

THE ROLE OF MASS MEDIA IN SHAPING SOCIAL  
AND POLITICAL ATTITUDES AND OPINION - A  
BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

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DECLARATION

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Philosophy of the Jawaharlal Nehru University. I certify that no portion of this dissertation has previously been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma of this or any other university.

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## P R E F A C E

This essay deals with the impact of mass media in shaping social and political attitudes and opinion in India. The main media of mass communication like the press, radio, cinema, and television have been taken into consideration and an attempt has been made to review the published literature to assess their impact in India. The present study is preparatory to a larger and detailed study of the role of television in India.

In the preparation of this essay, I have incurred many debts, and, while I cannot repay them, I should nevertheless like to place them on record. I am thankful to the faculty of the Centre for Political Studies for their help during the preparation of this essay. I must also express my profound gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Imtiaz Ahmad, who with his untiring efforts has been a constant source of inspiration, help and encouragement in completion of this work.

Dr. M.V. Desai, Director, Indian Institute of Mass Communication, New Delhi, was kind enough to discuss the problem of this essay with me and allowed me access to the Institute library and I am grateful to him. I am also grateful to the staff of the IIMC library for their

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**I N T R O D U C T I O N**

Man's characterization as a social animal presupposes communication with fellow humans. Thus, communication has been a feature of every human community throughout history. However, a careful perusal of the history of human communication shows that man has never been satisfied with the natural limitation placed on his ability to communicate messages. Practically throughout his long history, he has tried to evolve mechanisms whereby he could address messages to far-flung and wider audiences. But his capacity to do this was constrained by technological and scientific progress. Lacking the scientific knowledge and the technical skill to communicate with far-flung and wider audiences, his innovative limitations naturally forced him to remain satisfied with communication with his immediate social neighbours through the spoken word. 'For the illiterate villager in an agricultural society of the past', writes Toffler, 'most of the incoming messages were what might be called casual or "do-it-yourself" communications. The peasant might engage in ordinary household conversation, banter, cracker barrel or tavern talk, gripping, complaining, boasting, baby talk, (and, in the same sense animal talk), etc.' (1970:155).

The scientific developments following the industrial revolution provided a remarkable breakthrough for man to

enlarge and expand his ability for communication. He was no longer entirely dependent upon his vocal chords for communication. Nor was he necessarily required to restrict his communication network to his immediate neighbourhood. With the help of technology and technical devices, he could now address himself to far-flung audiences and transmit messages to people dispersed far beyond his immediate physical world. Usually referred to as the mass media, these technical and mechanical devices employed by man for purposes of communication have rapidly multiplied. Beginning with the printing press as the means for transmission of written messages to people capable of reading in widely dispersed places, man has within a short span of time enormously elaborated the forms of the mass media. In addition to the increased use of the printing press with the expansion in literacy rates all over the world, no matter haltingly, man has today evolved both auditory and visual media forms whose reception does not depend upon one's ability to read the written word. Thus, the contemporary world is characterized by the presence of a wide variety of communication media ranging from the printing press to radio, film and television.

(The enormous elaboration of the mass media since the industrial revolution has not merely resulted



in an enlargement of the sphere and extent of communication. It has also meant a shift in the structure of communication. Communication through the mass media is no longer loose, unstructured, garrulous and unedited. It has purposiveness and systematization.) 'The industrial revolution', writes Toffler, 'bringing with it the enormous elaboration of the mass media,.... alters radically the nature of the messages received uncoded messages from the environment, and coded but casual messages from the people around him, the individual now begins to receive a growing number of coded but pre-engineered messages as well' (1970:155). 'These engineered messages', Toffler goes on to add, 'differ from the casual or "do-it-yourself" product in one crucial respect: instead of being loose or carelessly framed, the engineered product tends to be tighter, more condensed, less redundant. It is highly purposive, pre-processed to eliminate unnecessary repetition, consciously designed to maximise informational content. It is, as communication theorists say, "information rich" (1970:155).

(This shift in the content of communication through the mass media has made the mass media a powerful communication media. Practically everywhere - in business, in education and government - the mass media is being employed as a means of transforming peoples' attitudes and values and enriching their informational base.)

Studies of communication in general and mass media in particular have highlighted the remarkable role of mass media in the process of development (see, for instance, Schramm, 1964; Rao, 1966; and Myrdal, 1966). It has been suggested that the exposure of the individual to mass media enlarges his information base as well as encourages an orientation towards acceptance or accommodation of change. Lerner's remarkable study (Lerner, 1958) of the role of communication in the processes of political development and modernization was a pioneering effort in this direction, but Lerner's research findings have since been confirmed by a number of researchers. In India, Atal (Atal; 1968) was among the first to make an extended use of Lerner's empirical model but other researchers who have worked on any of the dimensions of change have found that exposure to mass media has a critical role in shaping attitudes and behaviour patterns.

Ever since independence, Indian society has been engaged in a massive and large-scale effort for the re-organization of society. Of course, a major part of this effort is directed toward producing structural social changes which would precipitate a movement towards an egalitarian, socialist and secular order. Even so, a change in the attitudes and orientations of the people, through greater education and exposure to mass media

remains an equally essential part of this effort.

In a traditional society like India, the attitudes tend to be hostile to change and lack economic motivation. People know little beyond their villages, little of science, little of modern agriculture, little of their country's effort at economic development, and little of the responsibilities of nationhood. For example, in some regions in this country people are hostile to killing of animals, sometimes even of insects and parasites that are dangerous to health and stand in the way of improved family and better living conditions. Furthermore, traditional social patterns and structures are not capital creating. People here prefer to bring up a large family for "old age insurance" and to use money when they have any for a daughter's wedding or a feast or some other reward more immediate than bank account or insurance policies. The widespread custom of going deeply into debt for wedding dowries, festivals and funerals and caste system which greatly restricts the kind of work a man can do and the extent to which he can associate and cooperate with other men, are not consistent with the rational determination to progress.

It is with a view to harnessing the mass media to the task of reconstruction of Indian society as well as to the promotion of attitudes and orientations favourable to economic development that the government

has been led to undertake expansion of the mass media network. The government has over the years expanded the capacity of existing mass media as well as introduced new media forms. The radio network has been expanded and television, which had made a modest beginning from Delhi in 1959 and had remained confined to the capital for nearly fifteen years, is now being extended to other centres. The television relay facilities now exist in all major cities and are soon to be extended to cover the countryside as well. The opportunity provided by the stationing of the US communication Satellite over India had offered an opportunity of exposure to television to the rural population in distant parts of the country briefly, and the government's present efforts are directed to bring those areas within the orbit of a regular communications network.

(The mass media is essentially a system of dissemination of information and its efficacy in transforming attitudes and orientations of the public lies essentially in its ability to disseminate information quickly and to a large number of people simultaneously. However, precisely because of the possibility of its being able to reach a vast number of people simultaneously, the mass media is an effective means of propaganda. Governments and states throughout history have relied

upon means of extended communication to propagate their ideology and views. Its extensive use during periods of war and peace are too well known to need recounting here. Governments all over may have also been persuaded to make heavy investments for the development of mass media by its utility for propaganda purposes. There can be little doubt, therefore, that the mass media is today a subject of considerable significance and its numerous dimensions require detailed discussion.

The efforts of the government to promote the mass media as well as to use it effectively both as a means of propaganda as well as for reorienting public attitudes have aroused considerable interest in its study and analysis. A body of research has been emerging on various dimensions of the mass media in India. Several individuals and organizations have undertaken research to evaluate the effectiveness of mass media as an instrument of social change as well as into the dynamics of its influence. Several surveys have also been conducted to examine the extent of exposure to mass media in India. The Indian Institute of Mass Communication, an organization established by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, was created in response to the need for detailed analytical studies on mass media in India. It has a research wing which has over the years carried out

numerous surveys on the role and effectiveness of mass media in political process (Yadava, 1971), agricultural development (Kivlin, Joy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968) and family planning (IIMC, 1967). Some studies have also been made by the Institute to compare and contrast traditional and modern media forms and to gauge their relative effectiveness (Parmar, 1976). These studies are a useful repository of information on the role and effectiveness of mass media in India.

Unfortunately, the attitude of official agencies toward sharing of information collected by them with social scientists remains ambiguous. A great deal of the research done by the Indian Institute of Mass Communication, the Listener's Research Unit of the All India Radio and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting has been declared 'classified' and is not available to anyone who wishes to utilise their findings. This naturally presents a serious handicap for a thorough survey of available research on mass media. Even so, the published data do provide some tentative generalizations and these have been utilized in this study.

The present essay, preliminary to a projected research on the role of television in the shaping of social and political attitudes in India which would be based on empirical investigations, is the outcome of an

exercise attempted in preparation for that research. The exercise has consisted in surveying the literature relating to mass media in India with a view to finding out the salient insights suggested by earlier researchers in the field and identifying some tentative conclusions suggested by them. This survey of the literature is concerned primarily with two aspects. First, it seeks to analyse the extent of exposure to the different types of mass media in India on the basis of available researches. As already indicated, the complete range of data compiled on this aspect are not available as some of them have been declared 'classified'. Still, a series of surveys conducted by research organizations and newspapers are available for an assessment of exposure to mass media in India and the following discussion shall try to summarize and consolidate the findings suggested by them.

Second, this essay seeks to deal with the role of the mass media in shaping and moulding public attitudes. Originally, the plan was to focus specifically on social and political attitudes and try to examine the extent to which these were susceptible of being influenced by the mass media. Unfortunately, however, the studies on the effect of the different radio programmes on listeners by the Listeners Research

Unit and the studies of the Indian Mass Communication Institute are mostly classified and could not become available. Therefore, this essay shall be limited to an examination of the influence of mass media on three aspects on which data were available. These are electoral attitudes and behaviour, attitudes to family planning and agricultural practices. There are numerous published studies on these subjects and this essay shall be limited to them.

The basic structure of this essay has been shaped essentially by the two aims to which it has been geared. Following this Introduction setting out the problem of the survey, the first chapter shall present a brief historical background of the development of mass media in India and shall outline the type of different mass media in use today. The second chapter will then discuss the patterns of exposure to different mass media. The third chapter will deal with the influence of mass media and discuss the extent of people's susceptibility to mass media. Finally, the conclusion shall summarize the main findings of the survey and shall try to formulate questions for detailed study later on.



CHAPTER - I

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF MASS MEDIA IN INDIA

The form and extent of communication varies from society to society according to the features of its social organisation, its value orientations and the level of its technological and scientific development. Therefore, it would be useful to begin with a brief consideration of the history and nature of communication in India in order to assess its extent and impact.

There are few available accounts of the pattern of communication in ancient India, so that it is not possible to form a precise idea of the forms and nature of communication existing in ancient India. Some accounts of ancient India present a picture of considerable scientific progress and technological advance. Thus, many writers on ancient India have tried to suggest that the system of satellites was known and existed in ancient India. However, these descriptions rely generally on a misreading of certain literary sources. So far as one can judge from the pastoral and agricultural nature of the economy at that time, elaborate technological media could not have existed. Of course this is not to say that communication was strictly face to face and there was no system of dissemination of ideas. Quite to the contrary, communication and dispersion of ideas to wider circles was practiced quite extensively, except that the means employed for this purpose were not

technology-based. Parmar has in a recent study (Parmar, 1976) suggested a distinction which serves to bring out the difference between technology-based and other media forms. He contrasts the technology-based mass media which disseminate messages to heterogeneous audiences to another variety of media which he calls folk-media. It can be said that there was no mass media in ancient India and that only the folk media of communication existed and were utilized for dissemination of information and ideas. The technology-based mass media appeared on the Indian scene only after the establishment of British rule and was the contribution of the developed technology the British brought with them.

Parmar defines folk media as 'a phenomenon representing an act of communication by employing vocal, verbal, musical and visual folk art forms (1976:7). This form of media operates essentially on a local community basis. Parmar has shown that this communication media is of long standing in India. It seems certain, therefore, that the folk media was the only form of communication media in ancient India. One can argue that it met the needs of the community adequately. This type of media was exceptionally suited to the requirements of the society and operated within the framework

of the social conditions which were existing at that time. This was true both for political communication, as well as communication for recreational and instructional purposes.

Political debate at the time was itself largely confined to court circles and there was no election campaigns, no contending candidates requiring arguing out of issues before the public. Perhaps, the only occasion when the ruling elite needed to communicate to the masses were when they wanted to broadcast official decrees, and the drummer-announcers fulfilled these functions adequately. Nor were religious institutions and educational systems much prone to use communication media. Temple worship did not have any weekly sermons which could be utilised for communication of messages and the educational system did not feature the phenomenon so familiar to us today in the form of lectures. Evidently, therefore, communication in ancient India was limited to conversation.<sup>1</sup>

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1. In present day rural India also, conversation is the principal means by which ideas and information are exchanged. Whatever of interest comes to the attention of villagers is sure to be quickly and widely discussed. In each village, there were special locations, such as the blacksmiths shop a low wall along the public square or benches in a park that were recognized as "Conversational sitting places. These were likely to be occupied from morning to night. But social discussions were not confined to any special places. Anywhere and at anytime that two or more people get together, there is some topic of common interest to them. And so it was in ancient India also.

There had existed in ancient India an effective system of writing and one would have expected that in the absence of institutionalized platforms for public debate and communication of ideas, the written word would have served as a good substitute. But the use of this medium was greatly limited. Thus, one expert on the history of mass media notes, 'It is a strange phenomenon that in India from the oldest time up to the present day, the spoken word and not writing has been the basis of literary and scientific activity. Oral communication has served even more definitely the social, political and commercial needs of the people' ( Oliver, 1971:22).

The reason in part undoubtedly was the widespread illiteracy of the population. But considering that India in early times had had an efficient system of writing, one could assume that literacy could have been general if it had been held in high esteem. Therefore, the choice to communicate largely through the spoken rather than the written word would appear to be a deliberate one. Probably it had social and religious reasons behind it, since the privilege of learning used to be a prerogative of the higher castes and Brahmins and

was restricted by caste considerations.<sup>2</sup>

Not only oral and philosophical communication but communication for entertainment was equally limited in ancient India. The principal forms of entertainments were the folk song sung by singers, puppetary shows, dance dramas or natak mandalis and religious recitals. These were performed by professionals who moved about from one place to another and earned their livelihood. While they conveyed to the people the glorious epics of Ramayana and Mahabharata, or the great doings of some kings or heroes, through their puppet shows and dance dramas, the movement of such parties was never on all-India basis due to the limitations of transportation in those days. Entertainment was, thus, mainly localised to particular regions or areas. Furthermore, access to such entertainment and recreation was not open to the whole population of a village or town. The recital of classical music previously had largely been the preserve of princely courts and elite classes. The lower classes and Harijans had no access to them. They were prohibited

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2. If members of low caste listened to the recitation of the sacred literature by any but a Brahmin, the reactions were such that his ears should be filled in with melted lead. If he himself ventured to commit the text to memory or to recite them the reaction of learned class used to be that his tongue should be split in two (Oliver, 1971:22).

from entering and enjoying such shows which were considered to be the privileges of the elites or upper classes only. Besides, women in those days seldom came out of their homes. Therefore, these forms of recreation and entertainment were generally a prerogative of limited sections of society.

The establishment of Pax-Britannica in the nineteenth century opened a new chapter in Indian society in so far as communication was concerned. The British brought with them not only a new technology and new communication media but also a new philosophy which cut across the social boundaries and allowed them to be addressed to a wider public. This was particularly required in the special context of their political rule. As a foreign power, to be administered by a small nucleus of British officers in the districts, the British administration required a means of communication that would enable them to disseminate information to heterogeneous audiences. Therefore, the British undertook to introduce the mass media in India for the first time.

#### PRESS AND NEWSPAPERS

The first among the new media of communication introduced in India was the printing press. The advent of printing press did not initially affect the masses

on the whole as literacy was far too low. The wisdom of new ideas, and thinking of the western democratic countries and the views of the Government were opened only to certain sections of the people. As western influence gathered momentum and more and more people started going in for university education, educated people started realizing the increasingly important role played by printing press and mass media. A series of newspapers were started. In 1823 Raja Ram Mohan Roy and some others drafted what has been called the serogita of the Indian press. / Tilak and Aurobindo Ghosh edited, Kesari and Bande Matram respectively. They were not newspapers in the modern sense of the word. Opinion sheets would be a more appropriate description for them as they had no pretension to offer a comprehensive coverage of news, investigative reporting, explaining of economic and social issues or being a link with day to day life of the people. Furthermore, their circulation was much less than the small circulation of newspapers today. Nonetheless, these newspapers became in time a powerful source for the expression of political demands.

During the nineteenth century, the government was uncertain in its attitude about whether and how to supervise the circulation of ideas within Indian society.



Usually strict control resulted from specific episodes or threats of widespread violence. For example, in 1780 Warren Hastings reacted to personal attacks in J.A. Hickey's Bengal Gazette by prosecuting the publisher and barring the paper from the mail, but following Charles Metcalfe's "Liberation" of printed opinion in 1835 the policy tended towards select censorship only. Again, while the 1857 mutiny evoked a renewal of controls in the form of pre-censorship and jail sentences for anti-government editors, there was relaxing of controls until 1878 when a new "gagging act" sought to limit vernacular papers commentary on official policy, which was later relaxed in a gesture of liberality.

Throughout the nineteenth century the Government of India preferred a low key policy of informal influence over the press instead of subsidies and persistent application of penalties. However, by the end of 1905 the situation changed dramatically. By this time the political trends that had been developing since mid - century came to prominence. One factor was the emergence of regional and communal political groupings that criticized and put pressure on the bureaucracy, accumulated official injustice, the example of the Japanese and Italian people's efforts to build their nations, the imperial attitudes and policies personified by Lord Curzon - all

reinforced a new militancy and sense of nationalist mission (Barrier, 1976:8). Indian literature became a major vehicle for communicating and stimulating this new political ideology. Among other means, mass politics evolved using printed matter to affect a widespread audience.

By this time the Indian periodical industry had increased markedly since its early beginnings in eighteenth century. Table 1 provides a picture of the growth of newspaper and printing industry in British India. It shows that in 1905, 1,359 newspapers and journals reached an estimated 2 million subscribers (Barrier, 1976:9).

TABLE 1  
BACKGROUND OF THE INDIAN PRESS, 1905

Baluchistan	-	1	Central Indian States	-	7
East Bengal, Bengal	-	179	Central Provinces	-	18
Bombay	-	320	Madras, Madras Princely States	-	304
Portuguese-India	-	9	Punjabi, WFP	-	263
Burma	-	54	United Province	-	197
Ajmer, Merwara	-	9			

contd.....

LANGUAGE


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English	-	285	Burmese	-	20
English & Vernacular	-	82	Punjabi	-	12
Other European	-	16	Sindhi	-	11
Two or more Indian Vernaculars	-	28	Oriya	-	7
Urdu	-	388	Khasi	-	5
Gujarati	-	97	Sanskrit	-	3
Marathi	-	93	Persian	-	2
Tamil	-	78	Assamese	-	1
Bengali	-	74	Vagra	-	1
Malyalam	-	54	Unknown	-	14
Kenarese	-	30			
Telugu	-	29			

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Source: Barrier, 1976:10.

By 1905, over 200 newspapers commented on political issues. Most of these, according to British observers, tended to be disloyal or pursued dangerous editorial policies. Therefore, as Barrier notes, 'Act XXV of 1867 "for the regulation of printing presses and newspapers, for the preservation of copies of Books printed in British India and the registration of such books" became the legal basis for surveillance system' (Barrier, 1976:5). Barrier

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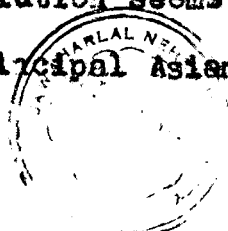
writes, 'The legislation facilitated identification of those responsible for a given work. From 1867 onwards, books and newspapers were required to bear the names of authors, printers and publishers. Moreover, the act set up mechanism whereby Indian officials and India Office could be informed about what was being printed. Copies of printed matter had to be delivered promptly to a designate representative of local government, who then prepared a quarterly catalogue of books and periodicals. The following information was included in the reports: title and content of the title page (with translation into English if vernacular), language, author, editor or translator, subject, names and place of printers and publishers, pagination, size, edition, number of copies, price and copyright details. The Government circulated the lists among officers and sent copies to the Secretary of State'(Barrier, 1976:5). The stage had been set for a dramatic encounter between bureaucracy and Indian publicists that was to endure for the last 40 years of British rule in India.

Looking back to 1947 vast changes seem to have swept the Indian press, in circulation, content, news coverage, journalists working condition and newspaper design. But pitted against the needs the evolution seems to be at snails pace; For example, Japan, a principal Asian Country

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with a developed press, has a daily circulation of about 43 million copies as much as 1.82 to a household in a population of 95 million. The technological development, there, is immense even by world standard and the press functions in lush and vigorous competition with television radio and a vast book publishing industry. Table 2 gives the figures for communications media as estimated by UNESCO.

The Indian newspaper industry is in comparison infertile semblance with a circulation of about 5.7 million a day, 14 copies to every 1,000 persons in a population of 450 million and tremendous gap in production method. In 1951 there were 330 daily newspapers with a circulation of 2.5 million and in 1963 there were 501 daily newspapers with a circulation of 5.6 million. The number of newspaper was 11,926 at the end of 1972 compared to 12,218 in 1971 and 12,185 at the end of 1974 (India, 1976:115) showing a decrease of 469 newspapers compared to 1973, (India, 1976:123). So, growth has been there, but figures would fall into perspective if it were known that the total number of literate people in the country in 1963 was 114 million and that nine million of them were being added every year and the number of literates was to become 201 million in 1983. Against this circulation figures of Indian newspaper shrink to dangerous insignificance.

TABLE 2

## CIRCULATIONS OF NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS, BOOK PRODUCTION, RADIO RECEIVERS AND CINEMA ATTENDANCE

	Circulation of daily newspaper, a copy per 1,000 inhabitants		Circulation of periodicals, copies per 1,000 late 1950s.	Production of Book Total Titles		Radio Receiver per 1,000	Cinema attendance per person per year late 1950s.	
				Titles	Titles per million			
Pakistan	2	7	.....	.....	.....	0.3	3	0.09 (1955)
India	7(1953)	11	1(1959)	10,741	24	1	5	3.5 (1953-59)
Indonesia	7	11(1959)	.....	1,114	12	3(1951)	7(1959)	3.0 (1957)
Burma	8	12	.....	603	29(1959)	0.6	6	5.2 (1959)
South Vietnam	..	23(1953)	.....	973	69	...	9	1.4 (1954)
Philippines	19	18	60(1957)	153(1959)	6(1959)	4(1949)	22(1959)	0.6 (1954)
Thailand	4	14	.....	1,472	56	5	7	.....
Ceylone	29(1950)	37	41(1957)	1,767	173	4	36	2.9 (1953)
Malaya	50	34	35(1959)	.....	...	10	36	3.2 (1959)

Source: United Nations, Compendium of Social Statistics: 1963, New York, April 1963, Table 65 pp. 345-346, for Cols. 1, 2, 6, and 7. UNESCO, Basic facts & figures 1961, Paris, 1962, Table 24, p 126 Col. 3: Table 19 pp. 103-105 for Col. 6 & 7 and Table 29, pp 151-152 for Col. 8, Gunter, Myrdal Asian Drama, Vol. III, 1968.

An analysis of the figures of economic growth and literacy predict that 10 per cent annual growth in newspaper circulation should be easy by 1975 but in fact it has not been so except in 1962 when the Chinese invasion and general elections coincided. Certain brakes like the shortage of newsprint and machinery have also contributed to this. By the year 1965 the spread of the Indian press was highly unequal. In states like Kerala, Madras, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Mysore and Andhra, development was satisfactory. In Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Rajasthan and Orissa it was poor. In between states were Punjab, West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh.

A language-wise study of newspapers shows that the largest number, 73,200, was published in Hindi, followed by 2,453 in English, 915 in Urdu, 739 in Bengali, 717 in Marathi, 569 in Gujarati, 527 in Tamil, 465 in Malayalam, 425 in Telugu, 331 in Kannada and 268 in Punjabi. Bilingual numbered 989 (India, 1976:124). Out of 7,459 newspapers for which the publisher's supplied circulation data, 7,113 or 95.5 per cent claimed a circulation of upto 15,000 copies per publishing day (small newspapers) and had a combined circulation of 15,079 lakhs or 45.6 per cent of the total. Another 243 newspapers claimed a combined circulation of 65.26 lakhs or 19.7 per cent.

However, 103 newspapers having a circulation of more than 50,000 copies (big newspapers) together accounted for 114.87 lakh copies or 34.7 per cent of the total circulation of all the newspapers in India (India, 1976:124).

The data available for 5,834 newspaper common to 1971 and 1972 show a 0.8 per cent growth in circulation. The data available for 1974 show that the newspaper had a circulation of 330.92 lakh copies compared to 352.70 lakhs in 1973.

#### BROADCASTING

Broadcasting began in India as a result of the pioneering effort of the Madras Presidency Club. The Club embarked on broadcasting service in 1924 but on account of financial difficulties gave it up in 1927. Undeterred by the failure of the Madras experiment, a private concern, the Indian Broadcasting Company, was formed in the same year with stations at Bombay and Calcutta. This Company also ran into financial difficulty and ultimately went into liquidation in 1936. The efforts of these two enterprises had, however, succeeded in making both the public and the radio trade conscious of the potentialities of the new medium. The government, therefore, yielded to public opinion and took over the company's activity. In 1934, to put



broadcasting on a proper footing, a sum of Rs. 40,00000 was provided for its development. The post of Comptroller of Broadcasting was created. A radio station was set up in Delhi in addition to the ones existing at Bombay and Calcutta. The Government of Madras also drew up a plan to provide a broadcasting service in the state. However, it was with the arrival of Mr. Lionel Fielden and C.W. Golden, experts from BBC, in 1935 and the establishment of All India Radio in 1936 that broadcasting commenced as an organized system. Thus, when the Second World War broke out in 1939, India had an organized broadcasting service with six stations besides the princely states catering to over a lakh of licence holders in the country.

The war highlighted the role the radio could play as a powerful medium of propaganda. Consequently, more transmitters were erected, transmission houses were increased a wide variety of typical talks and feature were introduced, the news service was expanded and the monitoring of important foreign broadcast was organized. Simultaneously, an external service was also introduced.

With the launching of country's first five year plan in 1951, the development of broadcasting was brought within the framework of planned progress. At that stage the primary service on medium wave was available only to about 21 per cent of the population.

By the end of the fifties, 55 per cent of the population had been brought within its reach, while a 2nd grade service on short wave was available in most parts of the country under the fourth plan. The AIR's medium wave broadcasts covered at least 80 per cent of population of each state.

The range of listening to AIR has been rapidly widening. The number of broadcasting receiver licences has risen from a meagre 2,75,000 in 1947 to 1,28,94,535 by the end of 1972 and 1,48,48,097 in 1974. (India, 1974:106; India, 1976:114)

All India radio reaches the rural area by means of community listening sets installed for public use in large number of villages as also a network of rural listening clubs. The sound broadcast network of All India Radio consists of five zones comprising 69 centres which cover all the important cultural and linguistic regions of the country.

The programme broadcast from All India Radio fall broadly into the following category.

1. Regional Programmes - Broadcasts from different stations in regional languages, these programmes while maintaining an underlined national purpose are necessarily oriented to the needs of each region fostering and reflecting its cultural, aspirations and attainments.

2. National Programmes - Centrally devised and broadcast from all stations include music, plays, features and talks and programmes specially designed for occasions of national importance.
3. Jews and cultural affairs - These are put both centrally and from regional stations in English and Indian languages.
4. External Service Programmes - Broadcast in English, Indian and foreign languages, these are directed towards listeners in foreign countries and Indians overseas.
5. Light Music plays and Features - These are broadcast under Vividh Bharati and its Commercial Service.
6. Rural programmes - While programmes for rural areas have always been broadcast from every AIR stations, a concerted effort has been made in recent years to make them more purposeful by establishing forums and have units at 29 stations. These units plan and produce, programmes on agricultural, animal husbandary, co-operation cottage industry and allied subjects keeping in view the pattern of development in particular areas.
7. Family Planning Campaigns - Family Planning units at the various stations at AIR, under the guidance of special cell at the headquarters, plan and produce programmes for use in rural areas, for industrial workers

women and youth. Also radio support is provided to the campaigns organised by the department of Family Planning and by the State Governments. Family Planning programmes are also projected as a broad based social movement, closely linked with maturity, child health and nutrition. Family Planning Programmes are broadcast in all the major languages in the country and in a large number of dialects of various regions. The number of such broadcast during 1972-73 was about 21,000 (India, 1974:112)

8. Youth Programmes - Primarily education oriented and related to school and university courses are broadcast regularly from different stations. They make an attempt to provide a focus of interest and a forum for the younger generation. The programme however does not permit enough involvement of and participation by youth being only programme for them and not by them.

9. Programme for other groups - Special programmes for woman and for children are regularly broadcast from 37 stations of AIR at least twice a week. Fourteen stations broadcast daily programmes addressed to the members of the armed forces. Special programmes for industrial workers are broadcast from 23 stations four to six days in a week. Similarly, 19 stations located close to the tribal belt carry special programmes for Adivasis. Programme directed to listeners in border areas are broadcast daily from 20 stations.

To reach all sections of the population, AIR's programmes in the home service are broadcast in 20 languages, 22 dialects and 91 tribal languages. In addition the external services of AIR beam their programmes all over the world in 24 languages.

On an average the programme of the duration of more than 117 hours in the aggregate are broadcast daily from different stations of AIR. Music takes about 43 per cent, news about 22.7 per cent, talks, discussions, plays, features and special items for women, children, farmers, industrial workers, student and other group take the rest of the time.

The Vividh Bharati service makes an additional aggregate of 365 hours a day bringing the grand total of aggregate hours of broadcasting for AIR to more than a thousand hours a day. A fuller and precise idea of programme composition is set out in Table 3.

The programme exchange and transcription service of AIR help different stations to exchange outstanding programme, transcribes speeches of eminent personalities, and maintain the sound archives.

### FILMS

Feature films are produced in India since 1912-13.

TABLE 3

PROGRAMME COMPOSITION - 1972

Types of Programmes	Duration		Approximate percentage
	Hrs.	Mts.	
1	2	3	4
Classical Vocal	21,332	45	8.2
Classical Instrument	20,567	59	7.8
Folk Vocal	7,498	32	2.9
Folk Instrumental	237	01	0.1
Light Vocal	26,221	43	10.0
Light instrumental	2,781	01	1.1
Devotional Music	13,021	04	5.0
Film Music	14,211	14	5.4
Western Music	6,509	45½	2.5
Talk, Discussions etc.	18,072	00	6.9
Drama	10,571	19	4.0
News	59,524	58	22.7
Religious	476	15	0.2
Children	3,645	07½	1.4
Women	3,748	40	1.4
Rural	6,183	51	6.2
Industrial	3,692	56	1.4
Armed Forces	4,973	39	1.9
Tribal areas	4,703	38	1.8
Educational	6,324	42	2.4

contd.....

contd.....

	1	2	3	4
Publicity		4,617	16	1.8
Others		12,798	56½	4.9
Total		2,61,714	23	100.0
Vividh Bharati		1,33,291	06	
Grand Total		3,95,005	29	

Source: India, 1974:109.

RG Torney produced Pandalik in 1912. Dada Sahib Palke produced 'Raja Harish Chandra' in 1913. The era of silent film was succeeded by Talkie era in 1931 when Andeshir Irani produced 'Alam Ara'. Today India leads the world in production of feature films. In 1972, 414 feature films were produced, 187 of them in colour. Bombay, Calcutta and Madras are the most important centres for the making of films. In 1972, 134 films were produced in Bombay, 137 in Calcutta and 243 in Madras. Further, a total of 243 short films, including 1,550 films in 35 MM, 879 films in 16 MM and 4 films in 8 MM were also certified for public exhibition.

Films are produced on various themes. Social subjects, however, predominate and 273 films in this category were certified in 1972. Table 4 set out the growth in the number of films produced in India by theme for 1961-1972.

TABLE 4  
THEMATIC CLASSIFICATION 1961-1972

Theme	1961	1966	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Social	162	189	224	238	254	283	273
Crime	30	35	65	64	80	83	82
Fantasy	23	15	13	11	13	8	9
Historical	15	6	5	2	2	5	2
Biographical	5	4	-	3	3	2	3
Mythological	32	20	15	17	18	16	16
Legendary	26	22	19	27	18	12	5
Devotional	2	1	2	3	1	8	6
Children	1	5	3	-	7	13	2
Stunt	5	3	4	2	-	1	6
Adventure	2	16	-	-	-	-	3
Political	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Documentary	-	-	-	-	-	1	4
Horror	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>303</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>350</b>	<b>367</b>	<b>396</b>	<b>433</b>	<b>414</b>

Source: India, 1974:123.



Indian news review, Cartoon films, quickies and documentaries required for public information, education and instruction are produced by the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The division was set up in 1948 and has produced more than 3,000 films during the last 25 year. Most of the films are produced in English and 14 Indian languages. Through its production of 200 films, the division has been recording the contemporary history of India and presenting filmic reports on the socio-economic progress of the country.

Important, newsworthy events within and outside India appear in the weekly national newsmagazines. The films division has exchange arrangements with 21 foreign newsreel organisation for free exchange of important news event. News events are also filmed by State Government film units. At present the division releases one newsreel per region in a month. The cartoon film units of the division produces cartoons by using a variety of techniques.

Films for children are produced mainly by the Children's film Society. It was set in May 1955 as an autonomous body registered under the Society's registration act 1860 to undertake the production, acquisition,

distribution and exhibition of films specially suited to or of special interest to children and adolescent. These films are mostly produced in Hindi and later dubbed in different regional languages. Upto 31 March 73 it has produced or acquired 86 films including features cartoons, puppets and short films.

### TELEVISION

Television made a modest beginning with the setting up of a pilot centre at Delhi on 15 Sep 1959. It has now grown into a full-fledged TV Station with a range of 60 Km. and telecasts programmes from 6.00 P.M. to 10.30 P.M. on all days of the week. The viewers have a range of choice, information, education and entertainment. News in Hindi and English is telecast daily. Commentaries and discussions on current topics are arranged and eminent personalities are interviewed on cultural, literary and contemporary subjects. Feature films in Hindi, English, and regional languages are also telecast. Special audience programmes include programmes for farmers 'Krishi Darshan', the Children's programmes 'Bachchon Ke Liye' and citizen's programmes 'Nagar Vagrik'. For community viewing of these programmes 77 farm tele clubs and 163 urban tele clubs have been organised. In school instructional programmes on selected subjects are also

telecast and the Government have installed 560 television sets in different schools in Delhi.

The Bombay TV Centre started functioning on 2 Oct 1972. Initially programmes were telecast for 2 hrs and 15 minutes every day but extended to a 3 hour daily transmission on 1 Apr 1973. As Bombay is multilingual city, the programmes are telecast in Marathi, Gujarati, Hindi, Urdu <sup>and</sup> English. Programmes are transmitted by a 10 KW transmitter at Poona which has extended the range of Bombay TV programmes by 86 Km. which was commissioned on 2 Oct 73.

The TV Centre at Shri Vagar built at a cost of 3.5 crores started experimental telecast on 26 Jan 73. The one hour service telecast thrice a week was extended to a regular daily service of 4 hrs duration in July, 73.

A special two hour morning transmission is also made on Sundays. Programmes are telecast in Kashmiri and Urdu. More than 150 community sets have been installed in Shri Vagar and in Kashmir Valley.

The fourth TV centre in the country is the Amritsar transmitting station with a range of 78 KM, was commissioned on 29 Sep 73.

Development of television in the fourth Plan envisages the establishment of TV Stations at Calcutta,

Madras, Jullunder and Lucknow and relay centres at Bhatinda, Kanpur, Kassaui, and Mussorie. Two relay centres set up at Calcutta will serve Kharagpur area and Asansol/Durgapur area.

India has also taken advantage of the new space technology and its application to television broadcasting by signing an agreement with USA whose NASA would launch a geo-stationary satellite in 1975 and make it available for India for one year. The satellite was made available for instructional programmes for four hour every day a year and about 2,400 villages in 6 states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan benefitted. From Aug 1 1975, instructional programmes beamed to the satellite from earth stations for direct reception on TV sets. Programmes for primary schools are telecast in the morning transmission everyday while the evening transmission presents programmes on improving agricultural practices, hygiene, family planning, national integration and allied topics.

The setting up of more television stations in the country has led to increased demand for television receiving licences. The demand for receiving Licences has risen from 551 in 1963 to 84,114 at the end of 1972 (India, 1974:114) and 2,75,424 at the end of 1974 (India, 1976:120). A demand projection study made by AIR in 1969 indicated that 3.7 lakhs television sets would be required by the end of fourth

Plan. The Government have sanctioned a capacity of 1,10,000 TV sets in the organized sector (both public and private) and of over 1,70,000 sets in the small scale sector. By the end of 1973, three manufacturers in the organized sector with an annual licence capacity of 40,000 sets and six manufacturers in small scale sector with a capacity of 30,000 sets had started production.

Television has been introduced in India recently compared to the Western countries and it has yet not covered the rural and interior areas of whole of India and is mainly centered in prominent urban towns. In due course of time, the potentialities of television is being realized and with the pace of development, even the people living in rural areas and villages will be able to receive this advantage.

CHAPTER II

EXPOSURE TO MASS MEDIA IN INDIA

Mass communication media are essentially carriers of messages. This is the reason why they are so heavily relied upon both by governments and advertizing agencies as powerful instruments of shaping opinions and attitudes. However, before the messages transmitted through the mass media can have an impact they must be received. Therefore, in order to assess the impact of the mass media in India it is necessary to arrive at an assessment of the degree and extent of exposure to mass media. This chapter tries to review the evidence on this question and to form some idea of the patterns of exposure to mass media in India.

The literature available on the exposure of the Indian public to the mass media is not uniform. Exposure to some media has been more extensively studied while exposure to others has not been researched upon at all. Furthermore, there are no studies that can be said to cover the entire country. For example, surveys of exposure to mass media conducted by private and semi-governmental organizations such as the Operations Research Group, the Indian Institute of Public Opinion, Indian Institute of Mass Communication and a few surveys conducted by individual scholars, are limited both in scope and coverage like Atal, (Atal, Delhi, National, 1973) and Sirsikar (Sirsikar, Poona, 1973).

Perhaps the most elaborate data on exposure to mass media comes from the national readership survey conducted by the Operation Research Group, a well-known consultancy organization, during September-December, 1970. The survey covered all the regions of India, studied the readership of about 130 dailies and 170 weeklies and magazines published in 14 major languages in India. The majority of these publications had a circulation of over 10,000, but a few publications with a circulation of less than 10,000 had also been included in the survey so as to ensure adequate regional coverage. The ORG survey divided India into four zones. The four southern states - Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Mysore, Tamil Nadu-constituted the south zone, the west zone consisted of Gujarat, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh, all the eastern states - Assam, Bihar, Orissa, W. Bengal comprised the eastern zone and the northern zone was comprised by Delhi, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. The sample of respondents whose readership was assessed through this survey was designed to be representative of all the persons in India aged 15 years and above, except those living in Jammu and Kashmir, NEFTA and the off-shore territories like Andaman and Nicobar, etc. In all, a sample of 54,000 adults over the age of 15 was selected randomly. About 39,000 interviews in 261 towns and 15,000 interviews in 722 villages were conducted.



The survey estimates that 13.2 per cent of the adult population in India is exposed to the press. When the survey was conducted the total population in India was known to be 547.4 million but the corresponding estimate of the adult population over the age of 15 was not yet known. It was estimated to be 325.7 million (or 59.5 per cent of the total population). On this basis the survey concluded that the actual number exposed to press comprised of 43.0 million adults.

The survey estimated a 'reader' on an average read about three publications (of course there being some who read only one and others who read more than three). Thus the total number of readers read approximately (43X3) 129 million copies. As against this the total circulation of various publications covered in the survey was only about 14.4 million. It is common knowledge that in India all the readers of newspaper and periodicals do not necessarily buy them. Newspapers and magazines are often borrowed from friends and neighbours or read in the office or circulating libraries. Therefore, the survey concluded this wide difference between the circulation of publications and their total readership to mean that a copy was sold over every 9.1 readers. Table 5 gives the per cent of adults exposed to press vis-a-vis the per cent of literacy (1971 census)

**TABLE 5****PER CENTAGE OF ADULTS EXPOSED TO PRESS AND PER CENTAGE OF LITERACY**

State	Kerala	W. Ben- gal	Tamil- Nadu	Maharash- tra	Gujarat	Assam	Mysore	Haryana & H.P. Delhi, Punjab	Andhra Pradesh	Bihar	Orissa	Madhya pradesh	Uttar Pro- desh	Rajasthan
Per-centage adults exposed to press	39.4	27.3	22.4	19.1	17.4	12.1	10.2	9.7	9.4	7.4	6.4	5.3	5.3	4.2
Per-centage litteracy 1971 census	60.2	33.1	39.4	39.1	35.7	28.8	31.5	38.8	24.6	19.8	26.1	22.1	21.6	18.8

(includes age group 0-14)

Sources:

CNS, 1971: 6

The exposure to the press was highest in the southern zone and least in the northern zone (exposure to press is highest in Kerala, W.Bengal, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra and lowest in M.P., U.P., & Rajasthan). Though part of this variation can be explained by literacy level, there seems to be other socio-economic factors as well effecting the readership level in the various zones.

Table 9, gives an account of exposure to Press by state.

TABLE 9

EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY STATE

State	Press
Delhi	9.7
Punjab	
Haryana	
H.P.	
Rajasthan	4.2
Uttar Pradesh	5.3
North Zone	6.1
Assam	12.1
Bihar	7.4
Orissa	6.4

Cont'd....

State	Press
W. Bengal	27.3
East zone	14.6
Gujarat	17.4
Madhya Pradesh	5.3
Maharashtra	19.1
West zone	13.8
Andhra Pradesh	9.4
Kerala	39.2
Mysore	10.2
Tamil Nadu	22.4
South zone	18.7
All India	18.2
Actual No Exposed	43.0

Source: ORG, 1971:17.

The survey shows that the exposure to the press varies according to certain social variables. Taking first the difference by sex the survey concluded that exposure to the press is higher among men than women (20% & 7% respectively) or in the ratio of 3:1. Part of the explanation for this is the lower literacy level of women (40% men 18% women). In rural areas, the female readership is very low.

Table 7 gives a picture of the exposure by sex.

TABLE 7

EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY SEX

	<u>MEN</u> Per Cent		<u>WOMEN</u> Per Cent	
	<u>Exposure</u>	<u>Literacy</u>	<u>Exposure</u>	<u>Literacy</u>
North	9.8	33.6	2.7	13.0
East	21.6	36.7	7.8	14.6
West	20.1	43.6	7.4	20.3
South	27.0	46.0	11.2	26.4
All India	19.6	39.5	7.0	18.4

Source: ORG, 1971:13.

Taking the variable of income, exposure to press is the lowest (7.3 per cent) in the below Rs. 200/- income group which forms 75.2 per cent of the total population. At the other extreme it is very high 55.0 per cent in the highest income group which forms only 1.8 per cent of population.

Table 8 gives a picture of exposure to the press by income. Thus, it is clear that Exposure to press increase rapidly as income increases.

TABLE 8

EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY INCOME

	Monthly		Family	Income	
	Below... Rs. 200	Rs. 200-500	Rs. 500-1000	Rs. 1000	Total
North	2.1	9.4	20.7	33.8	6.1
East	6.1	38.8	55.6	75.1	14.6
West	7.0	30.7	54.5	61.9	13.8
South	13.1	38.0	52.3	55.6	18.7
All India	7.3	26.4	40.3	55.0	13.2
Population Weight	75.2	17.9	5.1	1.8	100.0

Source : ORG, 1971:9.

Education-wise, among those who have below S.S.C. education, exposure to press is only 28.5 per cent as

against 85.9 per cent among those who have had college education.

Table 9 brings out the picture of exposure to press by education.

TABLE 9  
EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY EDUCATION

	Illiterate	Below S S C	SSC	College	Total
North	8	12.9	42.0	81.7	6.1
East	8	28.6	79.4	86.3	14.6
West	8	27.9	76.4	85.2	13.8
South	8	38.9	78.3	92.2	18.7
All India	8	28.5	72.2	85.9	13.2
Population Weight	65.4	27.8	3.7	3.1	100.0

Source: ORG, 1971:10

Exposure to press by age according to ORG survey is maximum in the younger age group (15-24 years) and decreases in the higher age groups. It is the least in age group 45 years and above. Table 10 gives the picture of exposure to press by age.

TABLE 10  
EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY AGE

	15-24 years	25-35 years	35-44 years	Over 44 years	Total
North	10.5	7.4	5.7	3.0	6.1
East	21.0	15.9	14.2	9.6	14.6
West	22.0	14.9	13.3	7.8	13.8
South	30.4	20.9	17.8	10.7	18.7
All India	20.9	14.7	12.8	7.6	13.2
Population Weight	26.3	23.7	18.3	31.7	100.0

Source: ORG, 1971:12.



Exposure to press by occupation is highest among professionals (9.1%) followed by those in clerical/Sales/Service and traders. It is lowest among those not in employment like housewives, retired people, and unemployed and also among the workers skilled and unskilled. Table 11 gives an account of the exposure to press by occupation.

TABLE 11  
EXPOSURE TO PRESS BY OCCUPATION

	Workers	Clerical Sales Service	Profe- ssionals	Traders	Not in employ- ment	Total
North	2.3	38.6	65.1	22.0	4.4	6.1
East	7.9	58.7	76.0	27.6	11.5	14.6
West	7.5	51.5	85.1	41.4	11.6	13.6
South	12.8	51.9	79.0	39.3	15.9	18.7
All India	7.5	51.1	76.8	31.6	10.7	13.2
Population Weight	37.1	4.0	1.6	5.2	52.1	100.0

Source: ORG, 1971:11

The ORG survey also finds significant difference in readership patterns according to whether a person lives in an urban or a rural area. Exposure to press among urban residents is five times higher than among those residing in the rural areas though literacy in urban India is only slightly over twice that of the rural areas. Table 12 shows exposure to the press by residence pattern.

TABLE 12  
EXPOSURE TO PRESS URBAN, RURAL, WISE

	URBAN	X X Y	RURAL	
	Per cent adults exposed	Per cent Literacy 1971 Census	Per cent adults exposed	Per cent Literacy 1971 Census
North	24.6	47.9	2.1	18.7
East	50.5	52.0	7.9	21.7
West	38.3	55.3	5.8	24.6
South	37.1	54.5	12.9	30.8
All India	37.2	52.5	7.1	23.60

Source: ORG, 1971/7.

Exposure to press is mostly through language publications. Only 3.6 per cent adults are exposed to the English press as against 12.6 per cent to the language press. Exclusive exposure to the English press is of the order of 0.6 per cent, the balance reading both English and language publications. Exclusive exposure to language press is 9.6 per cent at the All India level.

The Indian Institute of Public Opinion has carried out repeated surveys of newspaper readership in the metropolitan cities of India. The first of these surveys was undertaken in 1970 and was conducted in Calcutta, Bombay, Delhi and Madras. The survey was repeated in 1973, when Lucknow was also added to the list of cities covered, and in 1975. Less broad-based than the URC survey, the surveys conducted by the Indian Institute of Public Opinion nevertheless provide detailed data on several aspects, including the changes in patterns of readership over time. According to the IIPO 1970 survey, the exposure of the metropolitan residents to newspapers seemed almost total. There were only four per cent respondents who said they had never read any newspaper. Further, the survey showed that one in eight persons largely from the have-not classes made do with borrowed copies. According to the October 1973 survey, only one in eight never read any newspaper. As compared to

the survey conducted in 1970 in the four metropolitan cities, the 1973 survey showed that the newspaper readership had declined by about eight per cent. This drop largely occurred because of low readership figure in Bombay where one in four never read any daily. On the other hand in Calcutta and Madras newspaper readership was almost total, the figures for those reading newspapers being 97 per cent and 99 per cent respectively. In Delhi one in eight never read any daily.

The survey carried out in 1975 corroborates the phenomenal growth of newspaper readership and the same pattern on all aspect feature preferences, ranking of newspaper, etc. emerges.

In 1970 English newspapers had an edge over their language counterparts (35 per cent read only English, 27 per cent read only language, and little over one third read both English and language newspapers). However, the survey evidence of 1973 showed that language press had not only overtaken but surpassed the English press (34 per cent read only English dailies, 43 per cent read language dailies and one in four read both English and language dailies) and according to November 1975 survey 49 per cent read language dailies against 31 per cent readers of English dailies only. Table 13 gives the

TABLE 13

RANKING OF NEWSPAPER IN DESCENDING ORDER  
IN FIVE METROPOLITAN CITIES

English Papers	Bombay	Calcutta	Delhi	Madras	Lucknow	Total
Hindu	-	-	-	61	-	15
Indian Express	17	-	21	21	4	14
Statesman	-	36	6	6	2	12
Hindustan Times	1	1	37	1	5	1
Lignes of India	32	1	10	1	5	9
Amrita Bazar Patrika	-	17	-	-	-	4
National Herald	-	-	-	-	37	4
Mail	-	-	-	10	-	2
Free Press Journal	5	-	-	-	-	1
<u>Language Papers</u>						
Anand Bazar Patrika	-	59	1	-	-	15
Jugantar	-	36	-	-	-	9
Vew Bharat	7	-	30	-	1	8
Swatantra Bharat	-	-	-	-	49	5
Dina Thanti	-	-	-	19	-	5
Bombay Samachar	23	-	-	-	-	4
Lok Satta	20	-	-	-	-	4
Hindustan	1	-	13	-	2	5
Maharashtra Times	16	-	-	-	-	3
Vav Shakti	5	-	-	3	-	2
Janbhoomi	8	-	-	-	-	2
Maratha	7	-	-	-	-	1
Vav Jivan	-	-	-	-	13	1
Others	27	13	15	25	17	19

Source: I.I.F.O., Oct. 1973:X (the supplement).

ranking of newspapers in descending order in terms of readership. According to the IIPO, the figures should be read with two riders. First readership does not indicate the circulation of various newspaper listed for the survey covered only five cities. Secondly the share of each newspaper is subject to the sampling error of two per cent for all the cities combined together and four per cent for each city.

So far as readership of magazines and periodicals is concerned, according to the 1970 survey evidence three in four persons interviewed read periodical in metropolitan cities. According to 1973 survey evidence, six in ten persons interviewed read one or more periodicals. Madras lead the other cities by a wide margin with 86 per cent reading periodical or magazines.

Readership of periodicals unlike that of newspaper is not restricted to physical distances except that the languages periodicals are read largely to the states where each language is predominant. The illustrated Weekly retains the commanding position among magazines readers, claiming 29 per cent of the total readership in all the five cities. Other leading periodicals are out-ranked by this magazine by a wide margin. Filmfare ranked next to the Illustrated Weekly with only 11 per

cent readership, followed by Samita (9 per cent), and Reader's Digest (9 per cent). Hit has the lowest readership (6 per cent) in the five cities. In Delhi Dharmayug claims two fifth of the magazine readership. Santahik Hindustan is way behind Dharmayug in this city with 13 per cent readership. These two magazines are however read by a larger proportion in Lucknow (43 and 30 per cent respectively) than in Delhi. The dominance of language periodicals is seen in Madras and Calcutta.

Table 14 gives a picture of feature preferences. Citywise, editorials are read more regularly in Madras (47 per cent) and Calcutta (44 per cent), than in other cities. There are more sport fans in Calcutta (7 per cent) and Madras (6 per cent) than in other cities (Delhi 30 per cent). Advertisements catch the attention of a sizeable segment of readers in Madras (47 per cent) and in Bombay (41 per cent). In Delhi one in four finds only advertisements of interest.

The survey conducted by the Monthly public opinion survey (October, 1973) of four Metropolitan cities Calcutta, Bombay, Delhi and Madras brings out interesting variation with regard to social variables of sex, education and income. A large proportion of male literates (91 per cent) read newspaper as compared to female respondents (82 per cent).

Table 14THE STRUCTURE OF NEWSPAPER READERSHIP

	No. of respon- dents	Regu- larly	Occa- sionally	Very Occa- sionally	Not Interes- ted	Total
News about local events	1981	88	9	3	1	100
News about national events	1981	75	17	5	3	100
News about other countries	1981	59	22	11	7	100
Sports News	1981	39	18	13	30	100
Letters to the Editors	1981	33	23	14	28	100
Cartoons	1981	55	17	9	19	100
Review of Films	1981	40	20	13	27	100
Financial News	1981	23	14	15	48	100
Advertise- ments	1981	36	22	17	25	100

Source: IIPD, October 1973:IV.

Among the bare literates only 40 per cent were regular readers. Newspaper readership on survey evidence begins to expand with an education of secondary level onwards until it becomes almost universal amongst the University educated.



Income too is a significant variable. In the low income bracket (Rs. 150) 88 per cent read dailies. Amongst not so poor (Rs. 151 - Rs. 300) three in ten never read any newspaper. As in case of education, newspaper readership begins to expand with levels of income, for income is a factor having close co-relation with levels of education. According to Monthly Public Opinion survey of October 1973 of only four metropolitan cities no variation was observed in age-wise breakthrough.

The Monthly Public Opinion survey November 1970 also gives an account of whether there are differences in the content of the media to which people are exposed on the basis of social variables. The young respondents of the survey done of four cities Madras, Calcutta, Delhi, Bombay 70 per cent were more avid readers of magazines and periodicals than newspapers, than the old (65 per cent). Readership of language papers is very high among bare literates (93 per cent) and some belonging to secondary education level (78 per cent) category. Among university educated, preference for English dailies, for reasons of better coverage of news and events and variety of features, remain fairly high. Thus 54 per cent graduates read English papers only against the corresponding figure of 16 per cent for the language readers. Three in ten graduate, however, read both English and language papers. Income-wise also the same phenomenon is observed. With the rise in income the

preference for language periodical declines. Unlike newspapers readership, a larger proportion (63 per cent) of women read periodicals and magazines than men (61 per cent).

Some individual scholars have also studied exposure to mass media. Their study were conducted mainly at the time of elections. So they give a picture of the pattern of exposure to mass media during election time. Table 15 presents the pattern of newspaper readership revealed by Bissiker's study of the urban and rural parliamentary Constituency of Faona.

Maratha was the 3rd important paper in urban constituency and fifth in importance among elite voters. The elite voters in addition read Times of India and Maharashtra Times, either other paper did not received much response. The table also shows that readership of all the papers mentioned above was relatively high among elites.

Some data on readership is also provided by a survey carried out by Atal (Atal, 1971). Atal carried out the survey in three communities in western Uttar Pradesh. He calls these communities COC, LC and SC depending upon their size and population. His study show that among the LC and SC newspapers were not subscribed to by anyone. In view of the low level of literacy exhibited by the sample drawn from these communities, this is understandable. Even in COC<sup>3</sup> as

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3. COC - Centre of centre's Community.

**TABLE 15**  
**NEWSPAPERS READING IN URBAN AND RURAL POONA PARLIAMENTARY CONSTITUENCY**

Constituency	Sakal	Kesari	Tarun Bharati	Vishal Subyadri	Prabhat	Times of India	Maharashtra Times	Maratha
Sivaji Nagar	69	20	6	5	17	12	17	15
Kasla	96	18	12	4	17	9	19	20
Sukrawar	93	49	20	6	1	15	19	20
Cantonment	40	4	9	1	7	20	7	9
Bhavani	72	19	10	9	13	9	9	19
<b>Total</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>(Percentage)</b>	<b>48.68</b>	<b>14.47</b>						<b>(11.97) N=760</b>
<b>Mulshi</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>9 N = 153</b>
<b>(Percentage)</b>	<b>21.57</b>							
<b>Elite</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>204</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>100</b>	
<b>Percentage</b>	<b>73.67</b>	<b>51.65</b>				<b>(55.95)</b>	<b>(25.32)</b>	<b>(17.72) N = 395</b>

SOURCE: Sirsikar  
1973: 175

many as 93 respondents 77.5 per cent did not subscribe any newspapers. Magazine subscribers were still less. Only 23 respondents belonged to this category. While subscribers at home were only 27, there were 34 others who went to other places like reading rooms or friends' house to read the newspaper occasionally or daily. Thus the total newspaper reading public may be put at 61. Among the non-subscribers readers 22 were from COC, 11 from LC<sup>4</sup> and one from SC<sup>5</sup>.

The Indian Institute of mass communication (Yadav, 1971) seized an opportunity during the 1971 parliamentary elections to make a study of exposure to political communication in an Indian village of Haryana State with population of about 9000. Approximately 4,500 voters formed the focus of the study located in the zazaar parliamentary constituency in Haryana State. A sample of 99 voters selected on the basis of stratified random sampling producedur to cover the major caste, education, age and sex categories were interviewed to find out the channels through which the villagers first received information about parliamentary election, regarding the names of the likely contestant from the zazaar constituency, their party affiliation, the programmes of these parties and election symbols. Table 16 gives a brief description of newspapers subscribers in

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4. LC - Link Community.

5. SC - Small Community.

Meerhoti. The survey revealed that none of the newspaper were subscribed to by the lower castes, nor was the number of reader per newspaper very large. Clearly, therefore, we can conclude from these surveys that the extent of exposure to newspapers is greatly limited in the rural areas. On the whole, this appears quite understandable in view of the fact that literacy is low in the rural areas.

TABLE 16

NEWSPAPER SUBSCRIBERS IN MAJIDWALI

Name of the Periodicals	Language	Frequency	Subscribers Name	Caste	Age	To. of Reader
National Herald	English	Daily	Mange-Ram (Ex-sarpanch)	Brahmin	61	0
The Tribune	"	"	Govt. High School Meerhoti	-	-	12
Hindustan	Hindi	"	"	-	-	4
Hindustan	Hindi	"	Aurvedic Hospital	-	-	5
Hindustan	Hindi	"	Shanti Dwarap	Jat	35	5
Pratap	Urdu	"	Shyam Lal Punch	Baria	35	5
Maryana Talk From Rohtak	Urdu	Weekly	Diya Ram (Ex-panchayat Secretary)	Brahmin	77	0

Source: J. S. Yadav, 1971:19

Exposure to Radio

The OIG survey 1971 also collected data on exposure to radio (only Vividh Bharti and Radio Ceylone) Table 17 shows the exposure to radio Vividh Bharti (AIB) and Radio Ceylone by state. It shows that out of the total number of 32,60,00,000

TABLE 17EXPOSURE TO RADIO

	Vividh Bharti	Radio Ceylone
Delhi		
Punjab		
(	17.3	7.3
Maryana		
M.P.		
Rajasthan	5.5	4.3
Uttar Pradesh	5.7	4.1
North Zone	8.3	4.8
Assam	11.0	10.9
Bihar	8.1	7.4
Orissa	6.9	6.8
W. Bengal	22.3	10.6
East Zone	13.1	8.8

Contd.....

	VIVIDH BHARATI	RADIO CEYLONE
Gujarat	14.7	12.8
Madhya Pradesh	19.9	10.4
Uttar Pradesh	16.1	13.7
West Zone	14.0	12.4
Andhra Pradesh	8.7	7.8
Kerala	21.7	32.2
Mysore	12.0	12.0
Tamil Nadu	12.6	17.4
South Zone	12.9	14.2
All India	12.0	9.9
Actual To Exposed	39.1	32.2

Source: ORG, 1971:17.

4,30,00,000 (13.3 per cent) are exposed to Vividh Bharati and 3,20,00,000 (9.9 per cent) to radio ceylone. Exposure to Vividh Bharti is almost uniform in all the zones except the north. Exposure to radio Ceylone is highest in the South and West zones.

A survey of radio listening conducted by a Monthly Public Opinion survey in 1957 in Madras - by no means a backward state - had revealed that more than half the urban population never listened to radio. A succeeding survey carried out in 1971 recorded a steady rise in radio audience even in small town (65 per cent) and rural areas (56 per cent). In metropolitan cities radio listening was almost universal. Table 18 shows the growth of the radio audience from 1960-1973.

TABLE 18  
GROWTH OF RADIO AUDIENCE 1960-1973

	Percentage					
	All India Urban		Metropolitan City	Small Towns	Rural	Metropolitan cities
Listen to Radio	1960	1962	1967-1970	1971	1971	1973
Yes	74	79	98- 96	66	51	92
No	26	21	2- 4	34	49	8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: I.I.P.O., November 1973; blue Supplement.



The survey conducted by the Monthly Public Opinion Quarterly in 1970, confirmed the survey finding of 1969 that 96 per cent of literate segments listened to radio. This figure included 7 per cent who did not own a radio set, and according to survey of November 1973 only one in eight households did not have a radio set. In Bombay and Lucknow, the proportion of non-owners was higher one sixth and one fourth respectively. Women 66 per cent seem to be more regular listener than men 58 per cent. The pattern of listening of peak hours is similar to that observed in earlier surveys, for it is determined by leisure hours which have not changed. A large proportion listen between 7 to 8 AM (42 per cent) followed by 8 to 9 AM (32 per cent). In the evening 9 to 10 PM are peak listening hours (55 per cent) though evening listening hours in the two preceding hours (47 per cent) between 7 to 8 PM cannot be regarded as negligible. Table 19 shows the listening hours of radio in five metropolitan cities.

City-wise, in Calcutta a large proportion (53 per cent) listen to the radio between 7 to 8 AM after which time radio audience declines drastically (10 per cent). In Madras too a decline between 8 to 9 AM is observed, though it is not so steep (57 per cent to 35 per cent). In Delhi and Lucknow, on the other hand, this pattern is reversed. There, listening is heavier between 8 to 9 AM than in the preceding hours.

**TABLE 19**  
**AT WHAT TIME DO YOU USUALLY LISTEN TO RADIO PROGRAMME**

	BOMBAY	CALCUTTA	DELHI	MADRAS	LUCKNOW	TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6
5 a.m. to 6 a.m.	1	1	2	3	-	1
6 a.m. to 7 a.m.	14	20	9	25	9	16
7 a.m. to 8 a.m.	39	62	28	57	40	46
8 a.m. to 9 a.m.	46	22	52	40	57	41
9 a.m. to 10 a.m.	33	22	35	45	34	34
10 a.m. to 11 a.m.	25	12	21	13	10	17
11 a.m. to 12 noon	39	10	30	27	19	26
12 noon to 1 p.m.	37	42	22	42	20	34
1 p.m. to 2 p.m.	23	79	29	22	37	40
2 p.m. to 3 p.m.	35	61	40	33	47	43
3 p.m. to 4 p.m.	12	14	10	49	8	20
4 p.m. to 5 p.m.	5	4	4	24	1	8
5 p.m. to 6 p.m.	13	8	5	28	12	12
6 p.m. to 7 p.m.	24	15	12	30	9	19
7 p.m. to 8 p.m.	32	51	22	51	31	39
8 p.m. to 9 p.m.	43	24	47	59	67	45
9 p.m. to 10 p.m.	47	67	50	58	70	57
10 p.m. to 11 p.m.	30	63	23	24	20	34
11 p.m. to midnight	3	2	2	2	1	3
not listen on Sunday	17	3	7	4	12	8
Base	x	x	x	x	x	x

**AT WHAT TIME DO YOU LISTEN TO RADIO PROGRAMMES ON WORKING DAYS**

a.m. to 6 a.m.	1	-	2	3	1	1
a.m. to 7 a.m.	10	17	8	23	6	15
a.m. to 8 a.m.	36	53	26	57	34	42
a.m. to 9 a.m.	38	10	41	35	47	32
a.m. to 10 a.m.	19	8	18	32	24	20
a.m. to 11 a.m.	10	3	7	4	3	6
a.m. to 12 noon	17	4	8	5	4	8
noon to 1 p.m.	14	12	6	9	6	10
p.m. to 2 p.m.	7	24	11	13	14	14
p.m. to 3 p.m.	13	15	12	14	17	14

Contd.....

	1	2	3	4	5	6
3 p.m. to 4 p.m.	6	2	4	2	3	4
4 p.m. to 5 p.m.	2	2	2	8	-	3
5 p.m. to 6 p.m.	10	3	3	20	2	8
6 p.m. to 7 p.m.	13	9	7	28	8	15
7 p.m. to 8 p.m.	31	51	20	51	28	38
8 p.m. to 9 p.m.	46	22	53	61	15	47
9 p.m. to 10 p.m.	47	53	60	54	17	55
10 p.m. to 11 p.m.	30	59	24	22	17	32
11 p.m. to midnight	6	1	2	-	2	2
do not listen on work- ing days	11	3	10	4	12	7

Sources: I.I.P.O., Nov 73:VIII

### The pattern of programme preference

The Monthly Public Opinion survey shows that the radio remains primarily a source of news and entertainment. News bulletins (88 per cent) tops the list of preferred features followed closely by Indian film music (86 per cent). Radio plays ranked third in popularity (68 per cent). The figure for Indian classical music (29 per cent) also seems impressive placing this item in the 5th position.

City-wise analysis of feature preferences shows that there are more sport fans in Calcutta and Bombay (43 per cent) than in Delhi (16 per cent) and Madras (12 per cent). Preference for Indian classical music is highest in Madras (43 per cent) and lowest in Delhi (10 per cent) and Calcutta (25 per cent). Bombay leads other cities for its liking of serious programmes by a wide margin. The same trend is observed in women's programme in the city. Table 20 shows the pattern of programme preference.

The Monthly public opinion survey carried out in 1970 brings out the difference in the content of media for those exposed to radio listening on the basis of social variables. It points out that preference for talks and discussions and political commentaries is confined largely to the university educated. About one fifth of the university educated listeners and one sixth less educated listeners

TABLE 20THE PATTERN OF PROGRAMME PREFERENCE

	<u>1970</u> Metropo- litan City	<u>1971</u> Small Towns      Rural		<u>1973</u> Metropolitan City
News Bulletin	86	85	85	86
Sports News	30	14	0	33
Indian Classical Music	27	21	16	29
Indian Film Music	73	71	71	78
Western Popular Music	22	3	1	13
Plays	55	46	34	64
Talks & Discussions	21	19	17	28
Women's Programmes	14	21	10	36
Political Commentary	20	20	13	26
Science Programme	11	8	4	17
Variety Programme	24	26	26	33

Sources: IIPD, November 1973.

preferred these features. Probably this implies that less educated people have aversion to serious programmes and they would rather opt for more entertainment. Another interesting sidelight provided by the survey is a greater

preference (20 per cent) for women's programme among bare literates. The university educated women (10 per cent) by contrast seem to find these programmes of little interest. Film music ranks higher (86 per cent) than over news bulletins (76 per cent) among those belonging to Rs. 150/- income group. The same phenomenon is observed in the case of women and those belonging to the younger generation. Table 21 gives a picture of programme preference according to different social variables.

Yadav's study also covered the problem of exposure to radio listening, except that his data were limited to radio listening during election time. His study shows most of the radios were owned by higher castes. Among the lower castes, Marjans accounted for 76 per cent and the other lower castes 10.83 per cent among the radio owners.

About one third of the respondents never listened to radio broadcasts during the election and about one third of the respondents listened to radio programmes occasionally. Only one fourth of them listened to radio broadcasts regularly. Thus mass media were of lesser significance in regard to educating respondents. Family members, neighbours and friends were the most important sources of election information followed by public meetings and party propaganda. However, comparatively speaking persons belonging to higher castes

TABLE 21

## IN GENERAL WHAT KIND OF RADIO PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE TO LISTEN

	No. of respon- dents	News bulletins	Sports prog- ramme	Indian Classi- cal music	Indian film music	West- ern popu- lar music	plays	Folks & dis- cuss- ions	Women's progra- mmes	Politi- cal commen- tary	Science Progra- mme	Variety Progra- mme	Any other Programme
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<b>Sex</b>													
Male	1368	92	39	28	74	13	59	30	9	32	19	29	6
Female	690	78	20	28	85	13	73	24	61	14	11	38	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Age</b>													
21 to 35 years	1150	84	36	25	89	17	69	26	28	25	19	34	5
36 to 50 years	632	92	31	32	75	10	64	29	27	27	14	32	8
Above 50 years	276	90	23	36	39	7	42	32	17	29	14	25	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Education</b>													
Primary or less	206	78	19	30	79	7	50	16	41	17	9	18	5
Some Secondary	431	86	23	23	82	6	64	18	41	20	10	29	6
Secondary comp- leted or some University	756	88	35	30	79	14	69	29	22	26	17	39	4
University degree or more	665	90	41	30	78	19	62	35	17	34	24	32	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>

contd.....

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<b>INCOME (Monthly in Rs.)</b>													
Upto 150	49	76	25	39	86	16	61	18	16	33	16	18	2
151 to 300	224	88	29	32	84	9	58	23	27	29	13	29	4
301 to 500	493	86	33	26	77	11	67	25	25	22	15	31	8
501 to 750	476	89	36	28	80	11	70	28	29	26	17	35	5
751 to 1000	311	87	35	31	74	17	61	31	27	30	18	35	3
above 1000	425	87	32	29	73	17	66	32	24	29	18	33	8
Refusal	80	85	31	24	75	19	54	23	30	20	23	30	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>CITY</b>													
Bombay	429	81	43	41	81	20	59	45	47	41	29	48	1
Calcutta	488	94	56	25	73	12	77	32	26	31	28	35	15
Delhi	463	87	16	10	81	6	54	13	20	13	3	15	6
Madras	475	82	22	43	75	20	62	25	14	23	11	39	1
Lucknow	203	94	20	20	79	4	63	20	23	22	9	18	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>

Source; 1.1 PO, Nov. 1973 : IX



and having education first received the news more often through radio than the lower caste and uneducated and illiterate respondents came to know about it mainly through party propaganda, kisans and friends.

The study also brings out the difference among those who listened to the radio during ensuing period according to social variables. Persons listening to the radio belonged equally to three age group of the young respondents; 10 per cent did not listen to radio even once, but the non-listeners in the middle age group were 45 per cent and the old age group 50.35 per cent. One out of every five old persons (20 per cent) was regular in listening to the radio. Both in the middle and old age group, the number of persons listening to the radio occasionally was higher than regular listeners. Thus, age was not significantly related with radio listening pattern of the respondent. Table 22 shows the exposure to radio by age.

TABLE 22

EXPOSURE TO RADIO BY AGE

Age	Regular	Occasional	Never	Total
Young	5 50.00	4 40.00	1 10.00	10 100.00
Middle	5 22.73	7 31.82	10 45.45	22 100.00
Old	4 19.05	6 28.57	11 52.38	21 100.00
Total	14 26.41	17 32.68	22 41.51	53 100.00

Source: J. S. Yadava, 1971:67.

among the uneducated respondents about 52 per cent were never exposed to radio and no marked difference was visible in the distribution of primary and middle educational respondents in three categories of media listeners. Of the persons listening to radio regularly, 36 per cent had higher education and 20 per cent were uneducated. Table 23 gives an account of this.

TABLE 23  
EXPOSURE TO RADIO AND EDUCATION

Education	Regular	Occasional	Never	Total
Uneducated	4 16.00	8 32.00	13 52.00	25 47.17
Primary	2 22.22	4 44.44	3 33.33	9 16.98
Middle	3 30.30	3 30.30	4 40.00	10 18.87
High School	3 50.30	2 33.33	1 16.66	6 11.32
College	2 60.67	0 -	1 33.33	3 5.66
Total	14 26.30	17 32.68	22 41.58	53

$$\chi^2 = 7.31, \text{ df } 8 \text{ N S}$$

Source: J. S. Yadava, 1971: 70.

among the regular and occasional listeners the number of persons belonging to the higher caste was higher as

compared to those of the lower caste and the Harijan respondents. The percentage of persons who were never exposed to radio was comparatively higher in case of lower castes (66.66 per cent) and Harijans (59.95 per cent). But difference in the listening pattern on the basis of the caste of the respondent was statistically not significant. Table 24 brings this out.

TABLE 24  
EXPOSURE TO CASTE AND RADIO

Caste	Regular	Occasional	Never	Total
Higher	11 37.84	91 37.84	7 24.32	29 54.72
Lower	1 11.11	2 22.22	6 66.66	9 16.98
Harijan	3 13.32	4 26.67	9 60.00	15 28.30
Total	14 26.41	97 32.08	22 41.51	53

$$X^2 = 8766 \quad df \quad 4 \quad NS$$

Source: J. S. Yadav, 1971

Yadav's study found that rural listeners easily registered spectacular news. Of course, factors like education, information level base and interest of listeners had significant bearing upon the comprehension, registration and retention of particular news items. The listener generally

picked up the main point of sensational news in the news broadcast while most of the details and other news items were lost to them. Within a short span of time the news spread to the whole community.

Atal's study (1971) of three communities in a western district in the state of Uttar Pradesh found that of the 52 persons in the sample roughly 25 per cent owned radio receivers. Of these 45 were inhabitants of C O C and 7 of L C. No one from S C owned a radio.

#### EXPOSURE TO CINEMA

The ORG survey also collected information on exposure to the cinema. The data on the exposure to cinema compiled by the survey are set out in Table 25. It shows that out of a total number of 32,60,0000 20.4 per cent are exposed to cinema. Exposure to cinema is highest in the South zone. The importance of cinema in south zone both for men and women are tremendous. Table 26 brings this out.

Atal (1971) had taken an account of exposure to cinema of the three communities in a western district in the state of Uttar Pradesh. The respondents were asked whether they have seen any movie in the past three months. Despite the cinema Hall situated in C O C, 68 people about (57 per cent from the community did not see any pictures during the

TABLE 25EXPOSURE TO CINEMA

Delhi, Punjab, HP, Haryana	13.9
Rajasthan	6.5
Uttar Pradesh	6.7
North Zone	8.3
-----	
Assam	21.3
Bihar	9.3
Orissa	9.7
W. Bengal	31.5
East Zone	18.3
-----	
Gujarat	17.2
Madhya Pradesh	13.2
Maharashtra	25.1
West Zone	19.4
-----	
Andhra Pradesh	33.0
Kerala	29.5
Mysore	22.4
Tamil Nadu	49.4
South Zone	36.2
-----	
All India	20.4

Source: OIG, 1971:17

TABLE 26EXPOSURE TO BASIC MEDIA - BY SEX

	Press		V. Bharati		Radio Ceylon		Cinema	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
North	9.8	2.7	10.2	6.3	5.7	4.0	11.8	5.1
East	21.6	7.0	17.5	8.4	11.6	5.6	23.5	12.0
West	20.1	7.4	17.7	10.2	15.7	4.0	26.5	12.4
South	27.0	11.2	15.7	10.3	17.2	10.9	44.2	28.4
All India	19.6	7.0	15.2	8.6	12.4	7.3	26.3	14.3
Vo. of adults	31.6	11.4	24.7	14.4	20.2	20.0	42.0	24.8
U	16.9	7.7	11.7	8.5	9.4	6.6	19.9	12.7
F	14.7	3.7	13.0	5.9	10.8	5.4	23.6	11.3

Source: OIG, 1971:19.

period under reference. The number of people who had not seen any picture was strikingly high in LC and still higher in SC (51 out of 65 in LC and 28 out of 30 in SC).

#### EXPOSURE TO TELEVISION

Regarding the exposure to television no All India survey is available. If we take into account the number of receiver licence, it does not tell us of the per centage of viewers as one TV set is viewed by many but the approximate estimate is that one TV set both privately owned and community set is viewed by about 10 people. According to Audience Research Unit, Delhi, January, 1976, there were 405 TV sets per 10,000 persons in Delhi area only.

Of the total members of TV families, youth (16-25 years) and children (below 15 years) constitute 25 per cent each. 7 out of every 10 TV family belong to upper middle and middle class in Delhi. Of the total members, one third are graduate and highly qualified while one fifth are diploma holders/educated upto higher secondary level. 32 per cent of the total members are working, 23 per cent housewives and 32 per cent students. 51 per cent of TV households have monthly income upto 1500/- while others

belonging to higher income groups. 58 per cent of TV families own a house, 44 per cent are living in rented house/Govt. accommodation and the rest i.e. 1 per cent have acquired the house in hire purchase basis. 7 out of every 10 TV families have three or more living rooms. Maximum number of TV families subscribe to newspapers (79 per cent) and magazines (56 per cent) in English. Hindi newspaper and magazines are subscribed by 36 per cent and 40 per cent respectively. Table 27 shows the socio-economic status of Delhi TV households.

TABLE 27

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF TV HOUSEHOLDS IN DELHI

Socio Economic Status	Percentage of Households
Upper	26.6
Upper Middle	34.3
Middle	38.5
Lower Middle	0.7

There is no fixed time of tuning to TV in 8 out of every 10 TV homes.

TV is seen regularly by 54 per cent, frequently by 26 per cent, occasionally by 17 per cent and rarely by

3 per cent in Delhi. Average daily viewing has been worked out 66 per cent. It is maximum on Sunday (90 per cent) when feature film in Hindi is shown and minimum on Tuesday (48 per cent). Samachar is more popular than news today. On an average day 'Samachar' and 'News-today' are viewed by 38 and 16 per cent respectively. Table 28 gives the popularity of some of the programme.

This gives the pattern of the exposure to Mass Media through some of the studies. UNESCO has suggested a yardstick by which to measure the sufficiency or insufficiency of mass communication facilities in the developing countries. As an immediate target the organization says, every country should aim to provide for every 100 of its inhabitants, ten copies of daily newspaper, five radio receivers, two cinema seats and two television receivers.

Judging from this yardstick, India is still very backward so far as development of mass media as compared to other Western countries is concerned. Exposure is largely concentrated in urban areas rather than rural areas and to higher socio-economic strata and to higher educated group. Barker Chanchal, says that 'Indian press is elitist and



TABLE 28

POPULARITY OF SOME OF THE TV PROGRAMMES

Programme	Day	Time (PM)	Popularity % of viewing
Feature Film	Sunday	4.30	87.4
Chitra Haar	Wednesday	8.15	80.0
Play	Monday	8.40	59.0
Yaden Jo Kuchh Yaad Aahen	Thursday	6.00	56.0
Sports 1) Events	Wednesday	8.45	47.5
ii) Magazines	Sunday	8.45	17.1
Youth Forum	Friday	8.30	28.5
Ghar Parivar	Sunday	7.30	27.6
Yuva Manch	Tuesday	8.30	26.5
Children's Programme	Friday Tuesday	6.00 6.00	26.5 20.5
Aap Our Hum	Thursday	6.45	22.1
Mirror of the world	Saturday	9.15	21.0
Current Affairs (Hindi)	Friday	8.15	17.5
Perspective	Friday	9.15	16.5
Mid-week Review	Wednesday	9.15	14.5

metropolitan and it does not reach even a majority of those who can read' (Nieman Reports, 1967:25-27).

Low literacy level is one of the reasons for this and readership of newspaper is largely restricted by these considerations. With regard to radio, cinema and television which cut across literacy requirement the exposure is more than with regard to newspaper but not to the satisfactory level which may be accounted due to low economic condition of the people also and India has still to go a far way ahead.

Journalists themselves cannot easily determine how much newspaper influence the public opinion or change the governments. What-ever survey has been in India however suggests that at least the attention paid by the public to editorial views in the major papers is still flatteringly large. More the pity therefore, that Indian newspaper seem to be paying less and less attention to strengthening the editorial writing and staff and neglecting their opinion inducing side. The reason partly lies with owners of newspaper who have other business interests also and newspaper are not specially important as revenue gathering instrument (Sarkar Chenchal, Nieman report, 1961:25-27). If Indian press is to be truly representative of the people in street, the growth has to

lie with the language press. It does not mean that elitist papers should disappear. Growth of language paper is taking place and growth and expansion of Indian press is inevitable and no one can hold it back.

CHAPTER III

IMPACT OF MASS MEDIA ON SOCIAL AND POLITICAL  
ATTITUDES AND OPINION

There have been very few studies showing the impact of mass media on social and political attitudes and motivations towards change. All attempts at communication are in sense experimental and whether messages get through and impart the intended meaning is always somewhat uncertain. This is particularly true of experiments in introducing change. Then caste, status, education class differences too have their bearing on the impact created on the individual. As Ramashray Roy (Ramashray Roy, 1973) suggests the differing socio economic background has a crucial conditioning affect on the acquisition of certain mental and social attainments. Some of the studies which have been taken into consideration here (for example Rao, 1966. I.I.M.C., 1967. Teurath Paul M., 1962. Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968. Mathur S.C., 1965. Ramashray Roy, 1973 etc.,) show that the gain in knowledge score is more as a result of exposure to mass media but so far as trial and adoption is concerned it is still at a low level.

Among the available studies dealing specifically with communication and its relevance for development, Rao's discussion of two villages in Andhra Pradesh is perhaps the most outstanding. Rao's study (Rao, 1966) takes two villages, Kothuru and Pathuru. The former is an industrializing village while the latter is a non-industrializing village. Again, Kothuru is more exposed to mass media than Pathuru.

Pathuru. The information base of the people in Kothuru was more up to date regarding every day matters about village and outside. They displayed a greater degree of awareness and reflected a higher incentive for education to better the lot of their children. On the other hand, Pathuru was incapable or fumbled of answering or thinking in such terms. People of Kothuru are more optimistic about future with the awareness of change which has come for the good to the village and the alternative choice which has opened up before them to better their lot by taking advantage of the opportunities. The basic difference in knowledge and in perception of change which separates Kothuru and Pathuru automatically separates them in their future orientation and to their ability to empathize. Lakshmana Rao says, "The most striking difference, between Kothuru and Pathuru in response to empathy questions was that Kothuru's respondents were better able to suggest specific action programme..... that more industry should be brought into the village", his counterpart in Pathuru would suggest, that people's welfare should be taken care of (Rao, 1966, Page 74).

A secular and rational division of labour based on interest and aptitude rather than birth and caste and more political motivity is developing in Kothuru while Pathuru still has not been able to come out of its traditional bondage. In Kothuru there is freer mixing between elite and

people and people show greater readiness to depend for advice on the informed, the educated and the qualified than the person who have age or status as in Pethuru.

Again, Kothuru's people were more directly exposed to five year plan's than Pethuru where few knew that agricultural loan facilities, the visiting V.L.W and compulsory and free primary education are all part of the five year plan. Table 29 shows the knowledge of government plans and attitudes towards them in the two villages.

TABLE 29

KNOWLEDGE OF GOVT PLANS AND ATTITUDE  
TOWARDS THEM

	Kothuru	Pethuru
Residents who had heard about plans	34	17
Attitudes of those who had heard....		
Approve fully	14	3
Approve half-heartedly	16	8
Disapprove	2	6
Don't Know	2	0

Source: Rao, 1966:91.

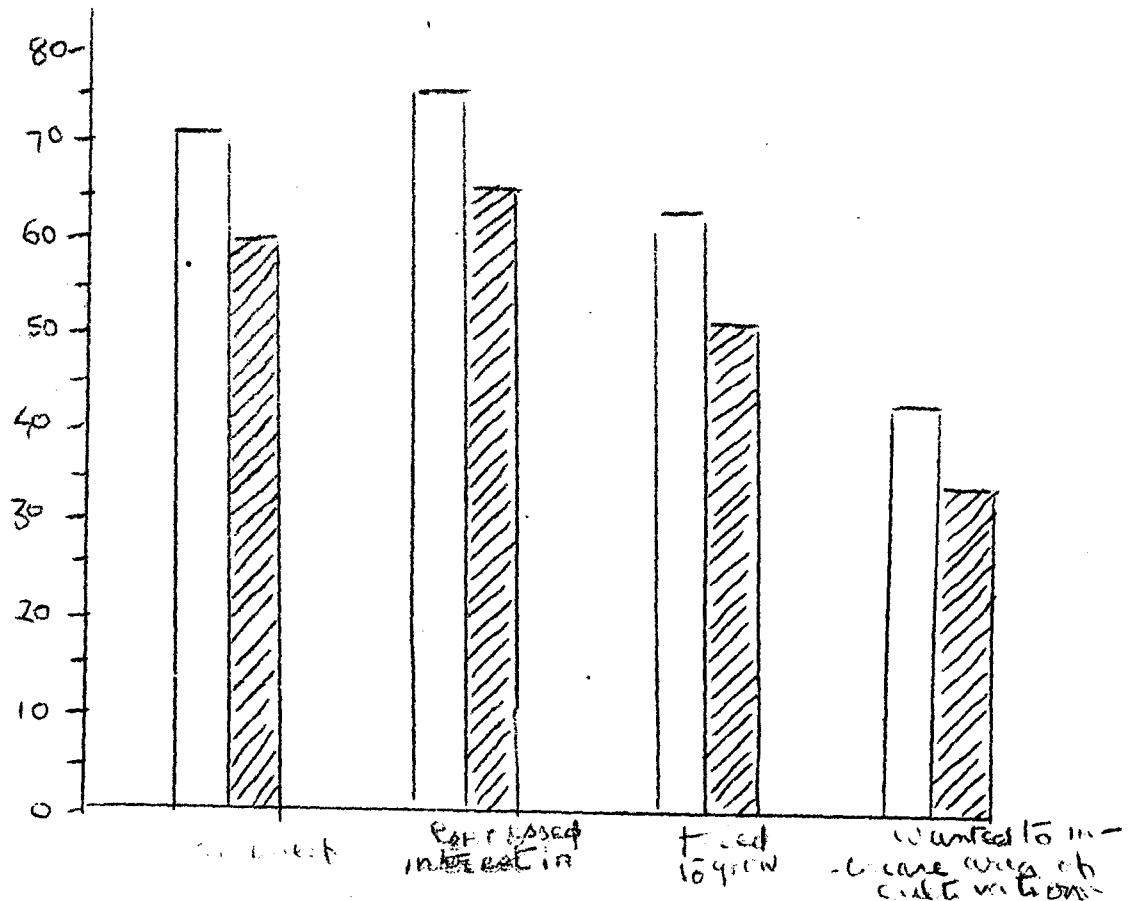
Through a comparative analysis of the two villages, Rao says that communication and development are related and inter-action is constant and cumulative but at the same time he points out that particular development orientation is not entirely due to exposure to mass media but because of communication which includes mass media as well as more travel outside and greater diffusion of inter-personal communication as well as greater urbanization and education.

A study was undertaken by I.I.M.C. (IIMC, 1967) to find out the general impact of the broadcast by Farm and Home Cells of the All India Radio on the diffusion of information about high yielding variety of crop in certain selected regions of India. The data were secured in 33 villages of HYP areas and 392 small, 223 medium and 205 large size cultivators were interviewed. The data were gathered in villages which were covered (referred to as group A) and not covered (referred to as group B) by the Farm and Home Cell programme. Table 30 brings out what many percentage of respondents were aware of, interested in, and tried to grow or wanted to adopt, high yielding variety of crop in group A and Group B type villages.



TABLE 30

PERCENT OF FARMERS IN GROUP A AND B, WHO WERE AWARE OF EXPRESSED INTEREST IN, HAVE TRIED TO GROW AND WANTED TO INCREASE AREA OF CULTIVATION OF HIGH YIELDING VARIETY OF CROP.



Group A - Farmers in villages covered by the AIR Farm and Home Cell  
 Group B - Farmers in villages not covered

Source: IIMC, 1967:22

From the graph it is evident that difference in Group A and Group B type villages have not been very wide. Positive replies came from 60.87 percent of the total sample; 10.02 percent of the farmers expressed a slight liking for the propagated variety of crop. The attitude of the large size cultivators was more favourable. The Table 31 shows the attitude and the size of cultivated land.

TABLE 31

ATTITUDE & SIZE OF CULTIVATED LAND

		Attitude		
		Likes	Slightly Likes	Does'nt Like
Small	392	56.86	10.71	21.69
Medium	223	65.46	7.62	18.39
Large	205	63.41	11.22	18.05
Total Sample	820	60.87	10.02	19.93

Source: IIMC, 1967:17.

The farmers mentioned various reasons for liking the new varieties: 66.65 per cent indicated that they liked them for their high yielding characteristic. They attributed their knowledge of the high yielding variety to various sources of information such as personal experience (9.42 per cent), village level worker (14.80 per cent), neighbours (18.00 per cent) and radio (1.81 per cent). More than one fourth mentioned 'good price' as the reason for their liking the new variety. 'Good for home consumption' was given by 15.73 per cent, 'requires less investment' was given by 11.5 per cent, 'not susceptible to pest and disease' was mentioned by 12.07 per cent.

The study found that inter personal sources like Gram Sewak were the first agents of agro-information at the village level for about 80 per cent of the farmers. Radio was the first source of information for one among five farmers in Group A while radio was 1st source of information of one among ten farmers in Group B type of villages. Thus, it is clear that the effectiveness of the radio as a source of information was less than that of interpersonal sources of communication. Unfortunately, the study does not establish how far those who adopted the new varieties of seeds were actually influenced by the radio.

Jewrath Paul M.'s account (April,

1962:275-83) throws further light on the role of the radio in agricultural change. Paul studied the effect of the Radio Farm Forums of the All-India Radio, Poona. So far as gain in knowledge ~~was~~ through these farm forums was concerned the study showed that the 400 forum member (20 each in 20 village) began with an average of 6.4 points on 18 point scale expressed levels of knowledge. After the experiment they ended with an average of 12 points. The 200 respondents in the 10 control villages with no forum group began with an average of 6.5 and ended with an average of 7.0. For the 200 respondent in 10 controlled villages without radio, nothing changed. The average was 4.0 before and 4.5 after the experiment.

The impact of the whole experiment in the form of immediate action could be seen during the short period of experiment itself and a few weeks thereafter because of the impending Monsoon. Villages collected money for pure breed bull, chickens were vaccinated against Ranikhaat disease, took decision to hire a Kindergarten teacher, dug ditches to keep the street clean during monsoon and took steps to rout out guine a worm within 3 days of listening of to the radio programme by disinfecting the water and converting the step down well into rope and bucket well. Beyond the immediate actions visible in

written records, the real impact went much deeper. Quite a number of forums turned into little village Parliament to take these decisions.

The most spectacular conclusion suggested by Paul's experimental study was that the impact of Radio Farm Forums was not uniform on all respondents. Quite to the contrary, the degree of impact varies according to whether the listening was organized or unorganized. Where the respondents listened to the radio entirely on their own, they showed much less susceptibility to the radio. On the other hand, where there existed a properly organized farm forum the susceptibility was much greater.

The study by Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel and Sen, (1968) brings out that, while knowledge about percentage spreads rather quickly, trial and adoption tends to be slow and at a low level. This study, the third Indian Report of the diffusion of innovations project, tried to measure the continuing result of communication treatment of radio farm forum, literacy classes and control villages (no treatment) between the period 1964 to 1965 and 1966 to promote innovations like modern agriculture, health and family planning practices. The location of the site of the study was near the city of Lucknow.

In General, the radio forum treatment villages showed more progress than literacy and control villages in regard to knowledge, trial and adoption variables with regard to improve and practice in agriculture and health, but the averages for the three sets of villages did not vary significantly. Average trial and adoption figures ranged from a low of 0.57 average adoption in 1967 in the control villages to a high of only 1.56 average in the radio village for that year.

Table 32 shows the percentage of respondents having adopted practices by comparing the communication treatment and control villages in three periods. With the increased publicity given to family planning in 1965 and 1966 figures approximately doubled for all sets of villages in 1966. There was a much smaller increase from 1966 to 1967. Surprisingly, the control village made the greatest gain in knowledge of family planning from 1964-67. However differences among the three sets of villages were not significant. Table 33 shows the percentage of respondents who knew about family planning.

It is apparent that there was widespread knowledge of family planning in 1967 and that the communication treatment did not produce any lasting difference. It can be said

**TABLE 32**  
**PER CENT OF RESPONDENTS HAVING ADOPTED PRACTICES COMMUNICATION & CONTROL VILLAGE**  
**COMPARED, 1964, 1966 & 1967**

	1964			1966			1967		
	Radio	Literacy	Control	Radio	Literacy	Control	Radio	Litt-eracy	Contr
<b>Agriculture</b>									
JMRC	19	7	18	22	5	15	59	11	40
Superphosphate	10	14	23	49	20	35	78	39	29
Line Sowing of wheat	24	19	14	56	46	18	71	52	48
Improved Potato Seed	16	11	13	42	29	22	46	24	22
Green Manure	10	21	14	15	31	11	34	18	11
Amonium Sulphate	73	54	67	70	24	57	72	52	53
Insecticide	42	25	45	41	43	28	80	35	54
Modern Plow	41	45	34	77	66	59	90	76	67
3 or 5 time cultivator	1	3	1	4	3	1	6	4	3
Animal inoculation	23	21	10	24	27	27	52	20	14
<b>Health</b>									
PRAL Latrines	1	2	1	4	2	6	3	3	0
Smokeless Chula	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bad Bug Killer	15	10	8	13	42	8	33	5	9
Modern Child Birth	1	2	2	3	6	6	3	16	9
PABC	44	52	55	62	51	23	70	44	88

that regular block programmes and other channels of communication had brought the information to all the villages, including control village.

TABLE 33

PERCENT OF RESPONDENTS WHO KNEW ABOUT  
FAMILY PLANNING, RADIO TREATMENT AND  
CONTROL VILLAGES COMPARED.

Treatment	1964	1966	1967
Radio form forum	37.97	82.28	83.54
Literacy Classes	45.13	84.96	86.73
Control	29.86	73.56	86.21

Sources: Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968:26.

In regard to average number of methods known and respondents who practiced family planning, table 34 shows that radio villages scored higher.

TABLE 34

Treatment	1964	1966	1967
Radio Form Forum	6.33	8.86	11.39
Literacy Classes	1.77	7.96	2.65
Control	1.15	3.45	5.75

Sources: Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968:29.



This study also attempted an examination of attitudes towards programmes of change like:-

- a. trying a new method of farming
- b. bringing about children in a modern way
- c. housewives getting more schooling and of items as an indication of social change like:-
  - a) political knowledgeability of national, state and area political figures.
  - b) formal social participation.
  - c) Secularism.

which he speaks a generally national set of values, orientation to the larger society rather than to village and pre-disposition to accept some social change. Radio villages had the highest average score followed by literacy, control villages, but the differences between them were not much as Table 35 on social participation index and Table 36 on Secularism index show respectively.

TABLE 35

AVERAGE SCORE, FORMAL SOCIAL PARTICIPATION INDEX

<u>Treatment</u>	<u>1964</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>
Radio farm forum	1.19	1.12	2.09
Literacy classes	0.72	1.18	0.81
Control	0.69	1.11	1.15

Source: Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968:43

TABLE 36AVERAGE SCORE, SECULARISM INDEX

Treatment	1964	1966	1967
Radio farm forum	3.25	2.30	3.63
Literacy classes	3.41	3.09	3.43
Control	2.98	2.52	3.89

Source: Kivlin, Roy, Fliegel, Sen, 1968:44

The item which stood out as inducing a traditional response was, "if your son wanted to marry a low caste girl, would you allow it". Only 33 or (12 per cent) of the respondents answered in the affirmative to this question. In general, all villages scored about midway between the extremes of secular and traditional scores.

The study points out that considering variables associated with adoption, a principal means of learning about new practice is through some extension organization. Personal communication channels are also important but the information for the leaders and innovators come chiefly through impersonal contact with the larger society. The innovators information and persuasion flow outward to the bulk of cultivators and reinforces the impact of the mass media.

Mathur J.C. (Mathur, Orient Longman's, 1965) emphasizes in his study that the extent of listening and the kind of response of the audience vary considerably depending on whether the village has a properly organized radio farm forum, or is located in the community block area or enjoys neither facility. Mathur tells of the Tata Institute of social sciences (see Mathur J.C., Omprath Paul M, Paris, UNESCO, 1969) which organized a detailed survey in 40 village (20 experimental and 20 control Group).of Radio Farm Forums as an agent for transmission of knowledge. The Radio Farm Forums proved to be very successful for sub-groups such as leaders, agriculturists, non-agriculturists, literates and illiterates. The major contribution of the forum was that it became an important instrument of village democracy and enabled more people to partake in decision making process in the village. Both leaders and members learned how to conduct orderly discussion, keep to the point and adjust to each others point. Forum developed rapidly into decision making bodies, capable of speeding up common pursuits of the village faster than the elected Panchayat. Decisions to request voluntary contributions of labour, materials and money could easily be made by this voluntary body where as they lay beyond legal prerogative of the Panchayat.

Mathur also gives an account of the community television viewing when on 15th September, 1959, All India Radio inaugurated its experimental service and a year later on 23rd December, 1966, the programme of teleclubs was taken in hand with the help of UNESCO. Nearly 66 community centres in the city of Delhi were chosen for this project. Most of the teleclubs were located in urban and sub-urban regions.

The project wanted to communicate through programmes based on traffic and road sense (Chalti Dunia), dangers to community health (Hazar Taiyamat) adulteration of food stuff, encroachment on public property, manners of citizen and town planning new information, and try to influenced social a personal attitudes, habits custom and individual preillictions and to suggest directions in which individuals and groups could take action and mould their way of life (see also J.C. Mathur, Saxena H.P., UNESCO, 1962) and to see whether shifts in attitude are brought about as a result of viewing 20 special telecastes on citizenship and participating in post view discussion. The largest gain was made on information questions. While the gain in mean score was 17.6 per cent on attitude question and 23.2 per cent on behaviour question, it was 85.2 per cent on information questions. Members also said they regarded telecastes as more useful in clarifying

their ideas than is furnishing them with items of new information. They felt that telecasts have easily encouraged or enthused them than motivated them to change some items of behaviour.

More than one teleclub reported that a particular programme had given to the members a correct perspective about rules and regulations about duties and responsibilities. In the early stages, the report registered sharp reaction to the ways of Govt. and authority but there was clear some times grudging appreciation of 'citizens' own role.

Members with high education income and those belonging to occupations requiring predominantly mental work tended to participate in the discussion to a greater extent than those with less education and income and doing physical work. Similarly, those on high scores with reported habit of listening to radio and reading non-fiction books and newspapers tended to participate in discussion to a greater extent than those with low score. Recent analyses of the impact of SIME (Satellite Instructional Television Experiment) T.V. programmes which covered the state of Assam, Manipur, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Tripura, Mizoram, a fraction of West Bengal in far eastern beam, Bihar, Orissa, central and Eastern Uttar Pradesh, Eastern and Southern Madhya Pradesh, a fraction of Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh in Eastern beam, Karnataka,

Tamil Nadu, part of Kerala, part of Andhra Pradesh,  
 Pondicherry in Southern beam, almost whole of Maharashtra,  
 better part of Gujarat, part of Rajasthan, western Madhya  
 Pradesh, a fringe of Andhra Pradesh and Mysore in western  
 beam, Delhi, western Uttar Pradesh, part of Punjab and  
 Himachal Pradesh, parts of Haryana in northern beam by  
 IERO in some of the newspapers give a picture of how far  
 they have been successful.

The objective of SITE had stressed the need for  
 information based programmes relating to education, both  
 primary and out of school, national integration, and  
 social change, health, hygiene, family planning and  
 agriculture. Mr. P.V. Krishnamurthy, Director General,  
 Doorshan, in an interview with Kavita Jaggal, (The  
 Hindustan Times, May 9, 1976, SITE, Promise and Performance)  
 to the question. "Do you feel that Site has been able to  
 change attitude in villages", says, "I can say with confi-  
 dence that the Site primary education telecasts have  
 been responsible for raising the level of attendance.  
 The dropout rate has been stemmed... and why SITE has  
 succeeded is that programmes have been told to lay off  
 the Syllabus and ~~has~~ to teach through the environment,...  
 I feel that why the Delhi school T.V. is not successful  
 is precisely due to its syllabus oriented approach...  
 T.V. has however proved to be a great leveller and many  
 caste barriers have been broken....

Regarding attitude towards family planning he says, "there is an awareness of the need for smaller family among certain sections, but there are still a great number of reservations." "I.V. by itself can do little beyond providing information. It is for other agencies to spearhead action. For instance, if family planning camps are held, while the I.V. campaign is going on, the results can be very good... The computerized data that has been received shows that informatory programmes are more popular than the pure entertainment ones. The programmes on pest control and those on methods to increase yields have proved hits." Regarding the adoption rate Mr. P.V. Krishnamurthy says, "As I said earlier, I.V. by itself cannot bring about radical changes. It can promote an awareness of the need for such change but besides this there are other traditional reasons for the slow rate of adoptability. There are many stages in adoption. The first is the awareness stage, then comes the interest stage, followed by the evaluation and trial stage. In a village community, individuals never take decisions, most commitments are the result of group sanction, the odd man out is a rarity. Before any action can be taken or change brought about, the villagers have to discuss the pros and cons amongst themselves. Community acceptance alone can lead to community action." To the question "has SIRE been able to make a dent on the fatalistic and superstitious ridden belief of rural folks," P.V.

Krishnamurthy replies, a direct message is not excepted. The viewers are to be approached from their point of view."

In another evaluation of SIFE TV by Dileep Padgaonkar, (Times of India, May 7, 1976, 'Television in the village' - the bright side and the dark,) says both the enrolment and the attendance in schools have gone up wherever SIFE has been introduced. The mores and habits of children have also changed. Where they used to get up from bed and come straight to school before, many of them now brush their teeth, bathe and change their clothes before coming to watch the educational programmes. Casual enquiries made in several villages of Jaipur reveal that while most children wished to study only up to the eighth and ninth standard and then become farmers, shepherds and labourers, they now aspire for jobs in school, in the police and in the administration like Block development officer whom they see in their village moving about with an air of authority.

Again it is children who press their parents not to leave the food uncovered, to see to it that water they drink is clean, to bathe regularly and guard against epidemics as instructed by the T.V.

After seeing a T.V. programme some young men in Radikeshwara got a washing stone removed from near the community well and re-installed it some distance away.



While the response to SITE has been fulsome among children. It has been rather lukewarm with adults. Initially men and women come to see the TV programmes in large number out of curiosity but attendance thinned down in all the SITE clusters. The main reason for this was the timing of the programme which did not suit the adults. Besides they became choosy also about programme. A RamLila programme was watched by as many as 5,000 people coming from distant villager, in Hindi speaking site cluster. Films based on mythological stories, historical films and folk songs and dances, particularly in the language of the region, also proved to be big draws.

Deep Padgaonkar (Times of India, May 8, 1976, 'Television in the village - a factor for unity) says Television has been used to make people in one region learn something about their compatriots in other areas and thus cement the bonds of national unity.

People more and more questions about bonded labour and the debts farmers have incurred or why they can not avail of themselves of fertilizers even when television exhorts them to produce more.

But mechanical breakdown of the sets, abrupt changes in the telecast schedule, use of 'high falutin language' experiments explained at times in too sketch a fashion, and not using typical local dialects were some of draw-backs which to a great extent undermined its effectiveness.

Thakur B.S. Stal's (Thakur B.S. Stal Osmania University, 1954) study of Marwadi and Juda villages shows that forum broadcast rarely reaches the villagers beyond a few active listeners among the forum members. It is looked upon more as a kind of entertainment than as a source of information. Listeners appear to lack the background knowledge to understand the forum broadcasts. He points out that there are three categories of people who contribute to effective radio communication in villages. The first are "gate keepers", who are in charge of the maintenance of listening set and programme selection but the practice of professionals acting as "gate keepers" seem to limit the effectiveness of village programme communication because they come from outside the village, quite often from urban areas and the villagers programme do not interest them.

Second are "transmitters". They are those listeners who listen to the radio and take about the content of the broadcast with non-listeners. The "transmitters" are of high family, non-cultivating agriculturists and partly educated. The effectiveness of their communication with the rest of the village population is limited because of caste groupism in the village.

The third, category includes "influentials", or interpreters" of radio communication who belong to a group

of high family, educated agriculturists, middle family educated professionals and one Marizan. These people are also members of different factions in the village of gossip groups and other "private clubs" and make possible the wider dissemination of "important news" in the village.

The Central Family Planning Institute of India has also tried to measure the impact of newspaper (CFPI, 1965, 1967). Studies conducted by the Institute have found that newspaper in general have a very restricted scope as a communicator of family planning because of high rate of illiteracy. Knowledge of family planning through newspaper was found to be higher among richer <sup>and</sup> educated person.

CFPI, 1967 found that knowledge score of 65 percent of women, who heard this programme and were studied regularly increased from 3 to 11 points. The number of such women who thought LUDC causes disease reduced to 10 percent from 22 percent of the before survey.

Proffenburger F (Family planning communication in an Indian village, Baroda) found that skits and gossip sessions were most interesting to villagers rather than radio talks by govt. officials or informed authorities. However, radio was found to be very insignificant as a communicator of family planning message.

Role of film as a communicator of family planning message has been evaluated as a limited one, though it could be very effective in disseminating simple information about programmes of change (especially in a developing country with low level of literacy).

People accept family planning more for economic reasons than for health reasons (see All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, Action cum research family planning programme at Singur).

Television as a source of family planning message which is pretty recent in a study by National Institute of Family Planning (Paris H., facilitating India's family planning through television) found that out of the two alternative programmes, presented by a doctor and a village opinion leader, there was a decided advantage in utilizing informal village opinion leader in terms of change in knowledge, attitude <sup>and</sup> motivation is concerned. Coming to political sphere Remeshray Roy (Roy, orient Longmen's 1973) points out that socio economic background variable has crucial conditioning effect on the acquisition of certain political disposition. Firstly the differing socio-economic background in itself constitute a resource base which allows an individual to acquire certain capabilities - a certain level of mental and social attainment. In the 2nd place the location of the individual in a particular socio-economic situation defines for him not only the dominant interest of his life but also the pattern of his interaction with his immediate environment, of course exception to this are also to be found.

The index of socio economic background is composed of caste, education, land/incomes. The table 37 presents

TABLE 37  
SES AND INFORMATION (IN PER CENT)

Status	Bihar				Punjab				Utter Pradesh				West Bengal			
	High	Medi- um	Low	total	High	Medium	Low	Total	High	Medium	Low	Total	High	Medium	Low	Total
<u>Information</u> S E S																
High	69.7	21.1	9.2	76	86.9	11.5	1.6	61	78.9	17.1	3.9	76	78.7	11.5	9.8	61
	100.00				100.0				100.0				100.0			
Medium	59.9	25.4	14.8	142	79.1	18.2	2.7	148	53.4	32.3	14.3	189	52.0	32.8	15.2	125
	100.0				100.0				100.0				100.0			
Low	49.6	29.4	21.0	119	70.7	24.4	4.9	82	35.0	33.8	31.2	157	23.0	44.3	32.8	61
	100.0				100.0				100.0				100.0			
N A	66.7	33.3	-	3	100.0	-	-	1	66.6	16.7	16.7	6	50.0	50.0	-	2
	100.0				100.0				100.0				100.0			
Total	199	88	53	340	229	54	9	292	220	128	80	428	128	76	45	249
	58.5	25.9	15.6	100.0	78.4	18.6	3.1	100.0	51.4	29.9	18.7	100.0	51.4	30.5	18.1	100.0

C = 0 164

C = 0142

C = 0322

C = 0 374

Source:- Ramashray Roy  
1973: 156

the socio-economic status of respondents and the level of their political information. It is apparent that higher the socio-economic status, the higher is generally the level of information. Young voters with gradual expansion of educational facility, have gone through some schooling and as exposure also brings out that young people are more exposed to mass media, are more inclined to equip themselves with relevant political facts (Roy:156).

If the acquisition of political information is so much dependent on socio-economic status and age, it is beyond doubt that the socio-economic status acts as a conditioning factor for having more opportunity for more information and a resource base has a great amount of influence on a voter's interest in public affairs.

Roy brings in notice the reservation that the higher SES may be instrumental in having more information but mere acquisition of information on politically relevant facts is not enough to arouse an enduring interest in public affairs. Table 38 brings this out.

The inference that draws out is that it is the level of political interest that determines the quantum of information a voter may have. It is apparent that once

**TABLE 38**  
**INFORMATION AND POLITICAL INTEREST (IN PER CENT)**

State	Bihar				Punjab				Uttar Pradesh				West Bengal			
<u>Interest Information</u>	High	Medium	Low	Total	High	Medi-um	Low	Total	High	Med-ium	Low	To-tal	High	Medi-um	Low	Total
High	17.1	40.7	42.2	199	28.8	39.3	31.9	229	17.7	54.5	27.7	220	24.2	53.1	22.7	128
	82.9	64.8	48.3	100.0	86.8	86.5	65.2	100.0	72.2	56.6	37.7	100.0	83.3	59.1	34.1	100.0
Medium	6.8	34.1	59.1	88	16.7	25.9	57.4	54	8.6	50.8	40.6	128	14.5	46.1	39.5	76
	14.6	24.0	29.9	100.0	11.8	13.5	27.7	100.0	20.4	30.7	32.1	100.0	22.4	30.4	35.3	100.0
Low	1.9	26.4	71.7	53	11.1		88.9	9	5.0	33.7	61.2	80	15.6	26.7	57.8	45
	22.4	11.2	28.8	100.0	1.3		7.1	100.0	7.4	12.7	30.2	100.0	14.3	10.4	30.6	100.0
Total	41	125	174	340	76	104	112	292	54	212	162	428	49	115	85	249
	12.1	36.8	51.2	100.0	26.0	35.6	38.4	100.0	12.6	49.5	37.9	100.0	19.7	46.2	34.1	100.0
	C = 0.246				C = 0.267				C = 0.267				C = 0.277			
	TC = 0.199				TC = 0.159				TC = 0.220				TC = 0.119			

Source:-

Ramashray Roy, 1971 : 164

a voter begins taking interest in politics, he is likely to acquire relevant political information to keep his interest alive.

Level of information of a voter has influence on the strength of partisanship but here Roy also brings out the reservation that a closer look would suggest that instead of level of information being the independent catalyst of party identification, it is the latter that seems to be instrumental in inclining partisans to acquire relevant political information. Similarly, Roy suggests that lower the level of information, smaller becomes the proportion of those, who claim to be greatly active in electoral campaign. But the relationship, he says, is very weak. Therefore, it would be more appropriate to say that electoral involvement is much more instrumental in inducing voters to inform themselves politically, of course high SES being the resource base for being more politically involved is there.

Atal's study (Atal, Delhi, National, 1971) of the three communities OBC, LC, and SC, in terms of exposure to radio, newspaper, magazine, cinema, in OBC no one unexposed (mean 1.8), in LC no one is highly exposed (mean 1.2), in SC no one is highly or medium exposed.



In terms of exposure index, the identification of the people with political system, indicated to some extent by the amount of knowledge possessed by them in regard to problems facing country, shows extent of awareness of the community and Table 39 shows the awareness score of COC more<sup>as</sup> compared to LC and SC.

In terms of exposure index, the degree of political participation among the people of three communities (their organizational membership, past voting experience, participation in the current electioneering, advice giving and political discussion) the average participation index for this population came to 1.55. Communitywise the scores were 1.53 (COC) 1.66 (LC) and 1.43 (SC). People also exhibit greater degree of awareness about national matters than regional or international matters (Atal:169).

In relation to international matters and foreign policy Balaraman's (Balaraman, 1956:174-84) study points out that on most of international issues press has been following rather than leading the Government. However, on issues about which public opinion has been emotionally aroused, such as the disputes with Portugal and Pakistan, the press has had hand in shaping foreign policy and the government had to respond to public opinion as represented by press. For example during episode of the 'peaceful

TABLE 39  
PERCEPTION OF NATIONAL PROBLEMS

Economic	COC	LC	SC	Total
Food shortage	97	58	22	177
High Price	36	41	9	86
Unemployment	12	7	1	20
Increased Taxes	3	-	-	4
<u>Social</u>				
Increased Goondaism	-	38	-	38
Increased Population & Family Planning	6	1	-	7
Corruption	-	1	-	1
<u>Political</u>				
Punjabi Suba	1	1	0	2
Kashmir	1	0	0	1
Many Parties	1	0	0	1
Division of Provinces	1	0	0	1
Others	2	0	1	3
<u>Administrative</u>				
Corruption	3	29	1	33
Dishonesty in work	1	4	0	5
National Development	4	0	0	4
Election Problem	3	0	0	3
<u>Others</u>				
Anti Cow Slaughter	4	6	2	12
Student Agitation	0	3	0	3
Govt Employees Strike	3	1	0	4
Movements	2	0	0	2
Others	3	0	0	3
No Knowledge	7	4	5	16

Source: Atal, 1971:153.

invasion" of Goa. To the question whether press ever create public opinion on international issues, the answer is it does of course, but only in a limited way and certainly not to an extent where the public opinion thus created be of such dimension as to make the foreign office sit up and take notice.

Taking into account these studies with reference to whether mass media moulds opinion and attitudes, one can say that mass media does have an impact. At the same time it has also come to light (IIRC, 1967, Kirlin, Rao, Fliegel, Sen, 1968) that the impact created is marginal. Farmers who were exposed to radio farm forums or radio communication treatment were a little ahead in knowledge trial and adoption of new practices but the differences were not spectacular. Further, mass media helps more in the gain of knowledge (Mathur, 1965) rather than immediate change of behaviour or attitude. Change in attitude or adoption of a new practice takes place only after it has passed through several stages. Firstly the need for change should be felt and the awareness of alternative should be created, with the assurance that change would bring profit or benefit. As innovators after having found the new practice useful and beneficial talk about it with others, the adoption of a new practice

or change of behavior takes place through interpersonal channel. Thus mass media has more of an indirect impact. It does create an impact in the sense that those who are exposed to mass media are more prone towards ideas of change, they do give it a thought and do not react to it in a hostile way and ultimately may be motivated to adopt new ideas or change their attitudes towards certain things. Thus, mass media can be said to be a very important agent in shaping attitudes and opinion indirectly.

CONCLUSION

Mass media has come to play a very important part in human society. Therefore, a question naturally arises as to whether it has any direct and immediate impact in moulding people's attitude and values and whether it is instrumental in inducing people to words change.

The present essay tried to examine available literature on the question with special reference to India. The Principal conclusions suggested by the survey of available literature on the subject may now briefly be summarised.

Mass media in its modern and true sense was introduced with the advent of British rule. Communication earlier was essentially face to face and was limited both in its content and scope. Generally the dissemination of ideas and values in ancient India was carried out through what are called folk media, namely, folk songs, dance, dramas, and Bhajan Mandalis, etc. These communication media were localised regionally and operated under social constraints imposed by prevailing social restrictions of caste customs. Lower caste and women were generally denied access to the enjoyment of these media forms as a result of social

restrictions placed on them by rules governing social organisation. Communication media prevalent earlier were of folk variety.

The British brought with them the advanced scientific and technological knowledge as well as a new social philosophy that cut across social restrictions. Consequently with the aim of facilitating their administration they first introduced the printing press in India. Subsequently, Radio and Cinema were also introduced. Television was added to this list of media after independence and with the Indian Government's plan to educate the people on national development, its growth is expected to be countrywide in the near future. ✓

The survey of available literature suggests that exposure to mass media is largely restricted to the urban areas. Rural areas are comparatively much less exposed. Further men more exposed to mass media than women. The survey evidence also brings out that the people of higher socio-economic status are more exposed to press although they form a much smaller percentage of the population. Exposure to the Press is also more among college educated and university educated <sup>than</sup> semi educated and Secondary level school. Occupationwise exposure to press is highest among professionals, followed by clerical

sales/service and traders.

Exposure to mass media in India has expanded but compared to the western countries, and some of the progressive Asian Countries, we are still very far behind. The principal reason for this is the wide spread illiteracy and economic backwardness of the Country. Gauging the extent of impact on available evidence on mass media presents difficulties. Even so, the evidence surveyed suggests that it does not have an immediate and direct impact. It is not as if the people listen to new ideas or about new innovations and immediately adopt them or that their attitudes towards things change directly as a result of exposure to mass media. The process of change is gradual and complicated. People get influenced after repetitive and gradual exposure and this may help them in being more prone towards adopting new practices or bringing change of attitude and behaviour. Thus, we saw that farmers exposed to Radio Farm Forums were little ahead of others (those who were not exposed) in the trial and adoption of new practices. Therefore, the only conclusion we can suggest is that in media, helps people in gaining more knowledge and in clarifying their views regarding things.

There is some evidence to suggest that the impact of the mass media is re-inforced by interpersonal communication and by the part played by opinion leaders and village level workers who are usually themselves heavy



users of mass media. If some new innovation is introduced, through the mass media, people listen to it but they will adopt it only if the opinion leaders or village level worker endorse it, in their inter-personal communication. Trial and adoption of the practice comes later. If one or two innovators find the practice useful and profitable after one or two trials and talk about it to others, then others also try and later adopt it. It is in this indirect way that mass media helps in shaping attitudes and opinion and plays a role in bringing about change in society.

If the changes intended to be brought about through mass media, dig at very sensitive belief or values of the society, then there is bound to be confrontation with the group norms. It is often very difficult for an individual to turn against a strong group norm, for in that case either the whole group must change or he must leave the group and find a new group. Thus, increasing the number of radios, newspapers and cinemas only will not necessarily bring about a corresponding increase in the rate of social change. Changes intended to be brought about can take effect only when they are re-inforced by organized forums or group discussions. People must have a chance to talk it over and decide what to do about it. Many kinds of social change are threatening to old social relationships and positions of authority. So the use of mass media to accomplish social change do run the risk of being ineffective and being counter productive. This is particularly true of the mass media because they cover larger areas

and operate from a distance. Therefore, while trying to accomplish smoother and speedier social change, the existing cultural linkage and social relationship of the region must be taken into consideration.

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