news on ABC, CBS and NBC. Ninety-two percent of all U.S. sources interviewed were white, 85 percent were male, and where party affiliation was identifiable, 75 percent were Republican.

In the run-up to the invasion of Iraq, there was even less diversity of opinion on the airwaves. During the critical two weeks before and after Colin Powell's speech to the United Nations where he made his case for war, FAIR found that just three out of 393 sources — fewer than 1 percent — were affiliated with anti-war activism.

Three out of almost 400 interviews. And that was on the "respectable" evening news shows of CBS, NBC, ABC and PBS.

These are not media that are serving a democratic society, where a diversity of views is vital to shaping informed opinions. This is a well-oiled propaganda machine that is repackaging government spin and passing it off as journalism.

For the media moguls, even this parody of political "diversity" is too much. So as Colin Powell led the war on Iraq, his son, Michael Powell, chairman of the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), led the war on diversity of voices at home.

In the spring of 2003, Michael Powell tried to hand over the airwaves and newspapers to fewer and fewer tycoons by further loosening restrictions on how many media outlets a single company could own. Powell tried to scrap 30-year-old rules that limited the reach of any television network to no more than 35 percent of the national population, and limits on cross-ownership that, for example, prevented newspapers from buying television or radio stations in the same city. The new rules would have allowed a broadcast network to buy up stations that together reached 45 percent of the national population.

The attack on the existing media-ownership rules came from predictable corners: Both Viacom, which owns CBS, and Rupert Murdoch's conservative FOX News Channel were already in violation, and would be forced to sell off stations to come into compliance with the 35-percent limit. The rule change would enable Murdoch to control the airwaves of entire cities. That would be fine with Bush and the Powells, since Murdoch is one of their biggest boosters.

Murdoch declared in February 2003 that George W. Bush "will either go down in history as a very great president or he'll crash and burn. I'm optimistic it will be the former by a ratio of 2 to 1." Murdoch leaves nothing to chance: His FOX News Channel is doing all it can to help.

It looked like Powell, backed by the Bush White House and with Republican control of Congress, would have no trouble ramming through these historic rule changes. The broadcast industry left nothing to chance: Between 1998 and 2004, broadcasters spent a boggling \$249 million lobbying the federal government, including spending \$27 million on federal candidates and lawmakers. This would normally be called bribery. At the FCC, it's just business as usual.

You would think that FCC deregulation, affecting millions of Americans, would get major play in the media. But the national networks knew that if people found out about how one media mogul could own nearly everything you watch, hear and read in a city, there would be revolt. The solution for them was simple: They just didn't cover the issue for a year. The only thing the networks did was to join together — and you thought they were competitors? — in a brief filed with the FCC to call for media deregulation. And then, something remarkable happened: Media activists — an unlikely coalition of liberals and conservatives — mounted a national campaign to defeat Powell and stop the corporate sell-off. The FCC received 2 million letters and e-mails, most of them opposing the sell-off. The Prometheus Radio Project, a grass-roots media activism group, sued to stop the sale of our airwaves, and won in federal court last June. These are hopeful signals that the days of backroom deals by media titans are numbered.

Powell announced his resignation as chairman of the FCC in January. Arguably the worst FCC chairman in history, Powell led with singular zeal the effort to auction off the public airwaves to the highest corporate bidder. In so doing, he did us all a favor: For a brief moment, he pulled back the covers on the incestuous world of media ownership to expose the corruption and rot for all to see.

Kevin Martin, Bush's newly appointed FCC chairman, will, according to an FCC insider, be even worse than Powell. Leading conservative and right-wing religious groups have been quietly lobbying the White House for Martin to chair the FCC. Martin voted with Powell on key regulations favoring media consolidation, and in addition has been a self-appointed indecency czar. The indecency furor conveniently grabs headlines and pushes for the regulation of content, while Martin and the media moguls plan sweetheart deregulation deals to achieve piecemeal what they couldn't push through all at once. This is the true indecency afflicting media today.

The major media conglomerates are among the most powerful on the planet. The onrush of digital convergence and broadband access in the workplaces and homes of America will radically change the way we work, play and communicate. Fiber-to-the-premise (FTTP) from the regional Bells, Voice over IP (VoIP) telephony, bundled services from cable companies, and increased capacity in satellite and wireless technologies will transform the platforms on which we communicate.

Who owns these platforms, what is delivered over them and, fundamentally, in whose interest they work are critical issues before us now. Given the wealth of the media companies and their shrewd donations into our political process, the advocates for the public interest are in far too short a supply.

A blow against media ownership consolidation — now or in the future — will have far-reaching implications, as critical information gains exposure to a caring, active public. Instead of fake reality TV, maybe the media will start to cover the reality of people struggling to get by and of the victories that happen every day in our communities, and in strife-torn regions around the globe.

When people get information, they are empowered. We have to ensure that the airwaves are open for more of that.

South Asia

The media authorities are now in a mood to deny and defy anything and everything legally, morally or socially important. Can one imagine that in India a very renowned daily newspaper of the country coming out everyday without the name of a proper editor? There is editor (marketing), brand editor, executive editor, managing editor, but there is no “EDITOR” although law of the land requires this and without fulfilling this provision it cannot be called a newspaper. But they do not care. Journalists have become contract-laborers under them. There is nothing “noble” in this “profession” now. Proprietors have become all-powerful. There is an unholy alliance between the media-proprietors and administrative heads. Having passed this extreme comments there are exceptions and it is because of these exceptions that there is a semblance of morality in the field of journalism although in a reduced form. Perhaps, for this reason, a good sense is prevailing in the minds of some people who have come forward to check the onslaught of cross-media ownership.

It has been proposed in the form of a bill to be introduced in the Lok Sabha. The name of the bill is “Broadcast Services Regulation Bill”. Through this bill government wants to control so many unwanted developments which have negated the basic motto of journalism i.e. free flow of news among the citizen. Through this new bill they want to control the monopolistic trend of cross media ownership. There is no dearth of other laws enacted by the Government of India. But what happened to them? In the media field people sitting at the helm of affairs dismissed them just by money, power and muscle power. Even the institution like Press Council of India has become laughing stock as their judgments is frequently ignored by many media owners, although this body was created by them. If you yourself is determined to kill your own creation, then who, on earth, can save it?

LESSON 06

USE OF MEDIA BY POWER BLOCKS, EXPLOITATION OF MEDIA & CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL ISSUES

Use Of Media By Power Blocks OR Exploitation Of Media

Censorship is by omission and misuse of language — *Award-winning Journalist, John Pilger, Acts of Murder, May 18, 1999*

A popular government without popular information, or the means of acquiring it, is a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both — *James Madison, fourth President of the United States (1809-1817)*

After you've had somebody say to you for the thousandth time, "How come we never hear about these issues in the media," you start to realize that the media itself is an issue — *Svend Robinson, 1997 [quoted from Rich Media, Poor Democracy by Robert McChesney, p.315]*

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. — *Article 19, United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*

Someone once said that a person's perception of reality is a result of their beliefs. In today's age, many of those beliefs are in some ways or may be in most ways formed or influenced via the **mainstream media**. Mainstream media as discussed in the previous lecture is that same group of 8 or 9 major media companies of the world that are also referred as media moguls or media giants, which are ruling over the world and are a major source of information and entertainment for the people all around the globe. It is therefore worth looking at what the media presents, how it does so, and what factors affect the way it is done.

While many countries have signed the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 19 (about freedom of expression, opinion and information) has not been made a reality. A free and impartial media is a key pillar to a functioning democracy to help spread informed views and opinions. Yet developed and developing countries alike are plagued with various problems in the media in numerous ways. International news coverage is declining which is an increasing concern at a time when the world is attempting to globalize. In many countries, journalists face threats of censorship, beatings and even death for reporting issues that may be controversial or not in the interests of power holders. The mainstream media of the developed and freer, nations pose an often unmentioned or poorly analyzed problem: **the lack of objective reporting** that is not influenced and to a growing degree, controlled by elites with concentrated ownership to advance their interests.

Propaganda and Iraq Issue

Naturally the common people don't want war: Neither in Russia, nor in England, nor for that matter in Germany. That is understood. But, after all, it is the leaders of the country who determine the policy and it is always a simple matter to drag the people along, whether it is a democracy, or a fascist dictatorship, or a parliament, or a communist dictatorship. ... Voice or no voice, the people can always be brought to the bidding of the leaders. That is easy. All you have to do is tell them they are being attacked, and denounce the peacemakers for lack of patriotism and exposing the country to danger. It works the same in any country. — *General Herman Goering, President of German Reichstag and Nazi Party, Commander of Luftwaffe during World War II, April 18, 1946. (This quote is said to have been made during the Nuremburg Trials, but in fact, while during the time of the trials, was made in private to an Allied intelligence officer, later published in the book, Nuremburg Diary.)*

Since the Persian Gulf War in 1991, there have been additional conflicts and confrontations with Iraq, such as the bombing campaign of 1998, and the recent events amidst the so-called "war on terror". The United States and Britain primarily have been highlighting that Iraq poses an immediate and grave threat to the world.

A large segment of the public in numerous countries has remained skeptical about the claims, or not supportive of an all out war. The challenge, for these two countries therefore, has been to wage and win a propaganda war to convince citizens that action is needed urgently.

During the Gulf War of 1991, the United States had imposed military control on the information, which meant that the media portrayal would not have given a complete picture.

There was a lot of bad intelligence or outright disinformation, as *Christian Science Monitor* highlights, that contributed to supporting a war against Iraq in 1991. In addition, a lot of PR and spin was used, and is currently being used in the more recent crisis.

One often-presented fact was that there were remarkably almost no casualties. This led to claims of a new type of war that could be successfully fought. It was often not clarified how many Iraqis had been killed. Estimates vary, but most suggest around 50,000 to 100,000 Iraqi troops. In terms of civilian deaths, estimates are difficult, some estimates suggesting "13,000 civilians were killed directly by American and allied forces, and about 70,000 civilians died subsequently from war-related damage to medical facilities and supplies, the electric power grid, and the water system" as reported by *Business Week* (February 6, 2003). Yet, when 30 to 50 people are killed together by the "enemy" or other nations, then that is often described as a massacre by the same media institutions.

The following example by *Christian Science Monitor* is worth quoting because of the ramifications that unaccountable propaganda can have:

Shortly before US strikes began in the Gulf War, for example, the St. Petersburg Times asked two experts to examine the satellite images of the Kuwait and Saudi Arabia border area taken in mid-September 1990, a month and a half after the Iraqi invasion. The experts, including a former Defense Intelligence Agency analyst who specialized in desert warfare, pointed out the US build-up - jet fighters standing wing-tip to wing-tip at Saudi bases - but were surprised to see almost no sign of the Iraqis.

"That [Iraqi buildup] was the whole justification for Bush sending troops in there, and it just didn't exist," Ms. Heller says. Three times Heller contacted the office of Secretary of Defense, Dick Cheney for evidence refuting the Times photos or analysis - offering to hold the story if proven wrong. The official response: "Trust us." To this day, the Pentagon's photographs of the Iraqi troop buildup remain classified.

John MacArthur, publisher of Harper's Magazine and author of "Second Front: Censorship and Propaganda in the Gulf War," says that considering the number of senior officials shared by both Bush administrations, the American public should bear in mind the lessons of Gulf War propaganda. — *Scott Peterson, In war, some facts less factual, Christian Science Monitor, September 6, 2002. (Emphasis Added)*

People's support was gained due to propaganda. One has to wonder if without propaganda the war, to the extent that it was then carried out, could have still been justified and supported by the masses. For a long time, there has been concern at a buildup specifically for war. This requires propaganda to build support and justification. Yet, it seems that whether successful or not, it has been perhaps more challenging to justify war on Iraq this time, than for previous conflicts.

On March 19, 2003 the media spectacle of the war against Iraq unfolded with a dramatic attempt to "decapitate" the Iraqi regime. Large numbers of missiles were aimed at targets in Baghdad where Saddam Hussein and the Iraqi leadership were believed to be staying and the tens of thousands of ground troops on the Kuwait-Iraq border poised for invasion entered Iraq in a blitzkrieg toward Baghdad.¹ The media followed the Bush administration and Pentagon slogan of "shock and awe" and presented the war against Iraq as a great military spectacle, while triumphalism marked the opening days of the U.S. bombing of Iraq and invasion.

The Al Jazeera network live coverage of the bombing of a palace belonging to the Hussein family was indeed shocking as loud explosions and blasts jolted viewers throughout the world. Whereas some Western audiences experienced this bombing positively as a powerful assault on "evil," for Arab audiences it was experienced as an attack on the body of the Arab and Muslim people, just as the September 11 terror attacks were experienced by Americans as assaults on the very body and symbols of the United States. Whereas during Gulf War I, CNN was the only network live in Baghdad and throughout the war framed the images, discourses, and spectacle, there were over twenty broadcasting networks in Baghdad for the 2003 Iraq war, including several Arab networks, and the different TV companies presented the war quite diversely.

The dramatic story of "Saving Private Lynch" was one of the more spectacular human interest stories of the war that revealed the constructed and spectacle nature of the event and the ways that the Pentagon constructed mythologies that were replicated by the TV networks. Private Jessica Lynch was one of the first American POWs shown on Iraqi TV and since she was young, female, and attractive her fate became a topic of intense interest. Stories circulated that she was shot and stabbed and was tortured by Iraqis holding her in captivity. Eight days after her capture, the U.S. media broadcast footage of her dramatic rescue, obviously staged like a reality TV spectacle. Soldiers stormed the hospital, found Lynch, and claimed a dramatic rescue under fire from Iraqis. In fact, several media institutions interviewed the doctors in the hospital who claimed that Iraqi troops had left the hospital two days before, that the hospital staff had tried to take Jessica to the Americans but they fired on them, and that in the "rescue" the U.S. troops shot through the doors, terrorized doctors and patients, and created a dangerous scene that could have resulted in deaths, simply to get some dramatic rescue footage for TV audiences.

The **Fox network** was especially gung ho, militarist and aggressive, yet Fox footage shown on April 5-6 of the daring U.S. incursion into Baghdad displayed a road strewn with destroyed Iraqi vehicles, burning buildings, and Iraqi corpses. This live footage, replayed for days, caught something of the carnage of the hi-tech slaughter and destruction of Iraq that the U.S. networks tended to neglect. And an Oliver North commentary to footage of a U.S. warplane blasting away one Iraqi tank and armored vehicle after another put on display the hi-tech massacre of a completely asymmetrical war in which the Iraqi military had no chance whatsoever against the U.S. war machine.

U.S. military commanders claimed that in the initial foray into Baghdad 2,000-3,000 Iraqis were killed suggesting that the broadcasting networks were not really showing the brutality and carnage of the war. Indeed, most of the bombing of Iraqi military forces was invisible and dead Iraqis were rarely shown. An embedded CNN reporter, Walter Rogers, later recounted that the one time his report showed a dead Iraqi the CNN switchboard "lit up like a Christmas tree" with angry viewers demanding that CNN not show any dead bodies, as if the U.S. audience wanted to be in denial concerning the human costs of the war.

An April 6 interview on Fox with Forbes magazine publisher and former presidential candidate Steve Forbes made it clear that the U.S. intended to get all the contracts on rebuilding Iraq for American firms, that Iraqi debts held by French and Russians should be cancelled, and that to the victors would go all the spoils of war. Such discourse put on display the arrogance and greed that drove the U.S. effort and subverted all idealistic rhetoric about democracy and freedom for the Iraqis. The very brutality of Fox war pornography graphically displayed the horrors of war and the militarist, gloating, and barbaric discourse that accompanied the slaughter of Iraqis and destruction of the country showed the New Barbarism that characterized the Bush era.

The destruction of a statue of Saddam Hussein on live global television provided precisely the images desired by the Pentagon and Bush administration. Closer analysis of this spectacle revealed, however, that rather than displaying a mass uprising of Iraqis against the Baath regime, there were relatively few people assaulting the Hussein statue. Analysis of the pictures in the square revealed that there was only a relatively small crowd around the statue of Saddam Hussein while most of the square was empty. Those attacking the statue were largely members of the U.S.-supported Iraqi National Congress, one of whose members shown in the crowd attempted to pass himself off as the "mayor" of Baghdad, until U.S. military

forces restrained him. Moreover, the few Iraqis attacking the statue were unable to destroy it, until some U.S. soldiers on the scene used their tank and cable to pull it down. In a semiotic slip, one soldier briefly put a U.S. flag on top of Hussein's head, providing an iconic image for Arab networks and others of a U.S. occupation and take-over of Iraq.

On the whole, U.S. broadcasting networks tended to present a sanitized view of the war while some Canadian, British and other European, and Arab broadcasting presented copious images of civilian casualties and the horrors of war. U.S. television coverage tended toward pro-military patriotism, propaganda, and technological fetishism, celebrating the weapons of war and military humanism, highlighting the achievements and heroism of the U.S. troops. Other global broadcasting networks, however, were highly critical of the U.S. and U.K. military and often presented highly negative spectacles of the assault on Iraq and the shock and awe hi-tech massacre.

News, reporting and photographs or pictures are not the only means, those in power use, to exploit media or for their own vested interests rather they are also using other genres of mass media particularly the entertainment industry like **films** to generate propaganda and to justify what they are doing or want to do against their enemies. War films have always been a tool used to generate propaganda and to manipulate facts but now violence is also generally being used as subject of movies which is overall resulting into the de-sensitization of societies. Criminals are presented as heroes loaded with guns and children and youth idolize them; this glamour of guns influence their innocent minds and therefore a whole new generation of lesser tolerant and more violent children and youngsters is being produced.

Advertising is also a major tool that is playing its part in glamorizing violence and criminal behaviours and is presenting guns as accessories that add glamour and style to your personality. This is manipulation and exploitation of media because those who are doing it are not media persons rather business minded people who are exploiting media for their own vested interests and concentration of media ownership have eased their way. Now media is in few hands and they are showing people everything from guns to violence to desensitize them and to gain their covert objectives.

One example that is worth mentioning here is that while business lobby groups and business funded scientists have attempted to protect many causes, from tobacco to oil (in the climate change issues), **the media's poor attempt at “balance” has worsened the problem.**

Eric A. Davidson is worth quoting on this, he says: “The media likes to present both sides of any issue as if they were boxers of equal stature and strength, and so scientists with opposing points of view are interviewed as if they held equal stature and respect within the scientific community. In terms of strength of argument and credibility, the IPCC i.e., Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change created by the United Nations, scientific consensus about the importance of global warming is a heavyweight compared to the bantam weight of the handful of dissenting scientists. Unfortunately, the well-funded and ideologically and financially motivated bantams are running circles around the pensive, cautious, lumbering heavyweight, and the impact of the bantams' clever program of misinformation far exceeds their numbers or their scientific credentials. Their strategy has been to find little chinks in the armor of the global warming evidence, draw attention to these minor points, blow them out of proportion, and thereby gain publicity in the popular press that cases doubt on the strong mainstream scientific consensus on global warming. When subsequently debated in the peer-reviewed scientific literature, these issues are usually put to rest, but by then, the damage has already been done in the popular press, and the global warming nay sayers achieve their goals of undermining confidence in the science behind the global warming consensus.” — *Eric A. Davidson, You Can't Eat GNP: Economics as if Ecology Mattered*, (Perseus Publishing, 2001), pp. 110 – 111

George Monbiot, in 2004, notes a similar issue, whereby media attempts at balance has led to “**false balancing**” whereby disproportionate time is given to more fringe scientists or those with less credibility or with additional agendas, without noting so, and thus gives the impression that there is more debate than what really exists in the scientific community about whether or not climate change is an issue to be

concerned about or not. But Monbiot notes that this happens in other issues too, such as the issue of smoking.

Media is therefore trying to reserve business community's rights on all grounds and at every cost and this attitude is again not media's own attitude; in fact it is the approach of those who are all in all of media organizations now and those who don't care about the truth rather what they care about is their benefit and their gains.

Military Contractor's Influence

Some military contractors are enormous corporations and wield a lot of power and influence. Their products can literally affect the lives of many people. However, as corporations, their bottom line is important, so it is in their interest to promote an environment where the need for continual high spending on military is required. This then leads to a lot of propaganda.

During the Cold War for example:

President Eisenhower, in his final address to the nation before leaving office in 1961, issues a rather extraordinary warning to the American people that the country "must guard against unwarranted influence, whether sought or unsought, by the military-industrial complex. The potential for the disastrous rise of misplaced power exists and will persist." — *David McGowan, Derailing Democracy, (Common Courage Press, 2000), p.1*

In recent times, the global security has drastically changed. Yet military policies have remained somewhat unchanged, while the justification for such large expenditures continues to improve in sophistication.

Military propaganda is a common theme stereotyped in the developing nations that are undergoing some sort of conflict such as civil wars or border disputes, for example. However, in the developed countries, (the majority of weapons, large and small are created in the industrialized nations) there are also more subtle ways of ensuring that your view points are widely agreed upon, such as military contractors supporting commercials, journalists and even pouring tax payer's money heavily into Hollywood.

As a Foreign Policy in **Focus** paper, titled "Military Industrial Complex Revisited - How Weapons Makers are Shaping U.S. Foreign and Military Policies" by William D. Hartung shows, in the USA for example, the most powerful nation, the large weapons producers have a lot of influence over Washington and have helped maintain the amazingly large military budget of approximately \$300 billion dollars in post-Cold War periods.

Many arms contractors maintain that arms sales are essential to foster good relations and also create more jobs at home.

- Yet, when new weapons development is funded the rationale used is that it is because so many countries have sophisticated weapons.
- These weapons are often the very same ones that these manufacturers have also sold around the world.
- It makes a nice circular argument to continue the development and manufacture of newer and more advanced weapons.
- Demonizing countries that you sell arms to so you can sell more to others is not going to foster good relations.

When sales are made there are often other economic incentives provided to ensure the sale.

- For example, in some cases manufacturing operations required for the weapons are moved abroad.
- Manufacturers often make the point that sales will help create jobs.
- Obviously in these cases it does, but not in the home nation as they make it out to be.

Propaganda Techniques

The Center for Defense Information produced a show called "*Marketing Tomorrow's Weapons*". It makes a number of important observations:

- Major defense contractors own CBS and NBC, two of the largest US television networks.
- A Lockheed advertisement actually claimed that "the *perception* of peace means fewer jobs for Americans". And yet, for example, Turkey builds all F16s, not Americans.
- An ad even claimed that the F22 was an anti-war plane!
- Many advertisements emphasized that a better fighter plane would ensure loved ones can come back home.
- Arms contractors contributed at least 12 million dollars to Congress who actually vote on how much to spend on major weapon systems.
- The ads and propaganda are about minimizing casualties to make us believe that in future wars no one will be killed. [In the Gulf War in 1991, a huge number of Iraqi's were killed, civilian and military. All we heard in the media was only the Allies' side and how the number of casualties was ever so small. There was nothing about the large number of Iraqi casualties -- military and civilian -- which resulted from the Allied bombing. And even if there was a mention in mainstream media, it was very distorted..]
- Amazing, breath-taking air shows leave us in awe at the wonderful technology - almost making us forget the purpose of such aircraft.
- Boeing and Lockheed are major advertisers and contractors.
- Some contractors even sponsor NBA events, while the US Army co-sponsored the 1998 Soccer World Cup!
- Recruitment ads show us the "brotherhood of man" using "emotional manipulation" making us forget that the military is about killing people.
- Students as young as eight years of age were asked what it would be like to fly an F22 and what it means for the protection of the country (USA) and economy (of USA).
- The F22 is all paid for by the US taxpayer - with no enemies in sight.
- The documentary claimed that the only way to get public debate on this matter was to reduce the amount of money that the Pentagon gets. However, the propaganda ensures that this will not happen.

Benefits from Arms Sales

Arms contractors have a vested interest in expansion of military alliances, such as NATO, and also in many wars and conflicts that these alliances or member nations may be in, as this increases their likelihood of profitable sales (with the additional message of therefore bringing more jobs home, which of course is not always the case, as mentioned above). An example of this can be seen with the arms sales for the military operations during the Kosovo Crisis.

On April 28, 2002, the UK's BBC broadcast a documentary called "Addicted to Arms" describing the British arms trade, as Britain is the second largest military and arms exporter after the United States.

MASS MEDIA AND CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL ISSUES

When we look at the propaganda media is doing and the way it is being exploited by its owners and sovereign states particularly US and UK, we get this feeling that all that media is doing is propaganda and there is nothing positive that media is involved into. This is not true, even if we know and realize that what we are watching or listening to is half truth or a total lie or one side of a story that is also because of media because it is due to those some channels, radio or TV and newspapers that show us the other side of the story and we come to know that what we were actually considering as truth was not true.

Human Rights And Media

Human trafficking

Human trafficking differs from people smuggling. In the latter, people voluntarily request smuggler's service for fees and there may be no deception involved in the (illegal) agreement. On arrival at their

destination, the smuggled person is usually free. On the other hand, the trafficking victim is enslaved, or the terms of their debt bondage are fraudulent or highly exploitative. The trafficker takes away the basic human rights of the victim. Victims are sometimes tricked and lured by false promises or physically forced. Some traffickers use coercive and manipulative tactics including deception, intimidation, feigned love, isolation, threat and use of physical force, debt bondage, other abuse, or even force-feeding with drugs to control their victims.

In the case of children, such practices are considered child trafficking even if none of the illicit means previously described are used.

In different parts of the world human trafficking is very active particularly in underdeveloped and developing regions where poverty level is very high and people are living frustrated and deprived lives. However, if analyzed generally the various reasons that cause high level human smuggling are:

- Insufficient income
- Unemployment
- An unsupportive family environment
- High rate of domestic violence
- Frustrations resulting from unrealized expectations

These are some of the factors that push many people to pursue options that are illegal, humiliating and sometimes even life-threatening. Some more are:

- organized crime and presence of organized criminal gangs
- regional imbalances
- economic disparities
- social discrimination
- corruption in government
- political instability
- armed conflict
- Uprooting of communities because of mega projects without proper Resettlement and Rehabilitation packages.
- Profitability
- Growing deprivation and marginalization of the poor
- Insufficient penalties against traffickers
- According to the UN a major factor that has allowed the growth of sexual trafficking is "Governments and human rights organizations alike have simply judged the woman guilty of prostitution and minimized the trafficker's role."
- Driven by demand; demand is high for prostitutes and other forms of labor in host countries; therefore there is a very profitable market available to those who wish to become handlers.

Trafficking in people has been facilitated by porous borders and advanced communication technologies; it has become increasingly transnational in scope and highly lucrative. Unlike drugs or arms, people can be "sold" many times. The opening up of Asian markets, porous borders, the end of the Soviet Union and the collapse of the former Yugoslavia have contributed to this globalization.

United States State Department data "estimated 600,000 to 820,000 men, women, and children are trafficked across international borders each year, approximately 80 percent are women and girls and up to 50 percent are minors. The data also illustrate that the majority of transnational victims are trafficked into commercial sexual exploitation." Due to the illegal nature of trafficking and differences in methodology, the exact extent is unknown.

Since the fall of the Iron Curtain, the impoverished former Eastern bloc countries such as Albania, Moldova, Romania, Bulgaria, Russia, Belarus and Ukraine have been identified as major trafficking source countries for women and children. Young women and girls are often lured to wealthier countries by the promises of money and work and then reduced to sexual slavery. It is estimated that 2/3 of women trafficked for prostitution worldwide annually come from Eastern Europe, three-quarters have never

worked as prostitutes before. The major destinations are Western Europe (Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, UK, Greece), the Middle East (Turkey, Israel, the United Arab Emirates), Asia, Russia and the United States. An estimated 500,000 women from Central and Eastern Europe are working in prostitution in the EU alone.

Many countries in different studies are criticized for failing to comply with the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking. Efforts to protect and reintegrate victims remain weak, and it is affirmed that in most regions it is the NGOs and international organizations that conduct the bulk of trafficking-prevention programs with periodic participation from the authorities.

Under the circumstances, the potential media role in educating the public about the phenomenon cannot be overestimated. By presenting the problem “in human terms and in all its painful detail” the media can “shine a light on an issue typically shrouded in darkness, provide a help line for potential victims and community members who may want to get involved in combating the phenomenon and shame the perpetrators.”

Nevertheless, journalists are also frequently criticized for failing to take a more active stance in raising public awareness of the phenomenon.

In an effort to facilitate in-depth and balanced coverage of human trafficking and its prevention, as well as with the aim of disseminating the best practices in reporting on the phenomenon, the Independent Journalism Center (IJC) in Moldova, a country where human trafficking rate is very high, launched a media-monitoring project under the patronage of the project “New Perspectives for women.” The monitoring was launched in January 2005, and quarterly bulletins were produced in English, Romanian and Russian. Monitoring results were then distributed to major trafficking-prevention organizations and projects, journalism-training institutions, as well as journalists specializing in the coverage of the phenomenon.

IJC in Moldova surveyed and studied what role media is playing by its coverage of this heinous crime. They analyzed and issued a report on their first 23 months study, in which they found that in-depth coverage of the phenomenon is impossible without relevant details about victims and traffickers. It adds a human-interest dimension to stories and helps create powerful, lasting images. If used properly, this information can become an effective means to alert vulnerable population segments about the dangers of trafficking. Similarly, information about trafficker profiles and the “recruiting” techniques used by trafficking rings could serve as a warning to potential victims.

Despite these seemingly obvious considerations, relevant stories carried by the monitored newspapers from January 2005 to November 2006, contained little specific information about the victims and traffickers. Even though victims were mentioned in 184 out of 256 relevant stories (i.e. 72%), such information as age, place of residence, family status, stated reason for migration or victims’ state of health upon return, were seldom mentioned. Victims’ voices were seldom heard – they were used as news sources on 29 occasions, i.e. they accounted for less than 8% of the news sources. All this is hardly surprising, given the fact that most of the accounts were based on press releases of the Interior Ministry or reports of international organizations.

The majority of the specified victims were women (280), but there were also 105 groups and 25 men mentioned. Based on the sketchy details provided in the monitored newspapers throughout 23 months, the following profile of an average victim can be “constructed”:

- A female aged 18-30
- From the countryside
- Single
- Who had tried to escape from dire poverty
- Was trafficked for prostitution
- Had had no idea about the real purpose of migration (thought she would get a well-paid legal job).

Information about traffickers was provided in 153 articles (i.e. a little under 60% of the total story number). Most of these were men (101). Relevant stories also contained the mention of 80 female traffickers and 37 groups. A “typical” trafficker:

- Was aged 18-30
- Resided in a Moldovan town.

In 14 cases reported between January 2005 and November 2006, perpetrators were former victims of trafficking. In several other instances, the victims had been trafficked by their own relatives or close friends. On one occasion, the trafficker was the victim’s own mother who had sold her 17 year old daughter into forced labor for 1,000 Russian roubles.

Media coverage of human trafficking:

Legal And Ethical Aspects

The way in which human trafficking is covered by the media requires a complex approach with a focus on the legal issues, as well as ethical issues and journalistic professionalism, since the latter two aspects also influence the legal status of human-trafficking coverage. Below the following problematic aspects of the issue will be analyzed:

- To what extent may the identity (name) of a human-trafficking defendant or convict be disclosed by the media;
- To what extent the stories under study respect the presumption of innocence;
- To what extent the stories under study respect the right to privacy;
- To what extent the stories under study are well researched from a legal point of view;
- Relevant legal aspects: defamation (damaged honor, dignity and professional reputation); the value of the right to privacy; *complex legal issues (the right to be presumed innocent)*.

Human trafficking is an area replete with issues that do not produce easy legal solutions and are constantly the subject of disagreement. Under the circumstances, final assessments are usually given based on the ethical aspects of a certain set of circumstances and the extent to which the reporter has observed the principles of professionalism in his or her coverage.

Unfortunately, one has to admit that the majority of human-trafficking stories are done with little effort on the part of the journalist: the journalist usually does nothing but copy, sometimes verbatim, releases issued by the police or the Interior Ministry. This is why such stories usually contain only one source, one view, and reflect only the work of the police, thus serving only the interests of the police rather than the interests of readers or justice. The picture thus painted is banal: the police work to improve their own image and “show” that they work by organizing press conferences and issuing releases when “yet another crime has been solved”. The police do not seem to care about such things as the right to privacy and presumption of innocence; the only concern the police have is to show that their work is effective and they catch criminals.

The police thus show off, while the media and society let themselves be fooled. The media sometimes repeat exactly what the police have said without at least asking the defendant’s position—through his/her lawyer—on the case in order to achieve at least some semblance of balance.

It is difficult to qualify this situation from a legal and ethical viewpoint, for this also requires answers to the question whether the police have the right to release the information they possess in the manner they currently do, when they present *de facto* the defendant as a criminal, although the terminology they use is correct *de jure*. If the presumption of innocence is to be observed the police ought not to issue such information. The contradiction here is that society needs the information, since it serves a public interest.

Professional ethics require journalists to double check the facts they use in their stories as well as the relevant legal provisions. It is both necessary for a story to be good and help journalists avoid legal trouble. If the journalist uses inaccurate information, he or she runs the risk of being sued for defamation or, according to the wording in Moldovan law, for “damaged honor, dignity and professional reputation”

(art. 16 Civil Code of 06.06.2002). Information which is not verified thoroughly or is published without convincing evidence as to its truthfulness is the most frequent trigger of lawsuits. The use of accurate information is the best insurance against legal trouble. If a story relies on true facts, which can be proved in court, the journalist and the media outlet are unlikely to be in trouble with justice. There is an exception, however: information relating to privacy and family life.

International law

In 2000 the United Nations adopted the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, also called the Palermo Convention. Its two protocols (the **Palermo Protocols**) are:

- Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children
- Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air.

All of these instruments contain elements of the current international law on trafficking in human beings.

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL ISSUES**Arms Smuggling/ Trafficking****Fighting the Illicit Trafficking of Small Arms**

The illicit trafficking in small arms is a trans-national phenomenon. This trade of arms, terrorists and terrorist groups are operating around the world. The line between the legal and illicit trades in small arms is often blurred, fuelled by the lack of strict international criteria and controls. Around the world, the illegal income generated by exploiting resources such as timber, drugs, diamonds, and other minerals perpetuates conflicts and corruption. Arms brokers can operate because they are able to circumvent national arms controls and international arms embargoes or obtain official protection. Developing policies to address the illicit trafficking in small arms cannot be done in a vacuum or by the United States unilaterally. Other countries, on a national, regional and international level, must develop stronger controls on legal sales and increase and enhance international cooperation.

According to experts on illicit black markets, clandestine business has broken through the constraints once thought to be imposed by regulatory institutions and has spread throughout the international socio-economic environment, with a high level of technical and commercial sophistication. “From recreational drugs to counterfeit credit cards, from fake designer watches to stolen diamonds, it is no longer a case of the operation of this or that isolated black market, but rather the emergence of an international underground economy. That economy consists of a set of interrelated black markets supported by their own systems of information, their own sources of supply, their own distribution networks, and their own modes of financing.”

This trade encompasses illicit trafficking in small arms, the exchange of weapons for money, drugs and other commodities that crosses national borders and spans the globe. These arms are not only the weapons of choice in the majority of today’s regional conflicts but also for many terrorists and terrorist groups operating around the world. This fact makes them central to the U.S. global war on terror, and shutting down the global network, or at least limiting its reach, would provide a tangible achievement in an otherwise nebulous fight.

The Congressional Research Service (CRS) estimates that between 25 and 30 non-state groups spread throughout the world possess shoulder-fired missiles, and small arms, in general, are ubiquitous. The proliferation of these weapons contributes to violence and lawlessness, which create conditions of chaos that allow terrorist networks to emerge and thrive.

In order to create adequate strategies that foster global peace and security, governments and international law enforcement must tackle the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons. While the United States has some of the best arms export, end-use monitoring and brokering laws on the books, it has a vested interest in ensuring that other countries improve their national legislation and that international and regional measures are developed and strengthened. Without concrete improvements, small arms networks will continue to operate with impunity, adding fuel to many already tenuous or enflamed situations all over the world.

Small Arms and Light Weapons in the Post-Cold War World

In order to understand just how these networks work and what steps authorities can take to fight them, it is necessary to look at the changes brought by the end of the Cold War regarding global conflict. The bipolar conflict that had consumed international affairs is over, and the post-Cold War era has seen new kinds of conflicts, many ethnic or religious in nature and more often intra-state than inter-state. These new conflicts are fought with small arms and light weapons, not the heavy conventional weapons or threat of weapons of mass destruction representative of the Cold War.

Small arms and light weapons are defined as any that one or two people can carry, can be mounted on a vehicle, or loaded onto a pack animal. This classification ranges from machine guns to stinger missiles and includes rocket-propelled grenades and mortars. Cold War weapons, made surplus or obsolete by new

supplies, became ready stockpiles for legal and illicit markets, available for purchase or exchange for a variety of commodities.

Small arms and light weapons are the weapons of choice of warring parties today, be they government armies, rebel forces or terrorists, and help prolong conflicts around the world. Small arms are also persistent, often remaining behind at the end of conflict, and provide easy armaments for any party wanting to reignite a conflict or engage a neighboring country. Even when further fighting does not materialize, small arms can be employed in other forms of criminal violence, disruption of development efforts, or interference with efforts to deliver humanitarian aid.

Why have small arms become such useful tools of violence? There are several advantages to small arms, as compared to heavy conventional weapons. They are cheap, widely available, lethal, simple to use, durable, portable, concealable, and have legitimate military, police, and civilian uses, making them easy to cross borders, legally and illicitly. [3] These weapons are used to fight low-intensity conflicts, and they are responsible for hundreds of thousands of deaths every year. In some conflicts, up to 80 percent of the casualties are attributable to small arms and light weapons fire.

For these reasons, the acquisition of small arms is a top priority for warring parties around the world, and as with any market good, the availability and cost of small arms is driven by supply and demand. As small arms have legitimate uses, they are available in the legal marketplace even if used for illegal purposes or by illegal end-users. When legal channels are unavailable, interested parties can turn to a thriving international black market to meet their needs. With an estimated 639 million small arms and light weapons in worldwide circulation, supply is never a problem. While nowhere near the dollar value of the heavy conventional arms market, the small arms trade is still big business. The legal global small arms market is estimated at \$4 billion a year, and the illegal small arms trade is estimated at close to \$1 billion.

Drug Trafficking

The illegal drug trade is a global black market consisting of the cultivation, manufacture, distribution and sale of illegal drugs. While some drugs are legal to possess and sell, in most jurisdictions laws prohibit the trade of certain types of drug.

The illegal drug trade operates similarly to other underground markets. Various drug cartels specialize in the separate processes along the supply chain, often localized to maximize production efficiency. Depending on the profitability of each layer, cartels may vary in size, consistency, and organization. The chain ranges from low-level street dealers who may be individual drug users themselves, through ethnicity-based street gangs and contractor-like middlemen, up to multinational empires that rival governments in size.

Illegal drugs may be grown in wilderness areas, on farms, produced in indoor or outdoor residential gardens or indoor hydroponic grow-ops, or manufactured in drug labs located anywhere from a residential basement to an abandoned facility. The common characteristic binding these production locations is that they are discreet to avoid detection, and thus they may be located in any ordinary setting without raising notice. Much illegal drug cultivation and manufacture takes place in developing nations, although production also occurs in the developed world.

In locales where the drug trade is illegal, police departments as well as courts and prisons may expend significant resources in pursuing drug-related crime. Additionally, through the influence of a number of black market players, corruption is a problem, especially in poorer societies.

Consumption of illegal drugs is widespread globally. While consumers avoid taxation by buying on the black market, the high costs involved in protecting trade routes from law enforcement lead to vastly inflated prices.

Additionally, various laws criminalize certain kinds of *trade* of drugs that are otherwise legal (for example, untaxed cigarettes). In these cases, the drugs are often manufactured and partially distributed by the normal legal channels, and diverted at some point into illegal channels.

Finally, many governments restrict the production and sale of large classes of drugs through prescription systems.

Illegal trade of legal drugs

Legal drugs can be the subject of smuggling and illegal trading if the price difference between the origin and the destination are high enough to make it profitable, due to high taxes or other restrictions in the destination locale. If a large price difference exists without legal restrictions, then legal trade of drugs can take place between the two markets.

Alcohol and tobacco

With taxes on tobacco much higher in the United Kingdom than on mainland Europe there exists a sizable untaxed cigarette market in the UK. Likewise in other regions where high-tax and low- or no-tax societies exist nearby, such as Canada and parts of the United States as well as various Indian reservations. It is also illegal to sell or give tobacco or alcohol to minors in some of these areas, which is considered smuggling throughout most MED Countries.

Prescription drugs

Some prescription drugs are also available by illegal means, eliminating the need to manufacture and process the drugs. For example, prescription opioids such as the group of the fentanyl analogues are much stronger than heroin found on the street. They are sourced either from stolen or partly divided prescriptions sold by medical practices and occasionally from Internet sale. Benzodiazepines, in particular temazepam and flunitrazepam, are also frequently diverted to the black market through forged prescriptions, pharmacy robberies and doctor shopping. In Malaysia and Singapore, there occurs similar diversion of nimetazepam. However, it is much easier to control traffic in prescription drugs than in banned drugs because the manufacturer is usually an originally legal enterprise and thus the leak can often be readily found and countered. There might also be an advantage in reduced risk of contaminated or poor to outright toxic produce common with illegal clandestine laboratory production.

Internet and controlled substances

"No Prescription Websites" (NPWs) offer to sell controlled substances without a valid prescription. NPWs were first recognized by the U.S. Justice Department in 1999, indicating that such sites had been operating at least through the late 1990s. NPWs enable dealers and users to complete transactions without direct contact, meanwhile many NPWs accept credit cards, others only accept cash thereby further reducing any paper trail. Many NPWs are hosted in countries in which specific categories of controlled substances are locally legal (e.g. prescription opioids in Mexico), but because of the global nature of the internet, NPWs are able to do (mostly illegal) business with customers around the globe. In addition to prescription opioids, stimulants, and sedatives, steroids are often widely distributed. To date, no websites have been found selling illegal drugs like heroin, or illegal amphetamine derivatives. Some police have uncovered several instances of drug vendors or drug rings using Craigslist personal ads to solicit drug business using code words and phrases. All other categories of drugs are available online.

2004 saw the conclusion of Operation Web Tryp, focusing on companies selling so-called research chemicals, legal psychedelic phenethylamines and tryptamines on the Internet.

Foreign intervention

Some governments that criminalize drug trade have a policy of interfering heavily with foreign states. In 1989, the United States intervened in Panama with the goal of disrupting the drug trade coming from Panama. The Indian government has several covert operations in the Middle East and Indian subcontinent to keep a track of various drug dealers.

Size of illegal drug trade

Some estimates placed the value of the global trade in illegal drugs at around US\$400 billion in the year 2000; that, added to the global trade value of legal drugs at the same time, totals to an amount higher than the amount of money spent for food in the same period of time. In the 2005 United Nations World Drug Report, the value of the global illicit drug market for the year 2003 was estimated at US\$13 billion at the

production level, at US\$94 billion at the wholesale level, and US\$322 - \$400 billion based on retail prices and taking seizures and other losses into account.

Violent resolutions

Because disputes cannot be resolved through legal means, participants at every level of the illegal drug industry are inclined to compete with one another through violence. In the late 1990s in the United States, the FBI estimates that 5% of murders were drug-related.

Many have argued that the arbitrariness of drug prohibition laws from the medical point of view, especially the theory of harm reduction, worsens the problems around these substances.

Minors and the illegal drug trade

The U.S. government's 2005 National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) reported that nationwide over 800,000 adolescents ages 12-17 sold illegal drugs during the 12 months preceding the survey. The 2005 Youth Risk Behavior Survey by the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) reported that nationwide 25.4% of students had been offered, sold, or given an illegal drug by someone on school property. The prevalence of having been offered, sold, or given an illegal drug on school property ranged from 15.5% to 38.7% across state CDC surveys (median: 26.1%) and from 20.3% to 40.0% across local surveys (median: 29.4%).

Despite over \$7 billion spent annually towards arresting and prosecuting nearly 800,000 people across the country for marijuana offenses in 2005 (FBI Uniform Crime Reports), the federally-funded Monitoring the Future Survey reports about 85% of high school seniors find marijuana "easy to obtain." That figure has remained virtually unchanged since 1975, never dropping below 82.7% in three decades of national surveys.

Trade Of Specific Drugs

The price per gram of heroin is typically 8 to 10 times that of cocaine on US streets. Generally in Europe (except the transit countries Portugal and the Netherlands), a purported gram of street Heroin, which is usually between 0.7 and 0.8 grams light to dark brown powder consisting of 5-10%, less commonly up to 20%, heroin base, is between 30 and 70 euros, which makes for an effective price of pure heroin per gram of between 300 and 2000 euros.

The purity of street cocaine in Europe is usually in the same range as it is for heroin, the price being between 50 and 100 euros per between 0.7 and 1.0 grams. This totals to a cocaine price range between 500 and 2000 euros.

Anabolic steroids

According to the Office of National Drug Control Policy, anabolic steroids are relatively easy to smuggle into the United States. Once there, they are often sold at gyms and competitions as well as through mail operations.

Cannabis

In World Drug report 2006 UNODC focused on *The New cannabis*, distribution of stronger marijuana with more THC and its health effects.

In the United States, when cannabis is not grown in large-scale "grow ops" warehouses or other large establishments such as mountain ranges or grown for limited distribution in small-scale such as under houses or backyard projects, it is usually imported from Canada, Mexico or farther south. Most of the cannabis sold commercially in the U.S. is grown in hidden grow operations with the majority grown in the Midwest or in the California area which naturally has some of the world's best soil for growing crops. Much of the cannabis in the United States is imported from Mexico, however this cannabis is usually low quality sometimes referred to as brown bud, regs, regular, schwag, mersh, or dirt weed. The packaging methods used are often crude resulting in compressed or "bricked" weed. The cannabis imported from British Columbia in Canada, known as BC bud or BC Beast, is sometimes of higher quality than cannabis grown in the United States (though cannabis from Northern California has a similar reputation). Again, due to flaws in packaging and shipping, cannabis that has travelled a long distance frequently is tainted with a strong smell of (lawn) grass, hay or alfalfa. Locally grown produce does not ordinarily smell this

way, although outdoor-grown weed often smells of other plant material due to its mingled upbringing in nature. Around 40% of US marijuana is grown inside of the country.

Psilocybin mushrooms

Psilocybe mushrooms grow naturally in most climates, thus this drug market is financially less lucrative, even though there is no doubt a certain kind of commercial growing of the Psilocybe mushrooms, half-legally in the Netherlands and illegally from different stages of maturity/manufacture of chewable dried mushroom tissue. Psychonauts will often grow these mushrooms or pick them for themselves as they are common to find in many places of the world.

Alcohol

In some areas of the world, particularly in and around the Arabian Peninsula, the trade of alcohol is strictly prohibited. For example, Pakistan bans the trade because of its large Muslim population. Similarly, Saudi Arabia forbids the importation of alcohol into its kingdom; however, alcohol is smuggled in very high quantities. Fugitive Cassandra Dickerson was a noted criminal smuggler responsible for 90% of the alcohol being smuggled into Saudi Arabia in 2003. In other areas it is considered like any other beverage, and is legal. In still other areas, there is an age limit for consumers, and a license is necessary to sell alcohol.

Pure alcohol or liquids with high alcohol content over a certain percentage or proof, calculated by volume or weight, are also banned in many countries. In Russia, for example, rubbing alcohol is a scheduled drug on par with heroin, and theoretically has the same legal penalties.

Tobacco

The illegal trade of tobacco is motivated primarily by increasingly heavy taxation. When tobacco products such as name-brand cigarettes are traded illegally, the cost is as little as one third that of retail price due to the lack of taxes being applied as the product is sold from manufacturer to buyer to retailer. It has been reported that smuggling one truckload of cigarettes within the United States leads to a profit of 2 million U.S. dollars.

The source of the illegally-traded tobacco is often the proceeds from other crimes, such as store and transportation robberies.

Sometimes, the illegal trade of tobacco is motivated by differences in taxes in two jurisdictions, including smuggling across international borders. Smuggling of tobacco from the US into Canada has been problematic, and sometimes political where trans-national native communities are involved in the illegal trade.

The kingdom of Bhutan made the sale of tobacco illegal in December 2004, and since this time a flourishing black market in tobacco products has sprung up. In 2006, tobacco and betel nut were the most commonly seized illicit drugs in Bhutan.

Opium

International illicit trade in opium is relatively rare. Major smuggling organizations prefer to further refine opium into heroin before shipping to the consumer countries, since a given quantity of heroin is worth much more than an equivalent amount of opium. As such, heroin is more profitable, and much stronger, because heroin metabolizes directly into the main naturally-occurring psychoactive substance in opium - morphine.

Heroin/Morphine

Heroin is smuggled into the United States and Europe. Purity levels vary greatly by region with, for the most part, Northeastern cities having the most pure heroin in the United States (according to a recently released report by the DEA, Elizabeth and Newark, New Jersey, have the purest street grade A heroin in the country). Heroin is a very easily smuggled drug because a small, quarter-sized vial can contain hundreds of dose. Heroin is also widely (and usually illegally) used as a powerful and addictive drug that produces intense euphoria, which often disappears with increasing tolerance. This 'rush' comes from its high lipid solubility provided by the two acetyl groups, resulting in a very rapid penetration of the blood-brain barrier after use. Once in the blood stream, heroin is rapidly converted to morphine. The morphine

then binds to the opioid receptors in the brain and spinal cord, causing the subjective effects. Heroin and morphine can be taken or administered in a number of ways, including snorting and injection. They may also be smoked by inhaling the vapors produced when heated from below (known as "chasing the dragon"). Penalties for smuggling heroin and/or morphine are often harsh in most countries. Some countries will readily hand down a death sentence for the illegal smuggling of heroin or morphine, which are both, internationally, Schedule I drugs under the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs. In various Asian countries, including Singapore and Malaysia, heroin and morphine are classed by themselves and penalties for their use, possession, and/or trafficking are more severe than all other drugs, including other opioids and cocaine.

Using Mass media to reduce adolescent involvement in Drugs Trafficking

Drug trafficking among adolescents is a newly recognized high-risk behavior that seems to be involving large numbers of youths. Strategies to prevent and/or alter this behavior must be developed and evaluated. In view of the high exposure of adolescents to the mass media, interventionists seeking to reduce adolescent risk behavior have increasingly employed the media in their efforts to reduce adolescent risk behaviors in general. However, not all risk behaviors may be amenable to change as a result of this approach. Therefore, before utilizing this approach to address adolescent drug trafficking, it is important to investigate previous efforts targeting related risk behaviors.

Mass media campaigns against the use of drugs have been going on in the various developed countries and seem to have played a role in reducing consumption of both legal and illegal drugs. The most effective messages seem to focus on the risks of drug use and the social disapproval that attends use. The mass media may increase the influence of these anti-drug messages by changing the social climate surrounding drug use.

The mass media may be a particularly effective way to reach adolescents and their parents in communities in which adolescent drug trafficking is prevalent and to unite the institutions that could influence adolescents against involvement in the drug trade. However, intervention efforts must also contend with the economic incentives of the drug trade in poor, central-city communities.

CHILD RIGHTS

The United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF, is the main international body dedicated to the rights of every child.

- The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the major convention countries sign up to.
- Somalia and USA are the only two countries in the world that have not ratified the convention
 - However, as UNICEF point out, "Somalia is currently unable to proceed to ratification as it has no recognized government. By signing the Convention, the United States has signalled its intention to ratify - but has yet to do so."
 - On the one hand it would seem that the U.S. has no excuse not to sign, but as UNICEF further point out, in the U.S. ratifying treaties can sometimes take a very long time, even decades.

And despite the U.S.'s perceived short-comings here, according to a report by Human Rights Watch, many countries have also failed to enact the convention that they have signed to. Their press release for this report summarizes some of the **common problems children face**, such as:

- Refugees (children make up over half of the world's refugees)
- Hazardous labor exploitation
- physical abuse
- sexual violence and exploitation
- recruitment as child soldiers
- Police abuse and arbitrary detention of street children
- Orphans and abandoned children without adequate care
- Sexual abuse and trafficking
- Lack of access to education, or substandard education

The U.N. Special Session on Children in 2002 shows that a lot of the above problems still exist, as well as many others. Furthermore, the Session has highlighted many nations from the United States, to Syria, Iran and various others have in different ways opposed to certain aspects of children's rights. (The previous link has more details.)

The Convention also has some additional optional protocols, such as the **Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child** on the involvement of children in armed conflicts.

- The Protocol also clarifies that 18 years is the minimum age for direct participation in hostilities, for compulsory recruitment and for any recruitment by non-governmental armed groups.
- However, many nations, including wealthy and powerful countries such as UK have contentious issues when it comes to such additional protocols, especially in terms of the use of child combatants.
- For example as Amnesty International reported, the United Kingdom in June 2003, "formally ratified an important child rights treaty - pledging to try to avoid deploying its under-age soldiers into active combat - but then also undermined the treaty's purpose by reserving wide discretion to use young people in battle." In addition, Amnesty also noted that No other European country apart from the UK deploys under-18s. The Convention defines a child to be anyone under the age of 18 unless national laws indicate otherwise. In the UK's case, the age of 18 is the age to vote, and as Amnesty International states in another article this implies children in the UK are old enough to kill but too young to vote.
- Many countries employ children as soldiers, making the 300,000 estimated the world over.

Using Mass Media To Fight Organized Crime

Introduction on media sociology

It is commonly said that we live in an information society. A society which is mainly based on services and where information of all kinds is the key to well-being and power. Modern societies are increasingly dependent on complex communication systems, in which there is enormous interest and which play a considerable role in political, social and economic life.

It should also be said, however, that increasingly complex social structures, both at national and international level, have provided the media with new tasks and challenges. The decline of traditional social authorities (political parties, the Church, the family, the community, etc.) should increase the need for effective public-institutions which can compensate for this loss. Moreover, public demand has expanded due to the trend towards globalisation, which affects all aspects of everyday life, while individualism, relativism and precariousness make most people more dependent and vulnerable and, therefore, increase their need for information.

Among the many changes in modern society, the mass media clearly have a pivotal role. One important aspect of the problem is the role the media can play in the fight against crime and, in particular, organised crime. The issue has been widely studied and can be summarised in terms of three basic theoretical concepts:

- The first is **Albert Bandura's theory** of social learning, whereby individuals learn from the media what behaviour will be punished and what behaviour rewarded;
- The second is **Berkowitz's priming effect**, whereby people's observation of crime leads them to think along similar lines and make comparable judgments, which predisposes them to violence in interpersonal situations.
- Finally comes, **Huesman's script theory**, according to which social behaviour is controlled by a script which indicates how one should behave in different circumstances according to a model provided by the media.

As well as such theories, there is also the widespread belief that being exposed to violent crime can lead one to become desensitized to and, therefore, more tolerant of violence. It is, however, utterly true that the media can play a crucial role in the prevention and control of crime.

It may be perceived to be generally associated with the latest trends, but it has never been particularly open to radical change. People have been talking for years about the imminent death of the mass media.

The new interactive media should have made it look outdated, but they have had almost no impact on the absolute supremacy of the traditional media.

It may be that several characteristics of the media are simply irreplaceable. Technology and form can change, but only mass communication can meet the demands of stable political, economical and social systems. National and international politics cannot, for the moment, do without effective communication methods and mass information. Although these ideas are shared by many, the question still remains as to what type of state-media relationship might most effectively combat organised crime.

Characteristics of organised crime in the new millennium

It should also be emphasised that organised crime has altered considerably in modern society. Things have changed in two main ways: criminal groups have become more international and, as they have gradually adopted a business-like approach, they are more likely to be copied.

In our global society, even crime has taken on transnational features, with cross-border crimes becoming increasingly frequent. First there was drug trafficking, then smuggling of foreign tobacco, prostitution, trafficking in persons, counterfeit industrial goods and so on; all requiring the transfer of goods, persons and capital from one part of the world to another. This led inevitably to a gradual grouping together of organised crime gangs controlling particular areas, the adoption of common modes of operation and the possibility of exploiting differing legislation and the varying levels of effectiveness of crime prevention in different countries.

The second effect follows on directly from the first. If we look at cross-border crime we see that they adhere to the principle of maximum profit for minimum legal risk which is characteristic of criminal businesses. They are also generally offences which completely overturn any traditional aggressor-victim relationship.

Cross-border crimes committed by organised criminals usually involve providing illegal goods or services to consenting persons. Drug trafficking, tobacco smuggling, prostitution and the trafficking in persons are all businesses run by criminal gangs who are willing and able to satisfy demand for illegal services in rich western markets with the flexibility associated with traditional business activity.

This makes things considerably difficult for national police forces that rarely receive testimonies or complaints and who, above all, no longer come across extreme displays of violence. Rather, they are faced with complex criminal systems operating in the impenetrable world of the underground economy. The way in which organised crime is fought clearly needs to change and focus on both prevention and control.

How can the fight against smuggling and prostitution be said to be effective while thousands of people are still buying smuggled cigarettes or obtaining the services of prostitutes?

Tens of thousands of people are arrested in Europe every year for crimes related to drug trafficking and many tons of illegal drugs are seized, yet the use of illegal drugs has not decreased; it has, on the contrary, become more widespread with currently unacceptable numbers of deaths from overdoses.

That is why any new crackdown on crime will not work without getting people actively involved and putting direct pressure on potential new clients. It is necessary to convince people that buying a packet of smuggled cigarettes is tantamount to financing a criminal gang, that prostitution is the last link in the unspeakable crimes of trafficking inhuman beings, that the use of drugs ruins one's health, etc. The role of the media in this issue is absolutely clear.

Using Media To Prevent And Fight Crime

In the modern information society, people should have as much information as possible on public institutions to ensure that democratic values are upheld. In this connection, the provision of information on the activities of police forces and the Public Prosecutor in the fight against organised crime could be essential.

It is evident that the focus of criminal proceedings has changed in recent decades, from gathering, presenting and evaluating evidence for and against the defendant to becoming, through mass-media

coverage and globalisation, more of a reflection of public opinion on important news items and issues of political and social interest (as, for example, in government corruption cases).

Criminal proceedings have thus become a means of influencing public opinion through the mass media, and they, in turn, can be influenced by media requirements and dominant political groups.

In our particular field, the effectiveness of criminal proceedings and control of the mass media can be excellent ways for us to gain people's trust in government institutions and even to prevent crime being committed.

The broadcasting of news items about the effectiveness of police forces or about the speed and timeliness of deterrent sentences certainly discourages potential offenders and may even force them to abandon crime altogether.

It is well known that one of the functions of sentencing is to serve as a deterrent to crime. It is particularly important to gain people's trust in the fight against organised crime as this can help break the conspiracy of silence imposed by criminal gangs and encourage people to give evidence or make a complaint against a crime.

Positive examples publicized by the mass media can be particularly effective in geographical and social groups which have been forced into silence by criminal organisations. The most decisive part, however, of the mass media's role in the fight against organised crime could and should be providing people with examples of social behaviour that are perhaps not collectively considered particularly alarming but which are big-business opportunities for organised crime.

Buying smuggled cigarettes or counterfeit clothes is not considered by most people as particularly serious anti-social behaviour; it is almost universally tolerated and there is even a certain satisfaction in paying less tax or less money for big, monopolistic brand names.

However, if the mass media can make people conscious of the fact that buying smuggled cigarettes or counterfeit clothes will actually mean giving significant financial support to organised criminal gangs, helping them to commit violent crime, engage in large-scale drug trafficking and put many people's lives at risk, sales of such goods would probably fall.

Information on criminal investigations could also be extremely useful for people to help them avoid buying counterfeit products or becoming a victim of the large-scale fraud currently perpetrated by organised criminal gangs in the European Union. We are therefore faced with the decisive challenge of guaranteeing freedom, security and justice in Europe, a challenge which, in the new millennium, will necessarily involve a much closer relationship between government and the mass media in the fight against organised crime.

It is worth mentioning one of Pope Pius XII's statements, expounded in his speech of 17 February 1950: "It would not be an exaggeration to say that the future of modern society and its internal stability depend to a large extent on the balance between the strength of communications technology and the ability of individuals to react."

PORTRAYAL OF WOMEN IN MEDIA

We all know the stereotypes—the femme fatale, the super mom, the sex kitten, the nasty corporate climber. Whatever the role, television, film and popular magazines are full of images of women and girls who are typically white, desperately thin, and made up to the hilt—even after slaying a gang of vampires or dressing down a Greek legion.

Many would agree that some strides have been made in how the media portray women in film, television and magazines, and that the last 20 years has also seen a growth in the presence and influence of women in media behind the scenes. Nevertheless, female stereotypes continue to thrive in the media we consume every day.

Media Coverage Of Women And Women's Issues

Women professionals and athletes continue to be under-represented in news coverage, and are often stereotypically portrayed when they are included.

Women, News and Politics

Although there has been a steady increase in the number of women professionals over the past 20 years, most mainstream press coverage continues to rely on men as experts in the fields of business, politics and economics. Women in the news are more likely to be featured in stories about accidents, natural disasters, or domestic violence than in stories about their professional abilities or expertise.

Women in politics are similarly sidelined. Canadian journalist Jenn Goddu studied newspaper and magazine coverage of three women's lobby groups over a 15-year period. She discovered that journalists tend to focus on the domestic aspects of the politically active woman's life (such as "details about the high heels stashed in her bag, her habit of napping in the early evening, and her lack of concern about whether or not she is considered ladylike") rather than her position on the issues.

Quebec political analyst Denis Monière uncovered similar patterns. In 1998, Monière analysed 83 late evening newscasts on three national networks—the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, Radio-Canada (the French-language public broadcaster) and TVA. He observed that women's views were solicited mainly in the framework of "average citizens" and rarely as experts, and that political or economic success stories were overwhelmingly masculine.

Monière also noted that the number of female politicians interviewed was disproportionate to their number in Parliament or in the Quebec National Assembly; nor, he noted, was this deficiency in any way compensated for by the depth and quality of coverage.

Inadequate women's coverage seems to be a worldwide phenomenon. In 2000 the Association of Women Journalists (Association des femmes journalistes – AFJ) studied news coverage of women and women's issues in 70 countries. It reported that only 18 per cent of stories quote women, and that the number of women-related stories came to barely 10 per cent of total news coverage.

News talk shows are equally problematic. The White House Project reports that only 9 per cent of the guests on Sunday morning news shows such as *Meet the Press* and *Face the Nation* are women, and even then they only speak 10 per cent of the time—leaving 90 per cent of the discussion to the male guests. Project president Marie Wilson warns that the lack of representation for women will have profound consequences on whether or not women are perceived as competent leaders, because "authority is not recognized by these shows. It is created by these shows."

Professor Caryl Rivers notes that politically active women are often disparaged and stereotyped by the media. When Hillary Clinton was still first lady, she was referred to as a "witch" or "witchlike" at least 50 times in the press. Rivers writes, "male political figures may be called mean and nasty names, but those words don't usually reflect superstition and dread. Did the press ever call Presidents Carter, Reagan, Bush, or Clinton warlocks?"

Women and Sports

Women athletes are also given short shrift in the media. Margaret Carlisle Duncan and Michael Messner studied sports coverage on three network affiliates in Los Angeles. They report that only nine per cent of airtime was devoted to women's sports, in contrast to the 88 per cent devoted to male athletes. Female athletes fared even worse on ESPN's national sports show *Sports Center*, where they occupied just over two per cent of airtime. And, according to the Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women, Sports and Physical Activity, women athletes receive just three per cent of sports coverage in major Canadian dailies.

Margaret Carlisle Duncan notes that commentators (97 per cent of whom are men) use different language when they talk about female athletes. Where men are described as "big," "strong," "brilliant," "gutsy" and "aggressive," women are more often referred to as "weary," "fatigued," "frustrated," "panicked,"

"vulnerable" and "choking." Commentators are also twice as likely to call men by their last names only, and three times as likely to call women by their first names only. Duncan argues that this "reduces female athletes to the role of children, while giving adult status to white male athletes."

The Prix D  meritas (Brickbat Prize) for sexist reporting was awarded by Quebec's *Gazette des femmes* to the journalists who covered the 2000 International Women's Tennis Cup. The *Gazette* noted in particular the journalists' keen interest in any of the athletes' poses that could be seen as suggestive, as well as the excessive attention accorded Anna Kournikova—for her beauty rather than her game.

Media images of women in sports are also very different from the familiar pictures of male athletes in action. Female athletes are increasingly photographed in what Professor Pat Griffin calls "hypersexualized poses." Griffin notes, "When it was once enough to feminize women athletes, now it is necessary to sexualize them for men. Instead of hearing, 'I am woman, hear me roar,' we are hearing 'I am hetero-sexy, watch me strip.'"

Beauty before Brains

When well-respected news-show host Greta Van Susteren moved from CNN to Fox in early 2002, she not only had a makeover; she surgically altered her face to appear younger and more "beautiful." When her new show, *On the Record*, premiered, her hair was perfectly coiffed and she sat behind a table so viewers could see her short skirt and legs.

Robin Gerber notes that, "Before her surgery, Van Susteren had been an increasingly visible beacon projecting the hope that women had made progress. You believed that she had made it in television because she was so darn smart, clearly the best legal analyst on the air." However, her surgery symbolizes what many analysts have argued for decades: that the way a woman looks is far more important than what she has to say.

Gerber concludes that Van Susteren "has become a painful reminder of women's inequality... Being smart, smarter, smartest isn't enough. By trying to become just another pretty face, Van Susteren instead became another cultural casualty."

Beauty And Body Image In The Media - Reasons

Images of female bodies are everywhere. Women—and their body parts—sell everything from food to cars. Popular film and television actresses are becoming younger, taller and thinner. Some have even been known to faint on the set from lack of food. Women's magazines are full of articles urging that if they can just lose those last twenty pounds, they'll have it all—the perfect marriage, loving children, great sex, and a rewarding career.

Why are standards of beauty being imposed on women, the majority of whom are naturally larger and more mature than any of the models? The roots, some analysts say, are economic. By presenting an ideal difficult to achieve and maintain, the cosmetic and diet product industries are assured of growth and profits. And it's no accident that youth is increasingly promoted, along with thinness, as an essential criterion of beauty. If not all women need to lose weight, for sure they're all aging, says the Quebec Action Network for Women's Health in its 2001 report *Changements sociaux en faveur de la diversit   des images corporelles*. And, according to the industry, age is a disaster that needs to be dealt with.

The stakes are huge. On the one hand, women who are insecure about their bodies are more likely to buy beauty products, new clothes, and diet aids. It is estimated that the diet industry alone is worth \$100 billion (U.S.) a year. On the other hand, research indicates that exposure to images of thin, young, air-brushed female bodies is linked to depression, loss of self-esteem and the development of unhealthy eating habits in women and girls.

The American research group Anorexia Nervosa & Related Eating Disorders, Inc. says that one out of every four college-aged women uses unhealthy methods of weight control—including fasting, skipping meals, excessive exercise, laxative abuse, and self-induced vomiting. And the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute warns that weight control measures are being taken by girls as young as nine.

American statistics are similar. In 2003, Teen magazine reported that 35 per cent of girls 6 to 12 years old have been on at least one diet, and that 50 to 70 per cent of normal weight girls believe they are overweight.

Media activist Jean Kilbourne concludes that, "Women are sold to the diet industry by the magazines we read and the television programs we watch, almost all of which make us feel anxious about our weight."

Economics Of Gender Stereotyping

No one would deny that the mass media is big business. According to the American Motion Picture Association, Hollywood films alone pulled in \$9 billion in 2001, and that doesn't include the renting and selling of videos and DVDs. However, media executives argue that the economics of the industry make it impossible to avoid stereotypes of women.

Chasing the Young Male Demographic

Many commentators argue that media content is driven by advertising. All advertisers are chasing the elusive 18- to 34-year-old male market. Little wonder that the starring role in two-thirds of TV situation comedies is played by a young man.

Not only are there fewer women in starring roles, San Diego State University communications professor Martha Lauzen reports that shows focusing on a female character tend to be scheduled in "lousy" time slots. Lauzen's annual study of television content indicates that the higher the number of female creators and actors working on a show, the more likely the program will be "moved around and surrounded by programs not getting high ratings or shares."

Advertisers claim they can be far less aggressive about chasing female viewers because women are less picky about what they watch. Writer Paul Kruminis interviewed industry professionals and reports that they say "women will pretty much do anything to get to snuggle with their boyfriend or husband." Advertisers, he says, want the networks to cater to men because they feel they get the women for free. Writer Nancy Hass concurs: "Women ... tend to let men control the remote. NFL viewership, for example, is 40 per cent female, though women rarely watch football alone."

The Syndication Market

Advertisers' lack of interest in women is complicated by the fact that shows with women in leading roles don't perform as well in syndication as shows starring male actors. Since networks make most of their money on re-runs, prime-time programming tends to be "male-skewed." In addition, as Nancy Hass argues, "shows that don't focus on men have to feature the sort of women that guys might watch."

The Movie Market

Movie studios use the same economic arguments to explain the abundance of female stereotypes on the big screen. Movies featuring sex and violence are big international sellers. Why? Sex and action films do not rely on clever, intricate, culture-based scripts or convincing acting. Sex and action films therefore "translate" easily across cultures. Since at least 60 per cent of the movie industry's profits come from the international market, studios continue to pump out the same old stereotypes.

Screenwriter Robin Swicord says, "It is very hard to get movies made that are genuinely feminist, or even portray women in a fair way. I genuinely believe there is a big domestic audience for this kind of movie, but if there is only a domestic audience, it won't get made."

Director Jan Wahl agrees. "Overseas audiences still want sex and violence. That's what sells outside the U.S. The whole world may have to change before the picture for women in Hollywood gets brighter."

Unattainable Beauty

Perhaps most disturbing is the fact that media images of female beauty are unattainable for all but a very small number of women. Researchers generating a computer model of a woman with Barbie-doll proportions, for example, found that her back would be too weak to support the weight of her upper body, and her body would be too narrow to contain more than half a liver and a few centimeters of bowel. A real woman built that way would suffer from chronic diarrhea and eventually die from malnutrition.

Still, the number of real life women and girls who seek a similarly underweight body is epidemic, and they can suffer equally devastating health consequences.

The Culture of Thinness

Researchers report that women's magazines have ten and one-half times more ads and articles promoting weight loss than men's magazines do, and over three-quarters of the covers of women's magazines include at least one message about how to change a woman's bodily appearance—by diet, exercise or cosmetic surgery.

Television and movies reinforce the importance of a thin body as a measure of a woman's worth. Canadian researcher Gregory Fouts reports that over three-quarters of the female characters in TV situation comedies are underweight, and only one in twenty are above average in size. Heavier actresses tend to receive negative comments from male characters about their bodies ("How about wearing a sack?"), and 80 per cent of these negative comments are followed by canned audience laughter.

There have been efforts in the magazine industry to buck the trend. For several years the Quebec magazine *Coup de Pouce* has consistently included full-sized women in their fashion pages and *Châtelaine* has pledged not to touch up photos and not to include models less than 25 years of age.

However, advertising rules the marketplace and in advertising thin is "in." Twenty years ago, the average model weighed 8 per cent less than the average woman—but today's models weigh 23 per cent less. Advertisers believe that thin models sell products. When the Australian magazine *New Woman* recently included a picture of a heavy-set model on its cover, it received a truckload of letters from grateful readers praising the move. But its advertisers complained and the magazine returned to featuring bone-thin models. *Advertising Age International* concluded that the incident "made clear the influence wielded by advertisers who remain convinced that only thin models spur the sales of beauty products."

Self-Improvement or Self-Destruction?

The barrage of messages about thinness, dieting and beauty tells "ordinary" women that they are always in need of adjustment—and that the female body is an object to be perfected.

Jean Kilbourne argues that the overwhelming presence of media images of painfully thin women means that real women's bodies have become invisible in the mass media. The real tragedy, Kilbourne concludes, is that many women internalize these stereotypes, and judge themselves by the beauty industry's standards. Women learn to compare themselves to other women, and to compete with them for male attention. This focus on beauty and desirability "effectively destroys any awareness and action that might help to change that climate."

Women's Empowerment And Development

In many parts of the world, cultural and social restraints keep women from contributing to the welfare of their families. Of the world's people living in poverty, women form a significant proportion.

The perceived value of a woman's work in the home or as a young bride frequently outweighs the value of her education. Nearly 800 million people over the age of 15 are illiterate and two-thirds of them are women.

This lack of education affects women – and their families – in many ways. While women bear a disproportionate burden of the world's poverty, they play a leading role in the health, nutrition and education of the family. Many women are denied economic opportunities through lack of education or by sexual status, making it impossible for them to better their economic status and secure a livelihood.

Where agriculture is a primary occupation, women work to produce food for their families and where non-agricultural employment is not available, they may become informally self-employed, producing good and services, within their capacity, to be marketed locally.

With reduced status in their home, community and society, women are the victims of violence and abuse, primarily at the hands of family members. According to the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), violence against women is "the most pervasive human rights violation that we know

today.” It is the major cause of death and disability among women 16 to 44 years of age. It is also shown that there is a link between violence against women and the rate of HIV infection in the female population.

Empowering women through education significantly impacts their survival rate and that of their children as well as the overall health and economic welfare of their families.¹⁰ By having an opportunity to acquire an education, a woman also helps to ensure the education of her own children. Seventy-five percent of children in developing countries who are not attending primary school have mothers who did not go to school.

Women’s lack of healthcare, primarily in the area of sexual and reproductive health, is a factor of education and empowerment. An estimated 529,000 women died from complications of pregnancy and childbirth in 2001. Virtually all of these deaths occurred in developing countries. In the developed world, the overall risk of complications from pregnancy is 15 percent.

A majority of **PCI-Media Impact’s** current programming is dedicated to women’s issues. Education, family planning and the right to healthcare are essential elements of women’s empowerment. And, women’s empowerment, in general, can be viewed as one of the more crucial points for initiating change and improving life within communities. By producing programs relevant to the lives of women in less developed communities, we can help lessen maternal death, ensure small family size and help ensure educational opportunities for the next generation.

Despite laws against child marriage in many countries, over 80 million girls in the developing world will be married before the age of 18. In the poorest countries, one in every two girls is made to marry early.

Women Rights

The term women’s rights refers to the freedoms inherently possessed by women and girls of all ages, which may be institutionalized, ignored or suppressed by law, custom, and behavior in a particular society. These liberties are grouped together and differentiated from broader notions of human rights because they often differ from the freedoms inherently possessed by or recognized for men and boys, and because activism surrounding this issue claims an inherent historical and traditional bias against the exercise of rights by women.

Issues commonly associated with notions of women's rights include, though are not limited to, the right: to bodily integrity and autonomy; to vote (universal suffrage); to hold public office; to work; to fair wages or equal pay; to own property; to education; to serve in the military; to enter into legal contracts; and to have marital, parental and religious rights. Women and their supporters have campaigned and in some places continue to campaigned for the same rights as modern men.

The Modern Movement

In the 1960s women's rights again became an important issue in the United States. Now the movement was called “feminism” or “women's liberation.” Reformers wanted the same pay as men, an equal rights amendment to the U.S. Constitution, and the freedom to plan their families or not have children at all. Their efforts were met with mixed results.

In 1966 the National Organization of Women (NOW) was created with the purpose of bringing about equality for all women. NOW was one important group that fought for the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). This amendment stated that “equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any state on account of sex.” But there was disagreement on how the proposed amendment would be understood. Supporters believed it would guarantee women equal treatment. But critics feared it might deny women the right be financially supported by their husbands. The amendment died in 1982 because not enough states had ratified it. ERAs have been included in subsequent Congresses, but have still failed to be ratified.

In the last three decades of the 20th century, American women knew a new freedom: medical advances helped them control if and when they would have children. Called birth control, this enabled women to

plan their adult lives, often making way for both career and family. The movement had been started in the 1910s by pioneering social reformer Margaret Sanger.

Over the course of the 20th century women took on a greater role in society. For example, many women served in the U.S. government — some as senators and others as members of the President's Cabinet. Many women took advantage of opportunities to become educated. In the United States at the beginning of the 20th century less than 20 percent of all college degrees were earned by women. By the end of the century this figure had risen to about 50 percent.

Opportunities also expanded in the workplace. Fields such as medicine, law, and science opened to include more women. At the beginning of the 20th century about 5 percent of the doctors in the United States were women. As of 1998, 23 percent of all doctors were women, and today, women make up more than 50 percent of the medical student population. While the numbers of women in these fields increased, many women still continued to hold clerical, factory, retail, or service jobs. For example, they worked as office assistants, on assembly lines, or as cooks.

Women Working In The Media

Since the 1960s, feminists have argued that "it matters who makes it." When it comes to the mass media, "who makes it" continues to be men.

Women working in the media have made some inroads. In 2001, the International Federation of Journalists reported that around the world, 38 per cent of all working journalists are women. Studies conducted by Canadian researchers Gertrude Robinson and Armande Saint-Jean have found that 28 per cent of newspaper editors are female. And according to San Diego State University communications professor Martha Lauzen, 24 per cent of American television producers, writers, and directors are women. Denis Monière, political analyst and professor at Quebec's University of Montreal maintains that even if the visibility of female journalists has grown in the last ten years, we shouldn't be too quick to shout victory. In 2002, the Canadian Newspaper Association reported that 43 per cent of Canadian newspaper employees are women. However, they account for only eight per cent of editors-in-chief and twelve per cent of publishers. Women employed in the sector tend to work in "pink-collar ghettos"; they make up 70 per cent of the advertising department, and 80 per cent of the accounting and finance staff.

In addition to being un-represented in positions of authority, Monière thinks women are also under-utilized in covering the subjects considered most important—politics, economy and social trends. And when it comes to the evening news, women are almost invisible. The posting of Sophie Thibault in 2002 as the ten o'clock news anchor for the national French-language channel TVA is a "first" for Canada. Most often, women are consigned to noon-hour shows, local newscasts, "fill-ins" and weekend spots.

And MediaWatch points out that though more than half the journalism graduates in Canada are female, studies have shown that only 30 per cent of newspaper articles are written by women. A study carried out in France in 2000 by the Association of Women Journalists (Association des femmes journalistes—AFJ) pointed out that French television devotes five to nine per cent more news coverage to women than do the other media—clearly the result of more women journalists working in television than in the radio and newspaper industries. The same study showed that women journalists select six per cent more stories on women than men journalists.

However, men continue to occupy approximately 75 per cent of the positions of power in the mass media. And the prospects become much bleaker for women as they climb the corporate ladder.

Lauzen's annual studies of the film industry reveal that women account for only 17 per cent of the creative talent behind the highest grossing Hollywood pictures—16 per cent of executive producers, 11 per cent of producers, and 2 per cent of cinematographers. Robinson and Saint-Jean report that in the newspaper industry, only 5 per cent of managing editors and editors-in-chief are women.

The 2001 study conducted by the Annenberg Public Policy Center at the University of Pennsylvania is equally damning. The Center reports that only 13 per cent of the top executives of American media, telecommunications and e-companies are female. And that 13 per cent is not concentrated at the top:

women constitute only 9 per cent of the boards of directors for these companies, and they hold only 3 per cent of the most powerful positions.

Decision-Making Power Matters

Studies show that a difference can be made when women hold positions of power. In 2000, women editors and journalists took over the newsroom for one day at a newspaper in Wichita Falls, Texas. For the day's top story a choice had to be made between a crime-stopper's story about a peeping tom and an item about local women fighting for equal rights. When the women opted for the latter story, a heated argument erupted. Journalist Laurence Pantin reports that "the women finally won, but only because they held the key positions on that day. All other times, the peeping tom and stories like it would have prevailed."

Two Steps Forward...

Author Kathi Maio reminds us that the march to equality for women in media has had strides forward and setbacks. She writes: "Our story has never been one of steady progress. For example, more women were directing movies in the 1920s (when the industry was new and more open) than in the 1950s. And there were more positive, empowered roles for women in the early '30s than in the early '70s."

As women continue to struggle for equality in the media, Lauzen's research shows that the biggest difference is made by the women who actually work in the industry. Behind the scenes, they can have a definite impact on the ways women are portrayed on the screen and in print. Lauzen concludes, "When women have more powerful roles in the making of a movie or TV show, we know that we also get more powerful female characters on-screen, women who are more real and more multi-dimensional."

Globalization and fundamentalisms

The rise of fundamentalisms has often been linked to neo-liberal globalization and western cultural homogenization. Women are caught in the middle of neo-liberal market forces and conservative fundamentalist forces, the latter often appearing in the form of local struggles against globalization and western economic, political and cultural imperialisms.

Fundamentalist tendencies can also be seen in a number of states, which have intensified control over media and have moved from regulation and filtering of Internet content to outright banning of use of the Internet.

Feminist approaches to fundamentalism have become more nuanced and deliberately careful. Feminist analyses have been exploring the fundamentalist dimensions of free market globalization, religious fundamentalisms, nationalist fundamentalisms, and other fundamentalist forces and tendencies. One of the key components of feminist analyses rests on the framework of women's control over their own bodies: for example, the free market exploits and profits over women's sexualities by shaping attitudes and creating needs around women's bodies; religious fundamentalists stifle and severely punish women's sexual expressions and lifestyles.

Feminist strategies

While technological advancements and globalization of media have created or strengthened structural disadvantages for women, these same trends have also opened more avenues for alternatives and networking among women. For instance, there has been renewed energy in building solidarity among women's and social movements and in reviving positive cultural forms or expressions of the South.

Some forms of feminist strategies in advancing women's rights within and through the media include efforts on the creation of alternative women's media, media literacy, creation of or collaboration with existing media watch groups, media-related advocacies within and with governments and non-government organizations, and the integration of gender perspectives in media codes of conduct.

LESSON 08

**ISSUES OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPED, DEVELOPING AND POOR COUNTRIES,
ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES & CONSUMERISM**

Women's rights around the world are an important indicator of understanding global well-being. Many may think that women's rights are only an issue in countries where religion is law, such as many Muslim countries. Or even worse, some may think this is no longer an issue at all. But reading this report about the United Nation's Women's Treaty and how an increasing number of countries are lodging reservations, will show otherwise.

Progress

It isn't easy to change tradition overnight. However, a small example of successes include:

- The gains made in South Africa
- Childhood concerns in Latin America
- Poor women gaining greater access to savings and credit mechanisms worldwide, due to microcredit.
- A dwindling number of countries that do not allow women to vote including Bhutan (one vote per house), Lebanon (partial), Brunei (no-one can vote), Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (expected in 2010), and the Vatican City.
- Women gaining more positions in parliament throughout Africa. In many cases African countries have more women in parliament than some western ones.
- A protocol to protect women's rights in Africa that came into effect in 2005 (though many nations still need to sign up).
- An almost universal ratification of the Women's rights treaty, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
- (There are many more examples, which will be added here over time.)

Lack of Progress

The informal slogan of the Decade of Women became "Women do two-thirds of the world's work, receive 10 percent of the world's income and own 1 percent of the means of production." — *Richard H. Robbins, Global Problems and the Culture of Capitalism, (Allyn and Bacon, 1999), p. 354*

You would think that as time goes on, there would be more equality between men and women. Unfortunately, trends are moving in the other direction.

A report from *Human Rights Watch* also describes how women's rights have not been observed in some countries as much as expected; in some places claims are made that women's rights will be respected more, yet policies are sometimes not changed enough—or at all—thus still undermining the rights of women.

In some patriarchal societies, religion or tradition can be used as a barrier for equal rights. For example, as *Inter Press Service* reported, the Bangladesh government tried to hide behind laws to deny women equal rights. In Pakistan for example, honor killings directed at women have been carried for even the slightest reasons.

As *Amnesty International* also points out, "Governments are not living up to their promises under the Women's Convention to protect women from discrimination and violence such as rape and female genital mutilation." There are many governments who have also not ratified the Convention, including the U.S. Many countries that have ratified it do so with many reservations.

Despite the almost universal ratification of the Convention (second only to the Convention on the Rights of the Child), a number of countries have still not signed or ratified it. The handful of remaining countries are: USA (signed, but not ratified), Iran, Qatar, Cook Islands (a Non-member state of the United Nations), Nauru, Palau, Tonga, Somalia, and Sudan.

To see the US on this list may seem surprising to most, and *Human Rights Watch* is critical of the delay in getting a ratification, noting that this treaty has been in limbo in the U.S. Senate for *decades*. It was sent it

to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee for a vote in 1980. The first hearing on it was 10 years later. After a vote mostly in favor for it by the Foreign Relations Committee in 1994, some conservative senators blocked a US Senate vote on it. In 2002 the Foreign Relations Committee again voted that the treaty should be ratified, but the 107th Congress ended, so it requires a vote again in favor of sending the treaty to the full Senate for ratification!

Women Work More Than Men But Are Paid Less

Women cultivate, plough, harvest more than half of all the food in the world. According to *Inter Press Service*, “On a global scale, women cultivate more than half of all the food that is grown. In sub-Saharan Africa and the Caribbean, they produce up to 80 percent of basic foodstuffs. In Asia, they account for around 50 percent of food production. In Latin America, they are mainly engaged in subsistence farming, horticulture, poultry and raising small livestock.”



Yet women often get little recognition for that. In fact, many go unpaid. It is very difficult for these women to get the financial resources required to buy equipment etc, as many societies still do not accept, or realize, that there is a change in the “traditional” roles.

UNICEF’s 2007 report on state of the world’s children focused on the discrimination and disempowerment women face throughout their lives and how that impacts children’s lives. In regards to work and pay, they noted the following:

Estimated earnings for women are substantially lower than for men

Region	Estimated earnings per year (in 1000s of US dollars at 2003 prices)	Percentage of men’s earnings
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Key:

- The first number in each row represents  women
- The second number in each row represents  men

Estimated earnings are defined as gross domestic product per capita (measured in US dollars at 2003 prices adjusted for purchasing power parity) adjusted for wage disparities between men and women. Some numbers rounded for display purposes.

Source: UNICEF, *State of the World’s Children*, 2007, p. 41, Figure 3.3

Industrialized nations	21	37	57%
CEE/CIS	4.6	8	59%
Latin American and Caribbean	4	10	40%
East Asia and Pacific	4	6.5	62%
Middle East and North Africa	2	7	28%
South Asia	1	2.5	39%
Sub-Saharan Africa	1		51%

Estimated earnings for women are substantially lower than for men

Region	Estimated earnings per year (in 1000s of US dollars at 2003 prices)	Percentage of men's earnings
	2	

Reasons for such disparity include the fact that women are generally underpaid and because they often perform low-status jobs, compared to men. UNICEF notes that the data isn't always perfect, and that generalizations such as the above can hide wider fluctuations. "In Brazil, for example, women under the age of 25 earn a higher average hourly wage than their male counterparts." (p.39)

UNICEF's main summary of equality in employment included the following points:

For many women, unpaid work in and for the household takes up the majority of their working hours, with much less time spent in remunerative employment. Even when they participate in the labour market for paid employment, women still undertake the majority of the housework.

When women work outside the household, they earn, on average, far less than men. They are also more likely to work in more precarious forms of employment with low earnings, little financial security and few or no social benefits.

Women not only earn less than men but also tend to own fewer assets. Smaller salaries and less control over household income constrain their ability to accumulate capital. Gender biases in property and inheritance laws and in other channels of acquiring assets also leave women and children at greater risk of poverty.

Paid employment for women does not automatically lead to better outcomes for children. Factors such as the amount of time women spend working outside the household, the conditions under which they are employed and who controls the income they generate determine how the work undertaken by women in the labour market affects their own well-being and that of children. — *UNICEF, State of the World's Children, 2007, p.36*

Gender Discrimination throughout a Lifetime

The UNICEF, State of the World's Children, 2007 report on state of the world's had an informative section on how women are discriminated against at various stages through life, summarized here:

Foeticide and infanticide

UNICEF notes that "Where there is a clear economic or cultural preference for sons, the misuse of [pregnancy diagnostic tools] can facilitate female foeticide."

The middle years

"A principal focus of the middle years of childhood and adolescence is ensuring access to, and completion of, quality primary and secondary education. With a few exceptions, it is mostly girls who suffer from educational disadvantage."

Adolescence

"Among the greatest threats to adolescent development are abuse, exploitation and violence, and the lack of vital knowledge about sexual and reproductive health, including HIV/AIDS." Specific areas that UNICEF highlighted were female genital mutilation/cutting; child marriage and premature parenthood; sexual abuse, exploitation and trafficking; sexual and reproductive health; and HIV/AIDS.

Motherhood and old age

These are "two key periods in many women's lives when the pernicious effects of both poverty and inequality can combine." Shockingly, "It is estimated that each year more than half a million women—roughly one woman every minute—die as a result of pregnancy complications and childbirth," 99% of which occur in developing countries. Yet "many of these women's lives could be saved if they had access to basic health care services." In addition, elderly women may face double discrimination on the basis of

both gender and age. Many older women are plunged into poverty at a time of life when they are very vulnerable. However, “children’s rights are advanced when programmes that seek to benefit children and families also include elderly women.”

Feminization of Poverty

The “feminization of poverty” is a phenomenon that is unfortunately on the increase. Basically, women are increasingly the ones who suffer the most poverty.

Professor of anthropology, Richard Robbins notes that:

At the same time that women produce 75 to 90 percent of food crops in the world, they are responsible for the running of households. According to the United Nations, in no country in the world do men come anywhere close to women in the amount of time spent in housework. Furthermore, despite the efforts of feminist movements, women in the core [wealthiest, Western countries] still suffer disproportionately, leading to what sociologists refer to as the “feminization of poverty,” where two out of every three poor adults are women. The informal slogan of the Decade of Women became “Women do two-thirds of the world’s work, receive 10 percent of the world’s income and own 1 percent of the means of production.” — *Richard H. Robbins, Global Problems and the Culture of Capitalism, (Allyn and Bacon, 1999), p. 354* This then also affects children, which makes the dire situation even worse. For example, even in the richest country in the world, the USA, the poorest are women caring for children.

The lending strategies to developing countries by institutions such as the IMF and World Bank have affected many women in those countries.

Poverty, trade and economic issues are very much related to women’s rights issues due to the impacts they can have. Tackling these issues as well also helps to tackle women’s rights issues. And, tackling gender issues helps tackle poverty-related issues.

Women and the Media

Even media attention on women who help and fight for certain causes is distorted. For example, Fairness and Accuracy In Reporting (FAIR) analyzed U.S. media reporting during the British Princess Diana’s funeral, and noted that the U.S. media typically concentrate only on a few people like the late Diana and Mother Teresa who had some sort of celebrity type status, and rarely reported on the thousands of others doing similar work.

In other cases, the roles of women presented in the media, from talk shows, to entertainment shows as well as news reporting can often end up reinforcing the status quo and the cultural stereotypes, which influence other women to follow suit. This happens in all nations, from the wealthiest to the poorest (and happens with men as well as children). It can have positive aspects, such as providing guidance and sharing issues etc. but it can also have a negative effect of continuing inherent prejudices etc.

Environmental Issues And Media

Climate Change and Global Warming

Most scientists believe that climate change is here and is human-induced, and that it will lead to more extreme weather patterns such as hurricanes and drought, longer spells of dry heat or intense rain and seriously affect the world’s ecosystems, as well as humanity.

Global warming and climate change refer to an increase in average global temperatures. Natural events and human activities are believed to be contributing to an increase in average global temperatures. This is caused primarily by increases in “greenhouse” gases such as Carbon Dioxide (CO₂).

What is the Greenhouse Effect?

The term *greenhouse* is used in conjunction with the phenomenon known as the *greenhouse effect*.

- Energy from the sun drives the earth’s weather and climate, and heats the earth’s surface;
- In turn, the earth radiates energy back into space;

- Some atmospheric gases (water vapor, carbon dioxide, and other gases) trap some of the outgoing energy, retaining heat somewhat like the glass panels of a greenhouse;
- These gases are therefore known as greenhouse gases;
- The greenhouse effect is the rise in temperature on Earth as certain gases in the atmosphere trap energy.

What are the impacts of Global Warming?

For decades, greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide have been increasing in the atmosphere. But why does that matter? Won't warmer weather be nicer for everyone?

Rapid changes in global temperature

A documentary aired on the *National Geographic Channel* in Britain on August 9, 2003 titled *What's up with the weather*. It noted that the levels of carbon dioxide for example, were currently at their highest levels in the past 450,000 years.

Increased greenhouse gases and the greenhouse effect is feared to contribute to an overall warming of the Earth's climate, leading to a global warming (even though some regions may experience cooling, or wetter weather, while the temperature of the planet on average would rise).

What is global dimming?

Fossil fuel use, as well as producing greenhouse gases, creates other by-products. These by-products are also pollutants, such as sulphur dioxide, soot, and ash. These pollutants however, also change the properties of clouds.

Clouds are formed when water droplets are seeded by air-borne particles, such as pollen. Polluted air results in clouds with larger number of droplets than unpolluted clouds. This then makes those clouds more reflective. More of the sun's heat and energy is therefore reflected back into space.

This reduction of heat reaching the earth is known as Global Dimming.

Global Dimming is hiding the true power of Global Warming

The above impacts of global dimming have led to fears that global dimming has been hiding the true power of global warming.

Currently, most climate change models predict a 5 degrees increase in temperature over the next century, which is already considered extremely grave. However, global dimming has led to an underestimation of the power of global warming.

UN Framework convention on Climate change

In the early 1980s, scientists were beginning to raise concerns about climate change.

In 1988, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was created by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) to assess the scientific knowledge on global warming. Its first major report in 1990 showed that there was broad international consensus that climate change was human-induced.

That report led way to an international convention for climate change. This became the **United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change** (UNFCCC), signed by over 150 countries at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992. (By the middle of 2000, over 180 countries had signed and ratified it).

Recognizing Rich Countries Have More Obligation to Emission Reduction

As a general principle, it was also recognized that most of the greenhouse gas emissions contributing to climate change come from the industrialized "Northern" countries, that have been developing since the Industrial Revolution, as such emissions remain in the atmosphere a long time. In addition, they have been developing for longer than the Third World, so action to address this must proportionately be with those industrialized nations. The following summarizes this well:

Industrialised countries set out on the path of development much earlier than developing countries, and have been emitting GHGs [Greenhouse gases] in the atmosphere for years without any restrictions. Since GHG emissions accumulate in the atmosphere for decades and centuries, the industrialised countries'

emissions are still present in the earth's atmosphere. Therefore, the North is responsible for the problem of global warming given their huge historical emissions. It owes its current prosperity to decades of overuse of the common atmospheric space and its limited capacity to absorb GHGs.

Developing countries, on the other hand, have taken the road to growth and development very recently. In countries like India, emissions have started growing but their per capita emissions are still significantly lower than that of industrialised countries. The difference in emissions between industrialised and developing countries is even starker when per capita emissions are taken into account. In 1996, for instance, the emission of 1 US citizen equalled that of 19 Indians. — *Background for COP 8, Center for Science and Environment, October 25, 2002*

That is,

- Today's rich nations are the ones responsible for global warming as greenhouse gases tend to remain in the atmosphere for many decades, and rich countries have been industrializing and emitting climate changing pollution for many more centuries than the poor countries;
- It is therefore unfair to expect the third world to make emissions reductions (and also unfair considering their development and consumption is for basics and for developing, while for the rich, it has moved on to luxury consumption and life styles).

Furthermore, developing countries too were to reduce emissions ultimately, but in a different way: The rich were to help provide means for the developing world to transition to cleaner technologies while developing:

The extent to which developing country Parties will effectively implement their commitments under the Convention will depend on the effective implementation by developed country Parties of their commitments under the Convention related to financial resources and transfer of technology and will take fully into account that economic and social development and poverty eradication are the first and overriding priorities of the developing country Parties. — *The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*

Framework is a starting point

The Convention recognizes that the current developed and industrialized nations have the largest current and historic emissions and that they should therefore take the lead and burden of helping reduce harmful effects and cut down emissions.

- This is significant, as it recognizes the right for developing countries to develop economically.
- During the Kyoto summit, this was hotly contested by the United States, which is the largest emitter of greenhouse gases in the world -- for just about four percent of the world's population, they emit over a quarter of the world's emission. Per capita, this is far, far higher than any other nation as well. For more about the Kyoto protocol, and the US positions etc, visit this section's page on Kyoto.
- Note though that most debate has been on reduction of emissions. While that is good, what is often left out is the fact that those developing countries already facing problems, or are about to, are left without much help in adapting, as a part of this report points out.
- The Convention also recognized that it is likely that the poorer nations will suffer the most, as there are less resources and capabilities to adapt to sudden changes of this magnitude.
- It is also recognized that a more sustainable economy is needed as current consumptive patterns could be destructive. (For more about over-consumption etc., visit this site's sections on Behind Consumerism and Consumption and on Population.)

Other environmental issues are:

Biodiversity

Biodiversity boosts ecosystem productivity, where every species — no matter how small — all have an important role to play.

Genetically Engineered Food

A lot of food that we eat today contain genetically modified ingredients. GE Food is an expensive technology for developing nations. This is also a very young and untested technology. Debates about safety aside, third world nations look to have their resources and knowledge patented, often without their consent.

Human Population

The human population of the planet is approximately 6 billion and rising. As the population continues to increase, there is the fear of more and more strain on the environment, adequate food production, nations ability to provide, economies to grow and society to flourish. People will be fighting for basic needs. But is all this the case or are there other issues and causes that need to be considered as well?

Natural Disasters

Some natural disasters like earthquakes and floods can often come at the least expected time. Others such as hurricanes and cyclones may be getting more severe. Typically, the poor are the worst hit as they have the least resources to cope and rebuild with.

- Media and Natural Disasters
- Asian Earthquake and Tsunami Disaster
- Third World Debt and Disaster Recovery

Nature and Animal Conservation

Humans have destroyed more than 30 percent of the natural world since 1970.

Role of Mass Media

Mass media can play the same role in order to control these environmental problems that it is playing in other areas particularly in crime control. It is unanimously accepted by many communication theorists that mass media has enormous power to control and influence people's minds. This same strength of mass media is needed to deal with these environmental issues.

It has been observed that most of the problems are increasing merely because of the lack of awareness among people and this is where the role of mass media becomes really important. By running comprehensive and influential media campaigns awareness can be increased among people about environmental problems and precautionary and preventive measures that must be adopted to control these grave concerns.

As it is also quite obvious that industrial and developed nations are mainly responsible for these problems therefore people must also be informed by mass media about the responsibility these industrialized nations have on their shoulders regarding the issue. It will help in exerting pressure on them and will force them to follow international laws and accords to control the issue.

MEDIA AND CONSUMERISM**Consumer culture and modernity**

In *The Rise of Consumer Society in Britain*, John Benson identifies consumer societies as those "in which choice and credit are readily available, in which social value is defined in terms of purchasing power and material possessions, and in which there is a desire, above all, for that which is new, modern, exciting and fashionable." For decades research on the history of consumerism had been winding the clock up to the nineteenth century as the starting point of a culture of consumption that fits Benson's description. For societies like these to exist, there needed to be a fair portion of the population with enough money to purchase goods beyond daily necessities; there needed to be powerful productive forces to make enough goods available and allow for new strategies of marketing and selling; there also needed to be a tendency among people to start investing social meanings and emotions in the acquisition of goods. Industrialization, these histories tell us, prepared the ground for a consumer culture to develop thanks to malleable markets, large production lines, rise of shopping, advertising, marketing, etc.

In *Consumer Culture and Modernity*, Don Slater argues against a "productivist bias" which misleads into believing that production is the "engine and essence of modernization". Through a brilliant overview of the literature of revisionist historians, he traces the development of consumer culture from the present day to the early modern period. A consumer revolution, with the characteristics Benson suggested, was emerging as early as the sixteenth century. A new 'world of goods' deriving from colonial exploitation led to a wide penetration of consumer goods into the lives and homes of more social classes. Towards the eighteenth century a growing consuming public bred a desire for the new and created new demands and new styles.

Contemporary features of consumer culture existed in the early modern mind, but they were recognizable in different forms. Under the disguise of commerce and trade, not production or consumption, the early modern man came to contact with a new ideology of free exchange, not only of goods and services, but of ideas, opinions, and meanings as well. Consumer culture, according to Slater, is not a reference to a recent phenomenon: it is rather part of a new terminology that came to replace the notion of civil society, which itself is born to modernity. The ideal of autonomous individuals rationally pursuing their interests in a free market – a notion so much cherished within consumer culture – stands at the heart of the project of modernity in the eighteenth century.

A discussion of that project constitutes the core of Slater's second chapter in which he explores the freedoms of the market through two opposing philosophies. Liberalists and utilitarians have always viewed the consumer as a hero "to the extent that he was autonomous and self-determined, and that his autonomy depended on his rational capacities, on his ability firstly to know and define his own needs ... and secondly to pursue them rationally ... ". Contrastingly, and also ironically, liberalism has also produced, quite implicitly, a notion of the consumer as a dupe who is not sovereign and free enough from the shackles of powerful markets to determine his or her own needs and define his or her desires. Thus, in his critique of liberalism Foucault demonstrates how the modern man, the product of enlightenment, could well become a victim of his own rationality and freedom. Freedom is neither a synonym nor an opposite of power. Liberal governments and capitalist markets, according to him, exploit and promote individuals autonomy and sovereignty as a form of liberation while in reality it is a new "strategy for modern governors".

By extending his review of the relation between consumer culture and modernity to contemporary critiques, Slater is solidifying his main idea in this book: that the cost of consumerism to culture is the same cost of modernity to culture. In other words, consumer culture only augments the cultural deficits of modernity using different labels. The transition from traditional to modern society has almost irretrievably transformed a stable social order with "fixed values and identities" and utilitarian communities to a highly individualized order devoid of communal values and driven by self-interests and material pursuits. This new dysfunctional culture both for the individual and the society is described here through Durkheim's notion of anomie, Rousseau's preoccupation with how consumption through emulation feeds artificial needs and creates inauthentic values, and Marx's idea of false consciousness. These critics show how such a culture has intensified our sense of loss and alienation, and above all, how "consumer culture comes to epitomize a sense that the sources upon which modernity draws for selves, values and solidarity are somehow wrong from the start."

Slater's historical review of the critique of consumer culture continues with a concise exposition of those theorists' claims regarding the meanings and uses of consumption. Critical of semioticians' limited notion that things and their meanings are socially and culturally defined and organized, Slater calls for a social rather than a textual analysis of consumption. Through a summary of Durkheim, Mauss, Douglas, Bourdieu, Veblen, he shows the role played by consumption in the making of social relations and social order. Our use, and not only our purchase, of goods makes us part of a social order which we constantly reproduce in our every day lives.

The concluding chapter is devoted to the critique of postmodernism and its belief that consumer culture as known today marks a clear discontinuity with modernity. Here, Slater's views on postmodernism are

clear. He blames it for taking the discourse of consumer culture out of the dialectics of modernity where it rightfully belongs. "Over the last decade or so, the interlinked themes of postfordism, postmodernism, and poststructuralism have so dominated the agenda of consumer culture ... that many students and scholars take it as read that we do indeed live in new times, and that these new times represent a decisive discontinuity with modernity."

Slater's argument throughout this book regarding the relation of consumer culture to the project of modernity is certainly a useful one, but its strength starts waning as he directs his criticism to postmodernism. His fixation with modernity and its discourse may leave the reader with the impression that since the enlightenment and the transition from traditional to modern society, all we have been doing is trying to grapple with the radical transformations incurred by that transition. In other words, and although Slater would not agree to it, his argument suggests that there has not been any significant change in social life since then.

The book goes beyond a simple synopsis to provide a critical review of consumption studies in such a way that it makes it easily accessible not only to students of consumer culture, but also to those who have never had any contact with the field yet. It is also useful because it posits very challenging questions regarding consumer culture as we viewed in modern times. Slater does not leave his readers with a grim notion of consumers as dupes and manipulated in the world of consumption as most of his theories reviewed have suggested. In his after word, he emphasizes consumers' capacity to negotiate, reinterpret, and "recuperate the material and experiential commodities that are offered to us."

LESSON 09

CONSUMERISM AND THE NEW CAPITALISM & TERRORISM

The traditional cultural values of Western society are degenerating under the influences of corporate politics, the commercialization of culture and the impact of mass media. Society is awakening from its fascination with television entertainment to find itself stripped of tradition, controlled by an oppressive power structure and bound to the credit obligations of a defunct American dream.

For the public at large, the integrating and transformative experiences of culture have been replaced by the collective viewing experience and by participation in consumer trends. The American public has been inundated by an unending parade of commodities and fabricated television spectacles that keeps it preoccupied with the ideals and values of consumerism.

Consumerism is the myth that the individual will be gratified and integrated by consuming. The public fetishistically substitutes consumer ideals for the lost acculturating experiences of art, religion and family. The consumer sublimates the desire for cultural fulfillment to the rewards of buying and owning commodities, and substitutes media-manipulated undulations in the public persona for spiritual rebirth. In the myth of consumerism, there is no rebirth or renewal. And there are no iconic symbols to evoke transcendent truths.

While consumerism offers the tangible goal of owning a product, it lacks the fulfillment of other cultural mythologies. Consumerism offers only short term ego-gratification for those who can afford the luxury and frustration for those who cannot. It exists as an incomplete and inadequately engineered system of values substituted for a waning cultural heritage.

The egocentricity of Western society made it an easy target for the transition to a consumer society. As deceptive advertising and academic nihilism gutted culture of its subjectively realized values, the public was easily swayed onto the path of consumerism. In the midst of a major identity crisis, will America realize the lack of morality and humanitarianism in a world based on media image and the transient satisfaction of ownership rather than the ontological value of the meaningful cultural experience? The reduction of cultural values to economic worth has produced a situation in our 'enlightened' society where product availability, as opposed to survival needs, becomes ethical justification for political oppression.

The hallowed dollar is a cheap substitute for cultural values lost to greed and ambivalence in post-modern America. Economic worth has displaced traditional cultural values defining self-worth. Self-worth is gauged by buying power. The acts of buying and owning reinforce self-worth within consumer society. You can see it in the haughty and demanding attitude of the consumer as he stands before the cashier. No longer does the purchase have to be justified by purpose.

Mass media perpetuates the myth of consumerism as a priority of the New Capitalism. As America settles into its nightly routine of television viewing, corporate profiteers are quick to substitute the lure of material luxury and consumer gratification for the fading spirit. Media advertising sells an image -- an empty shell. Corporate America placates its flaccid public with despiriting pastiche. There is only fraudulent illusion. Instead of Swiss clockworks encased in hand carved hardwood, the consumer is offered a cheap imitation of routed particle board and computer chip technology. Who cares as long as it looks good?

In its duplicitous plot to throttle the public, corporate policy assumes only the self-interested exploitation of the consumer market and environmental resources. Corporate priorities and the business ethic are not intrinsically humanitarian or ecologically sensitive. Within the corporate hierarchy the salaried employee does not have the incentives of the entrepreneurial capitalist. The humanitarian ethic associated with small business (the obligation of the proprietor to his customers) is lost. The consumer is no longer courted by the competition of small businesses. The small business has been crowded out by the corporate capitalist to insure less competition and greater profit.

Big business is too often the enemy of the people. Behind the butchery of symbolic values by media advertising, the mercantile machine smiles as it folds the green. More than to simply insure a profit, consumerism is the means by which the New Capitalism maintains control of its buying public.

Consumers are only beginning to realize the political power they wield as a collective buying force. This potential has been tested on a small scale by union pickets and grassroots economic boycotts. It is my expectation that in the future, as the public tires of the shallow gratifications and empty promises of consumerism, it will turn to large scale boycotts to control the abusive tactics of corporate policy.

In corporate (monopolistic) capitalism the consumer is a target -- he is acted upon. Controlling interests commodify culture and sell it to a public weaned on media advertising. Selection is reduced, not to what the public wants, but to what it will accept at a greater profit for the stockholder. This includes the availability and variety of commodities as well as their quality. Our choices and freedoms are limited by corporate policy.

As we become acclimated to life around the television set, collectively striving for a media-produced image, our choices are made for us. Choice is reduced to brand name. We sacrifice self-knowledge for consumerism. Consumerism, like communism and fascism, is a secular religion restricting freedom of choice.

Beneath its smug persona lies an insecure America striving to fill an image projected in media advertising. Self-awareness and self-worth have been distorted. We are what we wear. In the New Capitalism's seduction of the television audience, the individuating personality identifies with advertising fantasies and consumer ideals. Who we are merges with roles and images portrayed in the media. Ever so subtly we are losing our ability to act independently of the justifications of consumerism. This constitutes a qualitative loss to the individuation process. The affront on human values by mass media advertising has left a well actualized consumer but a poorly individuated personality.

Something in the essence of perceived reality has been lost to the despiritualization and commercialization of culture. Perception has lost its richness. Extensive exposure to duplicity in media advertising has weakened the grasp of consciousness on subjective knowledge of being (or any meaningful sense of truth). While capitalism has been linked to the origin of consciousness, consumerism and advertising deceit have become potential threats to consciousness.

When the Beatles' anthems of the 1960's started showing up as background music in Nike shoe commercials they lost their value as symbols for the ideological struggles of the era. While the product may have been temporarily graced with the aura of these famous recordings, the songs were drained of their transcendent value in the process. The references to running shoes and advertising overshadow the associations with the cultural flourish of the 1960's.

The affectiveness of the socio-cultural symbol diminishes as its exploitation in the media siphons ineffable content to attract the consumer. As its power is depleted by the parasitic deconstruction of the commercial production, the symbol's tentative bond with being is broken. Advertising deceit defiles and defuses the symbol, and corrupts the illusion of a timeless ideal. By associating the symbol with a product rather than letting it exist as the signifier of its framing experiences, advertising robs the symbol of its meaning and sense of truth. The commercial exploitation of culture is widening the rift between ideal and being, between word and truth.

As advertising duplicity invades the ideal realm and appropriates subjective value for product enhancement, the established conventions of language, art and cultural traditions lose their ability to inspire metaphysical truth. This debilitation of the symbol has played a significant role in undermining the ontological ground of Western culture. With the defamation of the socio-cultural (aesthetic, psychoanalytic) symbol, the substantiating experiences of culture recede into the shadow.

EXTREMISM

Extremism is a term used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups outside the perceived political center of a society; or otherwise claimed to violate common standards of ethics and reciprocity. It is usually considered by those to whom it is applied to be a pejorative term. It is typically

used in reference to political and social ideologies seen as irrational, counterproductive, unjustifiable, or otherwise unacceptable to a civil society. The term connotes the illegitimacy of certain ideas or methods.

Radicals as extremists

The terms "extremist" or "radical" are often used to label those who advocate or use violence against the will of the larger social body, but it is also used by some to describe those who advocate or use violence to enforce the will of the social body, such as a government or majority constituency. Ideology and methodology often become mixed under the single term "extremism".

TERRORISM

Terrorism refers to the public health consequences and the methods for prevention of the purposeful use of violence or threats of violence by groups or individuals in order to serve political or personal agendas.

Chemical terrorism could include the purposeful contamination of water and food supplies or the aerosolization of toxicants within enclosed public spaces. **Biological terrorist** actions could include purposeful contamination with infectious materials, as well as the purposeful release of insects or other vectors infected with a transmissible disease.

Difference between Extremism and Fundamentalism

To almost all Western scholars and intellectuals there is no difference between extremism and fundamentalism but most muslim scholars view both these concepts as different particularly when we talk about Islam. For example, Ex-Prime Minister of Malaysia, Dr. Mahatir Muhammad said in one of his interview that he is a fundamentalist but not an extremist.

If we look at the dictionary meanings of the two words, we find that fundamentalism is derived from a word **fundamental** which means 'being or involving basic facts or principles e.g. the fundamental laws of the universe'.

And **fundamentalism** is defined as the interpretation of every word in the sacred texts as literal truth – wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn

Extremism means radicalism and fanaticism and is usually used for those ideologies that believe in adopting violent methodologies and using force for enforcing them.

Now for a person who has thoroughly studied Islam or even knows some basics but with clear concepts it is pretty clear that a true Muslim is a fundamentalist and not an extremist. Being fundamentalist means not compromising over the basics or over the fundamentals of the religion, which you certainly must and being an extremist means adopting violent means for the same purpose which we know Islam does not allow as it forbids use of force even in Islamic societies. But it is not usually understood by those western scholars who believe in changing religious laws and rules in the so-called interest of the society and who have de-formed their own religions for the same purpose. They also consider some fundamentals of Islam as wrong or extreme behaviours (like wearing Hijab or veil etc) but this is again due to the conduct of the Muslims themselves as these questions were never raised earlier.

They need to understand some of the differences between non-Western and Western life-styles and approaches; and not treat people with suspicion because of their religion, or indeed to confuse fundamentalism with terrorism or extremism. If a Muslim is extremist or terrorist then it does not mean that Islam is terror- prone.

Terrorism - Psychological And Social Factors

What are the psychological factors that are responsible for terrorism? What social conditions cause them to develop? These are the questions that most people are found asking and discussing. But despite that, this problem is still standing and people (seriously interested) are still confused about the issue and the method that should be adopted to solve or control the problem. Some of the major social and psychological factors are discussed below:

In different unsolved-conflicts (like, Palestine and Kashmir issue, violence going in Bosnia) being faced by humanity and people in different regions there is one group which sees itself as being tragically

oppressed, and seeks freedom or prosperity through the annihilation of an 'evil' group of oppressors. They commit terrorism like suicide bombing to remove evil powers from the face of earth and to get their most basic right i.e. freedom.

Then in some underdeveloped and developing societies people are living in extremely awful state out of the hands of poverty. In such cases they are exploited by the powerful criminals of the society and are used like animals to gain their objectives. In this particular case people who commit terrorism don't even know that what are they doing and why are they doing so. They do it because they've sold their lives at the hands of these powerful elites of the society to gain some food for their children. They kill other people without any reason to gain some bread for their children.

In some societies, particularly where literacy level is very low and people are not educated or lesser educated, they are exploited by the so-called intellectuals and religious scholars of the society in the name of religion to kill other people or commit terrorism. They begin by changing people's beliefs initially in a very humble way and then provoke them to kill other people sometime by killing themselves i.e. suicide bombing and sometime by just blowing bombs and firing blindly at public places. They are brain-washed to serve their religion via these unlawful and anti-humanistic behaviours to please God and to get great reward or eternal life after death. The point that needs to be understood here is that this behaviour is generally associated with Islam and Muslims however, actually it is present more in Judaism and Christianity. It is just in last few years that Muslims have been observed involved in it (that has been over-emphasised on Western media) otherwise it is being practiced by Israelites for quite a time now.

There are so many social and psychological reasons of committing terrorism like social injustices, economic imbalances, political instabilities, unsolved international conflicts etc. but we see that on media the reason that is mostly shown is Islam and fundamentalist and extreme approach of Muslims as followers of Islam. Nobody shows or discusses (on Western Media or Mainstream Media) the economic imbalances or unsolved conflicts as major causes rather they are busy in doing propaganda against Muslims and Islam for their own political, corporate and economic interests and objectives.

Some people seem to think that they can obliterate terrorism simply by wiping Al Qaeda and its 'evil leader' off the face of the earth. Such a belief, however, is far from true. Even if we kill every single terrorist who lives on this earth today, the future would still remain uncertain. We don't need military action rather what we need is to use psychological tactics to address psychological reasons and to solve the unsolved and ignored conflicts and issues to get rid of this huge problem. We must know why these situations occur, and act accordingly.

BUSINESS OF MEDIA VIOLENCE

Media entertainment is big business: popular culture products are now the world's super power i.e. United States' biggest export. In 2001, people around the world spent US\$14 billion going to the movies. The U.S. domestic box office alone hit US\$9 billion—a 75 per cent increase from 1991—and there are huge revenues from home video/DVD sales, rentals and spin-off merchandise. But even these profits are dwarfed by music, the largest global media sector. In 2000, sales reached US\$37 billion, with music consumption high among young audiences everywhere. Video games are not far behind: global sales for 2002 were anticipated to be US\$31 billion.

Already, almost 80% of movies sold overseas come from the U.S. movie industry. Increasingly, U.S. firms are buying up screens and production entities around the world. (Source: Danny Schechter, Media Channel, 2000)

American media corporations earn at least half of their profits from foreign sales. And global markets are growing fast as standards of living are rising around the world. Sales of TVs, stereos, VCRs and satellite dishes are increasing, and in the last decade or two, new and expanding markets have emerged in countries that have abandoned state control of media and distribution.

Today, U.S. films are shown in more than 150 countries worldwide, and the U.S. film industry provides most of the pre-recorded videos and DVDs sold throughout the world. American television programs are

broadcast in over 125 international markets, and MTV can be seen in more foreign households than American ones.

This international success has a tremendous impact not just on the recipient countries, but also on the cultural environment of the U.S. To some extent, the tail is wagging the dog: more and more, the demands and tastes of foreign markets are influencing what popular products get made in the U.S.

Action Sells: Film and Television

Nowhere is this influence more evident than in the film industry. In the U.S. and Canada, movies rated "G" (General) and "PG" (Parental Guidance) consistently bring in more revenues than R-rated films. Yet the number of G and PG films has dropped in recent years, and the number of restricted films has risen. Two-thirds of Hollywood films in 2001 were rated "R."

Film producers are unequivocal about why this is so: the foreign market likes action films.

In a crowded marketplace, where everyone is trying to be heard and where there's an amazing number of choices, the loudest, coarsest, most shocking voice does tend to be the one that at least grabs your attention for a moment. (Source: John Seabrook, *Nobrow: The Culture of Marketing, The Marketing of Culture*, 2001)

Action travels well. Action movies don't require complex plots or characters. They rely on fights, killings, special effects and explosions to hold their audiences. And, unlike comedy or drama—which depend on good stories, sharp humour, and credible characters, all of which are often culture-specific—action films require little in the way of good writing and acting. They're simple, and they're universally understood. To top it off, the largely non-verbal nature of the kind of films that journalist Sharon Waxman refers to as "short-on-dialogue, high-on-testosterone" makes their dubbing or translation relatively inexpensive.

There are, of course, exceptions to the rule. The film *Titanic* made almost US\$2 billion in worldwide sales as of 2001—making it the biggest-grossing movie of all time. The British film *The Full Monty* was an international hit; and *My Big Fat Greek Wedding* debunked all the profit formulas in 2002. But such offbeat successes are hard to predict. A flick such as *Die Hard* or *Terminator* (or better yet, a sequel to such a film) is much more of a sure thing. Most film budgets today average US\$75-100 million, so Hollywood studios don't like to take chances.

All this means enormous pressures on the American movie industry to abandon complexity in favour of action films. The effect is a kind of "dumbing-down" of the industry in general. Foreign investors are much less likely to invest in films focusing on serious social themes or women's issues, or ones that feature minority casts. Such films, however brilliant, are not where the big money is. Worldwide appeal determines casting and script decisions—and the overwhelming demand is for white actors and action.

Success breeds success, and the sheer ubiquity of these productions and all their spin-off products and businesses around the world is in turn fueling an ever-growing demand for U.S. popular culture products.

Explicit and Violent Music Lyrics Go Mainstream

In the last decade, social analysts have also noted a steady increase in **violent and anti-social music lyrics and images**. Once relegated to the fringes, "rage" music, filled with profanity and hate, has become a cash cow for the mainstream music industry.

The world's largest music company, Universal Music Group, is putting the might of its international marketing machine behind artists like Eminem, Dr. Dre and Limp Bizkit—all known for their bleak anthems of violence and hatred, often aimed at women, gays and lesbians. This kind of violence reached mainstream status in 2001, when the U.S. Grammy awards nominated Eminem for four awards. He won three, and his 2002 CD, *The Eminem Show* made US\$3.63 million in its first month of sales.

Rap music, too, has been co-opted by the major corporations. The Recording Industry Association of America says that rap/hip-hop, which sprang out of the East Coast music scene 25 years ago, replaced pop music in 2001 as the third most popular music genre. Gangster Rap artists are now being accused of destroying the soul of original rap and hip hop movements with their violent lyrics and lifestyles.

Video Games and Violence

Though there are many challenging non-violent computer and video games, in the last few years video games have become almost synonymous with violence. Their trademark movie-like realism, combined with enormous marketing budgets, has made this entertainment industry the second most-profitable in the world.

In September 2002, the ultra-violent Grand Theft Auto 3 was the second most popular game in the world. The game was initially banned in Australia for its graphic violence and sexual content, but it nevertheless grossed US\$300 million by the end of 2002.

The success of GTA3 (and its successor GTA: Vice City) is upping the ante for violence in the next generation of video games. The cost of developing new games is so high that producers need to know that a game is going to be a hit before bankrolling it.

Marketing Violence to Young People

No one knows better than the communications and media industries that children and young people represent a huge market, due to both their own spending power and their influence on family spending decisions. In September 2000, a Federal Trade Commission (FTC) report revealed what many suspected: U.S. media corporations were routinely ignoring their own rating restrictions and actively marketing violent entertainment to children and teens. In fact, the study showed that 80 per cent of R-rated movies, 70 per cent of restricted video games, and 100 per cent of music with "explicit content" warning labels were being marketed to kids under 17.

The report revealed a number of standard (though illicit) practices for marketing adult media products to kids. These included advertising in publications for adolescents, such as YM, Teen and Marvel comics; screening trailers for restricted movies on TV at times when kids are likely to be watching; and recruiting teens and children (sometimes as young as nine) to evaluate story concepts, commercials, trailers and rough cuts—even for R-rated movies. The study also revealed that the film and videogame industries often target children as young as four with toy tie-ins for adult-rated movies and games.

Follow-up reports from the FTC indicate that the film and gaming industries have improved their practices somewhat. However, ads for R-rated movies continue to appear on television shows popular with kids (TV is considered the most important medium for drawing an audience to a film), and the video game industry still advertises games rated M (Mature) in magazines with young readers. The music industry has done little to clean up its act. All five major record labels continue to advertise albums with explicit or violent content on television programs and in magazines that have substantial followings of kids under the age of seventeen.

Violence in Media Entertainment

Between 2000 B.C. and 44 A.D., the ancient Egyptians entertained themselves with plays re-enacting the murder of their god Osiris -- and the spectacle, history tells us, led to a number of copycat killings. The ancient Romans were given to lethal spectator sports as well, and in 380 B.C. Saint Augustine lamented that his society was addicted to gladiator games and "drunk with the fascination of bloodshed."

Violence has always played a role in entertainment. But there's a growing consensus that, in recent years, something about media violence has changed.

For one thing, there's more of it. Laval University professors Guy Paquette and Jacques de Guise studied six major Canadian television networks over a seven-year period, examining films, situation comedies, dramatic series, and children's programming (though not cartoons). The study found that between 1993 and 2001, incidents of physical violence increased by 378 per cent. TV shows in 2001 averaged 40 acts of violence per hour.

Francophone viewers experienced the greatest increase. Although physical violence on the three anglophone networks in the study increased by 183 per cent, on their francophone counterparts it increased by 540 per cent. One network, TQS, accounted for just under half (49 per cent) of all the physical violence on the networks studied.

Paquette and de Guise also identified a disturbing increase in psychological violence, especially in the last two years. The study found that incidents of psychological violence remained relatively stable from 1993 to 1999, but increased 325 per cent from 1999 to 2001. Such incidents now occur more frequently than physical violence on both francophone and anglophone networks.

Canadians are also heavily influenced by American programming. Paquette and de Guise found that over 80 per cent of the TV violence aired in Canada originates in the U.S. They speculate that francophone networks and stations may have a higher incidence of violence because they broadcast more movies, and this, in turn may be due to lower production budgets. Canadian-made violence is most likely to appear on private networks, which broadcast three times as many violent acts as public networks do. Overall, 87.9 per cent of all violent acts appear before 9 p.m., and 39 per cent air before 8 p.m. -- at a time when children are likely to be watching.

More Graphic, More Sexual, More Sadistic

In 2001, only a quarter of the most violent television shows, and two-fifths of the most violent movies, were rated R in US. The majority were rated PG or PG-13. (Source: Center for Media and Public Affairs, 2001)

Other research indicates that media violence has not just increased in quantity; it has also become much more graphic, much more sexual, and much more sadistic.

Explicit pictures of slow-motion bullets exploding from people's chests, and dead bodies surrounded by pools of blood, are now commonplace fare. Millions of viewers worldwide, many of them children, watch female World Wrestling Entertainment wrestlers try to tear out each other's hair and rip off each other's clothing. And one of the top-selling video games in the world, Grand Theft Auto, is programmed so players can beat prostitutes to death with baseball bats after having sex with them.

Globalization of Media

On average, children in the 23 countries surveyed watch television three hours each day, and spend 50 per cent more time watching the small screen than they spend on any other activity outside of school. (Source: UNESCO, 1998)

Concerns about media violence have grown as television and movies have acquired a **global audience**. When UNESCO surveyed children in 23 countries around the world in 1998, it discovered that 91 per cent of children had a television in their home -- and not just in the U.S., Canada and Europe, but also in the Arab states, Latin America, Asia and Africa. More than half (51 per cent) of boys living in war zones and high-crime areas chose action heroes as role models, ahead of any other images; and a remarkable 88 per cent of the children surveyed could identify the Arnold Schwarzenegger character from the film Terminator. UNESCO reported that the Terminator "seems to represent the characteristics that children think are necessary to cope with difficult situations."

VIOLENCE WITHOUT CONSEQUENCES OR MORAL JUDGMENT

The notion of violence as a means of problem solving is reinforced by entertainment in which both villains and heroes resort to violence on a continual basis. The Center for Media and Public Affairs (CMPA), which has studied violence in television, movies and music videos for a decade, reports that nearly half of all violence is committed by the "good guys." Less than 10 per cent of the TV shows, movies and music videos that were analyzed contextualized the violence or explored its human consequences. The violence was simply presented as justifiable, natural and inevitable -- the most obvious way to solve the problem.

PG: Parental Guidance?

Incidents of sexual violence and sadism doubled between 1989 and 1999, and the number of graphic depictions increased more than five-fold. (Source: Parent Television Council, 1999)

Busy parents who want to protect their children from media violence have a difficult task before them. The CMPA found that violence appears on all major television networks and cable stations, making it impossible for channel surfers to avoid it.

Nightly news coverage has become another concern. In spite of falling crime rates across North America, disturbing images of violent crime continue to dominate news broadcasting. As news shows compete with other media for audiences, many news producers have come to rely on the maxim: "If it bleeds, it leads." Violence and death, they say, keep the viewer numbers up. Good news doesn't.

As well, movie ratings are becoming less and less trustworthy in terms of giving parents real guidance on shows with unsuitable content. PG-13 movies tend to make more money than R-rated films, and as a result, the industry is experiencing a "ratings creep": shows that the Motion Picture Association of America would once have rated R are now being rated as PG-13, in order to increase box-office profits and rental sales.

In movie theatres, there is some control over who watches what. But at home, there's little to stop children from watching a restricted movie on one of the many emerging specialty channels. Kids may also have access to adult video games at the local video store. In December 2001, the U.S. Federal Trade Commission reported that retailers allowed 78 per cent of unaccompanied minors, ages 13 to 16, to purchase video games rated "mature."

To make supervision even more problematic, American children often have their own entertainment equipment. According to the Annenberg Public Policy Center, 57 per cent of kids aged 8 to 16 have TVs in their bedrooms, and 39 per cent have gaming equipment.

A YOUTH SUBCULTURE OF VIOLENCE

While many parents are concerned about the graphic violence and put-down humour in many kids' shows, there's a growing subculture of violence that parental radar often misses.

Music and Music Videos

Music and music videos are pushing into new and increasingly violent territory. When singer Jordan Knight, formerly of the popular New Kids on the Block group, released a solo album in 1999, Canadian activists called for a boycott of the album because it included a song advocating date rape.

"Don't you get it, bitch? No one can hear you.

Now shut the fuck up, and get what's comin' to you... You were supposed to love me!!!! (Sound of Kim choking)

NOW BLEED, BITCH, BLEED

BLEED, BITCH, BLEED, BLEEEEEED!"

(Source: From the song Kim, by Eminem)

And when the controversial rap artist Eminem came to Toronto in 2000, politicians and activists unsuccessfully called for the government to bar him from the country, on the grounds that his violent lyrics promoted hatred against women. For instance, his song Kim graphically depicts him murdering his wife; and Kill You describes how he plans to rape and murder his mother.

In spite of (or perhaps because of) his promotion of violence, Eminem continues to be a commercial success. His Marshall Mathers release sold 679,567 copies in Canada in 2000, and was the year's best-selling album. And The Eminem Show topped Canadian charts for months in 2002, selling, at one point, approximately 18,000 copies a week.

Eminem's success is not exceptional. Extremely violent lyrics have moved into the mainstream of the music industry. The Universal Music Group, the world's largest music company, lists Eminem, Dr Dre and Limp Bizkit all of whom have been criticized for their violent and misogynist lyrics among its top-grossing artists. And Madonna's 2002 music video What It Feels Like For a Girl contained such graphic violence that even MTV refused to air it more than once.

Video Games

Violence in general, and sexual violence in particular, is also a staple of the video game industry. The current trend is for players to be the bad guys, acting out criminal fantasies and earning points for attacking and killing innocent bystanders. Although these games are rated M, for mature audiences, it's common knowledge that they are popular among pre-teens and teenaged boys.

"As easy as killing babies with axes." (Source: Advertising copy for the game Carmageddon)

For example, players in Grand Theft Auto 3 (the best-selling game ever for PlayStation 2) earn points by carjacking, and stealing drugs from street people and pushers. In Carmageddon, players are rewarded for mowing down pedestrians -- sounds of cracking bones add to the realistic effect. The first-person shooter in Duke Nukem hones his skills by using pornographic posters of women for target practice, and earns bonus points for shooting naked and bound prostitutes and strippers who beg, "Kill me." In the game Postal, players act out the part of the Postal Dude, who earns points by randomly shooting everyone who appears -- including people walking out of church, and members of a high school band. Postal Dude is programmed to say, "Only my gun understands me."

The level of violence in the gaming habits of young people is disturbingly high. In MNet's 2001 study Young Canadians In A Wired World (which found that 32 per cent of kids 9 to 17 are playing video games "every day or almost every day"), 60 per cent cited action/combat as their favourite genre. Stephen Kline of Simon Fraser University reported similar findings in his 1998 study of over 600 B.C. teens. Twenty-five per cent of the teens he surveyed played between seven and 30 hours a week and when asked for their one favourite game, their choice was "overwhelmingly" in the action/adventure genre.

Web Sites

Virtual violence is also readily available on the World Wide Web. Children and young people can download violent lyrics (including lyrics that have been censored from retail versions of songs), and visit Web sites that feature violent images and video clips. Much of the violence is also sexual in nature.

For example, the site Who Would You Kill? allows players to select real-life stars of television shows, and then describe how they would kill them off in the series. The entries frequently include bizarre acts of degradation and sexual violence. Murder is also a staple of the Web site newgrounds.com, which features a number of Flash movies showing celebrities being degraded and killed. When MNet surveyed 5,682 Canadian young people in 2001, the newgrounds site ranked twelfth in popularity among 11- and 12-year-old boys.

Other popular sites such as gorezone.com and rotten.com feature real-life pictures of accident scenes, torture and mutilation. In 2000, rotten.com was investigated by the FBI for posting photographs depicting cannibalism.

Many kids view these sites as the online equivalent of harmless horror movies. But their pervasive combination of violence and sexual imagery is disturbing. Gorezone's front-page disclaimer describes the images on its site as "sexually oriented and of an erotic nature" and then warns viewers that they also contain scenes of death, mutilation and dismemberment. The disclaimer then normalizes this activity by stating, "my interest in scenes of death, horrifying photos and sexual matters, which is both healthy and normal, is generally shared by adults in my community."

Anecdotal evidence suggests that gore sites are well known to Canadian schoolchildren, although parents and teachers are often unaware of their existence. In MNet's 2001 survey, 70 per cent of high school boys said that they had visited such sites.

The presence of violence, degradation and cruelty in a range of media means that children are exposed to a continuum of violence, which ranges from the in-your-face attitude of shows like South Park to extreme depictions of misogyny and sadism. Young people generally take the lead when it comes to accessing new media but the MNet survey found that only 16 per cent of children say their parents know a great deal of what they do online. This is particularly problematic, given the results of a 1999 AOL survey which found that online activities are emerging as a central facet of family life; and that a majority of parents believe that being online is better for their children than watching television.

Media Violence Debates

Media Violence as a Public Health Issue

On the other hand, many social scientists have concluded that there is a weak correlation between watching media violence and real life aggression—enough to convince organizations like the Canadian

Pediatric Society and the American Medical Association that media violence is a public health issue. After all, governments don't wait for scientific certainty before they act to protect the public from smoking or drinking; all that's required is proof of a *risk*. If there is evidence that an activity or substance will increase the *probability* of negative effects, then the state is justified in intervening.

Media Violence as Artistic Expression

However, others maintain that the crusade against media violence is a form of censorship that, if successful, would seriously hamper artistic expression. Researchers R. Hodge and D. Tripp, for example, argue that, "Media violence is qualitatively different from real violence: it is a natural signifier of conflict and difference, and without representations of conflict, art of the past and present would be seriously impoverished."

We've found that every aspect of even the trashiest pop-culture story can have its own developmental function... Identification with a rebellious, even destructive, hero helps children learn to push back against a modern culture that cultivates fear and teaches dependency. (Source: Gerard Jones, *Violent Media is Good for Kids*, 2000)

Many commentators, from artists to film makers to historians, agree. Comic-book creator Gerard Jones contends that violent video games, movies, music and comic books enable people to pull themselves out of emotional traps, "integrating the scariest, most fervently denied fragments of their psyches into fuller sense of selfhood through fantasies of superhuman combat and destruction." Pulitzer-Prize-winning author Richard Rhodes says that video game violence enables young people to safely challenge their feelings of powerlessness.

Psychologist Melanie Moore concludes:

"Fear, greed, power-hunger, rage: these are aspects of our selves that we try not to experience in our lives but often want, even need, to experience vicariously through stories of others. Children need violent entertainment in order to explore the inescapable feelings that they've been taught to deny, and to reintegrate those feelings into a more whole, more complex, more resilient selfhood."

Media Violence as Free Speech

The American Booksellers Foundation for Free Expression lists a number of reasons to protect media violence as a form of free expression:

- censorship won't solve the root causes of violence in society
- deciding what is "acceptable" content is necessarily a subjective exercise
- many of the plays, books and films banned in the past are considered classics today
- it's up to individuals and not governments to decide what's appropriate for themselves and their children

The Québec Writers Union (l'Union des écrivaines et écrivains québécois, or l'Uneq) makes the same argument in its publication *Liberté d'expression: guide d'utilisation*. For l'Uneq, legislation restricting the production or importing of literature is part of a larger structure favouring censorship.

The frequent and graphic violence in [the] critically acclaimed film [*Saving Private Ryan*] is a reminder that the portrayal of violent behavior can serve artistic and moral purposes. (Source: *Center for Media and Public Affairs*, 1999)

And, as the Center for Media and Public Affairs (CMPA) noted in its 1999 study of entertainment violence, media violence can be compelling social commentary. According to CMPA, the most violent film in 1999 was *Saving Private Ryan*, a fictionalized account of the D-Day invasion of Normandy which has been critically acclaimed for its realistic portrayal of the horrors of war.

Many media critics, like George Gerbner and Joanne Cantor, agree that censorship is not the answer. However, they question whose rights are protected when governments give, in Gerbner's words, a "virtual commercial monopoly over the public's airwaves," in effect delivering our "cultural environment to a marketing operation."

Censorship is not the answer. But the pattern here is that [the right to free speech] is aggressively used to protect commercial interests at the same time that the free speech rights of child advocates are stifled. (Source: Joanne Cantor, *Whose Freedom of Speech is It Anyway?*, 2002)

As journalist Scott Stossel notes, parents used to tell children scary stories face-to-face, so they could moderate the content and teach life lessons: "Children today, in contrast, grow up in a cultural environment that is designed to the specifications of a marketing strategy."

Shari Graydon, past president of Canada's Media Watch, and Québec activist René Caron remind us that the air waves are a public utility, and those who control their access and distribution must do so in ways that represent the best interests of all Canadians. Caron states, "violence has been used by the industry to capture the attention of boys, to captivate them and manipulate them." Although this strategy may be profitable, "from a social viewpoint, from a moral viewpoint, this approach has had abominable repercussions."

Media Violence and the Uncivil Society

"To be loathsome, popular culture doesn't have to be murderous." (Source: Todd Gitlin, *Imagebusters: The Hollow Crusade Against TV Violence*, 1994)

The repercussions aren't limited to a potential increase in aggressive behaviour. Many commentators worry that media violence has become embedded in the cultural environment; that, in some sense, it's part of the "psychic air" that children and young people constantly breathe. That environment of violence, profanity, crudeness, and meanness may erode civility in society by demeaning and displacing positive social values.

Todd Gitlin goes further. He argues that media violence is a red herring that allows politicians to divert attention away from very real social problems. He writes, "There is little political will for a war on poverty, guns, or family breakdown ... we are offered instead a crusade against media violence. This is largely a feel-good exercise, a moral panic substituting for practicality... It appeals to an American propensity that sociologist Philip Slater called the Toilet Assumption: once the appearance of a social problem is swept out of sight, so is the problem. And the crusade costs nothing."

Rather than focusing on violent content, Gitlin argues we should be condemning "trash on the grounds that it is stupid, wasteful, morally bankrupt: that it coarsens taste, that it shrivels the capacity to feel and know the whole of human experience."

Media Violence and the Inequitable Society

Gerbner warns that the search for a link between media violence and real life aggression is in itself a symptom of the problem itself. For Gerbner, media violence demonstrates power: "It shows one's place in the 'pecking order' that runs society."

For example, Gerbner's decades-long study of television violence indicates that villains are typically portrayed as poor, young, male members of visible minorities, and victims are overwhelmingly female. He argues that by making the world look like a dangerous place, especially for white people, the majority will be more willing to give the authorities greater power to enforce the status quo.

This is an argument that Michael Moore used in the award-winning movie, *Bowling for Columbine*. Journalist Thierry Jobin writes, "[Moore] denounces the way in which the government and the media foster a feeling of insecurity, pushing Americans to barricade themselves in their homes, a loaded 44 Magnum under their pillows." Gerbner worries that this sense of insecurity and powerlessness will be used to justify a weakening of democratic values.

Media Violence as Consumer Choice

Opponents of regulation argue that it's up to the viewer to decide what to watch. If you don't like television violence, they say, then turn off the TV.

However, research indicates that the popularity of a TV show depends less on content and more on scheduling. As Gerbner points out, "... violence as such is not highly rated. That means it coasts on viewer inertia, not selection. Unlike other media use, viewing is a ritual; people watch by the clock and not by the program."

Joanne Cantor criticizes the media industry for saying it's up to parents, not the industry, to decide what their children watch: "They make harmful products, which come into our homes automatically through television, they market them to children too young to use them safely, and they try to keep parents in the dark about their effects." Cantor argues parents need tools to help them decide what is healthy and unhealthy for their kids.

One such tool is the V-chip, which enables parents to program their televisions with pre-set industry ratings to screen out certain shows. Keith Spicer, former chair of the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission, calls the V-chip a "sexy, telegenic little gizmo that fulfills the fantasy of a magic wand."

The industry has been quick to endorse V-chip technology but critics argue that its real function is to protect the industry from parents, not the other way around. Gerbner states, "It's like major polluters saying, 'We shall continue business as usual, but don't worry, we'll also sell you gas masks to 'protect your children' and have a 'free choice!' ... Programming needs to be diversified, not just 'rated.' A better government regulation is antitrust, which could create a level playing field, admitting new entries and a greater diversity of ownership, employment, and representation. That would reduce violence to its legitimate role and frequency."

Todd Gitlin agrees with Gerbner that the real issue is broadcaster irresponsibility—though he does endorse the V-chip because, "parents deserve all the technology they can get."

Media Violence and Active Audiences

Researchers like David Buckingham in the U.K. and Henry Jenkins in the U.S. add another dimension to the debate. They argue that rather than focusing on what media do *to* people, we should focus on what people do *with* media.

As Jenkins writes, media images "are not simple chemical agents like carcinogens that produce predictable results upon those who consume them. They are complex bundles of often contradictory meanings that can yield an enormous range of different responses from the people who consume them."

From this perspective, people don't just passively absorb messages transmitted through the media; they choose which media to consume and are actively involved in determining what the meaning of the messages will be. And that process doesn't occur in a social vacuum. Personal experiences affect what we watch and how we make sense of it. Our class position, our religious upbringing, our level of education, our family setting, and our peer groups all have a role to play in how we understand violent content.

Jenkins draws a different lesson from the shooting in Littleton: "Media images may have given [the Columbine shooters] symbols to express their rage and frustration, but the media did not create the rage or generate their alienation. What sparked the violence was not something they saw on the internet or on television, not some song lyric or some sequence from a movie, but things that really happened to them... If we want to do something about the problem, we are better off focusing our attention on negative social experiences and not the symbols we use to talk about those experiences."

Study Measures Impact of Media Violence

Watching media violence significantly increases the risk that a viewer or video game player will behave aggressively in both the short and long term, according to a University of Michigan study published in a special issue of the *Journal of Adolescent Health*.

The study, by L. Rowell Huesmann, reviews more than half a century of research on the impact of exposure to violence in television, movies, video games and on the Internet.

"The research clearly shows that exposure to virtual violence increases the risk that both children and adults will behave aggressively," said Huesmann, the Amos N. Tversky Collegiate Professor of Communication Studies and Psychology, and a senior research scientist at the U-M Institute for Social Research (ISR).

In his article, Huesmann points out that U.S. children spend an average of three to four hours a day watching television. "More than 60 percent of television programs contain some violence," he said, "and about 40 percent of those contain heavy violence."

"Children are also spending an increasingly large amount of time playing video games, most of which contain violence. Video game units are now present in 83 percent of homes with children," he said. According to research conducted by Huesmann and ISR colleague Brad Bushman, media violence significantly increases the risk that both children and adults will behave aggressively. How significantly?

"Exposure to violent electronic media has a larger effect than all but one other well-known threat to public health. The only effect slightly larger than the effect of media violence on aggression is that of cigarette smoking on lung cancer," Huesmann said.

"Our lives are saturated by the mass media, and for better or worse, violent media are having a particularly detrimental effect on the well-being of children," he said.

"As with many other public health threats, not every child who is exposed to this threat will acquire the affliction of violent behavior. But that does not diminish the need to address the threat -- as a society and as parents by trying to control children's exposure to violent media to the extent that we can."

The supplement was funded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

ISLAMO-PHOBIA & POPULATION**ISLAMO-PHOBIA – All terrorists are Muslims because they belong to a religion that promotes TERRORISM and EXTREMISM in the name of RELIGION**

There has been plenty of terrorism and violence committed by human beings from every religious background. According to the European Police Office (Europol) in 2006 “There were 498 incidents in eleven EU countries last year labeled as “terrorist attacks.” The Basque separatist group ETA did best (136 terrorist attacks) and was responsible for the only deadly attack, killing two in Madrid. The remaining 497 fortunately cost no human lives.” Muslims only carried out one out of the 498 terrorist attacks in the European Union in 2006. Did you know that The Liberation Tigers of Tamil Elam a Hindu separatist group in Sri Lanka “had carried out more suicide bombings than any other organization on the face of the earth. According to the experts at Janes securities, between 1980 to 2000, LTTE had carried out a total of 168 suicide attacks on civilians and military targets. The number of suicide attacks easily exceeded the combined total of Hizbullah and Hamas suicide attacks carried out during the same period”

Can only Muslims be terrorists?

Robert Jay Goldstein is not a "Jewish terrorist." After all, neither God nor his prophets ever condoned the murder of innocent human beings. If a Jew engages in terrorism, the blame falls on him, not on his religion.

That much we can all agree on. But that is where our paths diverge.

In August 2002, Goldstein was arrested near his home in St. Petersburg, Florida. In his possession were 40 weapons, 30 explosive devices, a list of 50 mosques and a detailed plan to bomb an Islamic school. Contrary to the suggestion from defense lawyers that Goldstein is mentally ill, sheriff's Detective Cal Dennie characterized him as "a smart guy" who "knew his stuff."

Clearly Goldstein, a terrorist, was capable of inflicting unimaginable harm. In chilling details, his mission plan stated his desire to "open fire on all 'rags' and then bolt out and let the devices do the rest." His motive was to "to do something for 'his' people," in retaliation for 9/11 and the ongoing Israeli-Arab conflict. His goal was to "kill all rags" with "zero residual presence."

Despite Goldstein's impressive arsenal and obvious intent, federal prosecutors say he is no terrorist, as his actions were not aimed at altering government policy.

But the U.S. Patriot Act defines domestic terrorism as "acts dangerous to human life that are a violation of the criminal laws of the United States or of any State; and appear to be intended to intimidate or coerce a civilian population, influence the policy of a government by intimidation or coercion, or affect the conduct of a government by mass destruction, assassination, or kidnapping; and occur primarily within the territorial jurisdiction of the United States."

Intent to alter government policy is only one part of a fairly broad definition of domestic "terrorism." Federal prosecutors ultimately charged Goldstein with lesser offenses of violating civil rights, attempting to damage religious property, obstructing people in the free exercise of religious beliefs and possessing unregistered firearms. Based on the evidence, there is no doubt that Goldstein would have received life in prison had he been charged as a terrorist.

Goldstein will not spend his life in prison and that worries many Muslim Americans. When he is released, after serving his sentence of 12-and-a-half years, he will be only 50 years old, still capable of inflicting potential harm.

The Goldstein terror plot remains perplexing for many other reasons. After his arrest, there was little information available about accomplices who were at large and remained a mortal threat to peace. The Muslim community naturally wanted to take appropriate measures to secure their mosques from being targeted by any of Goldstein's accomplices. Several pleas were made to law enforcement authorities for full disclosure of all mosques on Goldstein's target list. Federal and state authorities declined to honor these requests.

American-Muslims, the targeted victims of this plot, were never asked by the prosecution to testify, a practice routine in criminal cases. In a surprising move, prosecutors argued that community members

should not be allowed to speak in court. Only with the good graces of sentencing Judges Moody and Kovachevich were testimonies from the Muslim community made part of the official record.

Contrast Goldstein to the case of another terrorist, who happened to be Muslim, who also pled guilty for plotting to blow up Florida Power & Light substations and a National Guard Armory. His planning was not as extensive as Goldstein's, but federal prosecutors charged the Muslim as a "terrorist."

Do not get us wrong. We are not pleading for leniency for terrorists who happen to be Muslims. We're all safer when they're locked up. Such terrorists have no hesitation to kill innocent human beings, Muslim or non-Muslims, as they did on September 11, 2001.

What we are arguing is that non-Muslims should also be punished as terrorists if they engage or conspire to engage in terrorism. Such crimes should be taken just as seriously, even when the intended victims are "only" American Muslims.

After all, the life of a Muslim child is worth no less than the life of a Jewish or Christian child. I hope that's something we can all agree on.

Propaganda against Islam and Muslims by WESTERN MEDIA

Terrorism Myth: Muslims Look for Responsible Journalism

The "War on Terrorism" is flourishing business for the corporate world - a 21st century fantasy on its own, where facts live in denials and predetermined dogmas cover all aspects of Muslims and Islam. When facts are not available, the mainstream media would construct dark illusions to assert the corporate-political agenda to encroach human rights, freedom and dignity. The media games are not played by any definable rules. After the 9/11 attacks in the US, the sole victims are Muslims and Islamic civilization and nobody else. The recent arrests of the 17 youngsters in Toronto, including five underage boys are a clear case in point. Immediately after their arrests, the synchronized statement issued by the new Canadian PM could be conveniently compared to the words of President Bush in thought and spirit. The media quickly eluded to the crimes unknown and unsubstantiated and identified them "Muslim Terrorists." As if Muslims were born in the eye of storm and the religion of Islam was the basis of this ephemeral judgment. If the individuals or ethnic groups other than Muslims were involved, the mass media would not have jumped to such hasty and irrelevant ethnically biased conclusions. The reasoning could be that Muslim communities lack political presence or affiliation with an influential political party. Facts are the foundation of truth, and truth and justice are inseparable. Facts are pertinent to reach fair conclusion. End cannot be assumed to play with the facts and be based on dogmas to explain the facts of human life. In a systematic modern society, are there any ethical values and professional standards to be followed by the journalists in North America and Europe? Is there any accountability mechanism for those whose overwhelming motives poison the public perceptions and carve-up malicious propaganda against Muslims and Islam?

Stewart Nusbaumer ("Terror to Empire": 07/2003), asked the same question, "Can American stop this madness?" And added: "The Bush Administration hawks are lumping together all kinds of reasons and excuses under the rubric of terrorism and exploiting the horror of 9/11 for political and corporate gain - the war against terrorism has become, in fact, a war for empire." Belatedly, Canada is enlisted when American led adventures are under global scrutiny and appears to be falling apart with public calls for "war crimes" and "impeachment". In all probabilities, the arrest of 17 individuals involve important legal issues and the opportunities to prove innocence or guilt but in a court of law. How come the mass media has assumed the role of law and justice? Is that is what the Canadian justice is about? Not so, I believe. But what about those 17 people and their families whose life has been destroyed by the false media created perceptions and biased imagery? The media appears to be spearheading the animosity psyche more for public consumption than the role of a fair agent of information and public awareness.

Gwynne Dyer ("The International Terrorist Conspiracy", 06/2006), London-based prominent journalist, points out: "there is no shadowy but powerful network waging a terrorist war against the West: the whole thing is a fantasy." Europeans are well aware, of Baader-Meinhof Gang (German), Red Brigades (Italy), and Red Army (Japan), but no one calls them Christian or Buddhist terrorists. Why? Simply, because there are Christian or Buddhist, not Muslim. The "War on Terrorism" is a war against Muslims and to

control their natural resources under the American Empire, and nothing else. Ethnically conscientious and politically infuriated, the Dutch lady Minister of Immigration (CBC TV Night News documentary: 8-9 June), has a quick solution for the “hijab” - “abaya” - black cover dressed ladies, do as the Romans do or 100,000-150,000 Muslims get out of here.” Was that an incentive to the North American politicians to think and act likewise?

Some media outlets have readily available phony Islamic experts or officially subsidized gatekeepers of approved truth to allege that Islam teaches radicalism and the issue of “youth extremism.” Nobody knows where such an intellectual nuisance comes from? Islam is a religion of peace and it shares all its values and belief, as do the other branches of the Abrahamic monotheistic faiths such as the Christianity and Judaism. Islamic religious teaching-learning do not include nor envision hatred against other fellow human beings. Indeed, Islam professes deep respect and dignity for the People of the Book. Muslims are an integral part of the Canadian multicultural mosaic. If the societal relationship is weak, it does not mean it is harmful. It should not be misinterpreted in a naïve context to generate alarming images when an individual commits crime; it is not the ethnicity of the individual involved, group or the religion to be blamed.

The timing of the major accusations against the 17 people arrested could be put in a proper context. In one statement, the accused was going to “behead the PM.” Another, someone was going to “attack the Parliament” and so on. These are highly charged allegations with serious long and short terms consequences. Often, media strategists manufacture such accusations to maximize the propaganda stunt and create public fear and confusion. Mr. Batasar or other defense lawyers can only offer its true explanation. In reality, such claims are outcome of big political thinking and seem more relevant to the on-going war horrors in Iraq, than the minds of the accused youngsters. Many civilian massacres are daily being reported in Iraq and the blames rests on the American and British military forces. Was the arrest of the 17 youngsters an attempt to distract the public attention from the real-world issues?

Since 9/11, there has been no major terrorist attack in the West. What happened in London in July 2005, is reportedly a homegrown individual extremism, not linked to any global network. Gwynne Dyer offers commonsense insight: “Most people in the West believe the official narrative rather than the evidence of their own eyes. There must be a major terrorist threat; otherwise, the government is wrong or lying, the intelligence are wrong or self-serving, the media are fools or cowards, and the invasion of Iraq had nothing to do with fighting terrorism.”

Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD), vehemently claimed by the US Administration, were one of the major reasons for warmongering in Iraq. It backfired at the political deception and stupidity forged by the American and British decision makers. Hal Crowther called it “Weapons of Mass Stupidity”, (06/2003), and elaborated: when Mark Twain and H.L. Mencken were alive, they never imagined Fox News and Bill O’Reilly to serve as “crash dummies.” He goes on to illustrate, how O’Reilly cursed a boy whose father had died in the 9/11 but he refused to support the Iraq war. He cites Fox TV anchorman Neil Cavuto, who celebrated the fall of Baghdad by informing all of us who opposed the war in March; “you were sickening then, you are sickening now.” Crowther pinpoints the rationale: “these troubled men are neither bad journalists nor even bad actors portraying journalists- they’re mentally unbalanced individuals whose partisan belligerence is pressing them to the brink of psychosis.”

At this juncture, cautious and responsible journalism is missing to support the dictates of law, justice and social harmony. There is no excuse for the mass media to make the end assumptions and sponsor the guilty portrayal of Muslims and Islam when no such evidence exists. If the motives and activities of the suspected 17 terrorists were of criminal nature, let the judge decide about it, not the news media. There is an urgent need for the authorities, the mass media and Muslims to be courageous and active participants to bridge the gaps, cross-over the varied cultural time zones and enter people’s real life to enhance understanding and social harmony. The terrorism myth is a political gimmick and a fraudulent policy objective to exploit feelings and mislead the softhearted North American and European public against

Muslims - a people – a community - a civilization, intimately respectable as are the Christian, Jewish and others.

100 Years of anti-Arab and anti-Muslim stereotyping

Hollywood has had a consistent record of Arab stereotyping and bashing. Some in the Arab American community call this the three B syndrome: Arabs in TV and movies are portrayed as either bombers, belly dancers, or billionaires. Thomas Edison made a short film in 1897 for his patented Kinetoscope in which "Arab" women with enticing clothes dance to seduce a male audience. The short clip was called Fatima Dances (Belly dancer stereotype). The trend has shifted over the years and was predominated by the "billionaires" for a short while especially during the oil crises in the seventies. However, in the last 30 some years, the predominant stereotype by far has been the "Arab bombers." In the latest movies G. I. Jane and Operation Condor viewers chant as a hero blows away Arabs.

In G. I. Jane, Demi Moore plays a Navy SEAL officer who gains her stripes killing Arabs. In Operation Condor starring Jackie Chan, we have Arab villains and a money grubbing inn-keeper (no good Arabs). Another scene shows Arabs praying and then cuts to an auction where Chan's women companions are being auctioned.

The author Jack Shaheen has spent year investigating these trends and this is well-documented in his book The TV Arab. According to Shaheen over 21 major movies released in the last ten years show our military killing Arabs. This includes such "hits" as Iron Eagle, Death Before Dishonor, Navy SEALs, Patriot Games, the American President, Delta Force 3, Executive Decision, etc. Not since the heyday of the cowboys-killing-Indians streak of films have we had such an epidemic. New York columnist Russell Baker wrote "Arabs are the last people except Episcopalians whom Hollywood feels free to offend en masse."

It is very interesting that a lot of what we see as offensive is released by subsidiaries of Disney (a so called family value company run by Mike Eisner). It is not surprising then that Disney and Operation Condor received a "Dishonor Award" at this year's national convention of the American Arab Anti-discrimination Committee (ADC). The ADC has been at the forefront in combating stereotypes and negative portrayal of Arabs in the media. The successes are there but the challenge is very large indeed. Some in the Arab community in the US believe that there is a widespread effort now to create the "Muslim terror" as the replacement enemy now that communism is not a threat. In other words, to justify our continued massive military and the billions of dollars we send to Israel every year, we need a demonstrable enemy who will not go away. Israel now emphasizes that this danger of terrorism is more serious than military threats from any country in the Middle East.

This is an ironic twist of events. We now minimize state-sponsored terrorism (such as that which Israel, Turkey, and other allies engage in) and portray the threat in terms of religious and ethnic groups. The Arab community in the US feels especially vulnerable because the energy and center of the Anti-Arab and anti-Muslim media movements are concentrated here. How else would we explain that the New York Times runs a cartoon with a bomb-wielding, mean-looking Arab and a caption that reads "Orthodox.. conservative...reform... what's the DIFFERENCE." Such cartoons have not been rare in Europe since the Nazi era. The harm is not only psychological (insult to a culture or a religion) but helps feed into actions that are physically harmful. Didn't we see this before, dehumanizing a group first before attacking it?

A law was passed by Congress recently on airport "profiling" which is really stereotyping and racism. The idea is that you can identify "risky" people based on the countries they traveled to in the past (thus Arab Americans) and search them more thoroughly than the "normal" people. This leads to one line at the airport for Arabs and Muslims and one line for others.

The double standards and hypocrisy of the media is everywhere. The Palestinians are the victims of mass expulsions, people who have lost their land three million of them and who are now refugees in Diaspora, prevented from the universally accepted right of return. How is it that they are portrayed collectively as terrorists bent on killing Jews? Israel, the US, and Arab countries pursue terrorists aggressively when they are Arabs but we somehow let state terrorism off the hook.

Even individual criminal acts and terrorism done by others go unpunished. Over 12 years ago, a letter-bomb killed Alex Odeh, ADC regional director in California. Two suspects fled to Israel and the FBI has a reward, but no political pressure is applied on Israel to extradite them. Why couldn't we apply economic sanctions on Israel to comply with UN resolutions? Instead our politicians send Israel 3-5 billion a year of your tax dollars.

The Arab community in North America is vibrant and thriving but is in distress over these issues. We are doctors, business people, engineers, scientists, judges, humanitarians, advocates for human rights, and in short a productive segment of the fabric of this great society.

Western civilization would not have developed without the influence of the Arab civilization (just think of the bridge and continuity that the Arab civilization had between ancient European civilizations and the renaissance of western civilization after the "Dark Ages").

People rarely hear of this history or of Arab heritage of the 20th century Arab Americans: Tiffany, John Sununu, Danny Thomas, Marlo Thomas, Casey Kasem, F. Murray Abraham, Paul Anka, Khalil Gibran and countless others whose names are familiar but whose culture and background are constantly maligned in our "enlightened mainstream" media.

Alternative media like The Prism are needed more than ever. Let us hope that it will not take a hundred years of education to undo the damage already done. Jack Shaheen and Sam Hussein of ADC tell us that, unfortunately, even if no more stereotyping films are produced the backlog of reruns will be very large indeed.

A dent in this problem will be made only if decent people would join hands (with such groups as ADC) and would call and write the media outlets to complain every time such a film or event is shown.

Islamic channels - combating propaganda and terrorism

Muslims need to unite to combat this propaganda being made by western media and nations for their own vested interests against Islam and Muslims. They need to equip themselves with knowledge of science and religion, technology and unity to stand against all odds. They have to develop their media and adopt a unanimous foreign policy against combating terrorism within their states and shedding this image built by mainstream media about Islam and Muslims. This is due to the monopoly of western media that voice of Muslim nations and media is still unheard and generally people all over the world are accepting Islam as religion that promotes violence and extremism of any type. This one way flow of information (propaganda-based) is the basic reason of Islam's negative image. Even Muslims who don't have the knowledge of religion particularly those born and living in western nations even assume Islam as a religion that gives space to extremism.

Many scholars have now come forward to shed this negative image and perception of Islam and Muslims but alone they cannot do this job, Muslims are suffering brutalities in various parts of the world and it is the responsibility of the media to show these brutalities to the world so that they could know that Muslims are also human beings like them and terrorism is not running in their blood.

Various Islamic channels are already working and projecting Islam's positive image and telling people and world that Islam is a religion of peace and it is the long series of injustice ignored by the world leaders that has made some Muslims extremist who now don't even care about their own lives to get justice. But again that has nothing to do with Islam and they also represent a very small group among all Muslims who do not support this extreme approach. Here we also need to understand that these few Islamic channels preaching about Islam and debating over issues cannot fight the propaganda being generated by mainstream media (western media). For example, when a news will be on aired on BBC and CNN that a muslim student has been arrested in London who was involved in some terrorist activities, now although in this news there is no clear evidence that student was involved in any terrorist activity but still this new will be enough to make life of Muslim students in UK a hell, particularly of practicing muslims. Here it is necessary that Muslim countries' news channels may come forward and tell the other part of the story to people. There are some channels like Al-Jazeera that were giving tough time to western media but definitely Al-Jazeera alone cannot do everything or Al-Jazeera alone cannot beat all

western media that are working on one policy of defaming muslims and Islam. We need to work on a strategy collectively and should form channels and channel policies making our target audience not our own people but those people that are making lives of Muslims a hell. We need to target western nations and their people and show them the true picture which is not possible unless we may develop the integrity of our channels and their news. And we also need to have our news agencies at international level so that we could get rid of the biased news that we get from our western news agencies. It is not difficult for muslim nations, which are blessed with treasures, to have few such channels or news agencies; all we need is unity and collective action which we haven't taken yet. Muslim nations and leaders are working but not collectively and the result is that still we are unable to develop a positive image of Islam.

In print a lot of material is being published in western states by muslims and muslim organizations but we all know that 'seeing is believing' so the damage done by western mainstream electronic media can only be overcome or undone by Islamic electronic media or channels.

WHAT IS TERRORISM?

The United Nations has not accepted any definition of terrorism as being authoritative. However, the UN "academic consensus definition," written by terrorism expert A.P. Schmid and widely used by social scientists, runs: Terrorism is an anxiety-inspiring method of repeated violent action, employed by (semi-) clandestine individual, group or state actors, for idiosyncratic, criminal or political reasons, whereby in contrast to assassination the direct targets of violence are not the main targets. The immediate human victims of violence are generally chosen randomly (targets of opportunity) or selectively (representative or symbolic targets) from a target population, and serve as message generators. Threat- and violence-based communication processes between terrorist (organization), (imperilled) victims, and main targets are used to manipulate the main target (audience(s)), turning it into a target of terror, a target of demands, or a target of attention, depending on whether intimidation, coercion, or propaganda is primarily sought," (Schmid, 1988).

The U.S. government's definition of terrorism — "the unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population or any segment thereof, in furtherance of political or social objectives"

It seems to me that we are confusing ourselves with unnecessary complications. How about working on a more simplified definition. Terrorism is any action either by an individual or government that targets civilians, or even "Terrorism is violence committed against non-military targets for political purposes."

There are a lot of questions to be considered before coming up with a final definition, a few might be: Are government sponsored actions that target civilians to be included in the definition? - What about bombings in times of war that target civilians, e.g. Hiroshima, Nagasaki, Hamburg, Dresden? (Note: "The president of the U.S. Conference of Catholic Bishops said, that like terrorism today, the atomic bombs that the United States dropped on Japan to end World War II were unjustifiable because they failed to "discriminate between noncombatants and combatants.") - How much collateral damage is acceptable? - If government troops do not act to prevent a slaughter of civilians, e.g. the Dutch U.N. Peacekeepers at Srebrenica, are they complicit in terrorism? - If government troops actually surround a civilian population so they cannot escape allowing another party to commit a massacre, e.g. Israeli troops at Sabra & Shatilla, are they also complicit in terrorism? - Is the use of WMD's terrorism (how about depleted uranium)? - If one government funds another tyrannical government, does it bear any responsibility, e.g. the Shah of Iran's torture chambers. - How about pre-emptive war, torture, sanctions, genocide, ethnic cleansing?

Whatever definition we come up with, we can agree that all violence is best avoided.

"I object to violence because when it appears to do good, the good is only temporary; the evil it does is permanent." Gandhi

"An eye for an eye will only make the whole world blind." Gandhi

Christian terrorism

Answers.com has an entry on Christian Terrorism as does Wikipedia - which includes the killing of abortion doctors, the Lords Resistance Army in Uganda, the Christian Identity Movement, Ku Klux Klan, The Order, God's Army, the IRA, the Nagaland Rebels.

Surprisingly, the ethnic cleansing of Bosnians by the Serbs was not included, nor were many other events that Muslims would consider terrorism. Why no religious designation for the perpetrators or victims?

In the case of Christianity Answers.com includes the disclaimer that "Mainstream believers typically consider acts by "Christian terrorists" to be egregious violations of the religion's ethics and regularly condemn all acts of terrorism, including those perpetuated by self-professed Christian terrorists.

"Is Eric Rudolph a "Christian terrorist"? Well, it depends on your definition. But if he's not a Christian terrorist, Osama bin Laden isn't an Islamic terrorist. His views and actions closely parallel those of Islamist radicals who attack targets inside majority-Islamic countries with a goal of instituting Islamic states. Christians—and not just conservatives, but moderates and liberals—will say that Eric Rudolph isn't really Christian. Christianity, of course, is a religion of peace. Now, where have we heard that before? There is, of course, a long history of murder and war in the name of the Prince of Peace. It hardly stopped with the Crusades or the Thirty Years' War. Nor is it confined to Ireland. I don't believe there's any creed that can't be perverted to violence."

This is one of the difficult issues to dialogue about, but it is an issue that needs to be dealt with - What was the religious affiliation of: - Those who enslaved and murdered the Native Americans; - Those who colonized most of what is now the "Third World"; - Those who dropped the atomic bomb; - Those who developed and participated in the political systems of Nazism and Fascism; - Those who participated in torture at Abu Ghraib; - Those who carried out ethnic cleansing against the Bosnian Muslims; - Those who were responsible for the death of millions in Germany's death camps.

We know that if the answer to any of these questions had been - Islam - that the term Islamic terrorism would have been used to describe the event. We don't believe that these events represent Christianity, but we also don't believe that the terrorist acts that are referred to as Islamic terrorism represent Islam. They are deviant actions that happened in spite of the religion of the perpetrators.

There have been Christians that have defended terrorism, or at least some forms of what others would see as terrorism. A recent example is Chuck Spingola and some Christian clergy have defended slavery, KKK lynchings, and even the Nazi regime.

In 1999 Pat Robertson called the assassination of foreign leaders "practical."

Christian Coalition President Pat Robertson said it might be "practical" foreign policy to assassinate some international leaders. Speaking Aug. 9 on "The 700 Club," Robertson said: "I know it sounds somewhat Machiavellian and evil, to think that you could send a squad in to take out somebody like (terrorist) Osama bin Laden or to take out the head of North Korea. But isn't it better to do something like that, to take out (Serbian President Slobodan) Milosevic, to take out (Iraqi President) Saddam Hussein, rather than to spend billions and billions of dollars on a war that harms innocent civilians and destroys the infrastructure of a country? It would just seem so much more practical to have that flexibility."

And, now in 2005 he calls specifically for the assassination of the President of Venezuela Hugo Chavez.

There Is a Struggle within Christianity

History has come to a point where only one thing will save this venerable faith tradition at this critical time in Christian history, and that is a new Reformation far more radical than Christianity has ever before known and that this Reformation must deal with the very substance of that faith. This Reformation will recognize that the pre-modern concepts in which Christianity has traditionally been carried will never again speak to the post-modern world we now inhabit. This Reformation will be about the very life and death of Christianity. Because it goes to the heart of how Christianity is to be understood, it will dwarf in intensity the Reformation of the 16th century. It will not be concerned about authority, ecclesiastical polity, valid ordinations and valid sacraments. It will be rather a Reformation that will examine the very

nature of the Christian faith itself. It will ask whether or not this ancient religious system can be refocused and re-articulated so as to continue living in this increasingly non-religious world.

Jewish terrorism

Under the heading Religious Terrorism such Jewish groups as the Jewish Defense League and Kahane Chai are listed. Wikipedia has an entry on the Qibya Massacre by Israeli troops; the Kafr Qasim Massacre by the Israeli border police; the Sabra and Shatila massacres which refer to the perpetrators as Maronite Christian Militias and to possible Israeli culpability; and the Lavon Affair including the Operation Susannah bombings in Egypt by the Israelis. Why Israeli and not Jewish? Why no mention of their religion? Why Militias and not terrorists?

In the case of Jewish terrorists Wikipedia includes the disclaimer: "Some of these Jewish groups believe that God gave Jews the land of Israel and so they advocate ethnic cleansing of Palestinians from Israel, West Bank and Gaza). Most, if not all, however, support the transfer of Palestinians to other regions within the Middle East and, while this entry on Religious Terrorism includes many entries for Islamic terrorism, doesn't even mention many groups affiliated with Christianity or Judaism who have resorted to terrorism.

There have been some Jews who defended terrorism: "In this terrible time of crisis, we remember the words of HaRav Yitzchak Nissim, the Chief Sephardic Rabbi of Israel that said in 1968, "The Land of Israel was, with its borders, defined for us by Divine Providence. Thou shalt be, says the Almighty, and there it is. No power on earth can alter that which was created by Him. In this connection it is not a question of law or logic, neither is it a matter of human treatment or that sort of thing." Rabbi Meier Kahane founded an organization called Kach which promoted ethnic cleansing of the Palestinians. The JDL defended the Hebron massacre of Palestinians by Dr. Baruch Goldstein.

There Is A Struggle Within Judaism

"And how can you apply the adjective life-affirming to thousands of ferociously angry settlers in Gaza determined to rip down every brick in place, cut down every tree, root up every vine, people who have been widely reported to be poisoning the land they will have to surrender? It seems to me that Israel itself represents the focus of just such a struggle going on in Judaism, the only difference between it and what we see in Islam being one of numbers."

Islamic terrorism

The list of terrorist acts attributed to "Islamic" Terrorism doesn't need to be repeated here because it so widespread as to be "common knowledge — common, but not accurate. Any act committed by any criminal who happens to be a Muslim will be labeled Islamic Terrorism.

We need to question whether al-Qaeda is "an evil ideology whose roots lie in a perverted and poisonous misinterpretation of Islam" as Tony Blair has said, or is it a violent response to perceived injustices, twisting Islamic belief in an attempt to justify that response by misusing the Quran and going against 1400 years of Islamic thought.

In the case of Islamist terrorism Answers.com is much less generous than it was with possible Christian or Jewish terrorism and says only: The extent of support for "Islamist terrorism" within the Muslim population is disputed, although it is generally agreed that only the most extremist fringes support it. Many Muslims have denounced support for terrorism.

This is a deceptive wording that gives a very different impression than the disclaimers for Christianity and Judaism.

"Terrorism, which is termed hirabah (not jihad) in Arabic, was uniformly condemned by all the classical Islamic scholars, even by those who were imprisoned by the authorities (which included all the greatest scholars in Islamic history), because it was the classic example of the fasad (or societal corruption) that destroys civilization (al hadara al islamiya). Osama bin Laden is nothing less than a Beast of the Anti-Christ (the masiah al dajal) and his terrorism against America is hirabah al shaitaniyyah, a satanic war that

can only plunge all of humanity into centuries or millennia of barbarism. ... We must understand where he is coming from, but also where he is going. Our task is not merely to stop evil, which can't be done, but to promote good, which can overcome it, insha'a Allah." Economic Justice: A Cure for Terrorism, Dr. Robert D. Crane

Muslims have spoken up just as loudly against terrorism as any other group. Hundreds of clerics and theologians have condemned al Qaeda's and Osama bin Laden's violence. There have been fatwas issued on every aspect of violence and terrorism and even fatwas to clarify who is qualified to issue a fatwa.

There Is a Struggle within Islam

"No doubt, Muslims are facing a deep spiritual crisis. Islam has been hijacked and turned into an ideology in pursuit of worldly success instead of a religion meant to purify the soul and focus one's life on Almighty God. ... I don't deny that there are "Muslim terrorists" out there. Rather, like many people, I'm rather cynical about the conduct of what so far has been a rather selective war on terrorism. Indeed, a blind-eye is being turned to other great atrocities in the world and problems that cost far more human lives are being ignored. In the hands of ideologues who seemingly believe that military force can solve many of the world's complex problems, the "War on Terror" has been expanded to include not only countries that are seemingly uninvolved, but carried out in gross violation of the very international laws that the terrorists are guilty of violating. Unfortunately, we live in an age where well-intentioned criticism is often considered un-patriotic especially when coming from a Muslim. Being a good citizenship these days seems to mean shutting up and climbing on the bandwagon. Critical thinking and moral courage seem to be in short supply. Finding a semblance of them is as tough as finding an honest man in Congress. We only hope that our attempts to understand the motives for a crime are never understood to be endorsements of it. In order to develop reasonable, coherent and viable solutions to the plague of ignorance and extremism that we're facing, we need to study the sources, context and motives behind the crimes. Simple solutions are bogus solutions, and most of the tough problems facing the human race can't be solved by using military force. ... As a God-fearing and morally upright community, we've got to join together and bring our resources to bear in order to refute with a vengeance these extremist "Protestant Muslims" and their flaky "Do-It-Yourself" religion that has cast aside over 1,400 years of peerless scholarly tradition. In this undertaking, it's crucial that we stay balanced, moderate and true to our blessed tradition. ... We need to explain the high moral standards of our faith; that it is a religion that primarily emphasizes not only the infinite mercy of God but encourages mercy between all human beings. Indeed, Islam condemns terrorism, murder, hijacking, kidnapping, taking the law into your own hands and so on. None of this is compromised by the fact that we also have a "Just War" theory which is extremely similar to the ones advocated not only by various churches, but by international law as well. Our beloved Prophet was sent as a mercy to the worlds (Qur'an 21:107), so we have to save Islam from the reckless few that have made a large part of humanity feel that it's a scourge rather than a blessing." Monkey See Monkey Do - Not an Islamic Ideal, Abdur Rahman Squires.

We are in the midst of wars between the different families of Abraham, Jews, Christians, and Muslims. Some of the family members actually define these wars as religiously required. ... Even worse, there are groups within the Muslim, Christian, and Jewish communities that are trying to incite and create an all-out war between Islam and "the West." Such a war would bring misery upon the peoples of all nations.

THE MAGNITUDE OF POPULATION GROWTH AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

The world's population is growing by nearly 80 million people per year. While population growth rates have slowed since their peak in the 1960s, the numbers being added to the population each year continue to be huge, in part because of the growth in the numbers of people of reproductive age. At current rates of birth and death, the world's population is on a trajectory to double in 49 years.

The median projection of population size by the U.N. Population Division envisions that population growth rates will decline over the coming several decades. But even if that median projection is achieved, the number of people expected to be added to the world's population in the next 50 years will be almost as large as the number added in the last 50 years.

That magnitude of increase, coming on top of the unprecedented growth that has occurred in the last half-century, will be felt in all aspects of life. It will further stress already strained ecological systems and worsen poverty in much of the developing world, thus aggravating threats to international security.

Population growth is not the only threat facing humanity, but it will be a major contributor to the crises that await us in the coming century. The pervasive impacts emanating from continuing population growth include the following:

Environmental Threats

The expansion of human activity and associated loss of habitat are the leading causes of the unprecedented extinctions of plant and animal species worldwide. The loss of biological diversity leads to instability of ecological systems, particularly those that are stressed by climate change or invasion of non-native species.

Massive rural to urban migration in much of the developing world has overwhelmed water treatment systems, resulting in water pollution that leads to intolerable health conditions for many people.

Despite this migration, rural populations are also growing, leading to overuse of land and resultant erosion of hillsides and silting of rivers, as typified by Madagascar, Nepal and Haiti.

The same pressures are hastening the destruction of vast forest areas and loss of wildlife habitat. The loss of forests also reduces the ability of the ecosystem to combat global warming. Carbon dioxide that would be absorbed by trees instead stays in the atmosphere.

On a global basis, emissions of greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide, are rising rather than falling, despite the international agreements designed to reduce emissions. Given this trend, many scientists believe that global warming will accelerate during this century, with consequences including rising sea levels, growing weather severity, and disruption of agriculture.

Greenhouse gas emissions are increasing in developing countries, where populations are expanding most rapidly. In some of these countries, energy consumption and production of greenhouse gases is rising on a per capita basis as the countries' economies expand. In most, there is an understandable desire to increase living standards by increasing production and per capita consumption of energy and resources. Median projections of expanding economic activity in developing countries indicate that the developing world will be producing more greenhouse gases than the developed countries by the year 2020. At the same time, the developed countries are generally failing to make progress on reduction of greenhouse gas emissions, in part because of continuing population increases, especially in the United States.

Given the trends in population, energy and resource consumption, combined with technological innovations, the adverse human impact on the global ecosystem could triple or quadruple by the year 2050.

Poverty

Rapid population growth aggravates poverty in developing countries by producing a high ratio of dependent children for each working adult. This leads to a relatively high percentage of income being spent on immediate survival needs of food, housing, and clothing, leaving little money for purchase of elective goods or for investment in the economy, education, government services, or infrastructure. Lack of available capital continues to frustrate the attempts of many developing countries to expand their economies and reduce poverty.

Only about 20 percent of the current world's population has a generally adequate standard of living. The other 80 percent live in conditions ranging from mild deprivation to severe deficiency. This imbalance is likely to get worse, as more than 90 percent of future population growth is projected for the less developed countries.

The continent with the most rapid population growth, Africa, is actually growing poorer. African's per capita gross domestic product of \$510 is only 89 percent of the 1960 level. Per capita calorie intake is 20 percent below that of 1960. Every third person in Africa is chronically malnourished. The doubling time of Africa's population is 28 years. Average desired family size in sub-Saharan Africa is five children per couple.

Just as population growth contributes to poverty, population stabilization has often contributed to rapid improvements in per capita economic conditions and overall quality of life. All of the countries that have moved from developing status to developed status since World War II, according to U.N. criteria, had brought their fertility rates down close to replacement level around the times their economies began to take off. These include South Korea, Japan, Taiwan, Singapore, Barbados and The Bahamas.

Scarcities of Food and Fresh Water

Productive agricultural systems have contributed to economic progress in many countries, both developed and less developed. The Green Revolution of the 1970s enabled some developing countries to become net exporters of food. Yet, global population growth during and since the Green Revolution is continuing to consume more and more of the expanding food base, leading to a decline in per capita availability of cereal grains on a global basis over the last 15 years.

The world's agricultural systems rely substantially on increasing use of fertilizers. But now, the world's farmers are witnessing signs of a declining response curve, where the use of additional fertilizer yields little additional food product. At the same time, fertilizers and intensive cropping lower the quality of soil. These factors will more and more limit the possibilities of raising food production substantially and will, at a minimum, boost relative food prices and resulting hunger for many. So will the mounting resistance of pests to insecticides, which are used increasingly by the world's farmers. On a global basis, 37 percent of food and fiber crops are now lost to pests. At the same time, nitrogen-based fertilizers are yielding nitrous oxide, which adds to the greenhouse effect of the carbon dioxide humans produce.

As an illustration of food problems to come, Lester Brown of World Watch Institute has made projections regarding food demand by China and India through the year 2030. Because of industrialization leading to loss of agricultural land, population growth, and the demand for more meat instead of grain as incomes rise, China is projected to need to import 240 million tons of food annually by the year 2030. The same projections show India (currently an exporter of food) needing to import 30 million tons a year. Yet, total world agricultural trade is currently just 200 million tons of grain or grain equivalent, and that amount is decreasing as the exporting countries consume more and more of their own food products. Accordingly, the increasing demand for food imports by growing economies like China's will almost certainly drive the price of food up over the next 30 years, virtually ensuring that more people elsewhere will suffer from starvation. Historically, Western countries have shown no inclination to undergo a dramatic decline in their own quality of life (including greatly reducing consumption of meat and poultry) in order to assist poor countries with grain exports. And so the world is likely to witness severe starvation and economic dislocation over the next 30 years.

At the same time, shortages of water are at a crisis point in many countries. At least 400 million people live in regions with severe water shortages. By the year 2050, it is projected to be approximately two billion. Water tables on every continent are falling, as water is pumped out at far greater rates than rainwater can replenish in order to provide irrigation for agriculture. India, for example, is pumping out its underground aquifers at twice the rate of natural replenishment.

Humans are already using half of the globe's products of photosynthesis and over half of all accessible fresh water. Long before human demand doubles again, the limits of the ecosystem's ability to support people will become dramatically evident.

Threats to International Security

As mentioned earlier, population growth is a major contributor to economic stagnation through its depressing effect on capital formation. With growing numbers of young people attempting to enter the labor force, many developing countries have extraordinarily high levels of unemployment. Often high rates of unemployment give rise to severe political instability, which ultimately threatens national and international security.

In a world growing closer together, wealthier countries and regions too will find it increasingly difficult to insulate themselves from threats to their own security. The combination of poverty and violence is adding rapidly to the number of refugees seeking to move into more stable and prosperous areas. Growth of

refugee and migrant populations are contributing to political instability and economic dislocation in many countries. Intelligence agencies in the U.S. and elsewhere have long recognized the implications of population growth for international security.

International Media Programs

Through global, regional, and country-level programs, different non-governmental and non-profit organizations work with journalists in developing countries to build their competence, understanding, and commitment to provide effective and high-profile coverage of health and population issues. Their work with journalists includes sponsoring seminars on these issues and providing support for reporters to attend and cover regional and international conferences.

Advertising awareness campaigns have been started by different organizations at international and national levels and we also see campaigns being run on electronic and print media by Ministry of Population and welfare that are trying to aware people of the sensitivity of the issue and to convince them that they must realize the responsibility they have on their shoulders and must control population for the better life of their next generations. Otherwise all that we will see around us would be hunger, poverty and deprivation.

PRB i.e. population reference bureau, one of the non-governmental organization working internationally, works in a variety of ways with journalists in developing countries to build their understanding and commitment to provide effective and prominent coverage of reproductive health, gender and other population-related issues. We form global and regional networks of journalists and hold annual or semi-annual seminars to provide the latest information on the issues and give them an opportunity to share their experiences and ideas. We also sponsor journalists to attend relevant regional and international conferences and facilitate their coverage of these events.

Women's Edition

The Women's Edition project brings together senior-level women journalists from influential media organizations in different countries to examine and report on pressing issues affecting women's health and status in the developing world. Journalists are selected to participate in the program for two years, during which they attend four seminars and produce in-depth reports for their media outlets.

Pop'Médiafrrique and Fem'Mediafrrique

Pop'Médiafrrique is a network of print and broadcast editors ("gatekeepers") and senior journalists from Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania, and Senegal. The participants attend seminars that focus on improving media coverage of reproductive health with data-based reporting and increased communication with local health officials. Fem'Mediafrrique is a network of women journalists from the same countries who, in collaboration with the Pop'Mediafrrique editors, produce news stories and radio programs on reproductive health issues.

South Asian Media Network

The South Asian Media Network was formed in collaboration with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) to bolster news reporting of family planning and reproductive health in the region. Journalists from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, the Maldives, Nepal, and Pakistan attended their first network seminar in 2006.

Haiti

In collaboration with the Haitian organization, Réseau Liberté, PRB facilitated a media training seminar for 11 Haitian journalists titled, "Empowering women through improved access to family planning and raising awareness of violence against women." The seminar was funded by the USAID Mission in Haiti. PRB continues to provide the journalists mentoring and support to continue their coverage of family planning and gender violence issues in Haiti.

Africawoman

PRB has sponsored several editions of Africawoman, an online and printed newspaper published by a network of women journalists from eight African countries: Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. The newspaper is circulated in those countries as well as to community radio stations across the continent. The PRB-sponsored newspaper editions have examined reproductive health, gender-based violence, and maternal mortality.

Conferences

PRB further builds the capacity of journalists who participate in its seminars by sponsoring their attendance at international and regional conferences and meetings on population and reproductive health issues.

Most recently, PRB assembled a group of journalists from across Africa in September 2006 to attend a pre-conference seminar and to cover a meeting of the African Union Conference of Ministers of Health in Maputo, Mozambique. The 11 journalists wrote or broadcast for newspapers and radio stations in Ghana, Senegal, Mali, Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda.

PRB sponsored a three-day seminar in June 2006 to educate 22 journalists from Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, and Uganda on family planning, maternal mortality, and other reproductive health issues. Organized with the Population Council and the National Press Foundation, the seminar prepared the journalists to cover the 2nd Africa Conference on Reproductive Health and Rights.

Electronic media is also doing a lot and can further do a lot. Programs and open debates must be organized on media and issue should be treated on priority-basis to tackle the problem.

We can see on our channels different programs including plays addressing the issue after the government has adopted a policy on population control but still we see that progress is very slow, which is mainly due to lack of education among people. However, realizing the intensity of the problem we need to adopt a more active policy on our channels because electronic media (Radio and TV) is a very strong media and it is the only form of media that if tactfully used, can convey its message to common man at his doorstep and can even educate and aware illiterate people. Another importance of Electronic Media regarding this issue is that in our society particularly this issue is still a taboo and it is not appreciated to discuss it openly and even in some remote areas it is not even considered as an issue at all; mass media does not involve any face to face communication and it also does not target any specific person or area therefore it can play an important part in solving these major problems that are considered still a taboo.

LESSON 11

**POVERTY ALLEVIATION & NEW INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION
TECHNOLOGIES**

Poverty Alleviation And Mass Media – A Big Issue Humanity Is Facing

Poverty is most commonly understood as the condition of having very low wealth, or having little money and few material possessions. In international development and public policy literature, poverty is **economic deprivation**.

While some define poverty primarily in economic terms, others consider social and political arrangements to be intrinsic. Debate on the causes, effects, and measurement of poverty directly influences the design and implementation of poverty reduction programs, and is thus important to the fields of international development and public administration. Although poverty is generally considered to be undesirable, because of the pain and suffering that may accompany it, in certain spiritual contexts, it may be seen as a virtue because voluntary poverty involves the renunciation of material goods.

Poverty is a condition which may affect individuals or collective groups, and is not confined to the developing nations. Although the most severe poverty is in the developing world, there is evidence of poverty in every region. In developed countries, examples include homelessness and ghettos.

The book "*The World Bank*" by David Moore argues that some analyses of poverty reflect prejorative and sometimes racialized colonial stereotypes of impoverished people as powerless victims, and passive recipients of aid programs.

Measuring Poverty

The percentage of the world's population living on less than \$1 per day has halved in twenty years. However, most of this improvement has occurred in East and South Asia. Life expectancy has been increasing and converging for most of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa has recently seen a decline, partly related to the AIDS epidemic.

When measured, poverty may be absolute or relative poverty. **Absolute poverty** refers to a set standard which is consistent over time and between countries. An example of an absolute measurement would be the percentage of the population eating less food than is required to sustain the human body (approximately 2000-2500 calories per day for an adult male).

Analysis of economic aspects of poverty may focus on material needs, typically including the necessities of daily living, such as food, clothing, shelter, or safe drinking water. Poverty in this sense may be understood as a condition in which a person or community is deprived of the basic needs for a minimum standard of well-being and life, particularly as a result of a persistent lack of wealth and income, or wealth and income disparities.

Analysis of social aspects of poverty links conditions of scarcity to aspects of the distribution of resources and power in a society and recognizes that poverty may be a function of the diminished "capability" of people to live the kinds of lives they value. The social aspects of poverty may include lack of access to information, education, health care, or political power. Poverty may also be understood as an aspect of unequal social status and inequitable social relationships, experienced as social exclusion, dependency, and diminished capacity to participate, or to develop meaningful connections with other people in society. The World Bank's "Voices of the Poor," based on research with over 20,000 poor people in 23 countries, identifies a range of factors which poor people identify as part of poverty. These include:

- precarious livelihoods
- excluded locations
- physical limitations
- gender relationships
- problems in social relationships
- lack of security
- abuse by those in power
- disempowering institutions
- limited capabilities
- weak community organizations

The World Bank defines *extreme poverty* as living on less than US\$ 1 per day, and *moderate poverty* as less than \$2 a day, estimating that "in 2001, 1.1 billion people had consumption levels below \$1 a day and 2.7 billion lived on less than \$2 a day." The proportion of the developing world's population living in extreme economic poverty fell from 28 percent in 1990 to 21 percent in 2001. Looking at the period 1981-2001, the percentage of the world's population living on less than \$1 per day has halved.

However, most of this improvement has occurred in East and South Asia. In East Asia the World Bank reports that "The poverty headcount rate at the \$2-a-day level is estimated to have fallen to about 27 percent, down from 29.5 percent in 2006 and 69 percent in 1990."

In Sub-Saharan Africa GDP/capita shrank by 14 percent and extreme poverty increased from 41 percent in 1981 to 46 percent in 2001, increasing the number of people living in poverty from 231 million to 318 million.

Other regions have seen little change. In the early 1990s the transition economies of Europe and Central Asia experienced a sharp drop in income. Poverty rates rose to 6 percent at the end of the decade before beginning to recede.

World Bank data shows that the percentage of the population living in households with consumption or income per person below the poverty line has decreased in each region of the world since 1999.

Region	1990	2002	2004
East Asia and Pacific	15.40%	12.33%	9.07%
Europe and Central Asia	3.60%	1.28%	0.95%
Latin America and the Caribbean	9.62%	9.08%	8.64%
Middle East and North Africa	2.08%	1.69%	1.47%
South Asia	35.04%	33.44%	30.84%
Sub-Saharan Africa	46.07%	42.63%	41.09%

Criticism of These Measurements

There are various criticisms of these measurements. Shaohua Chen and Martin Ravallion note that although "a clear trend decline in the percentage of people who are absolutely poor is evident, although with uneven progress across regions...the developing world outside China and India has seen little or no sustained progress in reducing the number of poor". However, since the world's population has increased, if instead looking at the percentage living on less than \$1/day, and if excluding China and India, then this percentage has decreased from 31.35% to 20.70% between 1981 and 2004.

Other human development indicators are also improving. Life expectancy has greatly increased in the developing world since WWII and is starting to close the gap to the developed world where the improvement has been smaller. Even in Sub-Saharan Africa, the least developed region, life expectancy increased from 30 years before World War II to a peak of about 50 years before the HIV pandemic and other diseases started to force it down to the current level of 47 years. Child mortality has decreased in every developing region of the world. The proportion of the world's population living in countries where per-capita food supplies are less than 2,200 calories (9,200 kilojoules) per day decreased from 56% in the mid-1960s to below 10% by the 1990s. Between 1950 and 1999, global literacy increased from 52% to 81% of the world. Women made up much of the gap: Female literacy as a percentage of male literacy has increased from 59% in 1970 to 80% in 2000. The percentage of children not in the labor force has also risen to over 90% in 2000 from 76% in 1960. There are similar trends for electric power, cars, radios, and telephones per capita, as well as the proportion of the population with access to clean water.

Relative poverty views poverty as socially defined and dependent on social context. Income inequality is a relative measure of poverty. A relative measurement would be to compare the total wealth of the poorest one-third of the population with the total wealth of richest 1% of the population. There are several different income inequality metrics. One example is the Gini coefficient.

Income inequality for the world as a whole is diminishing. A 2002 study by Xavier Sala-i-Martin finds that this is driven mainly, but not fully, by the extraordinary growth rate of the incomes of the 1.2 billion Chinese citizens. However, unless Africa achieves economic growth, then China, India, the OECD and the rest of middle-income and rich countries will increase their relative advantage, and global inequality will rise.

The 2007 World Bank report "Global Economic Prospects" predicts that in 2030 the number living on less than the equivalent of \$1 a day will fall by half, to about 550 million. An average resident of what we used to call the Third World will live about as well as do residents of the Czech or Slovak republics today. However, much of Africa will have difficulty keeping pace with the rest of the developing world and even if conditions there improve in absolute terms, the report warns, Africa in 2030 will be home to a larger proportion of the world's poorest people than it is today. However, economic growth has increased rapidly in Africa after the year 2000.

In many developed countries the official definition of poverty used for statistical purposes is based on relative income. As such many critics argue that poverty statistics measure inequality rather than material deprivation or hardship. For instance, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 46% of those in "poverty" in the U.S. own their own home (with the average poor person's home having three bedrooms, with one and a half baths, and a garage). Furthermore, the measurements are usually based on a person's yearly income and frequently take no account of total wealth. The main poverty line used in the OECD and the European Union is based on "economic distance", a level of income set at 50% of the median household income. The US poverty line is more arbitrary. It was created in 1963-64 and was based on the dollar costs of the U.S. Department of Agriculture's "economy food plan" multiplied by a factor of three. The multiplier was based on research showing that food costs then accounted for about one third of the total money income. This one-time calculation has since been annually updated for inflation.

Causes of Poverty

Many different factors have been cited to explain why poverty occurs. However, no single explanation has gained universal acceptance. At the international level some emphasize global systemic causes, (such as trade, aid and debt, the focus of the Make Poverty History campaign), while others point to national level deficiencies of public administration and financial management, the focus of the Good Governance agenda of the international financial institutions. At the national level, some point to personal factors, such as drug use, work ethic and education level as the main cause of poverty, while others indicate inadequate social services and policies biased in favour of the wealthy and social elites, as a major cause of enduring poverty.

Other possible factors include:

Natural Factors

- Natural factors such as the climate or environment
- Geographic factors, for example access to fertile land, fresh water, minerals, energy, and other natural resources. Presence or absence of natural features helping or limiting communication, such as mountains, deserts, sailable rivers, or coastline. Historically, geography has prevented or slowed the spread of new technology to areas such as the Americas and Sub-Saharan Africa. The climate also limits what crops and farm animals may be used on similarly fertile lands.
- On the other hand, research on the resource curse has found that countries with an abundance of natural resources creating quick wealth from exports tend to have less long-term prosperity than countries with less of these natural resources.

Economics

- In a cash-based payment system, which compels people to pay money in exchange for what they need, those who lack money struggle to access essential resources and are more vulnerable to poverty.

- In a wage-based economic system, lack of access to jobs at appropriately skilled levels can deprive individuals of essential income and undermine human dignity and sense of worth.
- Capital flight by which the wealthy in a society shift their assets to off-shore tax havens deprives nations of revenue needed to break the vicious cycle of poverty.
- Weakly entrenched formal systems of title to private property are seen by writers such as Hernando de Soto as a limit to economic growth and therefore a cause of poverty.
- Communists see the institution of property rights itself as a cause of poverty.
- Unfair terms of trade, in particular, the very high subsidies to and protective tariffs for agriculture in the developed world, is seen as a major cause of enduring poverty in developing countries heavily reliant on commodity exports.
- Low wages can undermine the ability of households to save and thus make them less resilient to shocks in the economy and more vulnerable to poverty.

Health Care

- Poor access to affordable health care makes individuals less resilient to economic hardship and more vulnerable to poverty.
- Inadequate nutrition in childhood, itself an effect of poverty, undermines the ability of individuals to develop their full human capabilities and thus makes them more vulnerable to poverty. Lack of essential minerals such as iodine and iron can impair brain development. It is estimated that 2 billion people (one-third of the total global population) are affected by iodine deficiency, including 285 million 6- to 12-year-old children. In developing countries, it is estimated that 40% of children aged 4 and under suffer from anemia because of insufficient iron in their diets. See also Health and intelligence.
- Disease, specifically diseases of poverty: AIDS, malaria, and tuberculosis and others overwhelmingly afflict developing nations, which perpetuate poverty by diverting individual, community, and national health and economic resources from investment and productivity. Further, many tropical nations are affected by parasites like malaria, schistosomiasis, and trypanosomiasis that are not present in temperate climates. The Tsetse fly makes it very difficult to use many animals in agriculture in afflicted regions.
- Clinical depression undermines the resilience of individuals and when not properly treated makes them vulnerable to poverty.
- Similarly substance abuse, including for example alcoholism and drug abuse when not properly treated undermines resilience and can consign people to vicious poverty cycles.

Governance

- The governance effectiveness of governments has a major impact on the delivery of socioeconomic outcomes for poor populations.
- Weak rule of law can discourage investment and thus perpetuate poverty.
- Poor management of resource revenues can mean that rather than lifting countries out of poverty, revenues from such activities as oil production or gold mining actually leads to a resource curse.
- Failure by governments to provide essential infrastructure worsens poverty.
- Poor access to affordable education traps individuals and countries in cycles of poverty.
- High levels of corruption undermine efforts to make a sustainable impact on poverty.

Demographics and Social Factors

- Overpopulation and lack of access to birth control methods. Note that population growth slows or even become negative as poverty is reduced due to the demographic transition.
- Crime, both white-collar crime and blue-collar crime.
- Historical factors, for example imperialism and colonialism
- Brain drain
- Matthew effect: the phenomenon, widely observed across advanced welfare states, that the middle classes tend to be the main beneficiaries of social benefits and services, even if these are primarily targeted at the poor.

- Cultural causes, which attribute poverty to common patterns of life, learned or shared within a community. For example, Max Weber argued that the Protestant work ethic contributed to economic growth during the industrial revolution.
- War, including civil war, genocide, and democide.
- Discrimination of various kinds, such as age discrimination, stereotyping, gender discrimination, racial discrimination, caste discrimination.
- Individual beliefs, actions and choices.

Some effects of poverty may also be causes, as listed above, thus creating a "poverty cycle" operating across multiple levels, individual, local, national and global.

Those living in poverty and lacking access to essential health services, suffering hunger or even starvation, experience mental and physical health problems which make it harder for them to improve their situation. One third of deaths - some 18 million people a year or 50,000 per day - are due to poverty-related causes: in total 270 million people, most of them women and children, have died as a result of poverty since 1990. Those living in poverty suffer lower life expectancy. Every year nearly 11 million children living in poverty die before their fifth birthday. Those living in poverty often suffer from hunger. 800 million people go to bed hungry every night. Poverty increases the risk of homelessness. Increased risk of drug abuse may also be associated with poverty.

Those living in poverty may suffer social isolation and rates of suicide may increase in conditions of poverty. Death of a breadwinner may decrease a household's resilience to poverty conditions and cause a dramatic worsening in their situation. Low income levels and poor employment opportunities for adults in turn create the conditions where households can depend on the income of child members. An estimated 218 million children aged 5 to 17 are in child labor worldwide, excluding child domestic labor. Lacking viable employment opportunities those living in poverty may also engage in the informal economy, or in criminal activity, both of which may on a larger scale discourage investment in the economy, further perpetuating conditions of poverty.

Low income and wealth levels undermine the ability of governments to levy taxes for public service provision, adding to the 'vicious circle' connecting the causes and effects of poverty. Lack of essential infrastructure, poor education and health services, and poor sanitation contribute to the perpetuation of poverty. Poor access to affordable public education can lead to low levels of literacy, further entrenching poverty. Weak public service provision and high levels of poverty can increase states' vulnerability to natural disasters and make states more vulnerable to shocks in the international economy, such as those associated with rising fuel prices, or declining commodity prices.

The capacity of the state is further undermined by the problem that people living in poverty may be more vulnerable to extremist political persuasion, and may feel less loyalty to a state unable to deliver basic services. For these reasons conditions of poverty may increase the risk of political violence, terrorism, war and genocide, and may make those living in poverty vulnerable to human trafficking, internal displacement and exile as refugees. Countries suffering widespread poverty may experience loss of population, particularly in high-skilled professions, through emigration, which may further undermine their ability to improve their situation.

How the News Media Covers Poverty?

There has recently been a spate of stories in the news media about high paying white collar jobs being outsourced to countries like Pakistan and India. Apparently the media have awakened to the fact that job loss is a serious topic. But this didn't happen when millions of low-wage workers lost their jobs in the recession. *Poor people out of work isn't news.*

How good a job do the media do in covering poverty and the poor? Over the last several decades, three trends have led to a serious reduction in news coverage of New York City's poor neighborhoods and their problems.

Importance of *Amsterdam News*

There has been an ideological shift to the right through new ownership of several media outlets. News stories, in general, have become more focused on trivia, celebrities, and sensationalist trash than on hard news that affects people's lives. The number of daily newspapers in the city has fallen from eight or nine to three or four. These trends highlight the importance of the *Amsterdam News* in covering New York City's communities of color.

Most New Yorkers don't spend much time thinking about or traveling into low-income neighborhoods. If there is a news story from a working class neighborhood, it's likely to be a shooting or a fire. Even in a city where people live cheek to jowl, there is little contact between economic classes. And this is reflected in the perceptions and focus of most news editors and their reporters.

Many stories about the poor tend toward stereotypes. "They don't have jobs; they use drugs; they lack moral fiber." This can lead to the conclusion that there is no need for public investment in poor neighborhoods - the problem is the poor, not society.

Poor people out of work isn't news

Some political analysts see a policy emerging lately to starve government of funds that could be used to help the poor. Huge tax cuts in the past few years have left the federal government with little disposable revenue, a rationale for not funding job training, health care, education, and housing - all areas where the poor desperately need help. Right wing politicians cannot just come out and say they are against these programs. So they cut taxes for the rich, reducing revenue.

Then they can say the government doesn't have the money to fund these programs. Let private enterprise do it.

How has this policy - a major shift in our country's political agenda - been covered by the news media? Most of the media are either too timid to report this story or are oblivious to its ramifications. Whatever discussion exists about it has been mostly under the radar.

Just as damaging has been the media's refusal to look at underlying problems of poverty. For example: An education divide is taking place in America today, producing a new class system in the next generation defined by locale (suburbs vs. inner cities) and race (white vs. people of color).

It took a lawsuit - *Campaign for Fiscal Equity vs. State of New York* - to get the media focused on the educational ghettos of New York City and many rural school districts in the state. Still, the education of children in poor school districts is hardly a front page story for most news outlets.

The media are largely ignoring a major issue because they think it has no relevance to most people's lives. They miss the wider, global picture: the place of America in the world when millions in the next generation of Americans are poorly educated.

Another subject that is ignored by the media is the growing disparity in wealth between rich and poor. The fact that this is not a political issue in America - it certainly would be in any European democracy - highlights not only the faintheartedness of mainstream media, but also the weakness of organized labor.

News organizations are bottom line, profit-making enterprises. Their job is to cover the news, but it is also to make money through advertising. How media organizations reconcile these two tasks certainly affects their coverage of poverty.

NEW INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES – NEED AND CULTURAL CONTEXTS

Information technology (IT), as defined by the Information Technology Association of America (ITAA), is "the study, design, development, implementation, support or management of computer-based information systems, particularly software applications and computer hardware." IT deals with the use of electronic computers and computer software to convert, store, protect, process, transmit and retrieve information, securely.

Recently it has become popular to broaden the term to explicitly include the field of electronic communication so that people tend to use the abbreviation ICT (Information and Communications Technology), it is common for this to be referred to as IT & T in the Australasia region, standing for Information Technology and *Telecommunications*.

Today, the term information technology has ballooned to encompass many aspects of computing and technology, and the term is more recognizable than ever before. The information technology umbrella can be quite large, covering many fields. IT professionals perform a variety of duties that range from installing applications to designing complex computer networks and information databases. A few of the duties that IT professionals perform may include data management, networking, engineering computer hardware, database and software design, as well as the management and administration of entire systems.

What are ICTs?

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) consist of hardware, software, networks, and media for the collection, storage, processing, transmission, and presentation of information (voice, data, text, images), as well as related services. Communication technologies consist of a range of communication media and devices, including print, telephone, fax, radio, television, video, audio, computer, and the internet. *Source: Neto and others (2005).*

Rapid growth in ICT use especially among young people

Although young and old alike watch television and listen to the radio, young people are the main users of the new ICTs, especially the internet and more advanced features of mobile phones such as text messaging, also known as short messaging service (SMS). In a typical age pattern, youth were the first adopters of the internet in the Kyrgyz Republic and account for most of the growth in users between 2001 and 2005. Data from surveys in 2005 in the Kyrgyz Republic show that youth accounted for 43 percent of all internet users ages 15 and older in China, 50 percent in Armenia, 53 percent in Bolivia, 60 percent in Egypt, 61 percent in the Kyrgyz Republic, and 70 percent in Indonesia. These proportions, similar to those for 2002 and 2003, suggest that approximately 130–160 million of the 269 million new internet users between 2000 and 2003 were 15 to 24.

Although youth are more likely than older age groups to use the new ICTs, the use among youth varies dramatically. Across countries surveyed in 2005, the share of 15- to 24-year-olds who have ever used the internet varies from less than 1 percent in Ethiopia to 12 percent in Indonesia, 13 percent in Ghana, 15 percent in Egypt, 29 percent in Armenia, and 53 percent in China. The digital divide also occurs within countries. Computer and mobile phone ownership and internet and SMS usage are highest among youth in urban areas and with more education and higher household incomes. In Indonesia, 59 percent of university students had used the internet and 95 percent SMS, compared with 5 percent or less among youth with only primary education. The use of these new ICTs is a more communal experience in developing countries than in developed. Many youth do not have computers in their own homes, and instead access the internet at school or at internet cafes. Access at school varies considerably across countries. Some richer developing countries have connected many schools, with Chile having 75 percent of schools online. In contrast, data from six Sub-Saharan African countries reveal that less than 1 percent of schools are covered. 1 Mobile phone use can also be communal, especially in rural areas. Widespread access to phone resellers in many countries has reduced the barrier to access for young people.

In some countries, young women access the internet less through these public access points than do young men. In Ghana, 16.5 percent of male youth use internet cafes, more than twice the 6.6 percent for female youth. Women may not feel comfortable or may be restricted from attending these public points alone or after certain hours. Even at school, girls may find it harder to gain access. In Sub-Saharan Africa, enrollment rates of boys greatly exceed those of girls, so girls compete with a large number of boys for scarce computer resources. 2 In contrast, young women do not appear to have less access to mobile phones than young men, and may actually use them more in some countries.

Young people are more likely to adopt these new technologies for economic, physiological, and social reasons. As with migration, longer working lives mean that young people have more time to gather the benefits from investing in new technology. The cost of investing in the skills required to learn how to use the new ICTs is also likely to be less for youth, who are better educated than older generations and may receive training through school. Moreover, youth find it easier to acquire complex information processing tasks. The tendency of youth to use these technologies is amplified by the desire to use these technologies

for entertainment, and reinforced through peer learning and network effects: the value of a mobile phone or internet connection increases when more of one's peers are using it.

As a result of this rapid expansion in ICTs, young people around the world are more able to access information and connect to ideas and people outside their countries. In 2005 it was estimated that there were close to 1 billion internet users worldwide. A social experiment involving users in 166 countries, measuring the number of steps required to connect to designated targets, found that the popular notion of "six degrees of separation" between any two people in the internet world is not too far wrong: the median number of steps required to connect users in different countries was seven. 4 Surveys for this report show youth to be more likely than 25- to 50-year-olds to communicate with people in other countries.

A remarkable 44 percent of Romanian youth and 74 percent of Albanian youth reported having communicated with someone abroad in the last month. Telephone is the most common means of communication, but SMS and e-mail are also very popular.

Youth, ICTS And Development

The first few years of the new millennium saw extremely rapid increases in internet, mobile phone, and computer use in developing countries. Between 2000 and 2003, the developing world gained more than one-quarter of a billion internet users and almost half a billion mobile phones. These new technologies are growing much faster than older information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as television, radio, main line telephones, and newspapers. Mobile phones have overtaken mainline phones in coverage in many parts of the world, and there are more internet users per 1,000 people than there are daily newspapers purchased in every region except South Asia. Even so, internet use remains low in poorer developing countries, and radios and televisions are much more prevalent.

Moving in fits and starts with technology—The African Virtual University

Tertiary education in many Sub-Saharan African countries is hampered by limited resources, empty libraries, and excess demand for classes. The African Virtual University (AVU) uses new technologies to help remedy this problem, increasing access to quality tertiary education in the region by tapping into global knowledge and educational institutions. But its experience illustrates the travails of working with evolving technologies and the challenges currently facing online education in developing countries.

The AVU grew out of a World Bank pilot project initiated in 1997. Its rocky start raised concerns about its viability. Because the ICT infrastructure in Africa was in its infancy, the initial delivery approach used digital video broadcasting over satellite networks, very expensive and offering only limited interactivity with teachers. Rapid advances in internet protocol standards during 1998–2001 made online learning feasible—and African Virtual University's 100 percent satellite-based approach outdated and inefficient. AVU reassessed its technology options in 2001 to reduce costs and improve the connectivity and efficiency of networks. The delivery approach now consists of a mixed mode methodology, incorporating online and satellite video broadcast courses, prepackaged learning materials on CD-ROMs and DVDs, chat sessions with the lecturer, and face-to-face in class sessions with teaching assistants. Supplementary use of the internet lowered costs significantly, but satellite technology is still needed because of poor telecommunications infrastructure in the region.

The AVU has provided courses to over 24,000 participants. Degree, diploma, certificate, and short-course programs are offered in a range of subjects, including computer science, public health, languages, journalism, accounting, and business administration. Current joint university programs include business studies offered through Curtin University in Australia, and computer science offered through RMIT University in Australia and Laval University in Canada. AVU also provides a digital library, offering access to international journals and e-books, substituting for empty libraries. The AVU, a work in progress, will need to continue to evolve with technology. African universities still are likely to pay 100 times more for internet service than institutions in North America. The remaining challenge is finance. The AVU pilot relied too heavily on donor financing and private sector subsidies. The learning centers are now financed through course fees and educational grants from local universities and governments.

Source: www.avu.org, Prakesh (2003), International Telecommunication Union (2005) and Halewood and Kenny (2006).

Staying alive: HIV prevention using ICTs

More widespread use of television and radio makes these older ICTs the main components in widespread information campaigns to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS. The 2002 global HIV-prevention campaign Staying Alive was broadcast on television stations that reached nearly 800 million homes, as well as radio stations in 56 countries. Survey results from three cities suggest that people exposed to the campaign were more likely to talk to others about HIV/AIDS and more likely to understand the importance of using condoms, discussing HIV/AIDS with sexual partners, and getting tested for HIV. The campaign was particularly effective where adapted to local conditions. Although there was a considerable body of material from the United States, the Senegalese participants decided to localize their content based on the fact that, according to one participant, “the countryside and the clothes were too exotic, the references too westernized [and]the images and the dialogues far too explicit.” The Senegalese organizers also focused on radio stations rather than cable television—the primary vehicle for the global campaign. Radio is the most popular and widely available electronic medium in Senegal—96 percent of youth surveyed in Dakar have access to radio compared with 39 percent to cable programming. The proportion of surveyed youth who knew about the campaign in Dakar was 82 percent, but less than one-quarter in Sao Paulo and Katmandu, where the campaign was limited to cable. The Staying Alive campaign continues to produce content for television and radio, but it has also embraced the new ICTs, providing an online Web site (<http://www.staying-alive.org/>) in 10 languages with information provided in languages and formats designed to appeal to young people, links to a variety of help lines, online discussion boards, and downloads for mobile phones. *Source:* Halewood and Kenny (2006).

What Policies Enhance the Development Impact of Youth Use of ICTs?

Youth use of ICTs matters indirectly for development outcomes through the impacts on youth transitions—and directly through the large youth contribution to overall ICT use. A few transition and newly industrial countries, such as the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Hong Kong(China), Singapore, and the Republic of Korea, have seen economic growth directly driven by the production of ICTs. But for most developing countries, ICT use rather than ICT production is likely to have a much bigger impact on growth. Substantial evidence from developed countries now shows a strong effect for information technology use on productivity and growth, but this occurred only with a substantial lag after the introduction of these technologies. The more recent introduction and relatively low use rates in many developing countries suggest that the contribution of ICTs to growth is currently lower than in developed countries, but that the rapid current expansion should contribute to future growth. Positive effects are already beginning to be seen. Recent cross-country work has found that access to the internet spurs the export performance of developing country firms. At an even more micro level, several studies have documented improvements in prices received by farmers and fishermen thanks to better access to mobile telephony— fishermen in India, for example, using mobile phones to get information about prices at different ports before deciding where to land their catch.

The most important government policies to foster ICT use are the core elements of any infrastructure policy: sound economic conditions, regulatory policy promoting competition, and complementary infrastructure.

Yet uncertain market demand and network externalities may lead the private sector to under provide access, providing a rationale for further government intervention to serve rural areas. The case is clearest for cellular telephony, due to mounting evidence linking greater access to telephones to several development outcomes. The internet is a newer technology, and less evidence is available, making it still too early to recommend direct government provision of internet infrastructure. However, because the costs of delaying the introduction of ICTs are also difficult to measure, and the development of ICT skills is seen by many to be necessary for workers to take part in the global economy, governments may want to speed the diffusion of this technology. Governments have a mixed record in this area, and those that do choose to directly provide access to underserved areas can learn from countries like Chile, where the Enlaces program combined infrastructure provision with teacher training and decentralized support,

leading to widespread use in schools. In the Dominican Republic, however, the provision of computers was not accompanied by complementary infrastructure and personnel, resulting in unused computers in some locations and lack of use for educational purposes in others.²⁹ *Regardless of their position on direct provision of internet access, governments can increase the benefits of ICTs for youth.* A youth perspective on ICTs reveals that government regulation affecting communal modes of access determine youth access. Regulation can have dramatic effects on the incentives for private entrepreneurs (often youths) to set up internet cafes. A reform of the licensing process in Algeria made it extremely affordable (\$13) to obtain authorization to provide internet service. The number of internet cafes grew from 100 in 1998 to 4,000 in 2000, dramatically expanding youth access and generating many internet-related jobs.³⁰ Similarly, regulations allowing easy entry for prepaid phone card operators and long distance phone calls over the internet can have large pay offs for youth.

Regardless of whether the government is involved in internet provision, governments can help stimulate demand for new services by providing public service content online. Governments can reach youth through the media they use. They can also kick-start local language content, preventing a vicious cycle in which non-global language seekers do not use the internet because of a dearth of content, while the lack of users acts as a disincentive to local-language Web site creation. The government of Tamil Nadu offers one such example, providing seed support to online initiatives and working with the private sector to decide on a standardized Tamil keyboard and Tamil character encoding scheme. As a result, use of Tamil on the internet was reported to be far greater than any other Indian language.³¹ The current generation of youth is the first experiencing the internet in many countries, with all the pros and cons. Parents unfamiliar with the new technology and not present when it is being used thus have little ability to protect young people from some of the dangers. This raises issues of how to teach young people to be safe and responsible users of this new technology, protecting them from some of the risks of unfettered access, such as child pornography, hate groups, stalkers, pedophiles, and cyber bullies. In early December 2005, three of the top five search terms on the internet, and 68 of the top 200, were sexual.³² This presents a problem for youth who wish to use the internet to seek reproductive health information: web-filtering programs can block useful content, while unfiltered searches for teen sex are likely to result in pornographic content. Moreover, parents and society may consider some content appropriate for an 18-year-old but not for a 12-year-old. Given the vast amount of information available, many youth may be unprepared to sort through and judge what is reliable and what is not. There is thus a need to help youth become safer and more effective users of the internet. The natural place for this is in schools, but in many countries access to the internet is available only out of school. So, experimentation is needed with alternative mechanisms for teaching youth how to use these new ICTs safely, perhaps government partnerships with telecenters. Little is known about what works in this area.

Young people are extremely active participants in the global flows of information. What then should be the priorities for governments to take full advantage of this involvement? The main ICT priority for governments is to ensure a good investment climate that allows private companies to serve the growing demand for ICT services, by enacting regulations that provide for easy entry and competition. For youth it is particularly important to also provide good regulatory conditions for modes of communal access, such as village phones and internet cafes. Governments also need to experiment with ways to provide youth with the skills needed to best take advantage of new technologies, through teaching global languages, providing support for local language content development, and developing ways to teach youth responsible and safe use. Rigorous evaluations of such policies are needed to find out what works and to share lessons across countries.

LESSON 12

ICTS AND DEVELOPMENT - TRENDS IN E-STRATEGIES & DIGITAL MEDIA

What Is an E-Strategy?

At the national level, *E-Strategy* refers to a plan of action—typically a strategy document written by state leaders—illustrating how ICTs are to be developed and used to achieve the economic, social, and development objectives of a country. E-strategy thus guides and focuses government priorities in ICT development. It explains how institutions interact with one another and how they share resources and responsibilities for ICT development. It specifies a multi-sector activity that involves leaders from government, the private sector, academia and civil society.

This chapter deals exclusively with e-strategy at the national level. It uses the terms *e-strategy*, *national e-strategy*, *national ICT plan*, and *national ICT strategy* interchangeably.

Trends in E-strategies – a review of 40 countries

E-strategies have been on the international development agenda in recent years. The Group of Eight (G-8) and the United Nations (UN), among others, have advocated the need for developing countries to establish information and communication technology (ICT) programs to better use ICT for development. In 2000, the Digital Opportunity Task Force (DOT Force) was launched under the auspices of the G-8. In 2001, the UN Secretary General—with the recommendation of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)—created the ongoing Task Force. In 2003, world leaders met for the first phase of the World Summit for the Information Society (WSIS) and adopted a Plan of Action encouraging that national e-strategies be developed by the time the second phase of WSIS convenes in November 2005.

Some countries, mostly developed ones, initiated e-strategies on their own. They recognized the potential ICT has for their economies and societies. They championed plans and actions that included ICT as an important part of their respective national strategies.

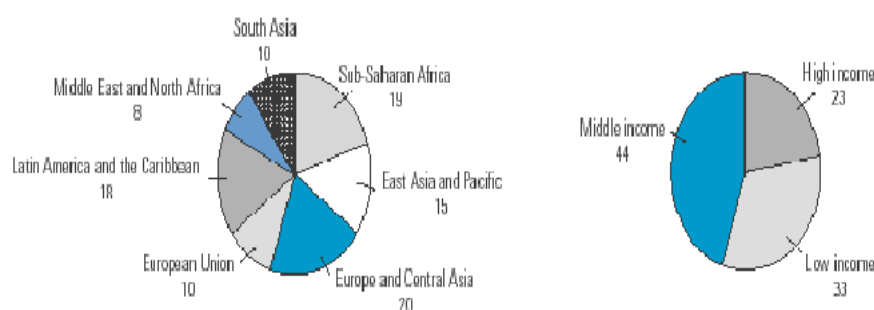
Countries that launched e-strategies early on and followed through are reaping benefits today; these countries are regarded as forerunners in ICT development. For instance, Singapore began its ICT program in 1991, the United States did in 1993, and Canada, Japan, and most European nations started shortly thereafter.

Developing a national e-strategy is a daunting task. It requires an understanding of the social and development priorities of a country. It requires vision and leadership from the highest levels of government. It requires rationalizing how individual ICT objectives are to be carried out, both in assigning responsibility to individual government agencies and in committing financial resources. It also requires government emphasis on measuring results so outcomes can be assessed and future directives can be planned based on real data and concrete information (see annex 5A for a selected list of resources for ICT policies and e-strategies).

E-Strategy and Development

E-strategy objectives are tied to the country's overall development objectives, which include topics such as education, health, government, business, and industry. Antidevelopment is intended not as an end in

Figure 5.1 E-Strategy Review Sample: Country Composition by Region and Income Level
(percent)



itself but as a means to fulfilling the larger development needs of country. Linking e-strategy to a country's development strategy also gives credibility to the ICT program and confers wider acceptance to it outside ICT circles.

Connecting e-strategy to development requires coordination and sequencing across governmental agencies. For example, if a country wants to introduce distance education, it should tie its initiative not only to e-strategy objectives (such as promoting e-literacy or enhancing the use of ICT in education) but also to “d-strategy” and more generic policy objectives (such as developing ICT usage or improving education delivery in general). The latter may involve the diversification of its economy from traditional to newer sectors (World Bank 2005).

E-Strategy Life Cycle

E-strategies move through several stages of life cycle, as shown in the diagram in figure 5.2. The e-strategy life cycle can be broken down into three parts. At the beginning, a national ICT vision is developed.

This vision takes into account the current ICT availability, development objectives, and input from various stakeholders. Next, responsible institutions and organizations are identified to carry out the assigned tasks. Finally, the e-strategy is monitored to assess the level of progress achieved in the country's ICT capability.

Figure 5.2 A Typical E-Strategy Life Cycle



E-Strategy Review Methodology

Looking at the e-strategies from the 40 selected countries, two forms of analysis have been carried out:

- **Analysis I: How are e-strategies formulated?** These strategies are evaluated for how they link to a country's development goals, how they indicate institutional and budgetary support for implementation, and how they incorporate M&E mechanisms. This chapter uses an analytical framework designed to assess basic elements of e-strategies and to allow comparisons across country, income, and region groups.
- **Analysis II: What do e-strategies focus on?** The main themes of each e-strategy, such as e-government or ICT infrastructure, are examined. For each theme, prominent objectives and interventions are identified. For example, within e-government, government-to-government (G2G) applications may be seen by some countries as a top objective and process reform a primary means to develop G2G.

Framework for E-Strategy ANALYSIS I

Four criteria are used to evaluate national e-strategies in Analysis I (figure 5.3). Mapped to the e-strategy life cycle discussed earlier, the four review criteria are:

- Development linkages
- Use of indicators
- Implementation mechanisms
- Monitoring & Evaluation mechanisms

Each criterion is scored on a scale of 0 to 3, where 0 is low and 3 is high. Scores are assigned on a normative basis based on how countries perform relatively. Annex 5C shows details of the scoring scale and a summary of score cards from Analysis I. Descriptions of each review criterion and the rationale for using it follow.

Development Linkages ► This criterion determines how tightly e-strategy is linked to the country's larger political, economic, and social development goals. To evaluate development linkages, e-strategies are scored based on closeness of the e-strategy to its stated objectives and to the country's other goals.

Use of Indicators ► This criterion gauges the use of data indicators in e-strategies. Using indicators is essential for accurately benchmarking base line analysis, for formulating targets, and for M&E (which is considered separately in the analysis). Benchmarking is useful for assessing the country’s current level of ICT development.

The e-strategies are assessed for the degree to which they do cross-country comparisons in baseline assessments and target setting. Cross-country comparisons help provide the context in which countries can understand their current level of development. Incorporating benchmarks relative to other countries also helps identify areas of potential comparative advantage.

To evaluate the use of indicators, e-strategies are scored on four points:

1. Fit to goals: the extent to which data are selected or customized to fit the main thematic areas of the e-strategy and the initiatives they are intended to advance.

2. Baseline data: the extent to which baseline data are used in understanding the country’s current state of ICT development.

3. Target setting: the extent to which quantitative and qualitative targets are established to achieve the main objectives of the e-strategy.

4. Cross-country comparison: the extent to which cross-country information is integrated into baseline analysis and used in establishing credible targets.

Implementation Mechanisms ► This criterion evaluates the types of institutions designated to manage e-strategy implementation.

The e-strategies are assessed for the degree of clarity with which they address implementation mechanisms and related roles and responsibilities. E-strategies must be explicit about implementation roles if they are to move from being conceptual plans to practical tools that can lead a country’s ICT development efforts.

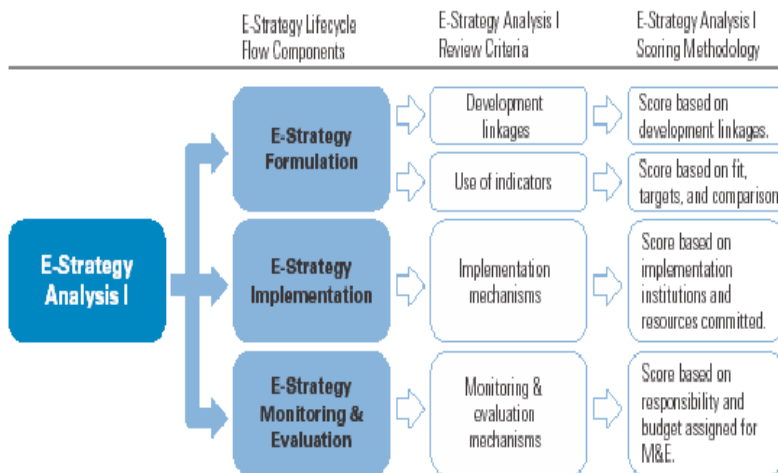
To evaluate implementation, e-strategies are scored on two factors:

1. Institutional structure and responsibility: whether e-strategies are specific about what institutions would lead implementation of key components and whether e-strategies clarify responsibility and report operational mechanisms.

2. Budget: whether specific details are given about budgetary requirements and about potential funding sources to implement key initiatives.

Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanisms. This criterion assesses whether M&E is an explicit part of the e-strategy and whether there is a clear plan as to how M&E will be conducted. The starting assumption is that M&E is integral to the design and implementation of effective e-strategies. Incorporating M&E ensures that e-strategies are explicit and realistic in what they aim to achieve. It also ensures that their implementation is regularly assessed and realigned so that scarce public resources are properly used. The credibility of e-strategies depends upon a solid and realistic M&E foundation. E-strategies are scored on two factors in evaluating M&E: structure and responsibility, and budget.

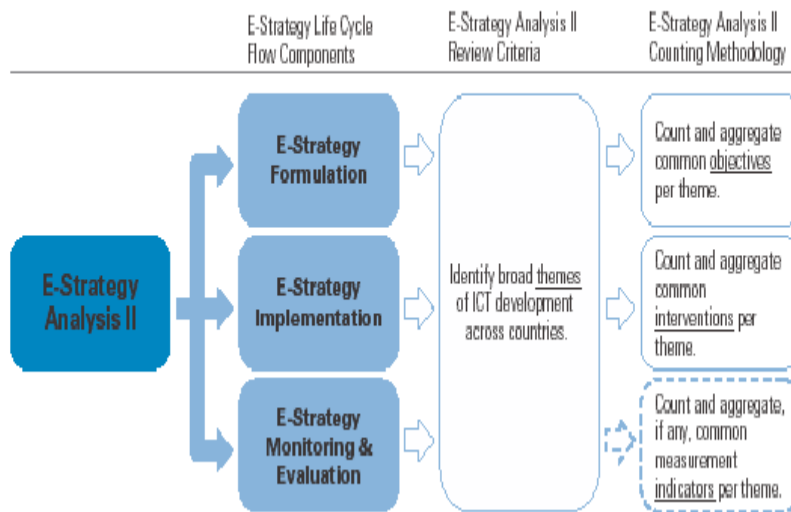
Figure 5.3 Framework for E-Strategy Analysis I



Framework for E-Strategy ANALYSIS II

Two steps are taken to evaluate e-strategies in Analysis II (figure 5.4). First, a broad set of ICT development themes are identified across all 40 countries. Second, a common set of objectives and interventions for each theme are aggregated.

Figure 5.4 Framework for E-Strategy Analysis II



As opposed to normative scoring, the themes, objectives, and interventions are now counted and their relative frequency noted among given countries. Annex 5D shows the detailed tabulated results from Analysis II for the 40 countries. Measurement indicators shown in the diagram in figure 5.4 can help gauge e-strategy performance in a specific thematic or application area. In our review, such indicators were not seen in

e-strategies. Incorporating data indicators to benchmark and measure progress based on objectives is an area countries could improve in their ICT strategies.

ANALYSIS I: TRENDS IN NATIONAL E-Strategies

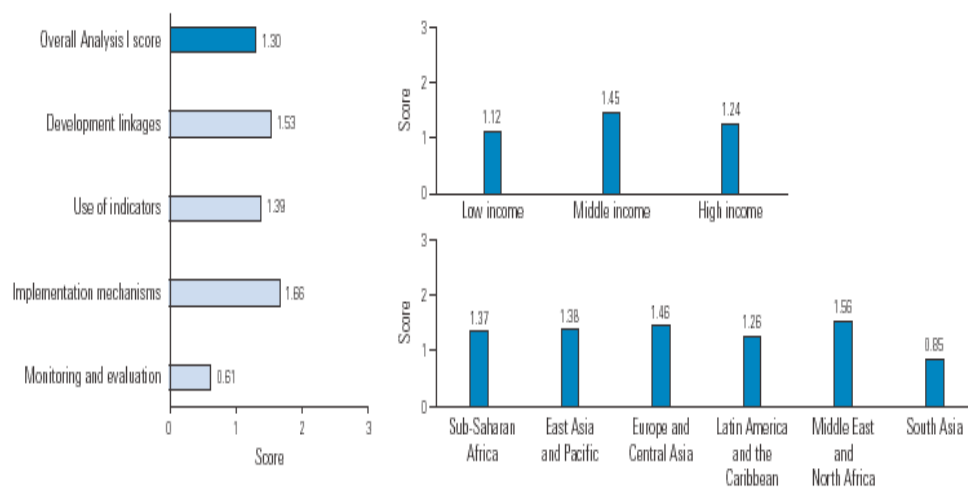
This section presents results of *how* e-strategies are formulated, highlighting their strengths and weaknesses.

Overview

Overall, e-strategies perform marginally in their designs based on the analysis (figure 5.5). On a scale of 0 to 3, they fall short of midway, at 1.3. This indicates that although countries have made significant progress in setting up e-strategies for ICT development, they need to do more.

The ICT strategies show better results in providing implementation details and forming development linkages, but they are weak in incorporating M&E. E-strategies from middle-income

Figure 5.5 Analysis I Review, Average Scores



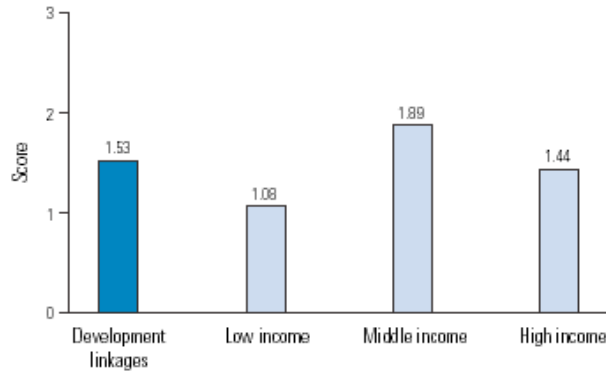
economies and the Middle East and North Africa region score relatively higher than those from other income or regional groups. E-strategies from Mozambique, Rwanda, Trinidad and Tobago, and Ukraine have overall best scores in the four analytical categories.

Development Linkages

The e-strategies score relatively well on development linkages, meaning that ICTs are fairly strongly tied to overall development objectives (figure 5.6). Of the four main categories for which e-strategies are assessed, development linkages score second to implementation mechanisms.

Overall, middle-income countries score highest on this measure. Mauritius, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, and Ukraine—all middle-income economies—receive good scores on development linkages. ICT may be seen by middle-income countries to be a relevant tool for tackling what they may regard as the “next level” of development challenges. For example, Trinidad and Tobago has articulated an e-strategy that is clear in describing how ICT development fits in with its non technology activities. The country’s ICT strategy explicitly states its intention to contribute to the National Development Plan (“Vision 2020”) by creating greater social equity through providing universal access to ICT. The e-strategy establishes a timetable and a methodology to determine how the expansion of ICT in the country can be leveraged to support economic, social, and environmental policy objectives. High-income countries, on the other hand, score low in development linkages because they presumably do not find it necessary to draw close and unambiguous linkages between their development initiatives and the role of ICT; the linkages may be sufficiently obvious to them. Low income countries likewise may find it difficult to conceive of and communicate the linkage between ICT and their many daunting development challenges in a cohesive e-strategy document. They may also assign higher priorities to basic necessities such as food and health than to developing ICT.

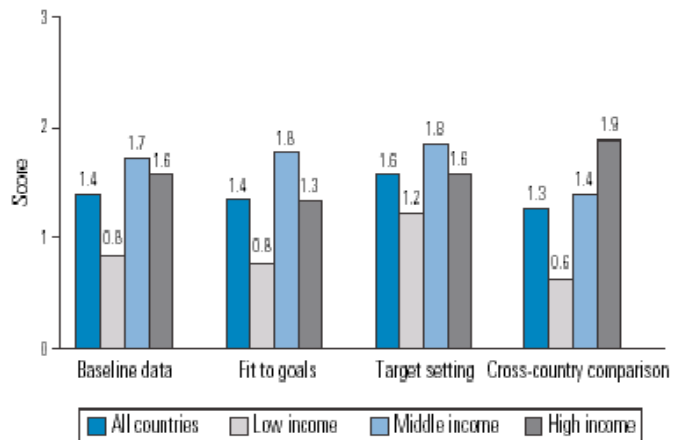
Figure 5.6 Development Linkages by Income Group, Average Scores



Use of Indicators

On average, the e-strategies score worse on the use of indicators than they do on development linkages, meaning that the countries reviewed use little or no data in formulating their current state analysis or developing future targets(figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 Categories for Use of Indicators by Income Group, Average Scores



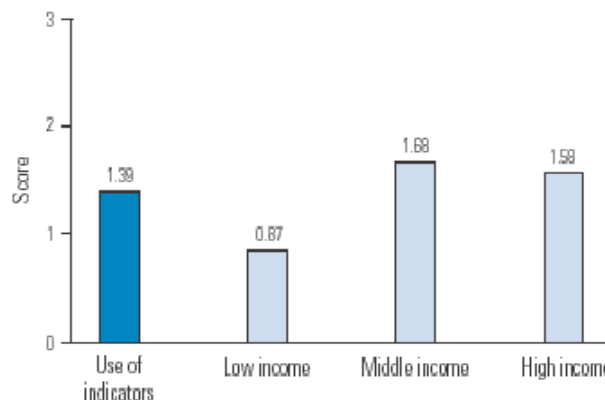
As many as two-thirds of the e-strategies perform weakly on the use of cross-country comparison. Such poor performance indicates that strategy formulators are not crafting e-strategies to take into account where a country stands vis-à-vis other countries in ICT development. This is noteworthy because cross-country comparison is commonly used in much of the ICT-for-development literature, and because countries are often presented in terms of their relative e-readiness or e-development rankings on a number of indexes.

Though many e-strategies score low on how well they use data to fit with goals or how well they compare their own ICT development with that of other countries, many of these strategies score high on their use of baseline data and targets. A greater number of countries score high in their use of targets—that is, targets are embedded throughout their e-strategies—than they do in the other indicator categories. This is understandable because e-strategies are forward looking documents, charting out new territory for development and establishing targets by which to guide this process.

Low-income countries—especially from Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and South Asia—show weak performance in the use of indicators (figure 5.8).

Middle-income nations, however, specifically Jordan and Tunisia, score high on the use of indicators. Jordan's "Reach" e-strategy, for example, incorporates indicators and targets throughout its plan. It draws extensively on comparisons with other countries with which Jordan either competes or that it seeks to emulate in similar levels of success in ICT development (box 5.1).

Figure 5.8 Use of Indicators by Income Group, Average Scores



Implementation Mechanisms

Implementation mechanisms score highest among the four e-strategy formulation criteria for countries reviewed. The two categories of implementation mechanisms are shown in figure 5.9. The majority of e-strategies are clearer in the detail they provide on institutions to lead the implementation of e-strategy than they are on any other criteria on which they are assessed.

Though many e-strategies score high on implementation detail, considerably fewer are equally specific about how to finance the implementation. Most e-strategies score lower on budget details than they do on institutional structure; two-fifths provide no budget information at all (despite being explicit about institutional structures). Slovenia is one exception. In Slovenia, the implementation plan is set out in a

Box 5.1. Jordan's E-Strategy and Its Challenges

Jordan launched an e-strategy in 2000 and focused it on developing its ICT sector. It used baseline data extensively and provided a current status of the ICT sector. It drew data from other countries—mainly the Arab Republic of Egypt, India, Ireland, and Israel—to make cross-country comparisons. It looked at

- the number of software and IT services firms,
- the number of people employed in the sector,
- sector revenues,
- annual growth rates,
- the number of employees per firm,
- the revenue per employee,
- the total value of sector exports,
- the value of exports per employee,
- major products of the sector,
- the sources of foreign direct investment (FDI), and
- leading private investors or partners participating in the sector.

Based on these data, the e-strategy reviewed Jordan's comparative strengths and weaknesses and established three high-level goals:

- create 30,000 IT-related jobs by 2004,
- generate \$550 million in annual exports by 2004, and
- ensure \$150 million in cumulative FDI by 2004.

The e-strategy was effective in laying out specific actions and deliverables for individual initiatives, grouped in six key focus areas to achieve its overarching targets. But the e-strategy was weak in implementation and M&E, and it fell short of meeting its goals by the year 2004.

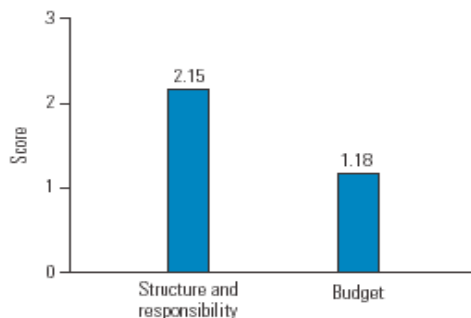
An updated e-strategy was developed four years after the original launch, in 2004. It reviewed progress made against both the three high-level targets and the deliverables from each individual initiative. Taking into account the slower growth from preceding years, the revised e-strategy lowered the initial targets substantially. The deadline for reaching the targets was extended from 2004 to 2006, the annual export target from the ICT sector was reduced from \$550 million to \$100 million, a new target of \$550 million in domestic revenues was added, and the FDI target was increased by an additional \$20 million.

Jordan's case shows how all elements of e-strategy design are important. Laying out an ICT plan using real data and indicators is necessary. But emphasizing implementation and measuring results is also essential for realistically achieving stated goals and targets.

Source: World Bank 2005.

detailed matrix that includes policy objectives, supporting interventions, the status of each intervention, a measure describing the risks and dependencies of each intervention, and the government agency responsible for each intervention. Linked to this description of implementation and responsibility is a detailed explanation of the funding sources and how those funds will be deployed.

Figure 5.9 Categories of Implementation Mechanisms, Average Scores



strategy coordinating body will disburse EU subsidies according to their priority in the National Development Plan, subject to the creation of cost appraisals.

3. *International Financial Institution funds.* These resources are regarded as an “additional” source of funding to be used to realize objectives that could not be completed by using funds described above. A special government resolution and needs analysis is required to obtain this line of credit.⁴

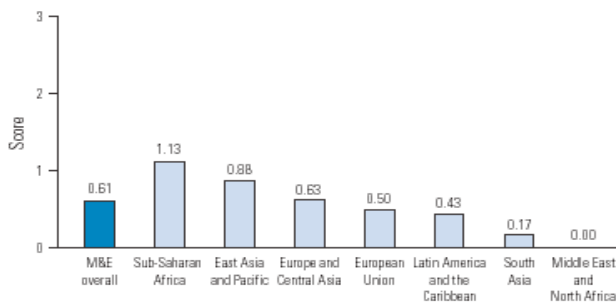
High-scoring e-strategies adhere to two general models concerning the types of structures that are responsible for implementing the e-strategy. The first model, where the implementation of the e-strategy is fully centralized, has the central government taking full responsibility for defining and implementing its elements. The second model has a decentralized implementation structure. In this model, different government ministries, agencies, and other stakeholders (such as the private sector) are responsible for defining and implementing parts of the e-strategy. These different entities answer to a central government oversight and coordination body.

Nigeria is an example of the first, centralized model. The role assigned to the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) is to implement, monitor, evaluate, regulate, and verify ICT activities on an ongoing basis. NITDA acts under the supervision and coordination of the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology. National programs to foster the development and growth of ICT in Nigeria are operated and directly controlled by NITDA by consulting—in some cases collaborating—with key stake holders. Chief Information Technology Officers are appointed in all federal agencies to advise NITDA, but they are not responsible for implementing programs per se.

Mozambique exemplifies the second, decentralized model. It emphasizes the fact that successful ICT strategy depends on the active participation of all sectors of society and the economy, including the beneficiaries. At the highest level, a National Consultative Forum is made up of diverse stakeholders from academia, the development sector, the public sector, the private sector, and civil society. Implementation partnerships are formed at the provincial level, where ICT commissions are responsible for implementing the ICT strategy. For example, the Professional ICT Curriculum and Certification program is implemented jointly by the Provincial Digital Resource Centers, the ICT policy commission, and private sector companies. A central ICT Policy Implementation Technical Unit is responsible primarily to support and advise the regional implementation bodies.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Countries from all income and region groups perform poorly in their use of M&E (figure 5.10). The vast majority of e-strategies say little or nothing about institutions or structures to monitor and evaluate their progress. Of the few e-strategies that are more specific about M&E, even fewer provide budgetary details about how to finance it.

Figure 5.10 M&E by Region, Average Scores

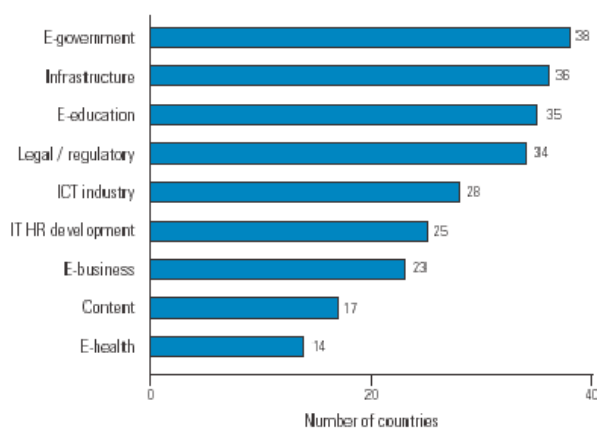
overall perform slightly better in both structure/responsibility and budgetary aspects of M&E among countries studied. For example, Rwanda's e-strategy lays out in explicit detail institutional responsibilities for M&E and how M&E activities are to be integrated in the implementation machinery and timeline (box 5.2). Approaching it differently than Rwanda does, Mozambique has created projects that focus on data gathering and analysis as stand-alone initiatives of its larger strategy.

ANALYSIS II: THEMATIC AREAS OF FOCUS

This section presents results of *what* e-strategies focus on, illustrating differences in priority objectives and intervention tactics across countries.

Overview

E-strategies vary in their objectives and initiatives to achieve ICT development. There are nine significant thematic areas on which the ICT strategies focus (figure 5.11).⁵

Figure 5.11 Thematic Areas of Focus for E-Strategies, by Number of Countries

Note: HR = human resources.

and support ICT adoption in business and government and to safeguard users of ICT.

The remaining five themes occur in at least 40 percent of e-strategies:

- *ICT industry*: creating or expanding domestic ICT production of hardware, software, and services for local or foreign markets.
- *IT HR development*: developing human resources with ICT skills to support domestic ICT industry and attract foreign business operations.

M&E is a critical area of focus for ICT policy makers. Country leaders should, when they are formulating their e-strategy, plan to set up M&E and should commit specific financial resources to it. Doing this would help make e-strategy design and implementation effective and relevant.

Without M&E, it is impossible to measure results and assess the impact of ICT initiatives.

There are three countries that are exceptions: Mozambique, Rwanda, and Nigeria. Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa

In aggregate terms, four of the nine themes occur in over 85 percent of the e-strategies. These are the following:

- *E-government*: providing services and information via the Internet by the government to companies, citizens, and other sections of government.
- *Infrastructure*: constructing physical components such as fiber-optic backbone and wired and wireless networks over which electronic communications are transmitted and received.
- *E-education*: using ICT in education to improve teaching and school administration and to provide basic e literacy to all levels of school system and to adult learners.
- *Legal/Regulatory*: creating and modifying legal and regulatory mechanisms to enable

- *E-business*: using ICT in traditional or new e-commerce businesses to reduce costs, improve competitiveness, and increase market reach.
- *Content*: creating locally relevant multimedia content to encourage ICT use. Also considered is using ICT to store cultural and historical media.
- *E-health*: using ICT in the administration and provision of health services and health information.

In general, the objectives identified in national e-strategies converge, particularly for e-government, infrastructure, e-education, and legal and regulatory reform themes. This suggests that these objectives are fundamental to the creation of an information society and provide the foundation for more specialized applications in, for example, the ICT sector, e-health, e-business, and content development. In contrast, the types of actions cited to implement the

commonly sought objectives by countries diverge. This is partly due to income differences. ICT maturity is related to wealth; consequently, countries employ different methods to achieve their objectives. For example, Rwanda and Hong Kong (China) both focus on government-to-citizen e-services, yet they approach the same objective differently. In Rwanda, public access points are aimed as a key intervention to disseminate government information, whereas in Hong Kong, interactive televisions are desired as a new medium to offer government information and services.

E-Government

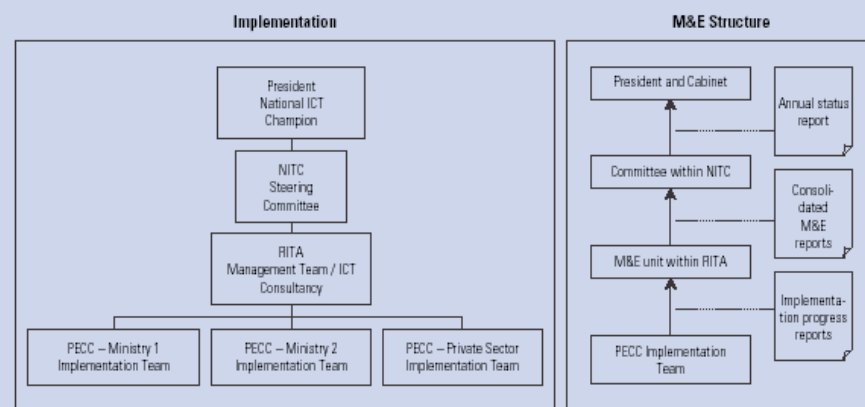
E-government is defined in the e-strategies as the provision of services and information by electronic means between different sections of government (G2G), between government and business (G2B), and between government and citizens (G2C). E-government is the most commonly occurring component

Box 5.2 Embedding M&E into Implementation Structures in Rwanda

Rwanda's e-strategy shows details of M&E in its ICT program, which starts with the country president, who chairs the annual e-strategy review meeting, and ends with the teams on the ground that implement the e-strategy.

The e-strategy implementation is carried out at three levels. First, the National Information Technology Commission (NITC), headed by the president, gives oversight and guidance to the overall mission. Second, the Rwanda International and Technology Authority (RITA), reporting to the NITC, serves in a hands-on advisory and consultancy role on ICT issues for different government agencies. Third, numerous Plan Execution and Coordination Committees (PECCs), spread throughout government agencies and private sector institutions and coordinated and supported by RITA, take responsibility for actually implementing individual initiatives within the e-strategy.

M&E is implemented by PECCs and managed by RITA; ultimately M&E is managed by the NITC. PECCs have to be intimately familiar with e-strategy targets to implement actions and report progress. Each PECC submits a biannual report to a special M&E unit of RITA. The reports from different PECCs are consolidated by RITA and given to an NITC committee biannually. The committee submits an annual implementation report, including M&E results, to the president and the cabinet.



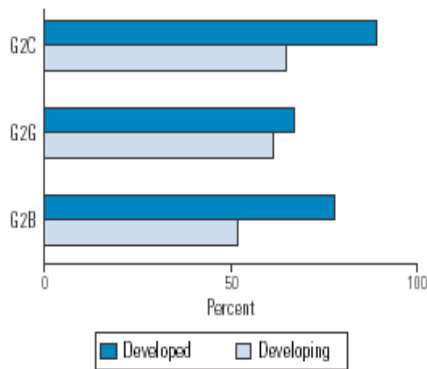
The Rwanda model combines implementation-level ownership of M&E with executive oversight. It attempts to balance the involvement of M&E by teams at the implementation level with M&E expertise at the management and steering committee level. The information and analysis produced from the multistage process forms the basis of the e-strategy and is reviewed by the highest levels of government.

The payoffs of the organization, structure, and M&E focus of Rwanda's e-strategy will be seen in coming years.

Source: World Bank 2005.

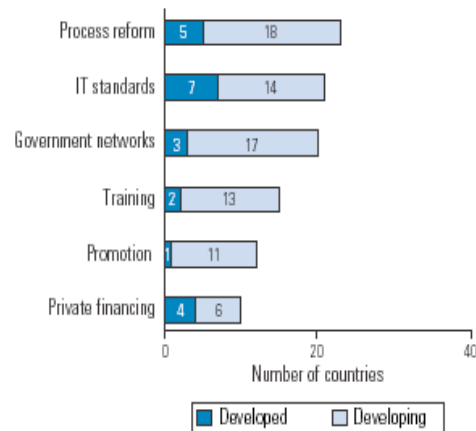
across the surveyed e-strategies (more than 95 percent of e-strategies included this component). It is seen as a strong tool for improving government productivity, administrative effectiveness, and cost savings.

Figure 5.12 E-Government Objectives by Percentage of Countries in Income Group



Note: G2B = government-to-business; G2C = government-to-citizens; G2G = government-to-government.

Figure 5.13 E-Government Interventions by Percentage of Countries in Income Group



In most e-strategies, the e-government component refers to a “single window” approach to integrated online public services. This often manifests itself as an e-government portal that serves as the conduit for online services. Examples include land and property registration or records maintenance (G2C), e-procurement (G2B), and centralized census and population data (G2G). There is an even spread of focus to develop G2G, G2B, and G2C across the e-strategies that contain e-government (figure 5.12). Each objective occurs in about 60 percent of the e-strategies.

Common interventions in implementing e-government applications include reforming government processes (more than 55 percent), computerizing and networking government agencies (more than 50 percent), and developing standards and protocols for ICT system interoperability (also more than 50 percent). Government process reform, the intervention most cited, typically refers to changes in internal business processes brought about by automation that complements or replaces labor intensive methods and systems. For example, Jamaica plans to replace its paper-based customs processing system with a paperless one to improve efficiency and reduce transaction costs.

Developing countries emphasize reforming existing bureaucratic processes and expanding the capacity of government networks to realize e-government objectives (figure 5.13). Developed nations, however, stress the importance of streamlining IT standards that facilitate interoperability and overcome integration issues of electronic systems.

E-strategies in low- and middle-income nations not only call for developing e-government applications but also focus on generating demand for online services. They try to create awareness among citizens and businesses of the benefits of online transactions. Some approaches to e-government are worth highlighting.

Mozambique’s plan for e-government, while ambitious, focuses initially on institutional and systems level computerization rather than G2C services. To this end, Mozambique will conduct a survey of the state of ICTs in public institutions before undertaking online public services. Poland develops this approach further by focusing on a prioritized list of e-government projects with due consideration to productivity gains. Thailand will begin its e-government project with pilot projects in ministries as a way to identify common and shareable data as well as to identify ministries and government agencies that are ready for computerization and process reform. These approaches contrast with many (if not most) e-strategies that merely list services to be automated or put online—thus the high count for G2C services—with little consideration to prioritization or return on investment.

Infrastructure

Telecommunications infrastructure is crucial and fundamental to using ICT for development. Without the proper infrastructure, e-strategy is less likely to succeed, and projects may stagnate or never get off the ground. This is why most of the ICT strategies surveyed (90 percent) specify telecommunications infrastructure as an area of focus. “Universal access” is the most prevalent focus within the infrastructure component, occurring in more than 65 percent of e-strategies. To provide universal access entails providing equal access to voice and data communications networks across the country, in rural as well as underprivileged urban areas. It also often includes an emphasis on financing access through specially earmarked universal access funds.

The second most common objective within the infrastructure theme is broadband development (more than 50 percent of the e-strategies surveyed identified this objective). This is frequently viewed as a way to generate consumer demand for online services and thus spur the development of such services by private businesses and government agencies. The next most significant focus is providing “telecenters” (specified by more than 50 percent of e-strategies surveyed). This focus encompasses the creation of Internet access nodes (for example, Internet kiosks and Internet Automated Teller Machines, also known as ATMs) for public use in regions where “last mile” access of ICT services to homes and businesses is not widely available.

It is worth noting that low-income countries are seeking universal access and they are the only ones focusing on creating, extending, and upgrading backbone networks (figure 5.14). This suggests that high- and middle-income countries have already implemented appropriate backbone telecommunications infrastructure. Middle-income countries look instead for Internet kiosks, ATMs, and other delivery mechanisms to extend the reach of existing networks. The lack of focus on telecenters by high-income economies suggests that such services are in less demand in these countries because affordable, basic “last mile” local telecommunications infrastructure is already available.

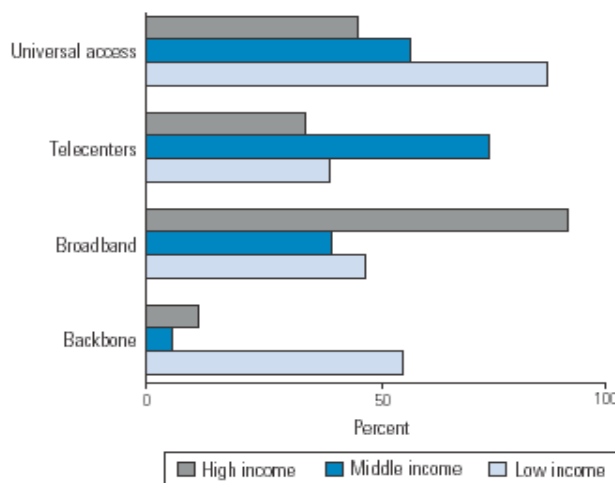
E-strategies from high-income countries focus on the deployment of ubiquitous broadband to households. To achieve the above objectives, the majority of e-strategies encourage the development of regulatory structures and supervisory agencies to manage a competitive, market-driven modern

telecommunications infrastructure sector. Governments assume the role of facilitators, using regulation to allow other participants to get involved and ensure fair competition. This allows the other participants to help fund the implementation of the e-strategy, rather than putting scarce government funds into infrastructure development. Regulatory agencies thus oversee the introduction and ongoing management of private competition in telecommunications, a management that includes supervision of interoperability and interconnection issues among different service providers.

E-Education

E-education is a focus area in 88 percent of the national ICT strategies surveyed. The principal objective of this focus is e-literacy (that is, basic computer and application skills such as using spreadsheets and surfing the Web) in the formal and informal education system. There is a fairly even spread of focus across primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions as well as adult and community training centers, although income levels partly dictate the e-education priorities of countries.

Figure 5.14 Infrastructure Objectives by Percentage of Countries in Income Group



Several different interventions to advance e-education are addressed in e-strategies. Teacher training, school and center connectivity, institutional capacity development, and distance learning are cited in over 50 percent of three-strategies—Poland’s e-education strategy is a case in point (box 5.3). Curriculum development and quality assurance follow, cited in over 30 percent of the e-strategies.

Interestingly, only low- and middle-income countries address distance learning and quality assurance (figure 5.15). The ICT strategies that

address distance learning usually aim to increase the reach of the education system to areas that do not have formal schools. In this way, they also provide individuals or groups with a curriculum designed by the education ministry. They complement traditional higher education facilities, which tend to be fewer in developing countries. In quality assurance, countries assert the need for nationally and internationally recognized standards of e-literacy. For example, Mozambique plans to use a program similar to the International Center for Distance Learning (ICDL) to meet the needs of the public and private sector for professionals with appropriate technical skills.

Legal and Regulatory Reform

Legal and regulatory components feature in 85 percent of the national e-strategies. The principal focus of this e-strategy component is to revise existing legal and regulatory structures concerned with ICT and to create new laws that facilitate ICT-related activities (see also chapter 2 on the importance of a consistent regulatory framework). A broad range of reforms are cited in the e-strategies. Among these forms identified are rules

Box 5.3 E-Education in Poland

Poland’s program for e-literacy articulates a clear understanding of the status of education in Poland in relation to the demands of the modern economy. It is also clear on the potential that ICT has to help modernize the education system to meet those demands. Poland’s e-education plan incorporates all of the most common interventions and objectives found in the national e-strategies of middle-income countries:

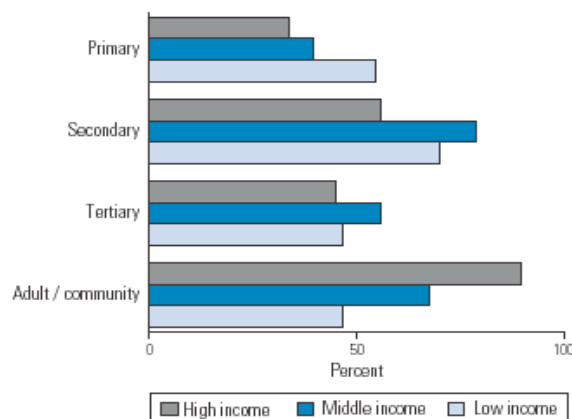
- providing ICT equipment and connectivity to schools,
- training teachers,
- educating adults as well as students,
- expanding teaching resources,
- accrediting institutes and certifying programs, and
- developing curricula.

The e-strategy emphasizes the need for ICT-qualified teachers as a first logical step toward the e-education objectives.

More generally, Poland’s e-strategy proposes a new educational paradigm to prepare students for employment in the global and emerging local information-based economy. Poland looks to the experience of other industrialized countries: those countries have created competitive economies by increasing the technical competence of the workforce to achieve economic and social progress. Poland’s e-strategy emphasizes the importance of training (and retraining) workers with market-oriented technical and language skills. It highlights the need to create a system of continuous learning so that workers and students can acquire new skills relevant to the fast-changing demands of the modern workplace throughout their working careers.

Source: Authors’ analysis.

Figure 5.15 E-Education Objectives by Percentage of Countries in Income Group



to govern trade (for example, intellectual property rights, taxes, tariffs), safeguard personal privacy (for example, data protection), and facilitate e-commerce (for example, e-contracts, digital signatures, and e-payment systems).

There is a strong emphasis in the e-strategies on legal interventions that focus on the business sector (more than 70 percent; see also chapter 4). This is followed by interventions that center on the government (more than 40 percent) and civil society (40 percent), which involves protecting user information and prohibiting illegal activity (figure 5.16). The commercial orientation of e-strategies is evident in their support of the business sector (for reasons of economic growth) while safeguarding the rights and interests of users and consumers in transactions with government and businesses, and in personal communications.

Figure 5.16 Regulatory Objectives by Percentage of Countries in Income Group

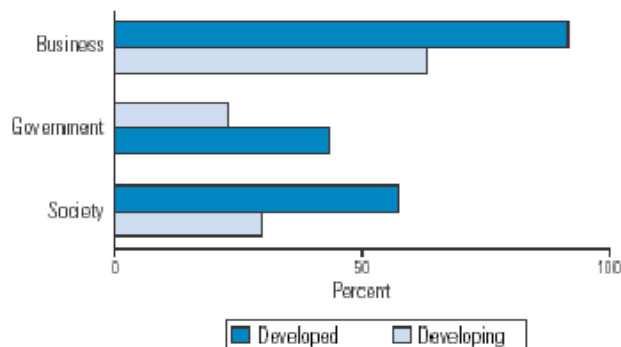
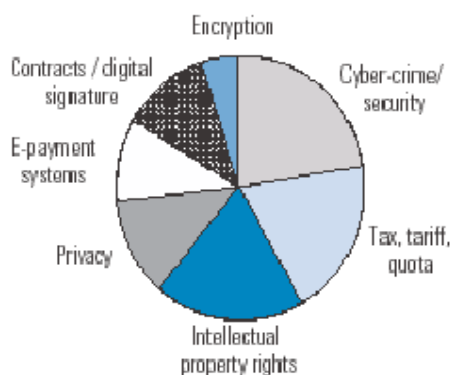


Figure 5.17 Regulatory Interventions by Percentage of Countries



For trust and confidence measures, the e-strategies stress legal interventions to combat cyber-crime (80 percent of thee-strategies) nearly twice as often as they do online privacy (over 40 percent). For interventions for a stable and active ICT and business environment, the e-strategies include provisions for protection of intellectual property rights (more than 70 percent) and stimuli for the commercial sector such as tax incentives and reduced tariffs (more than 50 percent) (figure 5.17).

It is worth noting that a number of countries (almost 25 percent)—including Bangladesh, Indonesia, Jamaica, and Romania—stipulate adherence to regional and international legal frameworks. Korea is seeking a leadership role in the effort to create such frameworks. This suggests that compliance with legal and regulatory conventions is perceived as a necessary precondition for integration into the global ICT environment.

ICT Industry Development

Developing the ICT production and service sectors is identified in more than two-thirds of the ICT strategies. Over 90 percent of the e-strategies for this theme center on producing software and hardware and providing IT services, such as outsourced development of back office systems for the export market (table 5.1).⁸ The distribution of objectives for product type is shared quite uniformly among software (more than 50 percent), IT services (30 percent), and hardware (more than 25 percent). Twice as many e-strategies center on export markets for their ICT sectors than on their domestic markets. The attention to foreign markets is seen as important for attracting foreign investment and encourages joint ventures

between domestic and foreign companies(see also chapter 2 for discussion about attracting foreign investors and joint ventures).

The overriding motivation for the focus on foreign markets is the wish to increase flows of foreign currency to the producing country. These findings are consistent with current trends in outsourcing that show how the production of hardware, software, and IT services is increasingly being relocated to countries with a skilled workforce and comparatively lower labor costs.

The data also suggest that, in general, the success of ICT sector development depends on key enabling interventions that *directly* support the commercialization of technology innovations. Among these interventions are technology company incubators (more than 80 percent), support for R&D (also more than 80 percent), and the promotion of ICT products and services domestically and internationally (more than 60 percent). The e-strategies also seek to nurture the ICT sector using less direct interventions—though to a lesser extent—such as support to business associations and quality assurance (both appear in more than 30 percent of the e-strategies).

Jordan is an example of a country with an e-strategy that contains a broad cross-section of objectives and interventions to support the ICT sector. In addition to the above-mentioned focus areas and interventions, Jordan plans to promote company collaboration for joint marketing and training. Further more, the government of Jordan will provide technical and financial assistance to build capabilities in operations, marketing, and management. Jordan aims to help Jordanian companies float their stocks on the Amman Stock Exchange.

In part, this is to help companies stem the outflow of ICT related expertise by allowing companies to issue stocks as incentives to retain their employees.

E-Business

E-business, occurring in over 50 percent of the strategies, is not one of the most common themes in e-strategies. Typically the e-strategies define e-business as the use of ICT in business to reduce transaction costs, to broaden market reach, and to increase the productivity and speed of doing business (see also chapter 4 on the role of ICT in doing business). Some e-strategies cite e-business as a catalyst for modernizing the private sector in general (that is, not the ICT sector per se); other e-strategies, such as that of Trinidad and Tobago, seek to encourage e-business with a view to increase demand for domestically produced ICT products.

To this end, the government of Trinidad and Tobago plans to co-develop, with the private sector, an integrated e-business application for local companies to conduct online sales. Furthermore, the government has offered to help identify comparative advantages for local e-businesses and will collaborate in the development of “Skill net,” a service that provides recruitment, learning, and career information.

Table 5.1 Economy Distribution by ICT Industry Segment

Market	Software	Hardware	IT services
Domestic	Angola, Bangladesh, Hong Kong (China), Rwanda, Thailand, Tunisia, Ukraine, Vietnam	Angola, Bangladesh, Rwanda, Ukraine, Vietnam	Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Hong Kong (China), Rwanda, Tunisia, Ukraine
International	Angola, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Colombia, Egypt (Arab Rep. of), Hong Kong (China), India, Jordan, Korea (Rep. of), Rwanda, Thailand, Tunisia, Ukraine, Vietnam	Angola, Bangladesh, India, Korea (Rep. of), Rwanda, Ukraine, Vietnam	Dominican Republic, Hong Kong (China), India, Jordan, Rwanda, Tunisia, Ukraine

By far the most common target for e-business initiatives in the e-strategies are small and medium enterprises (over 70 percent of the e-strategies), which would benefit most from ICT development. This contrasts with medium and large enterprises, which are the target beneficiaries of less than 5 percent of

the e-strategies that focus on e-business. These businesses are typically well ahead in the use of ICT, often even further than government, and hence require less external support.

The predominant approach to support e-business adoption entails general promotion and education efforts that aim to demonstrate the benefits of e-business applications to non-ICT related businesses (this is identified in over 90 percent of e-strategies that address e-business) (figure 5.18). For example, many ICT strategies plan to run workshops to demonstrate productivity tools (such as spreadsheets and word processors) and e-commerce transactions (such as e-payments and contracts). Outreach and public relations—rather than direct subsidies or financial incentives—are among more common approaches used to increase awareness of the benefits of e-business in the business community as well as among the general public. The large difference between promotion and the next major intervention, training, suggests the rather limited scope government has for supporting e-business. It is noteworthy that only middle-income countries explicitly plan training initiatives for e-business.

Information Technology Human Resources Development

Although almost all ICT strategies surveyed consider human resources to be central to developing the use of ICT in the economy and society, just over half of those dedicate particular attention to developing professional IT expertise. These e-strategies uniformly view a workforce of technologists—including programmers, network administrators, and designers—to be fundamental to the ICT sector.

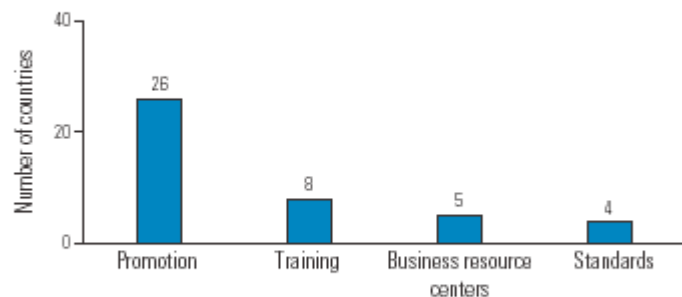
Of those e-strategies that focus on information technology human resources development (IT HRD), the vast majority center their initiatives on developing technology professionals to meet the needs of the ICT sector (more than 90 percent), and to a lesser extent on the non-ICT business sector (almost 50 percent) and government (over 30 percent). This concentration on the needs of the ICT sector can be attributed to the commonly held view that this sector has the greatest potential for driving immediate and long term economic growth.

The leading interventions for this component of e-strategies all have to do with creating or expanding teaching capacity. Chief among these are initiatives to build new institutional capacity (that is, funding and other support to build technical training centers) to train IT professionals, an intervention identified in over 70 percent of e-strategies within this theme. Next come interventions to enhance existing IT training capacity (specified in over 60 percent of the strategies) and the development of IT curricula (in

more than 50 percent of the strategies). Enhancing existing IT training capacity is intended to increase the number of qualified IT graduates by increasing the number of IT instructors, enlarging class sizes, and enhancing the availability of other educational resources.

Over 50 percent of e-strategies include initiatives that involve the private sector in a variety of capacities. Special consideration is given to the private sector as advisers to the government on IT HRD. The private sector is also often cited as a source of internships and work placements, and as a way to align skills provision to demand. A few e-strategies, including those from Chile and the United Kingdom, provide a basis for their IT HRD initiatives by surveying current technology trends and working with the ICT sector to predict future labor needs.

Figure 5.18 E-Business Interventions by Number of Countries



Source: Authors' analysis.

Content

Over 40 percent of the e-strategies focus on content by either establishing a multimedia production industry or digitizing national heritage and cultural content in local languages for domestic use.

The e-strategies consider the content creation industry in many instances to be a new market opportunity. But they also consider that as a duty to preserve national identity and cultural works. Poland, for instance, plans to create new content and digitize existing content (for example, works from the national library) that is of interest, and of possible use, to the public, including tourists and foreign investors.

Similarly, Ireland has established a “digital hub” to produce digital content that includes national archives, national art collections, digital maps, and works from the national library. Tunisia plans to integrate digital content creation into university curricula and create several multimedia educational institutes that have institutional relations with foreign multimedia academies.

Focus on content is more prevalent in e-strategies from middle- and high-income countries. This suggests that it may not constitute a priority first step for ICT development in lower-income countries.

E-Health

An e-health strategy component occurs in only 35 percent of the surveyed national ICT strategies. This focus encompasses the use of ICT in the administration of health care organizations, the delivery of clinical services, and the creation of awareness of health issues in the general public.

In those e-strategies that focus on e-health, a relatively equal distribution of emphasis between two leading objectives exists. These objectives are the use of ICT in the administration of health care organizations and online access to health education. This is followed by the delivery of clinical services, which is cited in over 40 percent of the e-strategies.

The e-strategies contain several initiatives to support and advance the use of ICT in the health care sector. Some of these initiatives are health center connectivity, instituting technical standards and protocols for integrating systems and exchanging data, training personnel, referring patients, and using online billing systems. Of these interventions, connecting health care centers to ICTs—meaning both network connectivity within the health care centers and connectivity to external networks such as regional hospitals and clinics—occurs by far the most frequently. This is cited in more than 50 percent of the e-strategies with an e-health focus. Developing technical standards for interoperability follows. In the e-strategies, connectivity is most often considered for delivering clinical services and consulting via telemedicine. However, connectivity is also viewed as benefiting health care administration by enabling improved communications, sharing resources, collecting data, and providing health information services within and among health care institutions.

Many e-strategies with an e-health focus state the need to become more cost-efficient by creating, sharing, and integrating their systems and technologies to create economies of scale. They also cite the need to increase productivity and efficiency. As might be expected, variations exist in focus areas across country, region, and income categories.

For example, many Sub-Saharan African countries (such as Tanzania) plan to establish systems for essential humanitarian services (such as HIV information and nutritional surveillance). More advanced countries focus on improving and extending existing advanced services such as single patient records (Finland) and smart cards for integrated patient information systems (Czech Republic).

NEW COMMUNICATION REVOLUTION - IMPORTANCE OF DIGITAL MEDIA**What is digital media?**

Digital media (as opposed to analog media) usually refers to electronic media that work on digital codes. Today, computing is primarily based on the binary numeral system. In this case digital refers to the discrete states of "0" and "1" for representing arbitrary data. Computers are machines that (usually) interpret binary digital data as information and thus represent the predominating class of digital information processing machines. Digital media like digital audio, digital video and other digital

"content" can be created, referred to and distributed via digital information processing machines. Digital media represents a profound change from previous (analog) media.

Florida's digital media industry association, Digital Media Alliance Florida, defines digital media as *the creative convergence of digital arts, science, technology and business for human expression, communication, social interaction and education.*

Working with digital media

As opposed to analog data, digital data is in many cases easier to manipulate, and the end result can be reproduced indefinitely without any loss of quality. Mathematical operations can be applied to arbitrary digital information regardless of its interpretation (you can add "2" to the data "65" and interpret the result either as the hexadecimal number "43" or the letter "C"). Thus, it is possible to use e.g. the same compression operation onto a text file or an image file or a sound file. The foundations of operation on digital information are described in digital signal processing.

Examples of digital media

The following list of digital media is based on a rather technical view of the term media. Other views might lead to different lists.

- Cell phones
- Compact disc
- Digital video
- Digital television
- e-book
- Internet
- Minidisc
- Video game
- World Wide Web

And many interactive media

Advantages Of Digital Media

Convenience:

A website allows you to be available all day, every day.

Electronic presentations can be stored, transported and displayed on a laptop.

E-mail marketing enables promotions and specials to go out regularly and quickly.

Cost:

Full colour designs cost the same as one colour designs, unlike print media where each colour costs extra in the printing process.

Changes to designs and information can be implemented easily and made available almost immediately — without costly reprints and wasted copies of out-dated material.

The distribution costs involved with e-mail marketing are negligible compared to the costs of mailing promotional literature or distributing flyers.

Printing costs are eliminated or at least substantially reduced.

Impact:

Well-designed websites, presentations, e-mail campaigns and business CD's have a powerful impact on clients. This makes you easier to remember and do business with.

Using the latest technology for effective communication creates the impression that your company knows about the latest trends and solutions. It also makes you appear competent and efficient.

Targeting:

People who go to your web site after being specifically directed there are already interested in your goods and services and are more likely to buy from you.

Focused e-mail campaigns also enable you to reach the people who are most likely to be interested in what you have to offer. Traditional mail shots may be sent to many people who have no interest at all in your current promotion and who simply throw away your expensive pamphlets.

Some more advantages are:

- Wider choice of communication mediums - CDs, minidisks, digital audio tape (DAT), pagers, mobile phones, answer-machines, digital TV, digital video, digital radio, digital photography, virtual pets, the Internet, Newsgroups, cash machines, Digitext, computer games, databases, e-mail, wordprocessors, desktop publishing, digital editing, sampling, digital watches, computer voice and written character recognition
- A greater volume of information becomes available
- Increased speed of communication, higher resolution of images and sounds
- Greater number of channels, frequencies, etc. available
- Digital technologies such as the Internet can provide more in-depth specialist information than, say, a newspaper article because they aren't restricted by space
- More robust signal with less vulnerability to static and noise
- New text services such as Digital Ceefax and Digitext
- 24 hr access to a variety of mediums
- Greater density and coverage of communication networks means that the phenomenon of the Global Village is becoming more and more of a reality. This globalising force helps increase understanding between different cultures by cutting across national boundaries.
- Greater interactivity e.g. interactive TV football in which the viewer gets to select the camera view
- Countless documents available from any location where a computer and modem is available. This information is more up-to-date than printed media.
- New and entertaining virtual characters - Lara Croft, The BBC's wierd and wonderful creations in Walking With The Dinosaurs, Toy Story, Ja Ja Binks
- Enables changes in working patterns. More people are now able to work from home or other more remote locations
- Offers countless learning opportunities - e.g. Interactive CD roms and educational computer games for children.
- Democratizing influences. Is the Internet an Electronic Agora?
- Allows disabled people to learn and compete in what is perhaps a slightly more level playing field
- Digital copies are always exactly like the original because digital information is zeroes and ones, whereas analog information contains continuously varying electrical or magnetic values (e.g. copies of VCR tapes always contain small errors).
- A PC CPU (Central Processing Unit) can handle routine functions for all media.
- Digital networks connecting computers can transmit all media (contrast with telephone network for analog audio and separate cable network for analog television).

Disadvantages of Digital Media

- The initial investment required to view or produce digital media artefacts may be high
- New technology can be intimidating to those who are not 'techno-literate'. The digital revolution is exclusive - it doesn't allow full participation for the elderly who perhaps have never received any IT experience or the poor
- Computers always seem to be crashing. Documents are at risk if there is no hard copy
- In many situations, including educational situations, digital media could reduce one-to-one contact between children and adults. This contact may be essential to the formation of sociable human beings
- Information Overload! There's too much info - how do we choose? What about freedom from choice? Is information impotence likely to be recognised as a new medical condition!?

- Global media is becoming increasingly difficult to regulate through policies set by elected governments as the increasingly small, unelected oligopoly of media, communication and IT tycoons stomp their empires over the globe.
- The unregulated anarchy of content (perhaps most visible in the mad diversity of the Internet) allows a platform for dangerous voices - terrorists, white supremacists, pornographers, William Hague, the list goes on...
- Virtual characters such as Lara Croft dehumanise women still further by reducing the human to a series of sex-object codes
- Health problems: Screen Fatigue, Repetitive movement strain, headaches, back problems, neck problems, couch potatoism, generally being reduced to fat, largely unresponsive lumps of jelly
- Digital technology seems to be replacing people - bank assistants, shop assistants, printers, receptionists. What about humans? Where are we to go?
- A potential dystopia in which there is no escape from advertisements and commercialism
- Despite changes in technology, ownership is still in the hands of a small minority. Is Bill Gates as powerful as Bill Clinton?
- Nations that are information rich or information poor
- Continual and costly updating required. Every few years different formats become obsolete

Importance Of Digital Media - Social And Cultural Impact Of Digital Media In The Modern World Digital Media and Art Today

Contrary to the occasional stereotype of digital media as inhuman or alienating, many artists are incorporating digital effects that stimulate visceral reactions and heightened awareness of the conditions of a particular space and time. There is sensuousness, directness, and even a poetics to many of the digital works being made today. Moreover, interactivity, an artistic strategy that pre-dates digital media, is gaining new life as artists find that the equipment necessary for such effects has become much more subtle and transparent, affording viewers a more direct experience of works of art.

Digital media are being used both to express the particular sensations of life in the Digital Age as well as to expand the creative possibilities for traditional subjects and forms. Artists are able to create compelling effects by selectively suppressing visual information or, by digitally enhancing visual sensations, rendering uncanny experiences of the "real." The ability of digital media to suggest the shifting of time, space and form has inspired a number of artists to explore aspects of memory, attention and perception in their work.

Lawrence Rinder notes, "Artists can now create seamless chimeras that resonate with contemporary anxieties about the instability of perception and even life itself in this age of virtual reality and genetic engineering. *BitStreams* will explore the Digital Age not as something external to us, residing solely in technological objects or in a kind of 'techno' style, but rather as a constellation of physical, emotional and cognitive phenomena which have transformed aspects of human experience."

Promise of Digital Learning

Digital technology makes informative content easier to find, to access, to manipulate and remix, and to disseminate. All of these steps are central to teaching, scholarship, and study. Together, they constitute a dynamic process of "digital learning."

The sort of teaching and learning that occurs within traditional educational institutions such as schools and colleges and universities, lies at the center of our understanding of education. Similarly, the concept clearly embraces scholarship undertaken by faculty, students, and other researchers affiliated with colleges, universities, or other established research institutions (such as medical centers and think tanks). Yet digital learning extends beyond these more formal institutions to involve everyone with internet access. In some instances, traditional institutions are making their educational content available to the general public online. In other cases, individuals who may have no connection to formal academia can nonetheless engage in teaching and learning with one another through the use of new technology. The examples include Google Library Project etc.

This broad scope for our definition of education is in keeping with the open-ended, collaborative, and disintermediated nature of the digital environment. Indeed, one of the most exciting features of digital technology is its capacity to permeate society unrestricted by the walls of a school or the formal roles of teachers and students. Of course, some issues we discuss herein are unique to the particular needs of more formal academic institutions. But it is important to keep in mind the wide spectrum of activity included in the concept of “digital learning.”

Indeed, perhaps no initiative better epitomizes the concept of digital learning than one undertaken by a private company rather than a school: the efforts of the search engine company Google to digitize and index books housed in five major research libraries. (Harvard University is one of the five libraries participating in the program; the others are Stanford University, Oxford University, the University of Michigan, and the New York Public Library). As the company explains it, the “ultimate goal” of the **Google Library Project** is “to work with publishers and libraries to create a comprehensive, searchable, virtual card catalog of all books in all languages that helps users discover new books and publishers discover new readers.” Google users will be able to enter search terms that would yield “snippets” of a few sentences from books still protected by copyright and the entire book if it is in the public domain. Google believes that such limited quotation is legal as a fair use emphasizes that rights holders can elect to have copyrighted books removed from the database.

Education – the means by which young people learn the skills necessary to succeed in their place and time – is diverging from schooling. Media-literacy-wise, education is happening now after school and on weekends and when the teacher isn't looking, in the SMS messages, My Space pages, blog posts, podcasts, video blogs that technology-equipped digital natives exchange among themselves. This population is both self-guided and in need of guidance, and although a willingness to learn new media by point-and-click exploration might come naturally to today's student cohort, there's nothing innate about knowing how to apply their skills to the processes of democracy.

We have an opportunity today to make use of the natural enthusiasm of today's young digital natives for cultural production as well as consumption, to help them learn to use the media production and distribution technologies now available to them to develop a public voice about issues they care about. By showing students how to use Web-based tools and channels to inform publics, advocate positions, contest claims, and organize action around issues that they truly care about, participatory media education can draw them into positive early experiences with citizenship that could influence their civic behavior throughout their lives.

Creation Fantasies in Games

Like all ecologies, game ecologies start with creation. But today's games represent two paradigms of creation: the process by which the games are created, and the paradigms of creation "encoded" within the games. Much of the cultural criticism of games has focused on their destructiveness, and the possible connections between game and real-world violence. Yet games model processes of creation as well as destruction. Do game "creation fantasies" reinforce or break prevailing myths of creation?

Digital Media and campaigning Political Strategy

Digital media strategies are a crucial component of contemporary political campaigns. Established political elites use database and Internet technologies to raise money, organize volunteers, gather intelligence on voters, and do opposition research. However, they use data mining techniques that outrage privacy advocates and surreptitious technologies that few Internet users understand. Grassroots political actors and average voters build their own digital campaigns, researching public policy options, candidate histories, lobbyist maneuvering, and the finances of big campaigns. I examine the role of digital technologies in the production of contemporary political culture with ethnographic and survey evidence from four election seasons between 1996 and 2002.

Democracy is deeper in terms of the diffusion of rich data about political actors, policy options, and the diversity of actors and opinion in the public sphere. Citizenship is thinner in terms of the ease in which people can become politically expressive without being substantively engaged.

Digital Media Distribution Opportunities for the Film Industry Growing Options for Viewing Films

The PC as an entertainment hub is fast becoming a reality with increased processing power combined with a fast broadband connection, connectivity to a variety of displays, and increases in the compression/decompression of high-end audio and video.

These new capabilities open up an opportunity and a challenge to film distributors: how to target this new digital entertainment gateway with digital movies and video but not lose control of the content in the process. Already today some estimates say there are as many as 500,000 digital movies being exchanged illegally over the web. How can technology help to bridge the gap between what consumers want (find, acquire, playback and share movies online) and what the film industry wants (secure content, business models that work, a great consumer experience)?

Advancements in digital media technology are opening up new distribution opportunities for the film industry. In order to take advantage of these new opportunities the film industry requires the ability to secure valuable assets, deliver them to customers and ensure a high quality playback experience on par with other playback options such as watching a DVD in a home theater or a pay-per-view movie on cable. Technology such as Windows Media 9 Series is being developed to meet those requirements and open up new distribution options.

Internet Distribution

The advancements in Internet digital media distribution have happened so quickly. The first generation of streaming came online around 1994 with the first upsurge in Internet usage. This experience was audio only and bad quality audio at that. But the potential was realized by technology pioneers and teams of developers worked to get higher quality into the small file sizes needed to be able to transport the data in a stream in real-time to the user.

The second generation of streaming is what we're familiar with now. Good audio quality in reasonable file size and acceptable video quality when played back in a small window. The second generation of digital media streaming also introduced digital rights management, the ability to secure content and associate it with licenses that authorized the playback.

The third generation of digital media on the Internet is where Microsoft is now focusing development efforts. This new technology will meet the requirements of the film industry in the following areas:

Security – The third generation will include more robust digital rights management solutions to secure the delivery of digital media.

Quality – The consumer needs to have a high quality experience, similar to what they're used to getting when watching movies at home on TV both in the video quality and in the quality of the delivery.

Improved economics – With technology providers like Microsoft focusing on creating digital rights management technology to secure the content and building the technology to deliver a high quality consumer experience, the film industry can focus their efforts on creating business models for distributing content online.

Windows Media 9 Series was built around these requirements and includes some new features that directly impact these areas.

No More Buffering Delays

A new feature in Windows Media 9 Series called Fast Streaming delivers an "instant-on" streaming experience for broadband users, effectively eliminating the buffering delays that consumers experience with streaming video today and offering a more TV-like viewing experience with the ability to quickly channel surf around video content on the web. This also eliminates the buffering users get when an ad is inserted into a video stream.

Fast Streaming also automatically optimizes the delivery of streaming audio and video to take advantage of the full bandwidth available to the user, which vastly reduces or eliminates the impact of congestion on the Web for broadband users.

High Quality Audio and Video

Codec improvement is an ongoing process. The new Windows Media 9 Series audio and video codecs improve quality approximately 20% without increasing the file size. This means online film providers can either increase their current quality levels or decrease their current bandwidth costs by switching to the new codecs.

Combining Fast Streaming with the new audio and video codecs brings a greatly improved online video experience to consumers and makes online distribution of films via video on demand services even more attractive to consumers and film distributors.

Film Distribution on CDs and DVDs

Next generation DVD players are being developed to support the playback of more than the standard MPEG2 DVD format. This year at CES Microsoft announced that several leading DVD player manufacturers will be supporting Windows Media Audio on their DVD players this year with support for Windows Media Video not far behind. These manufacturers include Panasonic, Toshiba, Shinco and Apex and make up 99% of the DVD player industry.

The advantages to using a format like Windows Media on a DVD is that the increased compression efficiency means the DVDs can hold more movies, up to 4 on a single DVD, and still provide a high quality playback experience. Many PCs including PCs shipping with Windows XP are capable of playing back DVDs which broaden the DVD viewing options

Alternatively some film distributors are selling single movies on a CD. A two hour movie encoded at 750 kilobit per second easily fits onto a standard CD offering an inexpensive movie distribution option.

Digital rights management works on CDs and DVDs too. Users simply pop in the protected content and either go online to acquire the license, or with some devices the license is acquired off of the CD or DVD itself.

Theater Experiences

Technology is helping tomorrow's theaters overcome some of the challenges that are squeezing the profitably from theater exhibition today. Some of those challenges include:

The Challenge

High Distribution Costs – The cost of sending films out to theaters across the country and around the world is fixed today based on the cost of the film prints themselves, anywhere from \$1200-2000 per theater.

No Security – Distributors have little control over a film once it leaves their facilities. They have to hope that it's delivered safely to the appropriate theaters and doesn't fall into the wrong hands or is damaged along the way.

Degradation Issues – As a movie is screened it becomes progressively more scratched and dirty, eventually demanding a replacement print.

Limited Programming Flexibility – Currently theater owners are only set up to receive 35 mm films. Since the cost of film production is so high there's little content beyond major independent and studio movies that can afford to take advantage of a theater screening.

Inflexible Advertising – Advertisers love advertising in theaters because they have a captive audience. But today's theater advertising is limited to slide shows and rarely a filmed ad. But again, given the costs of film distribution not many advertisers can afford to send a 35 mm reel to each theater and even if many advertisers did so, the theater owners aren't equipped to switch from one ad reel to the next.

The Solution

Digital distribution and exhibition of content in tomorrow's theaters will overcome many of these limitations.

Streamlined Distribution – The distribution process will no longer involve bulky expensive film reels. Films can be sent digitally over the IP network to targeted theaters without ever having to duplicate a 35 mm reel. This streamlined distribution will pave the way for new programming options including

concerts, sporting events, distance learning and more. Theater owners can program content quickly and easily, moving content from one auditorium to many, meeting market demand in a way they are currently unable to.

Integrated Digital Rights Management – Digital theater content will be secured before it ever leaves the content owners facility. DRM will enable tracking and license serving so theaters and content owners know exactly when and where the content is accessed.

Digital Preservation – The one thousandth time a digital movie is screened provides the same quality as the first time. There is no breakdown in the digital file as there is with film.

Demographically targeted advertising – Digital ads can be served from one location and targeted to specific theaters based on content being shown in that theater to a particular demographic.

The benefits of moving to digital distribution to theaters are clear. The costs for theater owners have been historically very to purchase the digital projectors and other equipment but some smaller theaters are finding that they can begin to achieve some of the benefits of digital cinema with off the shelf hardware and software. Recently theaters in Seattle and Dallas completed digital screenings of the critically acclaimed independent film “Wendigo.” Using a standard Windows-based workstation, Windows Media for the encoding, deliver and playback, and a DLP projector, the theater owners delivered high quality screenings. Customers were unable to tell that they were not watching a 35 mm film print.

Although a digital screening as described above isn’t something that would meet the requirements of a major blockbuster it is a great option for theaters interested in delivering independent and alternative content geared to specific audiences.

Conclusions

Technology is changing the rules of the film industry just as it did for the music industry. With the growing interest from consumers to get movies and video content in different ways with different options, filmmakers and distributors are turning to technology to meet their demands. New technology like Windows Media 9 Series strives to achieve higher quality, greater efficiency, and greater audience reach all while driving down costs. All of these benefits open up new distribution opportunities to the film industry.

The information contained in this document represents the current view of Microsoft Corporation on the issues discussed as of the date of publication. Because Microsoft must respond to changing market conditions, it should not be interpreted to be a commitment on the part of Microsoft, and Microsoft cannot guarantee the accuracy of any information presented after the date of publication.

LESSON 13

INFORMATION SOCIETY & PROPAGANDA

An **information society** is a society in which the creation, distribution, diffusion, use and manipulation of information is a significant economic, political, and cultural activity. The knowledge economy is its economic counterpart whereby wealth is created through the economic exploitation of understanding.

Specific to this kind of society is the central position; information technology has for production, economy, and society at large. Information society is seen as the successor to industrial society. Closely related concepts are the post-industrial society (Daniel Bell), post-fordism, post-modern society, knowledge society, Telematic Society, Information Revolution, and network society (Manuel Castells).

The information society is a term used to describe a society and an economy that makes the best possible use of new information and communication technologies (ICT's). In an Information Society people will get the full benefits of new technology in all aspects of their lives: at work, at home and at play. Examples of ICT's are: ATM's for cash withdrawal and other banking services, mobile phones, teletext television, faxes and information services such as the internet and e-mail.

Development Of The Information Society Model

One of the first people to develop the concept of the information society was the economist Fritz Machlup. In 1933 Machlup began studying the effect of patents on research. His work culminated in the breakthrough study "The production and distribution of knowledge in the United States" in 1962. This book was widely regarded and was eventually translated into Russian and Japanese. The Japanese have also studied the information society *Johoka Shakai* (Umesao), which means the highest stage of societal evolution seen in analogy to biological evolution. This concept was discussed already in the 1950s and 1960s.

Various concepts in scientific literature that have been used for discussing information society

Concepts such as knowledge/information economy, post-industrial society, post-modern society, information society, network society, informational capitalism, network capitalism, etc. show that it is an important sociological question in which society we live and which role technologies and information play in contemporary society. Both aspects are central issues of information society theory.

Fritz Machlup (1962) has introduced the concept of the knowledge industry. He has distinguished five sectors of the knowledge sector: education, research and development, mass media, information technologies, information services. Based on this categorization he calculated that in 1959 29% per cent of the GNP in the USA had been produced in knowledge industries.

Peter Drucker (1969) has argued that there is a transition from an economy based on material goods to one based on knowledge. Marc Porat (1977) distinguishes a primary (information goods and services that are directly used in the production, distribution or processing of information) and a secondary sector (information services produced for internal consumption by government and non-information firms) of the information economy. Porrat uses the total value added by the primary and secondary information sector to the GNP as an indicator for the information economy. The OECD has employed Porat's definition for calculating the share of the information economy in the total economy (e.g. OECD 1981, 1986). Based on such indicators the information society has been defined as a society where more than half of the GNP is produced and more than half of the employees are active in the information economy (Deutsch 1983).

For Daniel Bell the number of employees producing services and information is an indicator for the informational character of a society. "A post-industrial society is based on services. (...) What counts is not raw muscle power, or energy, but information. (...) A post industrial society is one in which the majority of those employed are not involved in the production of tangible goods" (Bell 1976: 127, 348).

Alain Touraine already spoke in 1971 of the post-industrial society. "The passage to postindustrial society takes place when investment results in the production of symbolic goods that modify values, needs,

representations, far more than in the production of material goods or even of ‘services’. Industrial society had transformed the means of production: post-industrial society changes the ends of production, that is, culture. (...) The decisive point here is that in postindustrial society all of the economic system is the object of intervention of society upon itself. That is why we can call it the programmed society, because this phrase captures its capacity to create models of management, production, organization, distribution, and consumption, so that such a society appears, at all its functional levels, as the product of an action exercised by the society itself, and not as the outcome of natural laws or cultural specificities” (Touraine 1988: 104). In the programmed society also the area of cultural reproduction including aspects such as information, consumption, health, research, education would be industrialized. That modern society is increasing its capacity to act upon itself means for Touraine that society is reinvesting ever larger parts of production and so produces and transforms itself. This idea is an early formulation of the notion of capitalism as self-referential economy (Fuchs 2004).

Jean-François Lyotard (1984: 5) has argued that “knowledge has become the principle force of production over the last few decades“. Knowledge would be transformed into a commodity. Lyotard says that postindustrial society makes knowledge accessible to the layman because knowledge and information technologies would diffuse into society and break up Grand Narratives of centralized structures and groups. Lyotard denotes these changing circumstances as postmodern condition or postmodern society. Similarly to Bell Peter Otto and Philipp Sonntag (1985) say that an information society is a society where the majority of employees work in information jobs, i.e. they have to deal more with information, signals, symbols, and images than with energy and matter. Radovan Richta (1977) argues that society has been transformed into a scientific civilization based on services, education, and creative activities. This transformation would be the result of a scientific-technological transformation based on technological progress and the increasing importance of computer technology. Science and technology would become immediate forces of production.

Nico Stehr (1994, 2002a, b) says that in the knowledge society a majority of jobs involves working with knowledge. “Contemporary society may be described as a knowledge society based on the extensive penetration of all its spheres of life and institutions by scientific and technological knowledge” (Stehr 2002b: 18). For Stehr knowledge is a capacity for social action. Science would become an immediate productive force, knowledge would no longer be primarily embodied in machines, but already appropriated nature that represents knowledge would be rearranged according to certain designs and programs (Ibid.: 41-46). For Stehr the economy of a knowledge society is largely driven not by material inputs, but by symbolic or knowledge-based inputs (Ibid.: 67), there would be a large number of professions that involve working with knowledge, and a declining number of jobs that demand low cognitive skills as well as in manufacturing (Stehr 2002a).

Also Alvin Toffler argues that knowledge is the central resource in the economy of the information society: “In a Third Wave economy, the central resource – a single word broadly encompassing data, information, images, symbols, culture, ideology, and values – is actionable knowledge“ (Dyson/Gilder/Keyworth/Toffler 1994).

In recent years the concept of the network society has gained importance in information society theory. For Manuel Castells network logic is besides information, pervasiveness, flexibility, and convergence a central feature of the information technology paradigm (2000a: 69ff). “One of the key features of informational society is the networking logic of its basic structure, which explains the use of the concept of ‘network society’” (Castells 2000: 21). “As an historical trend, dominant functions and processes in the Information Age are increasingly organized around networks. Networks constitute the new social morphology of our societies, and the diffusion of networking logic substantially modifies the operation and outcomes in processes of production, experience, power, and culture” (Castells 2000: 500). For Castells the network society is the result of informationalism, a new technological paradigm. Jan Van Dijk (2006) defines the network society as a “social formation with an infrastructure of social and media networks enabling its prime mode of organization at all levels (individual, group/organizational and societal). Increasingly, these networks link all units or parts of this formation (individuals, groups and

organizations)” (Van Dijk 2006: 20). For Van Dijk networks have become the nervous system of society, whereas Castells links the concept of the network society to capitalist transformation, Van Dijk sees it as the logical result of the increasing widening and thickening of networks in nature and society. Darin Barney (2004) uses the term for characterizing societies that exhibit two fundamental characteristics: “The first is the presence in those societies of sophisticated – almost exclusively digital – technologies of networked communication and information management/distribution, technologies which form the basic infrastructure mediating an increasing array of social, political and economic practices. (...) The second, arguably more intriguing, characteristic of network societies is the reproduction and institutionalization throughout (and between) those societies of networks as the basic form of human organization and relationship across a wide range of social, political and economic configurations and associations” (Barney 2004: 25sq).

Critique on the concept of Information Society

The major critique of concepts such as information society, knowledge society, network society, postmodern society, postindustrial society, etc. that has mainly been voiced by critical scholars is that they create the impression that we have entered a completely new type of society. “If there is just more information then it is hard to understand why anyone should suggest that we have before us something radically new” (Webster 2002a: 259). Critics such as Frank Webster argue that these approaches stress discontinuity, as if contemporary society had nothing in common with society as it was 100 or 150 years ago. Such assumptions would have ideological character because they would fit with the view that we can do nothing about change and have to adopt to existing political realities (Webster 2002b: 267). These critics argue that contemporary society first of all is still a capitalist society oriented towards accumulating economic, political, and cultural capital. They acknowledge that information society theories stress some important new qualities of society (notably globalization and informatization), but charge that they fail to show that these are attributes of overall capitalist structures. Critics such as Webster insist on the continuities that characterize change. In this way Webster distinguishes between different epochs of capitalism: laissez-faire capitalism of the 19th century, corporate capitalism in the 20th century, and informational capitalism for the 21st century (Webster 2006).

For describing contemporary society based on dialectic of the old and the new, continuity and discontinuity, other critical scholars have suggested several terms like:

- transnational network capitalism, transnational informational capitalism (Christian Fuchs 2007):

“Computer networks are the technological foundation that has allowed the emergence of **global network capitalism**, i.e. regimes of accumulation, regulation and discipline that are helping to increasingly base the accumulation of economic, political and cultural capital on transnational network organisations that make use of cyberspace and other new technologies for global co-ordination and communication. [...] The need to find new strategies for executing corporate and political domination has resulted in a restructuration of capitalism that is characterised by the emergence of transnational, networked spaces in the economic, political and cultural system and has been mediated by cyberspace as a tool of global co-ordination and communication. Economic, political and cultural space have been restructured, they have become more fluid and dynamic, have enlarged their borders to a transnational scale and handle the inclusion and exclusion of nodes in flexible ways. These networks are complex due to the high number of nodes (individuals, enterprises, teams, political actors, etc.) that can be involved and the high speed at which a high number of resources is produced and transported within them. However, [...] global network capitalism is based on structural inequalities, it is made up of segmented spaces in which central hubs (transnational corporations, certain political actors, regions and countries, western lifestyles and world views) centralise the production, control and flows of economic, political and cultural capital (property, power, skills)“ (Fuchs 2007).

- **Digital Capitalism** (Schiller 2000, cf. also Peter Glotz 1999): “networks are directly generalizing the social and cultural range of the capitalist economy as never before” (Schiller 2000: xiv)
- **Virtual Capitalism**: the “combination of marketing and the new information technology will enable certain firms to obtain higher profit margins and larger market shares, and will thereby

promote greater concentration and centralization of capital” (Dawson/John Bellamy Foster 1998: 63sq),

- **High-Tech Capitalism** (Haug 2003), or informatic capitalism (Fitzpatrick 2002) – to focus on the computer as a guiding technology that has transformed the productive forces of capitalism and has enabled a globalized economy.
- Other scholars prefer to speak of **Information Capitalism** (Morris-Suzuki 1997) or **Informational Capitalism** (Manuel Castells 2000, Christian Fuchs 2005, Schmiede 2006a, b). Manuel Castells sees informationalism as a new technological paradigm (he speaks of a mode of development) characterized by “information generation, processing, and transmission” that have become “the fundamental sources of productivity and power” (Castells 2000: 21). The “most decisive historical factor accelerating, channelling and shaping the information technology paradigm, and inducing its associated social forms, was/is the process of capitalist restructuring undertaken since the 1980s, so that the new techno-economic system can be adequately characterized as informational capitalism” (Castells 2000: 18). Castells has added to theories of the information society the idea that in contemporary society dominant functions and processes are increasingly organized around networks that constitute the new social morphology of society (Castells 2000: 500). Nicholas Garnham (2004) is critical of Castells and argues that the latter’s account is technologically determinist because Castells points out that his approach is based on a dialectic of technology and society in which technology embodies society and society uses technology (Castells 2000: 5sq). But Castells also makes clear that the rise of a new “mode of development” is shaped by capitalist production, i.e. by society, which implies that technology isn’t the only driving force of society.
- Antonio Negri and Michael Hardt argue that contemporary society is an Empire that is characterized by a singular global logic of **Capitalist Domination That Is Based On Immaterial Labour**. With the concept of immaterial labour Negri and Hardt introduce ideas of information society discourse into their Marxist account of contemporary capitalism. Immaterial labour would be labour “that creates immaterial products, such as knowledge, information, communication, a relationship, or an emotional response” (Hardt/ Negri 2005: 108; cf. also 2000: 280-303), or services, cultural products, knowledge (Hardt/ Negri 2000: 290). There would be two forms: intellectual labour that produces ideas, symbols, codes, texts, linguistic figures, images, etc.; and affective labour that produces and manipulates affects such as a feeling of ease, well-being, satisfaction, excitement, passion, joy, sadness, etc. (Ibid.).

Overall, neo-Marxist accounts of the information society have in common that they stress that knowledge, information technologies, and computer networks have played a role in the re-structuration and globalization of capitalism and the emergence of a flexible regime of accumulation (David Harvey 1989). They warn that new technologies are embedded into societal antagonisms that cause structural unemployment, rising poverty, social exclusion, the deregulation of the welfare state and of labour rights, the lowering of wages, warfare, etc.

Concepts such as knowledge society, information society, network society, informational capitalism, postindustrial society, transnational network capitalism, postmodern society, etc. show that there is a vivid discussion in contemporary sociology on the character of contemporary society and the role that technologies, information, communication, and co-operation play in it. Information society theory discusses the role of information and information technology in society, the question which key concepts shall be used for characterizing contemporary society, and how to define such concepts. It has become a specific branch of contemporary sociology.

Some people, such as Antonio Negri and Newt Gingrich, characterize the information society as one in which people do immaterial labour. By this, they appear to refer to the production of knowledge or cultural artifacts. One problem with this model is that it ignores the material and essentially industrial basis of the society. However it does point to a problem for workers, namely how many creative people

does this society need to function? For example, it may be that you only need a few star performers, rather than a plethora of non-celebrities, as the work of those performers can be easily distributed, forcing all secondary players to the bottom of the market. It is now common for publishers to promote only their best selling authors and to try and avoid the rest- even if they still sell steadily. Films are becoming more and more judged, in terms of distribution, by their first weekend's performance, in many cases cutting out opportunity for word-of-mouth development.

Another problem with the idea of the information society is that there is no easily agreed upon definition of the term, which can not only include art, texts, blueprints and scientific theories, but also lies, football results, trivia, random letters, mistakes and so on. Information is not necessarily productive or useful. It can even be harmful.

Considering that metaphors and technologies of information move forward in a reciprocal relationship, we can describe some societies (especially the Japanese society) as an information society because we think of it as such (James Boyle, 1996, 6).

RELATED TERMS

A number of terms in current use emphasize related but different aspects of the emerging global economic order.

The Information Society is, perhaps, the most encompassing in that an economy is a subset of a society.

The Information Age is somewhat limiting, in that it refers to a 30-year period between the widespread use of computers and the knowledge economy, rather than an emerging economic order.

The knowledge era is about the nature of the content, not the socioeconomic processes by which it will be traded.

The computer revolution, Information Revolution, and knowledge revolution refer to specific revolutionary transitions, rather than the end state towards which we are evolving.

The information economy and the knowledge economy emphasize the content or intellectual property that is being traded through an information market or knowledge market, respectively.

Electronic commerce and electronic business emphasize the nature of transactions and running a business, respectively, using the Internet and World-Wide Web.

The digital economy focuses on trading bits in cyberspace rather than atoms in physical space.

The network economy stresses that businesses will work collectively in webs or as part of business ecosystems rather than as stand-alone units.

Social networking refers to the process of collaboration on massive, global scales.

The Internet Economy focuses on the nature of markets that are enabled by the Internet.

Knowledge services and knowledge value put content into an economic context. **Knowledge services** integrates Knowledge management, within a Knowledge organization, that trades in a Knowledge market.

Although seemingly synonymous, each term conveys more than nuances or slightly different views of the same thing. Each term represents one attribute of the likely nature of economic activity in the emerging post-industrial society. Alternatively, the new economic order will incorporate all of the above plus other attributes that have not yet fully emerged.

Ethics And Values In Digital Age/ Information Society

Copyrights' issue – a case study conducted by Hillarie B. Davis

Ctrl a, ctrl c, ctrl v. It has never been easier. That's the reason both students and teachers give for committing the deadly (and obvious) sin of cheating. The pressure of making the grade, the need to do some mundane task now to get ahead later, the expediency of looking good without much effort, the shortcutting of learning to have fun—all sidestep the thinking and engagement we ultimately hold dear in education. The reasons are not so different from 30 years ago.

Making the Moral Argument

Ethical questions are about right and wrong, good and bad, just and unjust. They matter because what we do affects us individually, affects our community, and can even affect people we do not know or see. The global community Marshall McLuhan wrote about some 35 years ago looms large through our computer

screens. Our planet is wrapped with a digital web of consciousness that makes our reach exceed our grasp of how what we do matters. Ethical decisions are often based on effects we see, but increasingly there are effects that occur as the result of a chain of events or accumulation of actions that are not plainly visible to us. They have moved not only beyond our view but beyond our conception.

In one weekly column, Cohen responded to a question from a high school student. She had “borrowed” her older brother’s college library password to do a term paper. “Isn’t it really okay?” she reasoned, “No one was hurt, her brother said it was okay, he was paying a lot of money for his college privileges.” No, Cohen responded, it is not okay. The privilege is the brother’s alone to use—not his to distribute. Imagine if everyone did it: It could slow down or block other college students’ use of the library. It could change the way colleges make library materials available; they could start to charge every time materials are accessed. It could change what high schools expect in term papers and how they are graded; they could ban outside sources to ensure equal access, or require outside sources that would disadvantage some students. Ultimately, this high school student’s actions could be the moth wing flutter that results in a tsunami on the other side of the planet. It could affect a lot of people.

Restoring the Confidence to Learn

If it is inherently more interesting to think than to copy, why do students plagiarize, buy term papers, and shortcut assignments? In these situations, the student’s intent is to deceive the teacher about his or her ability—to appear to have learned something, to take credit for writing not his or her own. But the reasons are more complicated than “not being interested in learning.”

Fred Matter, a science teacher from Barbara Golem an High School in Miami, Fla., sees some students who lack the confidence to learn, others who do not know how to learn or write, and still others who are simply more interested in other activities and want to save time. His solution:

Make them care enough to *want* to think about the topic because it affects them. In 1967, Marshall McLuhan wrote in *The Medium is the Massage*, “Youth instinctively understands the present environment—the electric drama. It lives mythically and in depth.” Thirty years later, Nicholas Negroponte, chairman of the MIT Media Lab, described the digital divide as less economically driven than a generation gap in how we operate in the world. Have we been slow to create schools that are immersive, interactive, and nurture the development of students’ sense of their place in a world more virtual than physical?

For students to care about learning, the tasks have to be relevant, challenging, and interesting. Doug Johnson, Mankato, Minn., school district media director and author of *Learning Right from Wrong in the Digital Age*, sees this as the crux of the matter. “If we only ask students to regurgitate information, copying makes sense. Teachers need to make sure assignments are worthwhile and explain why they have value. Students are in survival mode, so they need to see how the assignment affects them, their families, and their neighborhoods. Why is this worth knowing or doing?” When teachers and students can answer this question, they both value original thinking. When learning is valued, cheating is irrelevant.

What We Value

Being Digital is different. In his 1996 book by that name, Nicholas Negroponte reminds us that bits are different than atoms, and they change how we view ourselves and our world. Being digital instead of analog both increases and diminishes our isolation, connects and disconnects us from each other, and gives us more access and less understanding. To manage, we move into valuing the knowledge held in a sort of trust, by the bits. Digital captures what we know, feel, and think with words, pictures, graphics, sound, and video that are all in one form. Once we see “digital” as a medium holding what we value, we are more respectful of its creators while enjoying access. Negroponte writes:

The methodical movement of recorded music as pieces of plastic ,like the slow human handling of most information in the form of books, magazines, newspapers, and videocassettes, is about to become the instantaneous and inexpensive transfer of electronic data that move at the speed of light. In this form, the information can become universally accessible. Thomas Jefferson advanced the concept of libraries and

the right to check out a book free of charge. But this great forefather never considered the likelihood that 20 million people might access a digital library electronically and withdraw its content at no cost.

This issue of the public trust of intellectual property is what worries Cohen the most. “There is a movement away from civic virtue and connectedness and a shift towards individual rectitude; a shift from an understanding that we are members of a community to the lone individual’s moral character,” he says. “At its core is application of the marketplace to civic life. Our essential relationship with each other is as commodities—buyer and seller.” “Free” libraries are symbolic of an interdependence that balances open access and the protection of intellectual property. This nexus has shaped civil society as both a goal and a solution to meet the needs of the individual, and at the same time create a fair and just society that supports honorable behavior.

Do students get pushed toward digital piracy, fraud, and deception out of convenience, grade pressure, and isolation? Could these small and large deceptions be signaling the desperate need to shift away from the industrial model of school and toward communities of learning locally and globally? Students, like all citizens, may require the context of community for knowing what to do *and* why it is right. It seems that students who are part of learning communities are clear about their obligations to others because they feel the benefits from the interdependence. Cohen suggests an interesting analogy; if you put a rookie cop in a corrupt precinct, what kind of cop do you think he will be? And if you put him in an honest precinct? Community matters.

A Civil Digital Society

“The major advances in civilization are processes that all but wreck the societies in which they occur.”
—Alfred North Whitehead in *The Medium is the Massage* (McLuhan, 1967)

Is the individual solely responsible for cheating? It would seem not. In schools and classrooms where the emphasis is on knowledge-building, deception is both undesirable and difficult. The emphasis is on learning and creation, not on getting assignments finished or looking good when you aren’t. How does a school community engender a code of conduct? They can begin by looking at the areas of greatest concern. “If a prohibition, like downloading music, makes criminals out of children and otherwise law-abiding citizens, perhaps it needs to be reexamined,” suggests Cohen. If students are routinely playing games on school computers, checking e-mail, and downloading software or images without permission, it’s time to examine library use, the schedule, the relevance and interest of assignments, and the ethical use of school property.

The “problems” can be indicators of the need for a culture change. At Hoover High, students create a video yearbook that they publish and sell themselves. In Martha Adams’ classroom at St. Brendan’s, students form environmental-health companies and create slideshow presentations, videos, and proposals with full text and Web citations. Students are authors and producers. They know their original thinking is valued. In turn, they value the thinking of others, and credit it. They know the difference between right and wrong, even in a digital age, because the digital tools of that global community are theirs to use. These students are connecting the bits to have a voice in the digital community. To determine what is blameworthy in the digital age, it seems to be time to change our lenses; to understand that individuals both reflect and invent their social interactions, and that our responsibility to “turn all our cards face up” does not change, even as the milieu does. The technologies we create cause us to reinvent ourselves. They create opportunities for rule-making as well as rule-breaking. And in a democracy; they provoke discussion about what we value. One would hope that as emerging technologies become ubiquitous, teachers and students will create policies, practices, and cultures to support a civil society in which we know how to “be digital” with freedom and integrity.

Ethical Challenges of Digital Libraries

Production, collection, classification and dissemination of digitized knowledge and information give rise to ethical challenges such as: How can a democratic right of access to knowledge be guaranteed? Creating digital libraries may be an answer to this question, but how do they merge into existing traditional libraries? What kind of public services should they offer? What kind of digital collections should they

create? How is the integrity and sustainability of these collections economically, technically and culturally guaranteed? Who are the *de facto* beneficiaries of these value-added services?

Let us start with the last question. Some of the value-added characteristics of digital libraries are:

- access to documents independently of time and space: think, for instance, about the problem of access to documents stored in libraries and archives far away from the place where these documents are needed,
- combination of documents of different types in different (digital and/or classic) archives
- search for documents and non-digital information on the basis of search engines and online catalogs,
- combination of information and communication processes

Key technical and organizational problems related to the creation of digital libraries concern:

- Formats (such as pdf, HTML or gif)
- Content (special collections)
- Sustainability (preservation of the digital material; surrogates for originals that are in a fragile condition)
- Copyright (producers, institutions, users)
- Fair use
- Financing
- Cataloging
- Search capabilities

Information specialists must be educated in order to design and maintain digital libraries. They must be able to structure, represent and update all kinds of information in different media (Lesk 1997, Borgman 2000).

Ethical questions concerning *collection and classification* of information refer to censorship and control. The answers to these questions vary historically according to the interests of political, economic, religious and military powers. Cultural and moral traditions play also an important role concerning, for example, what is considered as offensive. The main ethical question in this area may be formulated as follows: Are there limits to intellectual freedom? The will to exclude 'bad' information is itself an ethical paradox as far as any exclusion that would limit intellectual freedom should be avoided. There is a tendency in liberal societies to less control. But this leads to ethical as well as moral and legal conflicts (Froehlich 1997, Frické/Mathiesen/Fallis 2000).

The particular protection of the *intellectual property* is one of the most important and difficult ethical, moral and legal questions in the information field particularly. Different moral and legal traditions have lead to different protective laws in different regions of the world. The European tradition emphasizes the moral rights of the authors (*droit d'auteur*). These are related to the person of the author and concern the integrity and authorship of her/his work as well as her/his reputation. The Anglo-American tradition emphasizes the property or economic rights (copyright). Conflicts arise when national and international laws and moral traditions protect different aspects of various media. Ways of harmonization are the *Berne Convention* (1886, revisions) and the *Universal Copyright Convention* (1952) (UCC). Both treaties are administrated by the *World Intellectual Property Organization* (WIPO). Digitizing makes copying and re-making easier. Internationalization via the Internet changes the dimension and prospective of national legislation and control. This new situation gives rise to questions such as:

- Should information always be regarded as a property?
- Should the notion of knowledge-sharing become predominant with regard to the notion of ownership?
- How can the public access to electronic information be guaranteed?

These questions must be carefully analyzed when creating digital libraries in order to protect the interests of producers, mediators and users.

Ethical questions concerning *information dissemination* are related to problems of public access and reference/brokerage services. The question of access can be studied as an individual as well as a societal

issue. Individuals and societies are interested in free and equal access to information. At the same time it must be acknowledged that information is a product of work and has an economic value that should be protected. The question is then, What information for whom should be free. The problem of user education is also connected to this question. The question of access as a societal issue concerns the problem of creating equal opportunities of access avoiding the gap between the information rich and the information poor (*digital divide*). It is controversial how far the discourse on the digital divide may lead to a (theoretical and practical) confusion between what can be seen as a societal need or as a (human) right. The last assertion would eventually expand government power and legitimate its control and ruling activities (Foster 2000). With regard to reference/brokerage services ethical conflicts may arise regarding, for example, the right to confidentiality. Organizations may ask information professionals to break confidentiality. Information professionals are supposed to inform their users about the limits of their sources and methods. Finally there is the question of misinformation (or information malpractice) that can cause great (economic) damages to the users.

Harmful effects of TV on kids

The average child in the United States spends about 25 hours a week in front of the television (including the use of VCR), according to the latest annual Media in the Home survey, conducted by the Annenberg Public Policy Center -- a number significantly exceeding the maximum limit suggested by the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP). In 1990, the AAP issued a recommendation that children watch no more than one to two hours of "quality" television a day. Just two weeks ago, the AAP came out with stricter guidelines, published in the August issue of Pediatrics: Children under age 2, they say, should not watch television at all, and older kids should not have televisions in their bedrooms.

Over the past several decades a number of studies have shown that there are several ways that television can be harmful to the mental and physical health of children. That's not to say that all television is bad for kids. In fact, a number of quality children's shows -- such as the popular preschool show "Blue's Clues" and, of course, "Sesame Street" -- engage kids in positive ways. However, when children watch television frequently and indiscriminately, the effects can be detrimental.

TV viewing and poor school performance

Only a handful of programs teach children important skills such as math, reading, science or problem solving. Most of the shows on television, including cartoons, are noneducational. More time spent watching these shows is linked with poorer school performance overall and decreased scores on standardized tests. This makes sense when you consider that more time spent in front of a television means less time spent on homework or having stimulating interactions with adults or other children. In addition, late-night TV watching tires kids out so that they can't pay attention in school. Also, television hands kids all the answers, promoting passive learning and short attention spans. As a result, kids have difficulty concentrating and working hard to solve a problem.

TV violence affects kids

In many instances, TV programming promotes negative behavior. Perhaps the most prevalent example of this is violence. Even shows designed for children are not necessarily violence-free. The Media in the Home survey found that 28 percent of all children's shows contained four-or-more incidents of violence per show -- a number that media experts consider high. Several studies have shown that a child is more likely to display violent or antisocial behavior depending on the degree of violence and the total number of violent programs he or she watches.

Heavy TV viewing, heavy kids

There appears to be a strong relationship between time spent in front of the television and being overweight. In fact, this past March the American Medical Association held a special briefing in New York City to alert parents about the well-proven link between TV viewing and obesity. This well-known "couch-potato" syndrome is probably the result of taking in too many calories (junk food -- which is advertised on television -- stuffed in unconsciously as kids stare at the screen) and not burning up enough

calories (sitting still rather than running around and playing). But the effects are reversible: Three studies have demonstrated that overweight children lost weight as they decreased their TV viewing.

Late-night television leads to daytime sleepiness

TV watching (especially late-night and violent shows) has been connected with poor sleep patterns in children. The emotional stress caused by the shows could be preventing children from getting to sleep and cause nightmares. In turn, abnormal sleep patterns can cause children to be less alert during the day, also contributing to poor school performance.

Media Violence is Harmful to Kids!

The "Joint Statement on the Impact of Entertainment Violence on Children," at the August 2000 congressional public health summit, cited well over 1,000 studies that "point overwhelmingly to a causal connection between media violence and aggressive behavior in some children... Its effects are measurable and long-lasting... prolonged viewing of media violence can lead to desensitization toward violence in real life." Most American children spend far more of their childhoods watching television than they do in school. By age 18, on average, they have seen more than 200,000 acts of television violence, including more than 16,000 murders. I suspect that the violence in movies, music, and interactive entertainment such as computer games and video games has an even deeper impact. I am encouraged by the presence of some wonderful new games that are based on dance moves, driving, skiing, skateboarding, soccer, and baseball. Keep your eye out for, and support, entertainment choices that are exciting, fun, and non-violent.

PRIVACY ISSUES

The right of privacy is well established in international law. The core privacy principle in modern law may be found in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 12 of the UDHR states "No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks."

The UN Guidelines for the Regulation of Computerized Personal Data Files (1990) set out Fair Information Practices and recommend the adoption of national guidelines to protect personal privacy. Appropriately, the UN Guidelines note that derogation from these principles "may be specifically provided for when the purpose of the file is the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms of the individual concerned or humanitarian assistance."

More generally, the protection of privacy is considered a fundamental human right, indispensable to the protection of liberty and democratic institutions. William Pfaff made this point well when he wrote recently, "The defining characteristic of totalitarianism is its assault on privacy. The individual in a totalitarian state is deprived of privacy in order to destroy his or her liberty."

We are asked at the UNESCO forum to explore the ethical and legal dimension of cyberspace and to identify a set of core principles to promote democracy and empower citizens. This effort could lead to specific recommendations for UNESCO. Our specific task is to consider protection of privacy and human rights in the Digital Age. To address this challenge, it is necessary to review what we know about the protection of privacy, what we know about threats to privacy, and what we do not know about the future of privacy protection. Then we should consider the competing views of government, the private sector and citizen organizations as to how we should proceed. Finally, we must review our fundamental concerns as citizens and representatives of organizations involved with matters of human rights and outline a plan for future action.

What We Know About the Protection of Privacy

The protection of privacy is not a new subject. It has multiple dimensions and a well established history. Among its key characteristics is the recognition that privacy is a fundamental human right, that it is firmly

established in law, and that Fair Information Practices provided a useful articulation of privacy principles in the information world.

Privacy as a fundamental right

Philosophers and ethicists have described privacy as indispensable characteristic of personal freedom. Privacy is associated with autonomy, dignity, spirituality, trust, and liberty. References to the value of private life may be found in the bible, the history of Periclean Athens, as well as the history and culture of many people around the world.

The American jurist Louis Brandeis described privacy as "the right to be let alone" and as "the most fundamental of all rights cherished by a free people" in a famous article on the Right to Privacy (1890). Brandeis noted that French law provided relief for invasions of private life and urged the adoption of a similar legal right in the common law countries. The right was first recognized in the United States in a 1902 case in the state of Georgia. Since that time courts in the United States and around the world have often allowed individual plaintiffs to seek legal remedies for invasions of private life.

In the realm of information technology, the right of privacy has focused on the ability of individuals to control the collection and use of personal information held by others. A German court has described this as the right of "informational self-determination." This right is often articulated as fair information practices and codified in civil law.

The right of privacy is established in law

The right of privacy is well established in international and national law. Following the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 and article 12 which speaks directly to the issue of privacy, similar provisions were adopted in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the European Convention on Human Rights, and other regional conventions and agreements.

At the national level, most governments have a general right of privacy set out in their Constitutions. Privacy rights have also been established by means of case law and enactments of legislatures. Such laws typically seek to protect privacy in a particular context, such as laws that protect the privacy of communication by limiting the circumstances in which police may undertake wiretapping or when a merchant may sell personal data.

Interestingly, the integration of the European countries and the creation of the European Union have underscored the clear establishment of privacy as legal claim. The European Union Data Directive resulted from the need to carry forward certain legal rights even as the legal and economic arrangement among the European governments was undergoing a substantial transformation. The effort in Europe to extend legal frameworks for privacy protection has encouraged similar efforts in East Asia, North America, and Latin America. That privacy protection remains a central concern for governments on the eve of the twenty-first century is a significant indication of the importance of this fundamental human right.

Fair Information Practices

Privacy principles are often articulated as "Fair Information Practices." Fair Information Practices set out the rights of those who provide their own personally identifiable information and the responsibilities of those who collect this information. Although there is not fixed agreement on what specific principles constitute Fair Information Practices, there is general agreement about the types of principles that are likely to be included in a set of Fair Information Practices. These include the right of an individual to limit the collection and use of personal information, to obtain access to the information when it is collected, to inspect it and to correct it if necessary, transparency, and to have some means of accountability or enforcement to ensure that the practices will be enforced. The responsibilities of data collectors include the obligation to maintain security of the information, to ensure that the data is accurate, complete and reliable so that inappropriate determinations about an individual are not made. Some commentators have recently proposed that Fair Information Practices also include such principles as the right to anonymity and minimization of data collection.

Fair Information Practices provide the basic structure of most privacy laws and polices found around the world. They can be seen in such general agreements as the OECD Privacy Guidelines of 1980 as well as more detailed legal code as the Subscriber Privacy provision contained in the US Cable Act of 1984. Current efforts to establish privacy protection for the Internet typically focus on the application of Fair Information Practices to Internet-based transactions.

Technology Threatens Privacy

In the modern era, technology has long been viewed as the source of many privacy concerns. But the relationship between technology and surveillance is not a simple one. Technology takes on certain forms and may lead to the adoption of new systems for surveillance by a process that might almost be understood as a dialectic between the purposeful creation of particular system for surveillance, the subsequent development of a means for surveillance not previously considered, and then the resulting creation of a new purposeful system for surveillance. It would be tempting to view this process as almost autonomous, but human accountability should not be ignored in any system of surveillance.

Among the key characteristics of technology in the surveillance realm are *amplification*, *routinization*, and *sublimation*. Amplification refers to the ability of technology to extend the ability to gather information and intrude into private life. Examples of amplification are linked directly to the sensory abilities. A zoom lens on a camera allows a reporter to see further and record events that might not otherwise be observed. A listening device permits a police agent to intercept and overhear a private communication. New techniques for the detection of heat behind walls make it possible for police to determine whether grow lamps are in use inside a home, possibly indicating the presence of marijuana. Techniques for amplification invariably also capture information even beyond that the may be justified by the initial inquiry. A paparazzi's lens turned on a celebrity may capture a private or personal moment. A listening device installed by a police officer to monitor the activities of criminals may also record the conversations of innocents. The device to detect heat behind walls may detect two people making love upstairs as well as the marijuana grow lamps located downstairs.

There is considerable debate about whether it is appropriate to regulate techniques of amplification. While it is true that some of these methods intrude into private life, it is also clearly the case that such technologies have beneficial applications. Regulating the technique rather than the activity inevitably raises the danger of criminalizing behavior that might otherwise be considered permissible. Thus one of the first lessons of legislating to protect privacy is the need to focus on the underlying activity and not the technology itself.

Routinization is the process of making intrusion into private life an ongoing process. Here technology is used to establish a pattern or practice of surveillance. Again it is possible to conceive of both appropriate and inappropriate forms of routinized surveillance. A camera turned of a bank cashier's desk is probably an appropriate use of surveillance technology as it provides protection to both the bank and the customer in the case of a robbery or simple dispute. However, a camera placed in the changing room of a department store would be more problematic. While it could be argued that the purpose of the camera is to deter shoplifting and lessen the unnecessary costs to the merchants, customers are likely to find a camera in a changing room is simply too intrusive.

Techniques for routinization are increasingly joined with methods for recording so that a camera trained on a street corner now routinely records all activities that are viewed and a phone line for a service representative routinely records all conversations with customers. We are still in the early stages of incorporating new techniques in the realm of routinized surveillance, but it should be anticipated that the next stage in these systems will be the adoption of methods for processing information so that it would be possible for the camera in a airport to view the facial profiles of passengers in a terminal, compare these images with a massive database of facial profiles, and determine in virtually real-time the actual identity of individuals in the terminal.

Sublimation is the means by which a technique for privacy invasion becomes increasingly difficult to detect. Hidden cameras, listening devices and similar data gathering techniques are particularly problematic because there is little opportunity for the data subject to escape detection and frequently little opportunity in the political realm to challenge the desirability of such techniques. Illegal wire surveillance by law enforcement agencies is a long-standing privacy concern in part because it is so difficult to detect, to assess, and to challenge. One legislative approach that has been adopted to address this problem while technology is not required for an invasion of privacy, the ability of techniques to amplify, routinize and sublimate surveillance has traditionally raised some of the greatest privacy concerns.

Whether the Internet will provide greater privacy or less

It remains an open question at this point whether the Internet will see a significant increase or decrease in privacy. There is certainly a strong case that the Internet will usher a new era of massive, routinized surveillance. It is possible with the current protocols for Internet communication to record virtually every activity of an Internet user, the information he receives, the people he communicates with, his preferences and his predilections. Such extensive data collection is far more intrusive than was possible in the previous era of broadcast communication or in typical commercial relations. In the broadcast era, recipients of information were largely anonymous. In typical commercial relations, information is typically obtained only once a purchase occurs.

There are also strong commercial incentives on the Internet to reduce privacy. Many of the current business models are based on concept of "personalization" and "one-to-one marketing" that require far more knowledge about individual preferences and buying habits than was previously available in a mass market commercial environment. Many web sites today offer to "personalize" their display for users or ask extensive questions about a users interest before any commercial relationship has been established. The technical methods of Internet come together with the personalization marketing goals in the implementation of such protocols as "cookies," which allow the tracking of users across various web sites and the targeting of commercial advertising. Elaborate "ad servers" crate customized advertising on a web site for a particular user based on what is known about the user from other web sites he or she has visited. These techniques threaten to make real that what is viewed on a computer screen in one's home could be known to almost anyone around the world.

Still, it can not be ignored that the Internet provides a platform for new forms of communication and interaction that can literally builds in privacy safeguards. The use of encryption techniques in browser software, for example, permits the transfer of credit card numbers and other personally identifiable information in a secure manner. Anonymous payment techniques would allow commerce without the disclosure of personally identifiable information. Anonymous remailers make possible the sending of messages without requiring the disclosure of the sender's identity.

Whether these new techniques for privacy will get the upper hand in the on-line world remains to be seen. There are government objections to these techniques as well as strong commercial incentives to minimize anonymous activity. But for the first time it is possible to conceive of a technological environment that properly designed could provide new levels of privacy protection.

Whether legal safeguards will survive globalization

One of the great challenges to privacy protection is only partially technical in nature. The growth of the Internet has coincided with the increased globalization of world trade, the rise of the European Union, the diminished ability of central banks to control currency markets, and even the question of whether individual nation states can effectively exercise their sovereign authority.

In this environment, it has become a commonplace to simply assert that national governments will be unable to exercise any legal control over the Internet and also that current law is unlikely to have much of an impact in this digital world. But this view is wrong in at least two respects. First, governments do in fact exercise a great deal of control regardless of what the "cyber-intelligentsia" claim. Internet disputes are resolved in real courts and computer criminals are thrown in real jails. Second, as the Internet has become more commercial and more mainstream, the reliance on traditional legal institutions has increased

not diminished. There are no formal methods for adjudication in cyberspace and thus governments and private parties have turned naturally to traditional means for dispute resolution and the prosecution of harmful acts.

Third, and perhaps most significantly, governments have found that where there are interests that should be protected, collective action can be taken at the supra-national level to protect these interests. Thus, for example, national governments particularly the United States, have moved aggressively to establish international agreement to protect copyright in the digital environment. The World Intellectual Property Organization, the World Trade Organization, the Berne Convention all reflect the ability of national governments to act collectively to protect interests that may be impaired by the emergence of digital networks or the increase in global trade.

In many respects, privacy protection anticipates the problem of protection across national borders. Indeed, the OECD Privacy Guidelines were a direct response to questions about privacy and transborder dataflows. Further, the Data Directive of the European Union is a clear attempt to harmonize protection across national borders. While it is not clear if national legal norms will survive this process of globalization, it is clear that a good foundation has already been put in place.

Whether law is a sufficient instrument to protect privacy

For much of the history of privacy law, the relationship between law and technology was understood as a simple equation: technology creates the risk to privacy, it is the role of law to protect privacy against this incursion of technology. Thus privacy law has been established to control the use of personal information collected by means of computerized databases, private conversations overhead through telephone networks.

Although it has sometimes been said that technology outpaces the law, raising the question of whether law can operate effectively in a technological environment, it should be noted that legal standards based on fair information practices, rather than the regulation of particular technique, have actually withstood the test of time fairly well. Thus the US Privacy Act of 1974 is still operational a quarter of a century later and the OECD Guidelines of 1980 continue to exert enormous influence on the shaping of privacy practices almost two decades after their adoption. Thus the current discussion regarding concerning the OECD Guidelines is not about *updating* or *revising* the principles, but rather *applying* the principles in the new information environment.

Still, given the opportunity that the Internet provides for new technical solutions for privacy protections, it is worth considering how such methods might be developed and adopted.

Whether new technology can protect privacy

The limitations of law have renewed the focus on technical methods to protect privacy. But it remains unclear whether technology to provide a comprehensive solution. It is necessary in the first instance to distinguish between genuine technical means to protect privacy and those technical means that in fact promote collection of personally identifiable information. Privacy Enhancing Technologies (PET) are generally understood as those that limit or eliminate the collection of personally identifiable information. Such methods include techniques for anonymous and pseudo-anonymous payment, communication, and web access. By limiting the collection of personal information, these approaches enable transactions avoid the creation of personal information. By analogy to the environmental context, this would be much like the design of an engine that generated no pollutants

Privacy *Extracting* Techniques (~PET) typically create a technological framework that facilitates the disclosure of personal information, often without any assurance of protection or legal safeguards. These techniques which are often confused with true PETs are put forward by commercial firms and others as a "technical solution" to privacy when in fact they are designed to make it easier to obtain personal data.

Whether new technology can protect privacy will thus depend on several factors, including the progress in the development of these techniques, their acceptance by consumers and others, and the ability to discern actual methods for privacy protection from those that are likely to further erode privacy protection.

What We Are Asked to Consider

A variety of arguments are put forward about how to address these new privacy challenges. Here I summarize the main characteristics of these claims.

Private sector

The private sector argues that market systems and new technology provide new opportunities to protect privacy that do not require regulation or the rule of law. They believe that it is possible to use contract-based interactions to negotiate privacy preferences. These preferences, they believe, will vary from individual to individual and circumstance to circumstance.

Techniques to implement this approach include P3P, the Platform for Privacy Preferences. P3P is a technical standard that allows a web client or user to articulate a privacy preference and a web server to specify the level of privacy that will be respected. When a client contact a servers a negotiation takes place between the two rule sets. If the clients privacy preferences will be accommodates by the server, then the session will begin. If the client's privacy preferences will not be accommodated by the server, then the client can decide whether to continue.

A related approach is trust labels, which provide a visible image on a web page that is linked to a privacy policy. There is no assurance with the seal that any particular privacy policy will be implemented, but the seal does provide a readily identifiable link to a company's privacy policy. An example of this program is Truste. There is also an effort underway among the Better Business Bureau in the USA, the European Commission, and the Japanese government to develop new privacy labels for the Internet.

There are many problems with the so-called "self-regulatory" approach to privacy protection. Fundamentally the initiatives eliminate any baseline requirement for privacy protection and eviscerate currently establish privacy rights and norms. One of the consequences of the contract approach is to exclude from certain activities individuals who express high or even moderate privacy preferences. Thus the problem of discrimination against those who wish to exercise a privacy right emerges. Privacy laws, which generally recognize a principle of fair or lawful obtaining of personal information, would generally not permit such an open-ended negotiation.

There is also the interesting question of whether negotiating privacy relations is actually efficient as the economic argument presumes. Consider the application of a negotiated privacy protection to the current regime of telephone communication. Such an approach would require individuals to consider at the time of each call how much privacy they desire and then determine whether the recipient of the communication, or for that matter, the communication carrier, will respect the individual's privacy preference. On first pass, a call to a doctor may require a high privacy preference. A conversation with a friend may require a moderate privacy, while a call to a merchant may be only a low privacy need. What if the call to the doctor is only to confirm the time of a previously schedule appointment, while the call to a merchant is to purchase a surprised gift for a family member.

Such a negotiation over privacy preferences in routine telephone communications would certainly introduce new transaction costs. Moreover, it would tend to squeeze out the high level of protection that all telephone users currently enjoy for telephone calls of all purposes.

Serious doubts remain about the Private Sector claim that privacy can be adequately protected by self-regulatory means. Moreover, the self-regulatory approach is likely to result in a substantial reduction in the protection of privacy.

Government

The government often emphasizes the benefits of new technology to protect public safety and to promote efficient administration. One of the most problematic recent debates concerns the use of CCTV. The government argument is that these cameras placed on street corners reduce the incidence of crime by subjecting individuals to ongoing surveillance.

Governments have also proposed means of national identity to promote the efficient administration of services

In the development of these new means for monitoring the activity of citizens, government might acknowledge a privacy concern but are unlikely to allow a privacy to substantially change or preempt the development of such systems. Privacy is sometimes accommodated so as to legitimate a new system for social surveillance.

Citizen Groups

Citizen groups argue that our primary concern should be to extend fundamental legal norms to the new digital world.

The Global Internet Liberty Campaign, a coalition of more than 50 NGOs in 20 countries, took action on the question of the citizens' right to use cryptography and other technical methods to protect personal privacy when the subject was under consideration by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development in 1996.

The matter of government efforts to regulate the use of encryption was already a controversial matter, particularly among users of the Internet. A noted cryptographer Phil Zimmerman faced prosecution in the United States for the alleged distribution of cryptographic techniques that were then considered by US export regulation to be a munition requiring license. Internet organizations had organized campaigns against the prosecution of Zimmerman and the restrictions on the use of encryption. These campaigns invariably emphasized the excesses of government control in this area.

But it was the GILC that first clearly articulated the basis for this claim as a matter of international legal norms. The organization issued a Resolution in Support of the Freedom to Use Cryptography in Paris that stated at the outset that "the use of cryptography implicates human rights and matters of personal liberty that affect individuals around the world," and further that "the privacy of communication is explicitly protected by Article 12 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 17 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and national law."

On the basis of these norms, the GILC urged the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development base its cryptography policies "on the fundamental right of citizens to engage in private communication

The Cryptography Guidelines of the OECD included a principle on Protection of Privacy and Personal Data that stated "The fundamental rights of individual to privacy, including secrecy of communications and protection of personal data, should be respected in national cryptography policies and the implementation and use of cryptographic methods."

What Should Guide Our Actions

Faced with these new challenges to privacy, and these competing views of how best to protect privacy, how should we proceed? If we were primarily concerned with the economic benefits of our actions, we might ask which course would provide the most short-term commercial gain. But as our focus is principles of human rights and the realization of the citizen in the Information Society as full participant with meaningful claims in the political world, we should take a different approach.

First, we should accept the premise that law has a fundamental role in the protection of human rights and democratic institutions. While is an imperfect instrument, it also establishes the principle that all people in all countries of the world, regardless of wealth or social status, are entitled to certain essential freedoms and one of these freedoms is the protection of private life. Law not only imbues citizens with the rights that are necessary for self-governance it also provides the legitimacy that allow others to rely on a legal system for redress.

Second, we should not adopt a view of technology that it is autonomous or stands apart from the actions of specific individuals or institutions. As Thomas Edison said, "What man creates with his hand, he should control with his head." We should call for accountability for those who develop systems of surveillance while at the same exercising our own responsibility to engage the political process to seek technical methods that advance the aims of privacy protection.

In the end, we must side with the interests of the citizen. Neither governments nor corporations are in much need of political assistance these days. Both can take care of their interests with great efficiency. But citizens and citizen organization must continue to engage the political process if the rights of the individual are to be preserved in the online world.

What We Should Do

We have learned in recent years that privacy is more than a subject for debate among academics. It is a matter of personal concern that has often resulted in direct political action. Citizens in Australia have taken to the streets to protest a national identity card. In Germany, the population objected to a national census. In the United States, users of the Internet expressed their opposition to efforts by the government to limit the availability of strong techniques to protect personal privacy. Currently, the members of the Global Internet Liberty Campaign are organizing in more than thirty countries to end the treatment of encryption as a munition so that it could be more widely available to protect the privacy of citizens. The protection of privacy is increasingly a call for political action.

Reaffirm support for fundamental legal instruments

There is a tendency in all discussions of cyberspace to imagine that our society has gone directly from the era of the horse-drawn cart to the age of space exploration with hardly a step in between. But of course, the history of communications technology is filled with many stages at which time issues such as technological change, internationalization, the role of law and technical standards are considered

The protection of privacy is one of the issues that has been previously considered in the development of new technology, and it would be wise to recognize and understand the previous efforts to address this issue.

Article 12 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the OECD Guidelines, the UN Convention, and other similar documents are all still relevant to the current effort to preserve privacy in the information society. Indeed, these documents may provide the best, most well informed consideration to date of how best to protect this fundamental human right in light of technological change.

Thus the starting point for an international effort to protect privacy in our new online world should be to reaffirm support for international instruments on privacy protection.

Assert the applicability of legal norms across national borders

A second effort to be to assert the applicability of legal norms across national borders. Although it may be fashionable to speak about the Internet as a "regulation-free zone," in fact there is plenty of regulation for the Internet, except not enough to protect the privacy of its inhabitants. Users of the Internet have at least as much right to claim a legal right to protect their personality as authors and holders of copyright have to claim a legal right in their artistic works. The creation of the borderless cyberspace has not slowed the call for the adoption of new laws to protect digital works; it should not slow the effort to adopt new safeguards for the digital persona.

The protection of privacy across national borders benefits in particular from the establishment of international legal norms, such as Article 12 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as well as previous efforts to promote the transborder flow of information while respecting the privacy of the individual as was the aim of the OECD Guidelines of 1980.

It would be a grave mistake for UNESCO and the human rights community generally to turn its back on these well established legal norms and leave the protection of privacy to the cold logic of the marketplace and the technical methods that are intended to promote the disclosure of greater amounts of personal data.

Promote the development of technology to protect privacy

While we should not lessen our efforts to ensure the effective application of privacy rights across national borders, we should also not ignore the possibility that technology may provide some solutions to the protection of privacy. But here we should be careful to distinguish between means that in fact protect privacy and those that merely appear to.

In the first instance, the best form of privacy protection by technological means is that which ensures anonymous transactions. Anonymity is the ideal privacy technology because it avoids the creation and

collection of personally identifiable information. Anonymity exists by custom and practice in many contexts today. Travel, communication, commerce, as well as the receipt of information typically occur with a high degree of anonymity, at least to the extent to the actual identify is rarely known for the person on the sidewalk, the fellow at the payphone, the woman who purchases lunch, the reader of a magazine or the viewer of a television program.

Techniques for anonymity should be robust, trust-worthy, and simple to implement in routine commercial transactions. All reasonable efforts should be made to promote the development and adoption of techniques for anonymity and related approaches for the protection of actual identity.

This defense of anonymity is not intended to promote the life of the hermit or to discourage social relations. Quite the opposite. A strong right of anonymity gives individuals the opportunity to freely choose with whom to share aspects of personality and to form bonds of trust. Anonymity is not a description of a static state. It is a rather the starting point for a dynamic, evolving series of social relations that derive their authenticity and value from the opportunity for each individual to choose his or her friends, colleagues, neighbors and lovers.

In the second instance, the next best form of privacy protection by technological means is that which ensures the application and enforcement of Fair Information Practices. For example, techniques that allow individuals to limit the use of data, to gain access to their own data, and to make corrections where appropriate should be encouraged as they seek to establish by technical means those rights and responsibilities that would otherwise be accomplished in law.

The least desirable means to protect privacy by technology are those proposals that encourage individuals to enter into negotiation with the purpose of obtaining consent for the collection and use of personal data. Such techniques have no independent privacy component and simply offer a framework for market-based transaction over privacy claims. Such techniques may be appropriate for the purchase of soap or shoes but they are hardly compatible with the protection of fundamental human rights that are well established in law.

Encourage citizen participation in decision-making

Finally, it important to emphasize the procedural consideration that should guide the development of all law and policy concerning the development of the Information Society and that is the active and meaningful participation of citizens in the decision-making process. Such interests are invariably underrepresented in decisions taken by national and international governing borders.

No group has a greater stake in the protection of privacy than the new inhabitants of cyberspace. Let us enjoy the benefits of the future while preserving the freedoms of our past. That is the promise and the challenge of the Information Society.

MASS PERSUASION AND PROPAGANDA

Propaganda

Message conveyed in order to support and spread a particular opinion or point of view, engaging the emotions of the audience. In another manner it could be said as the planned dissemination of news, information, special arguments, and appeals designed to influence the beliefs, thoughts, and actions of a specific group."

The term propaganda carries many definitions. Harold Lasswell, a pioneer of propaganda studies, defines it as "the management of collective attitudes by the manipulation of significant symbols." Like other social scientists, he emphasizes its psychological elements: propaganda was a subconscious manipulation of psychological symbols to accomplish secret objectives. Subsequent analysts stressed that propaganda was a planned and deliberate act of opinion management.

History

The term comes from Congregatio de Propaganda Fide (Congregation for the Propagation of the Faith), a missionary organization established by the Pope in 1622. Propagandists emphasize the elements of information that support their position and de-emphasize or exclude those that do not. Misleading statements and even lies may be used to create the desired effect in the public audience. Lobbying,

advertising, and missionary activity are all forms of propaganda, but the term is most commonly used in the political arena.

Prior to the 20th century, pictures and the written media were the principal instruments of propaganda; radio, television, motion pictures, and the internet later joined their ranks.

Interestingly, authoritarian and totalitarian regimes use propaganda to win and keep the support of the populace. In wartime, propaganda directed by a country at its own civilian population and military forces can boost morale; propaganda aimed at the enemy is an element of psychological warfare.

Types of Propaganda

Modern practitioners of propaganda utilize various schemes to classify different types of propaganda activities. One such categorization classifies propaganda as:

- White Propaganda
- Grey Propaganda
- Black Propaganda

White propaganda is correctly attributed to the sponsor and the source is truthfully identified. (The government, Voice of America, for example, broadcasts white propaganda.)

Grey propaganda, on the other hand, is un-attributed to the sponsor and conceals the real source of the propaganda. The objective of grey propaganda is to advance viewpoints that are in the interest of the originator but that would be more acceptable to target audiences than official statements. The reasoning is that propaganda materials from an identified propaganda agency might convince few, but the same ideas presented by seemingly neutral outlets would be more persuasive.

Un-attributed publications, such as articles in newspapers written by a disguised source, are part of grey propaganda. Other tactics involve wide dissemination of ideas put forth by others—by foreign governments, by national and international media outlets, or by private groups, individuals, and institutions. Grey propaganda also includes material assistance provided to groups that put forth views deemed useful to the propagandist. This type is very common in news world. E.g. some people have expressed disliking on or, people have appreciated government move to ban opposition rallies on the roads etc.

Black propaganda also masks the sponsor's participation. But while grey propaganda is un-attributed, black propaganda is *falsely attributed*. Black propaganda is subversive and provocative; it is usually designed to appear to have originated from a hostile source, in order to cause that source embarrassment, to damage its prestige, to undermine its credibility, or to get it to take actions that it might not otherwise. Black propaganda is usually prepared by secret agents or an intelligence service because it would be damaging to the originating government if it were discovered. It routinely employs underground newspapers, forged documents, planted gossip or rumors, jokes, slogans, and visual symbols. For instance, a newspaper publishes a letter by a prominent politician to another asking for certain action. The letter may serve purpose of some interested group. The fact is that there has been no such letter ever existed. But damage has been done especially if it is done during election days.

Types in another manner

Another categorization distinguishes between "fast" and "slow" propaganda operations, based on the type of media employed and the immediacy of the effect desired. Fast media are designed to exert a short-term impact on public opinion, while the use of slow media cultivates public opinion over the long period. Fast media typically include radio, newspapers, speeches, television, moving pictures, and e-mail and internet. These forms of communication are able to exert an almost instantaneous effect on selected audiences.

Books, cultural exhibitions, and educational exchanges and activities, on the other hand are slow media that seek to inculcate ideas and attitudes over time.

Revolution, War, and Propaganda to 1917

Propaganda has a long history. War propaganda is as ancient as war itself. Anthropologists have unearthed evidence that primitive peoples used pictures and symbols to impress others with their hunting and fighting capabilities. The Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires employed storytelling, poems, religious symbols, monuments, speeches, documents, and other means of communication to mobilize

their armed forces or demoralize those of their enemies. As early as the fifth century B.C., the Chinese military philosopher Sun Tzu advocated various techniques to maintain fighting morale and to destroy the enemy's will to fight. The nineteenth-century German military strategist Carl von Clausewitz identified psychological forces as decisive elements of modern war.

Thus, propaganda is not, as it is sometimes believed, a twentieth-century phenomenon born of the electronic communications revolution. Although the concept is often associated with dictatorship, political propaganda has been an essential ingredient of the democratic process, as politicians and political parties have employed a range of communication techniques to win public support for their ideas and policies.

Advertising & public relations used as propaganda

Similarly, countless private groups—from early antislavery societies to modern political action committees—have turned to propaganda techniques to push their agendas. Advertising and public relations, fields that came into fruition during the early twentieth century, have made commercial propaganda a permanent feature of the cultural landscape.

Propaganda in revolutions

Propaganda and agitation were essential components of the American Revolution. Prior to the outbreak of hostilities, propaganda played a pivotal role in creating the intellectual and psychological climate of the revolution itself.

Philip Davidson, in his history of the propaganda of the American Revolution, documented a remarkably sophisticated grasp of propaganda techniques among the leading organizers of the Revolution. The evidence of a conscious, systematic effort by colonial leaders to gain public support for their ideas is unmistakable. George Washington advocated the release of information "in a manner calculated to attract the attention and impress the minds of the people." Thomas Paine was the Revolution's most famous (and radical) propagandist. He wrote numerous pamphlets articulating with rhetorical to flourish the ideological justification for the Revolution.

Several revolutionaries employed the tactics that would later be known as grey propaganda. They wrote articles, letters, and pamphlets under pseudonyms to disguise their identities and to create the impression that opposition to British policies was much greater than it was. Samuel Adams, for example, wrote under twenty-five different pseudonyms in numerous publications. Benjamin Franklin articulated a shrewd understanding of the techniques of propaganda, including the use of grey and black materials. He remarked, "The facility with which the same truths may be repeatedly enforced by placing them daily in different lights in newspapers...gives a great chance of establishing them. And we now find that it is not only right to strike while the iron is hot but that it may be very practicable to heat it by continually striking."

In 1777 he distributed a phony letter, purportedly written by a German commander of Hessian mercenaries, indicating that the British government advised him to let wounded soldiers die. The letter caused a sensation in France and also induced numerous desertions by the Hessian mercenaries. Franklin also forged an entire issue of the Boston Independent, which contained a fabricated account of British scalp hunting. The story touched off a public uproar in Britain and was used by opposition politicians to attack the conduct of the war. The historian Oliver Thomson described these efforts as "one of the most thorough campaigns of diplomatic isolation by propaganda ever mounted."

World Wars - 1914–1945

Notwithstanding this early experience with propaganda, it was primarily the age of total war that inducted Governments in to the business of propaganda. During World War I, national governments employed propaganda on an unprecedented scale. The arrival of the modern mass media together with the requirements of total war made propaganda an indispensable element of wartime mobilization. All of the major belligerents turned to propaganda to woo neutrals, demoralize enemies, boost the morale of their troops, and mobilize the support of civilians.

One of the most vital of all World War I propaganda battles was the struggle between Germany and Britain for the sympathy of the American people. The German government organized a program of

propaganda in the United States that was so heavy-handed it did more to alienate American public opinion than to win it. The British government, on the other hand, conducted most of its propaganda in the United States covertly, through a secret propaganda bureau directed by the Foreign Office. The British adopted a low-key approach that selectively released news and information to win American sympathies. The publication of the Zimmerman telegram in 1917 (in which Germany sought to enlist Mexico in a war with the United States) was undoubtedly the most important propaganda achievement of the British, and it helped to bring the Americans into the war on the Allied side.

A week after declaring war, President Woodrow Wilson established the first official propaganda agency of the U.S. government to manage public opinion at home and abroad—the Committee on Public Information. Headed by the muckraking journalist George Creel, the committee was responsible for censorship, propaganda, and general information about the war effort. The Creel committee focused on mobilizing support on the home front, but it also conducted an extensive campaign of propaganda abroad, overseeing operations in more than thirty overseas countries.

The committee bombarded foreign media outlets with news, official statements, and features on the war effort and on American life, using leaflets, motion pictures, photographs, cartoons, posters, and signboards to promote its messages. The committee established reading rooms abroad, brought foreign journalists to the United States, crafted special appeals for teachers and labor groups, and sponsored lectures and seminars.

Democratic governments & Propaganda

A series of investigations in the 1920s exposed the nature and scope of Britain's propaganda campaign in the United States, including revelations that the British had fabricated numerous stories about German atrocities. Many Americans came to blame British propaganda for bringing the United States into a wasteful and ruinous war, and the practice of propaganda became associated with deceit and trickery. It was thus in the aftermath of World War I that propaganda acquired its negative connotations—a development that stemmed from the employment of propaganda by a democracy, not, as is generally supposed, from that of a dictatorship.

These propaganda campaigns affected the United States in other ways as well. The belief that Americans had been tricked into participating in the First World War delayed U.S. intervention in the second. Moreover, news of Nazi atrocities connected to the Holocaust were greeted incredulously by the American public in part because of the exaggerated and fabricated atrocity propaganda released by the British two decades earlier.

The development of radio revolutionized the practice of propaganda by making it possible to reach audiences of unprecedented size instantaneously. A short-wave propaganda battle began in the mid-1920s as the Soviet Union, Germany, Japan, and Britain developed international broadcasting capabilities.

In the early part of 1941, as war appeared imminent, Roosevelt created several additional agencies to disseminate propaganda at home and abroad. In 1942 these various information programs were combined into the Office of War Information (OWI) under the direction of the well-known journalist and broadcaster Elmer Davis. Roosevelt also established the Office of Strategic Services (OSS), the forerunner of the Central Intelligence Agency, and authorized it to engage in black and gray propaganda abroad, mostly in connection with military operations.

Psychological warfare – a new name for propaganda

In December 1942, General Dwight D. Eisenhower created a separate psychological warfare branch of the army to participate in the Allied invasion of North Africa. In 1944 he created an even larger organization, the Psychological Warfare Division of the Supreme Headquarters, Allied Expeditionary Force, to prepare propaganda for the D-Day invasion. Psychological warfare was especially important in the Pacific theater, where U.S. propaganda sought to convince Japanese soldiers—who had been taught by their army that to surrender meant relinquishing their place as members of Japanese society—to cease resistance.

Cold War

In 1950, Truman called for an intensified program of propaganda known as the Campaign of Truth. In a speech delivered to the American Society of Newspaper Editors, Truman articulated the perennial domestic justification for official U.S. propaganda: in order to combat enemy lies, the U.S. needed to promote the truth. Under the Campaign of Truth cartoons depicting bloodthirsty communists, vituperative anticommunist polemics, and sensational commentary was made at a massive scale.

In April 1951, Truman created the Psychological Strategy Board to coordinate the American psychological warfare effort. The board acted as a coordinating body for all nonmilitary Cold War activities, including covert operations. It supervised programs for aggressive clandestine warfare and propaganda measures against the Soviet bloc and it developed "psychological strategy" plans for dozens of countries in Western Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. By the time Truman left office, the U.S. government had established a far-reaching apparatus for influencing public opinion in both friendly and hostile countries.

The CIA also conducted clandestine propaganda operations in allied and neutral areas. The agency subsidized noncommunist labor unions, journalists, political parties, politicians, and student groups. In Western Europe the CIA conducted a secret program of cultural and ideological propaganda through the Congress for Cultural Freedom, a purportedly private, but CIA-funded, organization that supported the work of anticommunist liberals. Through the Congress for Cultural Freedom, the agency published more than twenty prestigious magazines, held art exhibitions, operated a news and feature service, organized high-profile international conferences, published numerous books, and sponsored public performances by musicians and artists.

During the Korean War, sensationalized charges that the United States had been waging bacteriological warfare, accounts of Soviet brainwashing techniques, and communist-inspired "peace" campaigns, focused American attention on psychological warfare as a mysterious Cold War weapon.

During the 1952 presidential campaign, Eisenhower repeatedly called for an expansive and coordinated psychological warfare effort on a national scale. In San Francisco he delivered a major speech on the subject, arguing that every significant act of government should reflect psychological warfare calculations. He emphasized that the Cold War was a struggle of ideas and argued that the United States must develop every psychological weapon available to win the hearts and minds of the world's peoples.

Propaganda, Diplomacy, and International Public Opinion

The Cold War inaugurated a paradigm shift in the practice of diplomacy that reflected changes in the nature of diplomatic activity worldwide. Through propaganda, policy initiatives, and covert action, agents of the governments acted directly to influence the ideas, values, beliefs, opinions, actions, politics, and culture of other countries. Foreign affairs personnel not only observed and reported, they also participated in events or tried to influence the way that they happened. The old maxim that one government does not interfere in the internal affairs of another had been swept aside.

The pattern of international relations was further transformed by the electronic communications revolution and the emergence of popular opinion as a significant force in foreign affairs. Foreign policy could no longer be pursued as it had during the nineteenth century, when diplomacy was the exclusive area of diplomats. Developments in mass communication and the increased attentiveness to domestic audiences abroad to foreign affairs meant that the target of diplomacy had now widened to include popular opinion as much, if not more so, than traditional diplomatic activities.

PROPAGANDA THEORIES & POPULAR CULTURE

Propaganda [from modern Latin: 'propagare', "extending forth"] is a concerted set of messages aimed at influencing the opinions or behavior of large numbers of people. Instead of impartially providing information, propaganda in its most basic sense presents information in order to influence its audience. The most effective propaganda is often completely truthful, but some propaganda presents facts selectively to encourage a particular synthesis, or gives loaded messages in order to produce an emotional rather than rational response to the information presented. The desired result is a change of the cognitive narrative of the subject in the target audience.

Propaganda is the deliberate, systematic attempt to shape perceptions, manipulate cognitions, and direct behavior to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist. – *Garth S. Jowett and Victoria O'Donnell, Propaganda And Persuasion.*

History

The term originates with the saying *Sacred Congregation for the spreading of the Faith (sacra congregatio christiano nomini propagando* or *Congregatio de Propaganda Fide)*, which was founded by Pope Gregory XV in 1622, shortly after the start of the Thirty Years' War. This department of the pontifical administration was charged with the spread of Catholicism and with the regulation of ecclesiastical affairs in mission territory.

The Latin stem *propagationem*- (from pro- "forth" + *pag-, root of pangere "to fasten"), conveys a sense of "that which ought to be spread" and does not refer to misleading information. The modern sense dates from World War I, when the term evolved to be mainly associated with politics.

Types

Propaganda shares techniques with advertising and public relations. Advertising and public relations can be thought of as propaganda that promotes a commercial product or shapes the perception of an organization, person or brand, though in post-World War II usage the word "propaganda" more typically refers to political or nationalist uses of these techniques or to the promotion of a set of ideas, since the term had gained a pejorative meaning, which commercial and government entities couldn't accept. The refusal phenomenon was eventually to be seen in politics itself by the substitution of 'political marketing' and other designations for 'political propaganda'.

Propaganda was often used to influence opinions and beliefs on religious issues, particularly during the split between the Catholic Church and the Protestants. Propaganda has become more common in political contexts, in particular to refer to certain efforts sponsored by governments, political groups, but also often covert interests. In the early 20th century the term propaganda was also used by the founders of the nascent public relations industry to describe their activities. This usage died out around the time of World War II, as the industry started to avoid the word, given the pejorative connotation it had acquired.

Literally translated from the Latin gerundive as "things which must be disseminated", in some cultures the term is neutral or even positive, while in others the term has acquired a strong negative connotation. The connotations of the term "propaganda" can also vary over time. For example, in Portuguese and some Spanish language speaking countries, particularly in the Southern Cone, the word "propaganda" usually refers to the most common manipulative media — "advertising".

In English, "propaganda" was originally a neutral term used to describe the dissemination of information in favor of any given cause. During the 20th century, however, the term acquired a thoroughly negative meaning in western countries, representing the intentional dissemination of often false, but certainly "compelling" claims to support or justify political actions or ideologies. This redefinition arose because both the Soviet Union and Germany's government under Hitler admitted explicitly to using propaganda favoring, respectively, communism and fascism, in all forms of public expression. As these ideologies were antipathetic to liberal western societies, the negative feelings toward them came to be projected into the word "propaganda" itself.

"Propaganda is neutrally defined as a systematic form of purposeful persuasion that attempts to influence the emotions, attitudes, opinions, and actions of specified target audiences for ideological, political or commercial purposes through the controlled transmission of one-sided messages (which may or may not be factual) via mass and direct media channels. A propaganda organization employs propagandists who engage in propagandism—the applied creation and distribution of such forms of persuasion."

Richard Alan Nelson, *A Chronology and Glossary of Propaganda in the United States*, 1996

Roderick Hindery argues that propaganda exists on the political left, and right, and in mainstream centrist parties. Hindery further argues that debates about most social issues can be productively revisited in the context of asking "what is or is not propaganda?" Not to be overlooked is the link between propaganda, indoctrination, and terrorism/counterterrorism. She argues that threats to destroy are often as socially disruptive as physical devastation itself.

A series of American propaganda posters during World War II appealed to servicemen's patriotism to protect themselves from venereal disease. The text at the bottom of the poster reads, "You can't beat the Axis if you get VD".

Propaganda also has much in common with public information campaigns by governments, which are intended to encourage or discourage certain forms of behavior (such as wearing seat belts, not smoking, not littering and so forth). Again, the emphasis is more political in propaganda. Propaganda can take the form of leaflets, posters, TV and radio broadcasts and can also extend to any other medium. In the case of the United States, there is also an important legal (imposed by law) distinction between advertising (a type of overt propaganda) and what the Government Accountability Office (GAO), an arm of the United States Congress, refers to as "covert propaganda."

Journalistic theory generally holds that news items should be objective, giving the reader an accurate background and analysis of the subject at hand. On the other hand, advertisements evolved from the



traditional commercial advertisements to include also a new type in the form of paid articles or broadcasts disguised as news. These generally present an issue in a very subjective and often misleading light, primarily meant to persuade rather than inform. Normally they use only subtle propaganda techniques and not the more obvious ones used in traditional commercial advertisements. If the reader believes that a paid advertisement is in fact a news item, the message the advertiser is trying to communicate will be more easily "believed" or "internalized."

<= US Office for War Information, propaganda message: working less helps our enemies.

Such advertisements are considered obvious examples of "covert" propaganda because they take on the appearance of objective information rather than the appearance of propaganda, which is misleading. Federal law specifically mandates that any advertisement appearing in the format of a news item must state that the item is in fact a paid advertisement.

The Bush Administration has been criticized for allegedly producing and disseminating covert propaganda in the form of television programs, aired in the United States, which appeared to be legitimate news broadcasts and did not include any information signifying that the programs were not generated by a private-sector news source.

Propaganda, in a narrower use of the term, connotes deliberately false or misleading information that supports or furthers a political (but not only) cause or the interests of those with power. The propagandist seeks to change the way people understand an issue or situation for the purpose of changing their actions and expectations in ways that are desirable to the interest group. Propaganda, in this sense, serves as a corollary to censorship in which the same purpose is achieved, not by filling people's minds with approved information, but by preventing people from being confronted with opposing points of view.

What sets propaganda apart from other forms of advocacy is the willingness of the propagandist to change people's understanding through deception and confusion rather than persuasion and understanding. The leaders of an organization know the information to be one sided or untrue, but this may not be true for the rank and file members who help to disseminate the propaganda.

More in line with the religious roots of the term, it is also used widely in the debates about new religious movements (NRMs), both by people who defend them and by people who oppose them. The latter pejoratively call these NRMs cults. Anti-cult activists and countercult activists accuse the leaders of what they consider cults of using propaganda extensively to recruit followers and keep them. Some social scientists, such as the late Jeffrey Hadden, and CESNUR affiliated scholars accuse ex-members of "cults" who became vocal critics and the anti-cult movement of making these unusual religious movements look bad without sufficient reasons.

Propaganda is a powerful weapon in war; it is used to dehumanize and create hatred toward a supposed enemy, either internal or external, by creating a false image in the mind. This can be done by using derogatory or racist terms, avoiding some words or by making allegations of enemy atrocities. Most propaganda wars require the home population to feel the enemy has inflicted an injustice, which may be fictitious or may be based on facts. The home population must also decide that the cause of their nation is just.



<= The much-imitated 1914 "Lord Kitchener Wants You!" poster

Propaganda is also one of the methods used in psychological warfare, which may also involve false flag operations. The term propaganda may also refer to false information meant to reinforce the mindsets of people who already believe as the propagandist wishes. The assumption is that, if people believe something false, they will constantly be assailed by doubts. Since these doubts are unpleasant (see cognitive dissonance), people will be eager to have them extinguished, and are therefore receptive to the reassurances of those in power. For this reason propaganda is often addressed to people who are already sympathetic to the agenda. This process of reinforcement uses an individual's predisposition to self-select "agreeable" information sources as a mechanism for maintaining control.

Propaganda can be classified according to the source and nature of the message. White propaganda generally comes from an openly identified source, and is characterized by gentler methods of persuasion, such as standard public relations techniques and one-sided presentation of an argument. Black propaganda is identified as being from one source, but is in fact from another. This is most commonly to disguise the true origins of the propaganda, be it from an enemy country or from an organization with a negative public image. Grey propaganda is propaganda without any identifiable source or author.



In scale, these different types of propaganda can also be defined by the potential of true and correct information to compete with the propaganda. For example, opposition to white propaganda is often readily found and may slightly discredit the propaganda source. Opposition to grey propaganda, when revealed (often by an inside source), may create some level of public outcry. Opposition to black propaganda is often unavailable and may be dangerous to reveal, because public cognizance of black propaganda tactics and sources would undermine or backfire the very campaign the black propagandist supported.

<= Britannia arm-in-arm with Uncle Sam symbolizes the British-American alliance in World War I.

Propaganda may be administered in insidious ways. For instance, disparaging disinformation about the history of certain groups or foreign countries may be encouraged or tolerated in the educational system. Since few people actually double-check what they learn at school, such

disinformation will be repeated by journalists as well as parents, thus reinforcing the idea that the disinformation item is really a "well-known fact", even though no one repeating the myth is able to point to an authoritative source. The disinformation is then recycled in the media and in the educational system, without the need for direct governmental intervention on the media. Such permeating propaganda may be used for political goals: by giving citizens a false impression of the quality or policies of their country, they may be incited to reject certain proposals or certain remarks or ignore the experience of others.

Techniques

Common media for transmitting propaganda messages include news reports, government reports, historical revision, junk science, books, leaflets, movies, radio, television, and posters. In the case of radio and television, propaganda can exist on news, current-affairs or talk-show segments, as advertising or public-service announce "spots" or as long-running advertorials. Propaganda campaigns often follow a strategic transmission pattern to indoctrinate the target group. This may begin with a simple transmission such as a leaflet dropped from a plane or an advertisement. Generally these messages will contain directions on how to obtain more information, via a web site, hot line, radio program, et cetera (as it is seen also for selling purposes among other goals). The strategy intends to initiate the individual from information recipient to information seeker through reinforcement, and then from information seeker to opinion leader through indoctrination.

A number of techniques which are based on social psychological research are used to generate propaganda. Many of these same techniques can be found under logical fallacies, since propagandists use arguments that, while sometimes convincing, are not necessarily valid.

Some time has been spent analyzing the means by which propaganda messages are transmitted. That work is important but it is clear that information dissemination strategies only become propaganda strategies when coupled with *propagandistic messages*. Identifying these messages is a necessary prerequisite to study the methods by which those messages are spread. Below are a number of techniques for generating propaganda:

- Ad Hominem: A Latin phrase which has come to mean attacking your opponent, as opposed to attacking their arguments.
- Appeal to authority: Appeals to authority cite prominent figures to support a position, idea, argument, or course of action.
- Appeal to fear: Appeals to fear seek to build support by instilling anxieties and panic in the general population, for example, Joseph Goebbels exploited Theodore Kaufman's *Germany Must Perish!* to claim that the Allies sought the extermination of the German people.
- Appeal to Prejudice: Using loaded or emotive terms to attach value or moral goodness to believing the proposition. For example, the phrase: "Any hard-working taxpayer would have to agree that those who do not work, and who do not support the community do not deserve the community's support through social assistance."
- Argumentum ad nauseam: This argument approach uses tireless repetition of an idea. An idea, especially a simple slogan, that is repeated enough times, may begin to be taken as the truth. This approach works best when media sources are limited and controlled by the propagator.
- Bandwagon: Bandwagon and "inevitable-victory" appeals attempt to persuade the target audience to join in and take the course of action that "everyone else is taking."
 - Inevitable victory: invites those not already on the bandwagon to join those already on the road to certain victory. Those already or at least partially on the bandwagon are reassured that staying aboard is their best course of action.
 - Join the crowd: This technique reinforces people's natural desire to be on the winning side. This technique is used to convince the audience that a program is an expression of an irresistible mass movement and that it is in their best interest to join.
- Black-and-White fallacy: Presenting only two choices, with the product or idea being propagated as the better choice. (e.g., "You are either with us, or you are with the enemy")
- Beautiful people: The type of propaganda that deals with famous people or depicts attractive, happy people. This makes other people think that if they buy a product or follow a certain

ideology; they too will be happy or successful. (This is more used in advertising for products, instead of political reasons)

- **Big Lie:** The repeated articulation of a complex of events that justify subsequent action. The descriptions of these events have elements of truth, and the "big lie" generalizations merge and eventually supplant the public's accurate perception of the underlying events. After World War I the German Stab in the back explanation of the cause of their defeat became a justification for Nazi re-militarization and revanchist aggression.
- **Common man:** The "*plain folks*" or "common man" approach attempts to convince the audience that the propagandist's positions reflect the common sense of the people. It is designed to win the confidence of the audience by communicating in the common manner and style of the target audience. Propagandists use ordinary language and mannerisms (and clothe their message in face-to-face and audiovisual communications) in attempting to identify their point of view with that of the average person. For example, a propaganda leaflet may make an argument on a macroeconomic issue, such as unemployment insurance benefits, using everyday terms: "given that the country has little money during this recession, we should stop paying unemployment benefits to those who do not work, because that is like maxing out all your credit cards during a tight period, when you should be tightening your belt."
- **Demonizing the enemy:** Making individuals from the opposing nation, from a different ethnic group, or those who support the opposing viewpoint appear to be subhuman (e.g., the Vietnam War-era term "gooks" for NLF soldiers), worthless, or immoral, through suggestion or false accusations.
- **Direct order:** This technique hopes to simplify the decision making process by using images and words to tell the audience exactly what actions to take, eliminating any other possible choices. Authority figures can be used to give the order, overlapping it with the Appeal to authority technique, but not necessarily. The Uncle Sam "I want you" image is an example of this technique.
- **Euphoria:** The use of an event that generates euphoria or happiness, or using an appealing event to boost morale. Euphoria can be created by declaring a holiday, making luxury items available, or mounting a military parade with marching bands and patriotic messages.
- **Disinformation:** The creation or deletion of information from public records, in the purpose of making a false record of an event or the actions of a person or organization, including outright forgery of photographs, motion pictures, broadcasts, and sound recordings as well as printed documents.
- **Flag-waving:** An attempt to justify an action on the grounds that doing so will make one more patriotic, or in some way benefit a group, country, or idea. The feeling of patriotism which this technique attempts to inspire may not necessarily diminish or entirely omit one's capability for rational examination of the matter in question.
- **Glittering generalities:** Glittering generalities are emotionally appealing words applied to a product or idea, but which present no concrete argument or analysis. A famous example is the campaign slogan "Ford has a better idea!"
- **Half-truth:** A half-truth is a deceptive statement which may come in several forms and includes some element of truth. The statement might be partly true, the statement may be totally true but only part of the whole truth, or it may utilize some deceptive element, such as improper punctuation, or double meaning, especially if the intent is to deceive, evade blame or misrepresent the truth.
- **Intentional vagueness:** Generalities are deliberately vague so that the audience may supply its own interpretations. The intention is to move the audience by use of undefined phrases, without analyzing their validity or attempting to determine their reasonableness or application. The intent is to cause people to draw their own interpretations rather than simply being presented with an explicit idea. In trying to "figure out" the propaganda, the audience foregoes judgment of the ideas presented. Their validity, reasonableness and application may still be considered.
- **Obtain disapproval or Reductio ad Hitlerum:** This technique is used to persuade a target audience to disapprove of an action or idea by suggesting that the idea is popular with groups hated, feared, or held in contempt by the target audience. Thus if a group which supports a certain policy is led

to believe that undesirable, subversive, or contemptible people support the same policy, then the members of the group may decide to change their original position. This is a form of Bad Logic, where a is said to equal X, and b is said to equal X, therefore, a = b.

- Oversimplification: Favorable generalities are used to provide simple answers to complex social, political, economic, or military problems.
- Quotes out of Context: Selective editing of quotes which can change meanings. Political documentaries designed to discredit an opponent or an opposing political viewpoint often make use of this technique.
- Rationalization: Individuals or groups may use favorable generalities to rationalize questionable acts or beliefs. Vague and pleasant phrases are often used to justify such actions or beliefs.
- Red herring/Chewbacca Defense: Presenting data or issues that, while compelling, are irrelevant to the argument at hand, and then claiming that it validates the argument.
- Repetition: This type of propaganda deals with a jingle or word that is repeated over and over again, thus getting it stuck in someones head, so they can buy the product. The "Repetition" method has been described previously.
- Scapegoating: Assigning blame to an individual or group, thus alleviating feelings of guilt from responsible parties and/or distracting attention from the need to fix the problem for which blame is being assigned.
- Slogans: A slogan is a brief, striking phrase that may include labeling and stereotyping. Although slogans may be enlisted to support reasoned ideas, in practice they tend to act only as emotional appeals. Opponents of the US's invasion and occupation of Iraq use the slogan "blood for oil" to suggest that the invasion and its human losses was done to access Iraq's oil riches. On the other hand, "hawks" who argue that the US should continue to fight in Iraq use the slogan "cut and run" to suggest that it would be cowardly or weak to withdraw from Iraq. Similarly, the names of the military campaigns, such as "enduring freedom" or "just cause", may also be regarded to be slogans, devised to influence people.
- Stereotyping or Name Calling or Labeling: This technique attempts to arouse prejudices in an audience by labeling the object of the propaganda campaign as something the target audience fears, hates, loathes, or finds undesirable. For instance, reporting on a foreign country or social group may focus on the stereotypical traits that the reader expects, even though they are far from being representative of the whole country or group; such reporting often focuses on the anecdotal.
- Testimonial: Testimonials are quotations, in or out of context, especially cited to support or reject a given policy, action, program, or personality. The reputation or the role (expert, respected public figure, etc.) of the individual giving the statement is exploited. The testimonial places the official sanction of a respected person or authority on a propaganda message. This is done in an effort to cause the target audience to identify itself with the authority or to accept the authority's opinions and beliefs as its own.
- Transfer: Also known as Association, this is a technique of projecting positive or negative qualities (praise or blame) of a person, entity, object, or value (an individual, group, organization, nation, patriotism, etc.) to another to make the second more acceptable or to discredit it. It evokes an emotional response, which stimulates the target to identify with recognized authorities. Often highly visual, this technique often utilizes symbols (for example, the Swastika used in Nazi Germany, originally a symbol for health and prosperity) superimposed over other visual images. An example of common use of this technique in America is for the President's image to be overlaid with a swastika by his opponents.
- Unstated assumption: This technique is used when the propaganda concept that the propagandist intends to transmit would seem less credible if explicitly stated. The concept is instead repeatedly assumed or implied.
- Virtue words: These are words in the value system of the target audience which tend to produce a positive image when attached to a person or issue. Peace, happiness, security, wise leadership, freedom, "The Truth", etc. are virtue words. In countries such as the U.S. religiosity is seen as a virtue, making associations to this quality affectively beneficial. See ""Transfer"".

Models Of Propaganda

Herman and Chomsky's propaganda model

The propaganda model is a theory advanced by Edward S. Herman and Noam Chomsky that alleges systemic biases in the mass media and seeks to explain them in terms of structural economic causes.

"The 20th century has been characterized by three developments of great political importance: the growth of democracy, the growth of corporate power, and the growth of corporate propaganda as a means of protecting corporate power against democracy."

First presented in their 1988 book *Manufacturing Consent: the Political Economy of the Mass Media*, the propaganda model views the private media as businesses selling a product — readers and audiences (rather than news) — to other businesses (advertisers).

The first three (ownership, funding, and sourcing) are generally regarded by the authors as being the most important. Although the model was based mainly on the characterization of United States media, Chomsky and Herman believe the theory is equally applicable to any country that shares the basic economic structure and organizing principles which the model postulates as the cause of media biases. After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Chomsky stated that the new filter replacing communism would be terrorism and Islam.

Ross' epistemic merit model

The epistemic merit model is a method for understanding propaganda conceived by Sheryl Tuttle Ross and detailed in her 2002 article for the *Journal of Aesthetic Education* entitled "Understanding Propaganda: The Epistemic Merit Model and Its Application to Art". Ross developed the Epistemic merit model due to concern about narrow, misleading definitions of propaganda. She contrasted her model with the ideas of Pope Gregory XV, the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Alfred Lee, F.C. Bartlett, and Hans Speier. Insisting that each of their respective discussions of propaganda are too narrow, Ross proposed her own definition.

To appropriately discuss propaganda, Ross argues that one must consider a threefold communication model: that of Sender-Message-Receiver. "That is... propaganda involve[s]... the one who is persuading (Sender) [who is] doing so intentionally, [the] target for such persuasion (Receiver) and [the] means of reaching that target (Message)." There are four conditions for a message to be considered propaganda. Propaganda involves the intention to persuade. As well, propaganda is sent on behalf of a sociopolitical institution, organization, or cause. Next, the recipient of propaganda is a socially significant group of people. Finally, propaganda is an epistemological struggle to challenge other thoughts.

Ross claims that it is misleading to say that propaganda is simply false, or that it is conditional to a lie, since often the propagandist believes in what he/she is propagandizing. In other words, it is not necessarily a lie if the person who creates the propaganda is trying to persuade you of a view that they actually hold. "The aim of the propagandist is to create the semblance of credibility." This means that they appeal to an epistemology that is weak or defective.

False statements, bad arguments, immoral commands as well as inapt metaphors (and other literary tropes) are the sorts of things that are epistemically defective... Not only does epistemic defectiveness more accurately describe how propaganda endeavors to function... since many messages are in forms such as commands that do not admit to truth-values, [but it] also accounts for the role context plays in the workings of propaganda.

Throughout history those who have wished to persuade have used art to get their message out. This can be accomplished by hiring artists for the express aim of propagandizing or by investing new meanings to a previously nonpolitical work. Therefore, Ross states, it is important to consider "the conditions of its making [and] the conditions of its use."...

Difference Between Persuasion And Propaganda

Persuasion

Persuasion attempts to win "the heart and mind" of the target. Thus persuasion must induce attitude change, which entails affective (emotion-based) change. Although persuasion is more difficult to induce, its effects last longer because the target actually accepts and internalizes the advocacy.

There are many persuasion tactics, one of which utilizes the Socratic Effect, studied by the famous influence researcher, William McGuire. It states that by merely directing thoughts to attitudes and beliefs with logical implications for one another, those attitudes and beliefs become more consistent.

If my wife wants me to start and maintain an exercise program, she might bring up other topics which have logical, positive implications for exercise. She might tell me about a friend who recently experienced a heart attack. That may lead to a discussion about the benefits of good health and the horrors of hospitals, and how people who are in good health are better looking, have more energy, and are more successful. Without ever pointing it out, my wife will have caused me to notice uncomfortable inconsistencies in my belief system. I don't like hospitals, and exercise will help keep me out of them--so why don't I go jogging with her? I will likely decide to do just that the next time I see her putting on her running shoes. At the next social gathering we attend, she may capitalize on the situation and mention that the two of us are now exercising together. I will agree, and in so doing will have made a public commitment--which will compel me to remain consistent with my stated behavior.

If my wife is an artful influence practitioner, my jogging will cease to be an external imposition--it will have become an internal value. As such, it will become part of my self concept and will become a long-term behavior pattern.

(Surprisingly, the correlation between attitude and behavior is weaker than you might think! So just because someone has a positive attitude does not mean they will invariably behave in a consistent manner. But that's a discussion for another time . . .)

Propaganda

Education is the propagation of a set of beliefs, or Propaganda. We call it "education" if we already believe in it, and "propaganda" if we don't. Beliefs are things known or believed to be true, as opposed to attitudes, which are evaluations of objects that we think about. Beliefs are important precursors to both attitudes and behavior, but are often used or created after the fact to defend attitudes and behaviors we already own.

We call the learning of knowledge education if we believe and agree with the advocacy, and we call it propaganda if we don't--especially if a discrepant belief system is advocated through a large-scale, mass media appeal. The first documented use of the word 'propaganda' was 1622, when Pope Gregory XV attempted to increase church membership by strengthening belief (Pratkanis & Aronson, 1992). The term now connotes mass persuasion attempts manufactured by political entities, which manipulate far more than mere belief. Nonetheless, central to both education and propaganda is the role of the fact, the statistic, the element of knowledge that the target believes to be true.

Propaganda Theories & Theorists

Theories of Walter Lippmann

Public Opinion

Public Opinion (1922) is perhaps Lippmann's most well-known work. It was in this piece that Lippmann first began to develop and explain his theories on the formation of public opinion. Lippmann (1922) begins this book by describing a situation in 1914, where a number of Germans, Frenchmen, and Englishmen were trapped on an island. They have no access to media of any kind, except for once every sixty days when the mail comes, alerting them to situations in the real world. Lippmann explains that these people lived in peace on the island, treating each other as friends, when in actuality the war had broken out and they were enemies (Lippmann, 1922).

The purpose of the above anecdote is to develop the idea of "The World Outside and the Pictures in Our Heads" (Lippmann, 1922, p. 3). Throughout *Public Opinion*, Lippmann (1922) explains the way that our individual opinions can differ from those that are expressed in the outside world. He develops the idea of propaganda, claiming that "In order to conduct propaganda, there must be some barrier between the public and the event" (Lippmann, 1922, p. 28). With this separation, there is the ability of the media to manipulate events or present limited information to the public. This information may not match the public's perception of the event. In this way, Lippmann was essentially presenting some of the first views on the mass communication concepts of gatekeeping and agenda-setting, by showing the media's power to limit public access to information.

Lippmann (1922) showed how individuals use tools such as stereotypes to form their opinions. "In putting together our public opinions, not only do we have to picture more space than we can see with our eyes, and more time than we can feel, but we have to describe and judge more people, more actions, more things than we can ever count, or vividly imagine... We have to pick our samples, and treat them as typical" (Lippmann, 1922, p. 95). Lippmann shows that the public is left with these stereotypical judgments until the media presents limited information to change their perception of an event. Rogers (1994) claims that in this way, Lippmann was showing us that "...the pseudo-environment that is conveyed to us by the media is the result of a high degree of gatekeeping in the news process" (p. 237). Lippmann recognized that the media was altering the flow of information, by limiting the media content that was presented to the public. Furthermore, Lippmann presents the idea of agenda-setting, as he recognizes that the mass media is the link between individual perceptions of a world, and the world that actually exists (Rogers, 1994).

Phantom Public

Phantom Public (1925) focused on describing the characteristics of the public itself. Lippmann (1925) used this book to show the public's inability to have vast knowledge about their environment, and therefore, to show their failure to truly support a position. Lippmann (1925) gives a harsh view of the general public, stating, "The individual man does not have opinions on public affairs... I cannot imagine how he could know, and there is not the least reason for thinking, as mystical democrats have thought, that the compounding of individual ignorance in masses of people can produce a continuous directing force in public affairs" (p. 39). This book seemed to show that democracy was not truly run by the public, but rather, was being controlled by an educated elite. The public could not be truly well informed, so they were easily convinced to side with an educated minority, while convincing themselves that they were actually in a system of majority rule. Lippmann (1925) claims that the book aimed to "...bring the theory of democracy into somewhat truer alignment with the nature of public opinion... It has seemed to me that the public had a function and must have methods of its own in controversies, qualitatively different from those of the executive men" (p. 197).

Other Propaganda Theorists

Harold Lasswell (1902-1978)

As Lippmann was writing propaganda, Harold Lasswell was undertaking empirical analyses of propaganda. In fact, much of the propaganda that Lasswell was examining was actually being written by Lippmann himself (Rogers, 1994).

Harold Lasswell (1902-1978) was a prominent scholar in the area of propaganda research. He focused on conducting both quantitative and qualitative analyses of propaganda, understanding the content of propaganda, and discovering the effect of propaganda on the mass audience (Rogers, 1994). Lasswell is credited with creating the mass communication procedure of content analysis (Rogers, 1994). Generally, content analysis can be defined as, "...the investigation of communication messages by categorizing message content into classifications in order to measure certain variables" (Rogers, 1994). In an essay entitled "Contents of Communication," Lasswell (1946) explains that a content analysis should take into account the frequency with which certain symbols appear in a message, the direction in which the symbols try to persuade the audience's opinion, and the intensity of the symbols used. By understanding

the content of the message, Lasswell (1946) aims to achieve the goal of understanding the "stream of influence that runs from control to content and from content to audience" (p. 74).

This method of content analysis is tied strongly to Lasswell's (1953) early definition of communication which stated, "Who says what in which channel to whom and with what effects" (p. 84). Content analysis was essentially the 'says what' part of this definition, and Lasswell went on to do a lot of work within this area during the remainder of his career.

Lasswell's most well-known content analyses were an examination of the propaganda content during World War One and Two. In *Propaganda Technique in the World War*, Lasswell (1938) examined propaganda techniques through a content analysis, and came to some striking conclusions. Lasswell (1938) was similar to Ellul, in that he showed that the content of war propaganda had to be pervasive in all aspects of the citizen's life in order to be effective. Furthermore, Lasswell (1938) showed that as more people were reached by this propaganda, the war effort would become more effective. "...[T]he active propagandist is certain to have willing help from everybody, with an axe to grind in transforming the War into a march toward whatever sort of promised land happens to appeal to the group concerned. The more of these sub-groups he can fire for the War, the more powerful will be the united devotion of the people to the cause of the country, and to the humiliation of the enemy" (Lasswell, 1938, p. 76).

Aside from understanding the content of propaganda, Lasswell was also interested in how propaganda could shape public opinion. This dealt primarily with understanding the effects of the media. Lasswell was particularly interested in examining the effects of the media in creating public opinion within a democratic system. In *Democracy Through Public Opinion*, Lasswell (1941) examines the effects of propaganda on public opinion, and the effects of public opinion on democracy. Lasswell (1941) claims, "Democratic government acts upon public opinion and public opinion acts openly upon government" (p. 15). Affecting this relationship is the existence of propaganda. Due to this propaganda, "General suspiciousness is directed against all sources of information. Citizens may convince themselves that it is hopeless to get the truth about public affairs" (Lasswell, 1941, p. 40). In this way, Lasswell has created a cycle, whereby the public is limited in the information that is presented to them, and also apprehensive to accept it. However, it is still that information that is affecting their decisions within the democratic system, and is being presented to them by the government. This is an interesting way of viewing the power of the media that is somewhat similar to Lippmann's theories.

Edward Bernays (1891-1995)

At approximately the same time that Lippmann and Lasswell were examining public opinion and propaganda, Edward Bernays (1891-1995) was examining public relations, propaganda, and public opinion. Bernays (1928) defines propaganda as, "a consistent, enduring effort to create or shape events to influence the relations of a public to an enterprise, idea, or group" (p. 25). Contrary to other propaganda theorists, Bernays recognizes that propaganda can be either beneficial or harmful to the public. It can help individuals decide what to think about or alter the opinions of individuals, but this may actually be beneficial to society's functioning as a whole. Bernays states, "We are governed, our minds are molded, our tastes formed, our ideas suggested, largely by men we have never heard of... Vast numbers of human beings must cooperate in this manner if they are to live together as a smoothly functioning society" (p. 9). Based on these ideas that the public opinion can be modified, and that such shaping is a necessary part of society, Bernays pursued his work in the field of public relations. "Public relations is the attempt, by information, persuasion, and adjustment, to engineer public support for an activity, cause, movement, or institution" (Bernays, 1955, p. 3). In *The Engineering of Consent*, Bernays (1955) lays out the framework for understanding the public and developing a public relations campaign. Bernays (1955) claims that the key to a successful public relations campaign is adjustment of the campaign to the attitudes of various groups in society, gathering information to effectively express an idea, and finally, utilizing persuasion to influence the public opinion in the intended direction.

Bernays' theories represent a step forward for mass communication theory. They move away from more typical presentations of "hit-or-miss propaganda," and move toward a deeper understanding of the public,

and the necessity of attention-generating propaganda in influencing public opinion (Bernays, 1955, p.22). Bernays (1955) himself made a statement regarding his phrase, “the engineering of consent.” He said, “Engineering implies planning. And it is careful planning more than anything else that distinguishes modern public relations from old-time hit or miss publicity and propaganda” (Bernays, 1955, p.22). Furthermore, Bernays’ theories also represent a different view of the formation of public opinion. In opposition to Lippmann, who views the public as being easily manipulated, Bernays cautions against this. He claims, “The public is not an amorphous mass which can be molded at will or dictated to” (Bernays, 1928, p. 66). Instead, Bernays (1928) offers the idea that in attempting to influence the public, a business must “...study what terms the partnership can be made amicable and mutually beneficial. It must explain itself, its aims, its objectives, to the public in terms which the public can understand and is willing to accept” (p. 66).

Bernays elaborates on these ideas in *Public Relations* (1952). Rather than merely attempting to manipulate the public through propaganda, Bernays presents public relations as a tool that can be used to combine the ideas of the public and the persuader. “The objective-minded public relations man helps his client adjust to the contemporary situation, or helps the public adjust to it” (Bernays, 1952, p. 9). Bernays view of the public is softer than that of Lippmann, as he recognizes the power of society, but still also claims that manipulation of the public is possible. Bernays (1952) writes of the benefits of public relations, “To citizens in general, public relations is important because it helps them to understand the society of which we are all a part, to know and evaluate the viewpoint of others, to exert leadership in modifying conditions that affects us, to evaluate efforts being made by others, and to persuade or suggest courses of action” (p. 10). Under this framework, while manipulation of the public is still possible, it is not in such blatant ignorance of the public opinion. Theorists such as Lippmann and Ellul tended to disagree with this point.

Jacques Ellul (1912 – 1994)

Jacques Ellul’s (1912-1994) theories on propaganda took a different view of the formation of public opinion. Ellul (1965) shows that propaganda is actually a specific technique, which is both needed by the public, and by those who create the propaganda in the first place. In *Propaganda: The Formation of Men’s Attitudes*, Ellul (1965) defines propaganda as, “a set of methods employed by an organized group that wants to bring about the active or passive participation in its actions of a mass of individuals, psychologically unified through psychological manipulations and incorporated into a system” (p. 61). In contrast to the other theorists examined in this chapter, Ellul tends to view propaganda as a necessary, but all-encompassing, activity. It is not something to be presented to the public in a single instance, but rather, must become a consistent part of every aspect of the public's life.

In *The Technological Society*, Ellul (1964) categorizes propaganda as a form of human technique. In general, he considers the term “technique,” to be referring to the methods that people use to obtain their desired results (Ellul, 1964). Specifically, he claims that human technique examines those techniques in which “man himself becomes the object of the technique” (Ellul, 1964, p. 22). In this scenario, man is the “object,” as he is constantly being exposed to, and pressured by, various presentations of propaganda. Ellul (1964) goes on to say, “Techniques have taught the organizers how to force him into the game... The intensive use of propaganda destroys the citizen's faculty of discernment” (p. 276).

While *The Technological Society* focuses on the methods used to create a technique, such as propaganda, *Propaganda: The Formation of Men's Attitudes* (1965) focuses on the specific relationship between propaganda and the manipulation of public opinion. As with Lippmann, Ellul understands the lack of knowledge that the general public holds for use in forming public opinion. Ellul (1965) comments on the use of stereotypes and symbols in propaganda, as did Lippmann in *Public Opinion* (1922). Ellul (1965) states, “The more stereotypes in a culture, the easier it is to form public opinion, and the more an individual participates in that culture, the more susceptible he becomes to the manipulation of these symbols” (p. 111).

Both Ellul and Lippmann recognize the inability of the public to form educated opinions as a whole. However, while Lippmann chose to focus on the idea that we should accept the fact that it is truly an educated elite that is controlling our opinions, Ellul chose to focus on the fact that the public actually has a need for propaganda. Ellul contests the idea that the public is merely a victim of propaganda. Rather, he states that, "The propagandee is by no means just an innocent victim. He provokes the psychological action of propaganda, and not merely lends himself to it, but even derives satisfaction from it. Without this previous, implicit consent, without this need for propaganda experienced by practically every citizen of the technological age, propaganda could not spread" (Ellul, 1965, p. 121).

Through his theories in *The Technological Society* and *Propaganda: The Formation of Men's Attitudes*, Ellul tends to give the media and society's elite (the creators of propaganda) a lot of power in shaping public opinion. While Bernays recognized the importance of making propaganda appeal to the needs of the public, Ellul claims that the public's need is simply for propaganda in the first place. Be happy!

Recent Mass Communication Theorists & Theories

Based on the traditional theories of **Lippmann, Lasswell, Bernays, and Ellul**, more recent studies have been able to be conducted on the use of propaganda in creating public opinion. Lippmann (1922) was essentially the first theorist to develop the idea of the agenda-setting function of the media. By 1972, **McCombs and Shaw** had set out to study this phenomenon in their work "The Agenda-Setting Function of Mass Media." This study examined the 1968 presidential campaign, by asking undecided voters to identify the key issues of the presidential campaign, and then comparing those ideas to the issues that were being presented by the mass media at the time (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). McCombs and Shaw (1972) found that there was a +0.967 correlation between voter judgment of important issues, and media presentation of those issues. *McCombs and Shaw used this information to further Lippmann's ideas that the mass media did indeed set the agenda for what the public should think about.*

Iyengar and Kinder (1982) expanded on Lippmann's theories as well, by putting the idea of agenda-setting and priming to the test. They created experimental situations, in which subjects were exposed to news broadcasts that emphasized particular events. The results of this study both supported and expanded upon Lippmann's initial theories. "Our experiments decisively sustain Lippmann's suspicion that media provide compelling descriptions of a public world that people cannot directly experience" (Iyengar & Kinder, 1982, p. 855). Iyengar and Kinder (1982) found that those news items that received the most attention, were the news items that people found to be the most significant. Furthermore, Iyengar and Kinder (1982) also found evidence of a priming effect, in that those events that received the most attention by a news broadcast, also weighed the most heavily on evaluations of the president at a later time.

Lippmann's (1922) theories in Public Opinion also touched on the idea of a gatekeeper in the media process. By 1951, **Kurt Lewin** had expanded on this idea, by showing that people can manipulate and control the flow of information that reaches others (Rogers, 1994). Based on the ideas of both Lewin and Lippmann, **White** (1950) undertook an examination of the role of a gatekeeper in the realm of mass media. In *The "Gatekeeper": A Case Study In the Selection of News*, White (1950) examined the role of a wire editor in a newspaper. He found strong evidence that there was a gatekeeping role at work within the mass media, as this editor rejected nine-tenths of the articles that he received, based primarily on whether he considered the event to be "newsworthy," and whether he had another article on the same topic that he liked better. His results were important, as they showed the subjective judgments that an individual can exert in releasing limited information to the public.

COMMUNICATION AND CULTURE

What is popular culture?

Popular culture, sometimes abbreviated to pop culture, consists of widespread cultural elements in any given society. Such elements are perpetuated through that society's vernacular language or an established *lingua franca*. It comprises the daily interactions, needs and desires and cultural 'moments' that make up the everyday lives of the mainstream. It can include any number of practices, including those pertaining to

cooking, clothing, consumption, mass media and the many facets of entertainment such as sports and literature. Popular culture often contrasts with a more exclusive, even elitist "high culture," that is, the culture of ruling social groups.

Pop culture finds its expression in the mass circulation of items from areas such as fashion, music, sport and film. The world of pop culture has had a particular influence on art from the early 1960s on, through Pop Art. According to popeducation.org, when modern pop culture began during the early 1950's, it was harder for adults to participate. Today, most adults, their kids and grandchildren "participate" in pop culture directly or indirectly.

Contested definitions of Popular culture

The meaning of popular and the meaning of culture are essentially contested concepts so it is not surprising that there is more than one definition of popular culture and that any definition is problematic. **John Storey**, in "Cultural Theory and Popular Culture", discusses six definitions:

1. The obvious, quantitative definition, of culture that is widely favoured. This has the problem that much "high" culture (e.g. television dramatisations of Jane Austen) is widely favoured.
 2. The culture that is "left over" when we have decided what "high culture" is. However, many works straddle or cross the boundaries e.g. William Shakespeare, Charles Dickens, Puccini-Verdi-Pavarotti-Nessun Dorma. Storey draws our attention to the forces and relations which sustain this difference such as the educational system.
 3. Mass Culture. This is seen as a commercial culture, mass produced for mass consumption. From a U.K. (and European) point of view, this may be equated to American culture.
 4. An "authentic" culture of the "people". However the 'scare quotes' surrounding authentic and the people draw attention to the problems in defining and identifying what authenticity is and who the people are.
 5. Definitions 1 to 4 above may have hinted at a political dimension to popular culture. Storey's fourth definition makes this explicit. He spells out that *neo-Gramscian hegemony theory* sees popular culture as a site of struggle between the 'resistance' of subordinate groups in society and the forces of 'incorporation' operating in the interests of dominant groups in society.
 6. A postmodernism approach to popular culture would "no longer recognise the distinction between high and popular culture'
- Storey emphasises that popular culture emerges from the urbanisation of the industrial revolution.

Popular culture in the 20th and early 21st centuries

Popular culture changes constantly and occurs uniquely in place and time. It forms currents and eddies, and represents a complex of mutually-interdependent perspectives and values that influence society and its institutions in various ways. For example, certain currents of pop culture may originate from, (or diverge into) a subculture, representing perspectives with which the mainstream popular culture has only limited familiarity. Items of popular culture most typically appeal to a broad spectrum of the public.

Institutional promulgation

The news media mines the work of scientists and scholars and conveys it to the general public, often emphasizing "factoids" that have inherent appeal or the power to amaze. For instance, giant pandas (a species in remote Chinese woodlands) have become well-known items of popular culture; parasitic worms, though of greater practical importance, have not.

Both scholarly facts and news stories get modified through popular transmission, often to the point of outright falsehoods.

Folklore

Folklore provides a second and very different source of popular culture. In pre-industrial times, mass culture equaled folk culture. This earlier layer of culture still persists today, sometimes in the form of jokes or slang, which spread through the population by word of mouth and via the Internet. By providing a new channel for transmission, cyberspace has renewed the strength of this element of popular culture.

Although the folkloric element of popular culture engages heavily with the commercial element, the public has its own tastes and it may not embrace every cultural item sold. Moreover, beliefs and opinions about the products of commercial culture (for example: "My favorite character is SpongeBob SquarePants") spread by word-of-mouth, and become modified in the process in the same manner that folklore evolves.

Self-referentiality

Owing to the pervasive and increasingly interconnected nature of popular culture, especially its intermingling of complementary distribution sources, some cultural anthropologists have identified the use of "popular culture within popular culture" as a distinct phenomenon. Literary and cultural critics have identified this as following the well-recognized but variegated concept of intertextuality.

One commentator has suggested this "self-referentiality" reflects the advancing encroachment of popular culture into every realm of collective experience. "Instead of referring to the real world, much media output devotes itself to referring to other images, other narratives; self-referentiality is all-embracing, although it is rarely taken account of."

Many cultural critics have dismissed this as merely a symptom or side-effect of mass consumerism, however alternate explanations and critique have also been offered. One critic asserts that it reflects a fundamental paradox: the increase in technological and cultural sophistication, combined with an increase in superficiality and dehumanization.

Examples from American television

According to some critics, self-referentiality in mainstream American television, especially comedy, both reflects and exemplifies the type of progression characterized previously. Extreme examples literally approach a kind of thematic infinite regress wherein the distinctions between art and life, commerce and critique, ridicule and homage become intractably blurred.

Examples include:

- *Seinfeld* a show premised on the concept that it is a "show about nothing." The main character of the show has the same name as the actor who plays the character. In one episode, the character George mocks this very premise directly by asking "Who will go for that crap?" Such self-derision represents an especially salient and humorous critique considering the relative success of the show.
- *The Simpsons* routinely alludes to mainstream media properties, as well as the commercial content of the show itself. The show also invokes liberal reference to contemporary issues as depicted in the mainstream, and often merges such references with unconventional and even esoteric associations to classical and postmodernist works of literature, entertainment and art.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MASS MEDIA AND POPULAR CULTURE (MASS MEDIA - A TOOL)

When media becomes culture: rethinking copyright issues

Mass media has done such a good job at embedding their copyright into culture that it has become culture itself. The water cooler effect is what happens when media becomes the bits of communication - it's what lets us share our values and interests, determine common ground, etc. Conversations swirl around TV characters, brands and movie quotes. I remember two kids in college deciding to only express themselves through Monty Python quotes in conversation. They felt that every question or comment necessary was already present in the movie. Of course, much of the language that i use is straight from media. Take a look at my posts and you'll find littered references to songs and movies, sometimes cited, sometimes not. Perhaps the language of cinema truly is universal?

With new media, we have begun to communicate using more than just words. We use different photos and animated gifs on different comments as their signature of sorts. Personalized ring tones are all about associating sounds with people, building in-jokes and cultural references into the communication channels. Hip-hop certainly has an artistic bent but there's also a long-standing tradition of telling your story. Remember mixed tapes as a way to say something to someone? Or when girls made collages out of

YM magazines? Lives are littered with media and as we become adept at using it to communicate our thoughts, it will appear more and more, in spite of copyright.

To magnify the issue, our communications have become increasingly persistent. While we still produce a great deal of ephemeral communications, digital and mobile technologies make much of our communication persistent. The remixed sounds of the local club suddenly have mass appeal. But at what cost? On one hand, folks want to get their expressions out to the masses, but when their expressions include copyrighted material, they are at risk.

But with media saturating our culture, how do we express ourselves devoid of references to copyrighted material? Why can't a kid wear a hand-made iPod costume for Halloween? Why can't i tell my story through the songs that i've listened to over the years? Media is the building block of storytelling and it has become so essential to what we do.

The RIAA (and other such organizations) have been so successful at getting their media distributed that they have become culture. In turn, this means that they are the building blocks in which communication occurs. At this, they balk. Do they have the right to? Do they have the right to limit culture built on top of culture? If i want to tell my story using the cultural elements that have become a part of my life, do i need to recognize the RIAA and such as the controllers of culture? This is a dangerous limitation.

Copyright was meant to help artists get their work out. Mickey Mouse is out there; they were super successful and the copyright owners made billions. But now Mickey Mouse is culture - it symbolizes far more than Disney. Do the copyright holders have the right to control culture in this way? They've succeeded beyond most artists.

We have rights for parody and fair use, but perhaps we need to push it further, to make space for when copyright becomes culture. And then let it at the hands of the culture.

Of course, power likes to maintain power, even when it means forgetting what it was originally fighting for. The RIAA and such want to own culture - that power is so tasty. But why should we let them? When they restrict the growth of culture, they are no longer serving the people or the intentions of copyright - they are simply serving themselves. They are also unfortunately doing a good job of convincing artists that the only way to become part of culture is to go with their model. I realized that we don't need to educate the masses - we need to educate these behemoths about culture, its creation, their role and the intentions behind the laws that they've used as shield for so long.

Creative Commons is fighting the RIAA on their terms, helping cement the legal structure as is. But honestly, CC is not creating culture in the same way that mass media products are. Sure, many of us want that to be the case, but will Christina and Britney ever be CC artists? Will Fox ever make its TV shows CC? Will it ever overcome pop? The very nature of pop is that it's about mainstream and this means buying into the power holders instead of the underdogs. That makes it really hard to overturn the cultural empire. Perhaps we should think about how to reframe the debate, focusing on the cultural output of mainstream artists rather than trying to play on their turf?

Remix is active consumption not production

The argument now is that we should stop thinking of remix as production, but as active consumption. Remix happens as a bi-product of consumption. What we're remixing is culture and the active consumption of culture is part of identity development and living as a social creature in society.

Think about clothing consumption. Few people buy all of the items on the mannequin. You buy different pieces and mix and mash them. You might even decide to alter them by adding patches, by dyeing them, by cutting them up. You make the clothing yours. And then you share your consumption with the world by parading on the streets. In this way, you make the clothing tell your story. (*tx Kevin Bjorke*)

Think about IKEA consumption. Isn't it great that they lay out entire rooms for you to look at? Do any of you have rooms that are exactly like the ones in IKEA? You take furniture, you mix and mash it up until it suits you. You may paint it, you may add a different bedspread, you'll add your own books. You then invite your friends over to show them what you've done.

Are you expected to consume clothing or IKEA exactly as prescribed? No. These items are made to be personalized, made to be altered to meet your needs.

So what is fan fiction? I take a story and i alter it to tell my story. What is hip hop remix? I take a bunch of different sounds and put them together in a way not prescribed by the mannequin.

From clothing to songs, we consume and we connect it to our lives. We've always done this with media. We've made collages out of magazines, we've put together pieces of songs in a new sequence for our friends. Of course, now, the cultural bits that we consume are more accessible Lego blocks. It's possible to play with them in new ways. And there are so many more choices that we can be really creative with that play. We can consume culture in new ways and what we shit out in that process actually gets to be digested and mixed together with other bits of culture that we consumed.

There's a problem though and that has to do with distribution. When i parade around the public square in my remix of the Gap and Nike (well,...), i am sharing my remix with the world. Yet, there's nothing persistent or searchable about it. What happens when my friends snap a photo of me? They are making the remix more permanent but, still, no one from those megacorps sees what i've done. What happens when my friends sell that picture to the tabloids for a bazillion dollars because Britney and her new baby are also in the photo? And they are also wearing a different remix of various megabrands? I wasn't remixing clothing for distribution. Of course, even that does happen. Ever seen pictures of celebrities in magazines where it says the top was made by Ralph Lauren and the skirt was made by Versace or whatever?

When Jonah Peretti sent his conversation with Nike to a few friends, was he distributing it? What about when it got forwarded to millions of people and got him spots on TV? In digital world, our intentions and the potential results might not be the same. You might be speaking to six people in your blog. It might feel like the town square but what happens when millions of people apparate there like it's a Quidditch match? Only witches know this instant appearance of beyond imaginable audiences with some of them under invisibility cloaks. Yet, online, we're living like witches. Is it distribution when we're performing to beyond imaginable publics and lots of people are taking pictures?

What about when we're intending to share to our friends just like we've always done? Why do corporate interests get to tell us that our sharing with our friends is now bad even though we've ALWAYS done it? Is this only because they get to be the voyeur in the room? Who gave them that right? Sure, it's a new public, but yuck. I can't imagine growing up with a RIAA rep perched in my school bathroom.

A huge part of the identity process is to consume culture, mix it and personalize it, and share that with our friends because it has identity implications. We even share in public so that we can get parents to scrunch up their noses. Just because technology puts the elephant in every room imaginable, why do we have to accept their dictation of how we should consume their products? Why can't we consume for identity, for culture, for life? Why can't we recognize that remixes are active consumption where we've made culture personal and for our friends? We live in a world where accidental distribution is always possible, where everyone has the potential to be a celebrity in public - everyone wants to copy them. That's weird. But that doesn't mean that the acts we're doing aren't what we've always done. We just have different technologies now but the practice hasn't changed.

LESSON 15

SELLING IMAGES AND VALUES, MEDIA ENVIRONMENTS & POPULAR CULTURE AND CONSUMERISM

Media's presentation of different things is influencing our minds and consequently our culture. We try to copy what we see on media and therefore indirectly it is affecting our whole pattern of life. Mass media has taken the role of guide and we consider everything coming on it from role model's point of view, as a result we are losing our values and forgetting our traditions and adopting those ways and patterns that are communicated by mass media.

Selling Images And Values**Beauty and Body Image in the Media**

"We don't need Afghan-style burqas to disappear as women. We disappear in reverse—by revamping and revealing our bodies to meet externally imposed visions of female beauty." Source: Robin Gerber, author and motivational speaker.

Images of female bodies are everywhere. Women—and their body parts—sell everything from food to cars. Popular film and television actresses are becoming younger, taller and thinner. Some have even been known to faint on the set from lack of food. Women's magazines are full of articles urging that if they can just lose those last twenty pounds, they'll have it all—the perfect marriage, loving children, great sex, and a rewarding career.

Why are standards of beauty being imposed on women, the majority of whom are naturally larger and more mature than any of the models? The roots, some analysts say, are economic. By presenting an ideal difficult to achieve and maintain, the cosmetic and diet product industries are assured of growth and profits. And it's no accident that youth is increasingly promoted, along with thinness, as an essential criterion of beauty. If not all women need to lose weight, for sure they're all aging, says the Quebec Action Network for Women's Health in its 2001 report *Changements sociaux en faveur de la diversité des images corporelles*. And, according to the industry, age is a disaster that needs to be dealt with.

The stakes are huge. On the one hand, women who are insecure about their bodies are more likely to buy beauty products, new clothes, and diet aids. It is estimated that the diet industry alone is worth \$100 billion (U.S.) a year. On the other hand, research indicates that exposure to images of thin, young, air-brushed female bodies is linked to depression, loss of self-esteem and the development of unhealthy eating habits in women and girls.

The American research group *Anorexia Nervosa & Related Eating Disorders, Inc.* says that one out of every four college-aged women uses unhealthy methods of weight control—including fasting, skipping meals, excessive exercise, laxative abuse, and self-induced vomiting. And the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute warns that weight control measures are being taken by girls as young as nine. American statistics are similar. In 2003, *Teen* magazine reported that 35 per cent of girls 6 to 12 years old have been on at least one diet, and that 50 to 70 per cent of normal weight girls believe they are overweight.

Media activist Jean Kilbourne concludes that, "Women are sold to the diet industry by the magazines we read and the television programs we watch, almost all of which make us feel anxious about our weight."

Unattainable Beauty

Perhaps most disturbing is the fact that media images of female beauty are unattainable for all but a very small number of women. Researchers generating a computer model of a woman with Barbie-doll proportions, for example, found that her back would be too weak to support the weight of her upper body, and her body would be too narrow to contain more than half a liver and a few centimeters of bowel. A real woman built that way would suffer from chronic diarrhea and eventually die from malnutrition.

Still, the number of real life women and girls who seek a similarly underweight body is epidemic, and they can suffer equally devastating health consequences.

The Culture of Thinness

Researchers report that women's magazines have ten and one-half times more ads and articles promoting weight loss than men's magazines do, and over three-quarters of the covers of women's magazines include at least one message about how to change a woman's bodily appearance—by diet, exercise or cosmetic surgery.

Television and movies reinforce the importance of a thin body as a measure of a woman's worth. Canadian researcher Gregory Fouts reports that over three-quarters of the female characters in TV situation comedies are underweight, and only one in twenty are above average in size. Heavier actresses tend to receive negative comments from male characters about their bodies ("How about wearing a sack?"), and 80 per cent of these negative comments are followed by canned audience laughter. There have been efforts in the magazine industry to buck the trend. For several years the Quebec magazine *Coup de Pouce* has consistently included full-sized women in their fashion pages and *Châtelaine* has pledged not to touch up photos and not to include models less than 25 years of age.

However, advertising rules the marketplace and in advertising thin is "in." Twenty years ago, the average model weighed 8 per cent less than the average woman—but today's models weigh 23 per cent less. Advertisers believe that thin models sell products. When the Australian magazine *New Woman* recently included a picture of a heavy-set model on its cover, it received a truckload of letters from grateful readers praising the move. But its advertisers complained and the magazine returned to featuring bone-thin models. Advertising Age International concluded that the incident "made clear the influence wielded by advertisers who remain convinced that only thin models spur the sales of beauty products."

Self-Improvement or Self-Destruction?

The barrage of messages about thinness, dieting and beauty tells "ordinary" women that they are always in need of adjustment—and that the female body is an object to be perfected.

Jean Kilbourne argues that the overwhelming presence of media images of painfully thin women means that real women's bodies have become invisible in the mass media. The real tragedy, Kilbourne concludes, is that many women internalize these stereotypes, and judge themselves by the beauty industry's standards. Women learn to compare themselves to other women, and to compete with them for male attention. This focus on beauty and desirability "effectively destroys any awareness and action that might help to change that climate."

Our Constructed World: Media Environments

Different worlds that mass media creates or builds whether it's about family, politics, culture or any other aspect of life are called **constructed worlds**. Sometimes these constructed worlds are different from reality and sometimes not. However, over the passage of time after industrial revolution the way television and advertisements have created the whole world full of false needs and consumerism it can be said that the role of mass media over all has not been positive and now the popular culture that exists in reality today comprising of consumer behaviours and false needs, is all due to the mass media which under the control of business minded folk took people away from reality and even shattered family systems and traditional and cultural values.

The environments that mass media is creating is also due to the changing atmosphere of mass media itself. Concentration of ownership and investment of business minded people in this sector has completely changed the focus, objectives and policies of media organizations and institutions. They are not working to serve people now rather their focus is to earn money one way or another and that's why negative impact and effects of mass media are become more and more vivid day by day.

Global Citizen

What is a Global Citizen?

Today, global interdependence is a reality. Whether it's the clothes we wear or the technology we use, our daily lives are affected by what people on the other side of the planet are doing. It's important to know how our neighbours live, and what effect we have on them.

Citizenship is a term that dates back to the Ancient Greeks. Back then, a citizen was someone who played a role in advancing Greek society. Global citizenship is a new term, but it is based on an ancient concept—a global citizen is anyone who works to make the world a better place.

Global Citizenship is both a moral and ethical disposition which might guide an individual or groups' understanding of the local and global contexts — and their relative responsibilities within different communities. It is motivated through a complex set of commitments to local interests (love of family, communal fairness, self-interest) and a sense of universal equality and notions of care for human beings and the 'world/planet' in its entirety. Global citizenship, as participatory action, entails a responsibility to alleviating local and global inequality, while simultaneously avoiding action that hinders the well-being of individuals or damages the 'world/planet'. This notion is closely linked to an understanding of globalization and cosmopolitanism.

In the field of education, the concept of Global Citizenship Education (GCE) is rapidly incorporating, and at times superseding, references to "Multicultural Education", "Peace Education", "Human Rights Education" and "International Education".

In terms of international relations, global citizenship may refer to a nation-state's responsibility to act with awareness of the world as a global community, by both recognizing and fulfilling its global obligations, and recognizing the rights of global 'citizens'. Global citizenship is related to the idealist school of thought, that states should include a level of moral goodwill in their foreign policy considerations. Whilst a judgement of 'good' global citizenship is a subjective one, some widely agreed upon examples of cases requiring a level of good global citizenship include the signing of the Kyoto Protocol, and the upholding of the UN Charter for Human Rights. Many states struggle to strike a balance between being a 'good' and 'effective' global citizen.

The concept of global citizenship dates back as far as the Stoics of ancient Greece and Rome who pledged primary allegiance to the universal ideals of justice and honor over their allegiance to the polis or city-state. One of the earliest known declarations of global citizenship that is frequently cited by scholars came from the ancient Greek Cynic philosopher Diogenes. When asked where he came from, he would reply, "I am a citizen of the world." Various intellectuals since have addressed this subject, such as Thomas Paine, author of *Common Sense* (1776) who wrote, "My country is the world. My countrymen are mankind." Albert Einstein, another popular intellectual, addressed the need for more of a global approach to citizenship when he wrote, "Nationalism is an infantile sickness. It is the measles of the human race."

Many challenges are presented by the term 'global citizenship', extending to a total rejection of the notion as even possible. For example, one prominent challenge is how global citizenship is closely intertwined with the concept of ethical universality (e.g., parcelling out individual responsibilities for the global). Ethical universality can frame global citizenship in terms of managerial tasks that are somehow coordinated by a larger (cohesive) entity. Global citizenship can also be seen as motivated by economic imperatives whereby one nation state encourages fluency of international markets/cultures/languages with the intent of being more competitive within a global economy. This is often identified as a 'neoliberal' approach to global citizenship. Global citizenship is people all over the world working together everyday making the world a better place.

New And Converging Technologies

New media is also a very important part of our pop culture. In fact it has played a great part in shaping the popular culture in the form it exists now. Our reliance on new media technologies has increased so much that now it is impossible to think of life without them. Mobile phones and internet particularly have revolutionized the structure of societies and now we have become information societies where everything relies on information and its related technologies.

Popular culture covers all those things that are in vogue in a specific society and we know that in this global village media decides that what will stay in and what will go out. Mass media has so much

emphasised on communication and other new technologies that now even if they are not needed, but still they are kept and bought by people to be a part of modern society and to follow the prevailing culture.

Popular Culture And Consumerism

There are conflicting theories over the years that state that money can't buy happiness, and conversely, those who say that do not know where to shop. Beyond eliciting a chuckle, these sayings make a dramatic statement about our culture and the importance that is placed on material goods and gratification from them as a source of happiness. Within modern culture, consumerism has become a sort of micro culture of its own. Loosely defined, consumerism is a set of beliefs and values, perhaps even a way of life that places the obtaining of material possessions, and the actual process of obtaining them, at the top of the list of priorities for those who believe in the concept (Sussman, 2004). In extreme cases, as with a compulsive gambler or drug addict, consumerism becomes all encompassing. As a part of popular culture, consumerism has its American roots in the period following World War II. Upon returning home from the battlefields of Europe and the Pacific, American men got down to the business of pursuing pleasure and leisure time activities. The post war boom in manufacturing made available scores of various automobiles that people bought in huge quantities in order to make up for lost time and also because of the fact that the period of World War II saw rationing and shortages of goods to the point where upon the end of the war, Americans wished to exercise their economic freedom once again and buy big ticket items like automobiles with a vengeance. After the automobile began to boom, and people settled down to start families, buy homes and settle into neighborhoods, the consumer machine began to work at full capacity once again, providing other items like appliances, furniture, and eventually the television into the home. With the television came of course commercials, which reached every member of the family and continued to fuel the fire of consumerism like never before. Eventually, the purchasing of goods became a defining quality for people to the point where it provided happiness.

Happiness

Happiness and consumerism are essentially linked; while happiness is hard to quantify or to write a definition for, as one person said in regard to happiness, "I can't define it, but I know it when I feel it" (Annas, 2004). Simply put, it is fair to say that happiness is a relative term for different people. However, the obtaining of material goods has become such a part of everyday life, that it provides happiness when people are buying, and causes sadness when no buying is taking place. For many, it seems to be a shield against the harsh realities of everyday stresses. In fact, the buying frenzy of modern life has become so prevalent, and people have collected so much material, that self storage facilities are becoming one of the most successful and growing retail businesses in America (Brennan, 1997). This is because the average person has purchased so much merchandise that they do not need that their homes and garages can no longer hold the contents of their lives. As necessity is the mother of invention, since people find themselves with too much merchandise, rather than risk some type of disappointment or unhappiness by parting with things or heaven forbid stop buying additional things, people would rather go through the time, trouble and expense of maintaining a self storage locker in a dedicated facility or warehouse of some sort. Much of this "stuff" will never see the light of day again, but it serves as a security blanket for those who feel that consumerism validates them and makes them happy. Therefore, the link between consumerism and happiness, at least for some people, is established.

Consumerism has grown to contribute to pop culture and pop culture has made significant contributions to consumerism as well. As a kind of mutually exclusive relationship, one feeds the other and both grow as a result. Regarding pop culture, Americans as a whole place a tremendous value on material goods and the obtaining of them. Much as the ancient peoples placed a value on crops or spices, we today judge each other, and expect to be treated in a better way, based upon the sheer volume of tangible items that we have accumulated. When watching television, the people who seem to enjoy the biggest acclaim are not always the most talented or the best looking, but are often those who have the most material possessions. As an example, Donald Trump is not exceptionally good looking or talented; granted, he is a skillful businessman, but that is not what gives him the fame that he has achieved in the mainstream, but rather he has gained the status of a pop culture icon because of what he represents- good old fashioned buying power and consumerism personified. Admittedly, the goods that Trump collects-priceless works of art,

homes, helicopters and the like are out of the reach of the average person, it could possibly be that the fact that these items that are collected by him in great quantities are out of reach of others that almost makes him as a folk hero in the popular culture of the modern American scene. He has taken consumerism to a new level, and has gained wide acclaim as a result of it. Gone are the days when the fastest runner, the best speller or the most talented golfer were the heroes of the culture. Today, those with the most toys win, or so it seems. In the modern society, the only time that talented athletes are revered is when they are seen in commercials using the latest cellular telephone or smiling on a box of sugar coated cereal.

Happiness within Pop Culture

There is a great deal that can be said about happiness as an element of pop culture as it relates to consumerism. Within the complex, dollar-driven world of modern America, happiness is often measured by the size of the vehicle in one's driveway, or the memory that their I-Pod contains. Happiness is a commodity that seems to be able to be bought as an accessory with every item that is piled into the home or locked away in the personal storage lockers of people from coast to coast. The instant gratification that comes with material possessions, and the fact that credit cards make instant gratification through material ownership possible, makes the pursuit of happiness essentially a financial transaction at the local mall. As people become more and more scattered due to work and family commitments, things fill the emptiness within the human soul and provide what we perceive to be happiness. Hopefully, we will someday realize that while material goods can bring happiness, they are no substitute for the human experience.

