Communicator
Vol. XLVII No. 1, Jan–Dec 2012

Contents

Indian Institute of Mass Communication
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Communicator
Vol. XLVII No. 1, Jan–Dec, 2012

Taking Stock of Media/Communication Studies in India: North South Divide*

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After the first World Journalism Education Congress of 2007 in conjunction with The Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) annual conference at Singapore, UNESCO's model curriculum for journalism education for developing countries and emerging democracies in the same year, University Grants Commission (UGC), model curricula for Journalism and Mass Communication (JMC) in 2001 and 2013 Press Council of India committee for 'qualifications' for journalists, media/communication education is witnessing attention both at the global and local levels.

This study is based on personal observational analysis (being a media student herself and media/communication teacher over the last two decades) besides a variety of secondary sources. It argues that there is a north-south divide even within Indian media/communication education reflected in the inception, curricular trends and disciplinary locations, research practices, and media organizations. India also has multiple histories of journalism spanning over two centuries with north-south differences. Whenever Indian media/communication education is discussed, these differences and divides are barely paid attention to, leading to national generalizations which lack an accurate representation of reality.

INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades media/communication education has become an arena of concern and critical analysis globally as well as locally. The first World Journalism Education Congress of 2007 was held in conjunction with The Asian Media

* This paper is a modified version of the paper presented at the 20th Asian Media, Information and Communication [AMIC] Conference "Taking Stock of Media and Communication Studies: The Challenges and Opportunities of Globalisation, New Media and the Rise of Asia", 24-27 June 2011, Hyderabad [INDIA].

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Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) annual conference at Singapore followed by the subsequent congresses in 2009 at South Africa and in 2013 at Belgium. These reflected the concern to document and examine journalism education practices and performance globally. UNESCO's model curriculum for journalism education for developing countries and emerging democracies in 2007 was a reflection of global concern for course contents of media/communication studies. Closer home in India, the University Grants Commission (UGC), the apex body responsible for higher education published a model curricula for "journalism and mass communication" in 2001 suggesting it as a standard nomenclature for communication/media related courses. However, the ground situation barely changed, rather many more institutions sprang up across India.

In March 2013, the Press Council of India had set up a committee to determine "minimum qualifications" for journalists. In June, the scope was extended to include institutions involved in journalism education. It is interesting to note that the "media industry acknowledges shortage of trained personnel across media outlets and more so with print and is concerned about quality of journalism schools in India" (FICCI KPMG, 2013).

In the light of this context, this paper attempts to examine the state of media/communication education in India based on personal observational and secondary sources analysis and argues that there is a north-south divide within India.

Inception of media and communication education in India

In 1929, Dr Annie Besant (1847–1933) who had founded the National University at Adyar in Southern India, introduced journalism as a subject in the English department (Yadav, 2003). Even today many Indian universities continue to offer journalism programs within their language departments. In 1938, Aligarh Muslim University started a "Diploma in Journalism" which was discontinued in two years. In 1941, the Punjab University's department of journalism, Lahore, then part of India, marked the official beginning of journalism education in India by Prof. P.P. Singh who was trained at the University of Missouri in the US.

After Independence in 1947, the programme shifted to Chandigarh with a part-time, post-graduate certificate programme. In Western India at Hislop Christian College at Nagpur University, a full-fledged journalism department was started in 1952-53 by a Fulbright scholar, Ronald E. Wellesley (Eapen, 1991). In 1954, Osmania University in Southern India started its Department of Journalism under the stewardship of an American journalist/academic from Columbia University, Prof Forrest O'Dell. Professor Eapen (1922-2010), eminent communication scholar, remarked that the US orientation of the Singh and Wellesley days continued on journalism training and research even in the nineties.

Journalism education in its original form began in Northern India in 1941 but the Southern journey was followed by Madras University six years later. According to the University of Madras website, "one of the first journalism programmes in Asia (outside Japan) was started by the University of Madras in 1947. The Department pioneered Bachelors, Masters, M.Phil. and Ph.D. programmes for the first time in Tamil Nadu/South India" (http://www.unom.ac.in/departments/journalism).

The visibility of journalism programmes post-independence came by the 1960s when various traditional universities opened either "journalism" or "communication" programmes. The University Grants Commission (UGC), an apex institution for providing coordination and dissemination of standards in Universities, Colleges and Research institutions came into being in 1956. By the 1970s institutions like the Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC-1965), National School of Drama (NSD-1959), Film and Television Institute of India (FTII-1960), National Institute of Design (NID-1961), all under "State" leadership, contributed directly or indirectly to the growth and human resource requirements of the media sector in India. However, most of these institutions were in North India. In 1982, the ASIAD games and television boom in India created media as a viable career option. This was followed by the "UGC scheme of vocationalisation of education made many colleges and university language departments start journalism and other allied subjects" (Yadav, 2003).

The Indian modern education based on the British model replaced the traditional oriental education system of India. In the nineteenth century, Christian missionaries, who did extensive work in spreading modern education in India, were also responsible for starting many media/communication courses mainly in the Southern part of India, including at Adyar. Northern India may be because of proximity to the national capital initiated more of government supported initiatives. Southern India probably has more of privately funded academic institutions.

Since print media was the first to arrive on the scene, journalism education laid the foundation for communication/media education in India. In the pre-independent India, press had its glorious role and a history of agitation but the press story of the twenty-first century India is more of "alliances" (Desai, 2012). Interestingly a UNESCO archived document of 1956 elaborates many concerns and issues related to journalism education (http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001479/147976eb.pdf). Most of them are unresolved even after 58 years. Post 1990s, media and communication education has been driven more towards technology and management rather than its original orientation to language and accuracy.

Historically, most of the people who worked in the media talked about "learning by doing" or "learning under the masters". Mentoring as is known today, learning on site, experiential learning, and apprenticeship had been the historical modes of media education. Formal training in Western countries either by the government or the employers was another avenue for some media professionals in the past. Private investment in training for media jobs is a recent phenomenon and personal investment in a foreign degree eventually caught up.

Present media/communication education scenario

There is no complete database of media schools in India nor is there a forecast about the human resource condition in the media sector. Neog (2006) records "80-odd media schools of which over a dozen have come up in 2003 to 2006. There are three forms of media/communication education institutions in India today: government, private and workplace based but there are no estimates or agency to document or regulate the number of media/communication institutions in the country".

Government players

Though the UGC had set up the Sir C P Ramaswami Iyer Committee as early as 1959 recommending setting up an All India Council for journalism training, the subject panel for journalism and communication was constituted in 1977 (Sanjay, 2002, p. 5) and the model curriculum in 2001. UGC (2001, p.8) suggested eligibility criteria, entrance test, intake size, staffing pattern, infrastructure requirements including library, placement service, examination/assessment/evaluation procedure, separate faculty recognition and uniform nomenclature of "Journalism and Mass Communication" but most universities continued with the older processes and nomenclatures and there was a debate "whether there should be such uniformity" (Sanjay, 2006, p. 31). Most debated issues have been lack of focus and applicability of journalism education for the media industry (Belavadi 2002; Aram, 2005; Sanjay, 2006).

There are three journalism universities in India - Makhanlal Chaturvedi Rashtriya Patrakarita Avam Sanchar Vishwa Vidyalaya (Makhanlal Chaturvedi National University of Journalism-MCNUJ) (http://mcu.ac.in) established in 1990 through a Bill in the State Assembly of Madhya Pradesh (M.P.) "to create a niche for itself through academic excellence" (Anon, 2006). The state university at Chhattisgarh (newly formed State) inaugurated Shri Kushabhau Thakre Patrakarita Avam Jansanchar Vishwavidyalaya (KTUJM) in April 2005 (http://www.ktujm.ac.in) offering undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. In 2013 Haridev Joshi University of Journalism and Mass Communication (HJUJ) started at Jaipur in Rajsthan (http://www.hjuj.ac.in).

Apart from that, the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) set up in 1985 established a School of Journalism and New Media Studies (SOJNMS) in 2007. SOJNMS (http://www.ignou.ac.schools/sojnms) opted for a mix of on-campus and open and distance learning programmes. The Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU) started its Centre for Media Studies under the School of Social Sciences with a PhD programme in 2013. Jamia Millia Islamia (Central University) has the AJK Mass Communication Research Centre, founded in 1982 by Anwar Jamal Kidwai (former VC of Jamia Millia Islamia) offering Masters and PhD programmes in varied media and communication areas (http://ajkmcrc.org). While most of these institutions are in the North, there is Hyderabad down South, known for multiple universities offering media/communication programmes.

Within the government ambit spaces like the National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) and about a dozen agricultural universities offer courses in agricultural communication embracing the print and broadcast media. Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC, iimc.gov.in) is one of the oldest communication institute in India, as it was inaugurated on August 17, 1965, by the then Minister for Information and Broadcasting, Smt. Indira Gandhi. The Institute started with a small staff, including two consultants from UNESCO. In the first few years, the Institute organised training courses mainly for Central Information Service Officers, Information and Publicity Officers of states, as well as foreign trainees from developing countries. It undertook research studies on a modest scale. Then, in 1969, a major international training programme, the Post-graduate Diploma Course in Development Journalism for Developing Countries, for middle level working journalists from Afro-Asian countries, was started and running successfully till date.

IIMC offer five postgraduate diploma courses namely Post Graduate Diploma Course in Journalism (English), Post Graduate Diploma Course in Journalism (Hindi), Post Graduate Diploma Course in Journalism (Odia), Post Graduate Diploma Course in Radio and TV Journalism and Post Graduate Diploma Course in Advertising and Public Relations. In addition the Diploma Course in Urdu Journalism has been started in 2013 at its Delhi Centre. IIMC also conducts orientation and in-service training programmes for Indian Information Services Officers. It also conducts number of short courses each year for media persons and officers belonging to various government and non-government sectors. These comprise media orientation courses for officers of the Armed Forces and other Central and State Organisations such as the police and para military forces. In December 2013, 306 students from IIMC's six centres–New Delhi, Jammu, Dhenkanal, Aizawl, Amravati and Kottayam, were conferred Post-graduate Diploma at the convocation.

Private players

There are three types of players as far as private initiatives of media education are concerned; professional bodies offering programmes, private universities/institutes and media agencies themselves having educational endeavors. Professional bodies like press academies, advertising clubs, association of voice artists-Mumbai, Kerala Press Club–Tiruvanthapuram offer regular vocational training programmes of varied durations. There are "deemed" private universities like Symbiosis Institute/University, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Narsee Monjee Institute of Management Studies offering programmes under self-financing framework charging very high fees unlike traditional universities. Other institutes like Bharatiya Vidya Bhawan through its network of institutes across India offer diploma programmes in journalism and allied subjects. One such college Rajendra Prasad Institute of Communication and Management–Mumbai was established in 1961. There are hundreds of such institutions which continue offering part-time or full-time generic or specialised programmes in communication/media.

Workplace based training facilities

Institutionally many media agencies have in-house training schools for their employees, in some cases, open to general public commercially. Newspaper establishments like The Times of India, Indian Express Group, The Hindu; regional dailies Vaarta, Eenadu, Daily Thanthi have schools for training. Ramoji Rao, owner of Eenadu, Telugu daily sent his own son to study journalism abroad and started its own school of journalism in the early nineties and "admitted students by paying them stipend and work in his own publication" (Ravindranath, 2005, p.102). BCCL (Bennett Coleman & Co), The Times of India group media school set up in 1997 was restarted in 2004 in Delhi. The Times School of Journalism was inaugurated in Mumbai in January 2009. Express Institute of Media studies launched its eight-month programme in October 2009. The Asian College of Journalism has affiliation with the Hindu news group which is probably the only successfully running media house education institution.

Most of the private institutes offer either very generic or very specific courses. Institutes like Zee Institute of Media Arts (ZIMA) and Whistling Woods International (WWI) are promoted by media owners providing direct employment to the "good" students. Another approach as Neog (2006) notes is, "The Hindu hires from IIM-Kozhikode and XLRI-Jamshedpur. Star TV visits the SIBM and Management Development Institute (MDI), Gurgaon. Starcom, which recruits from MDI, Gurgaon and Jamnalal Bajaj Institute of Management Studies (JBIMS), has an in-house training programme for new recruits. Trainees go through 10 weeks of training. This includes hands-on training on tools and software, training at media owner companies and field sales training at a client company. Similarly, at Lodestar, the media analytics arm of FCB Ulka; fresh recruits are put through one month of classroom sessions conducted by senior managers. This is followed by another month of sales training".

Reviewing the status

The challenges with media/communication education have been that of technological advancements in the media industry which make the pace of conventional educational processes, at times, irrelevant. The challenge of acquiring, updating, maintaining and sustaining the investments in technical resources is daunting. UGC gets funds from the Ministry of Human Resources Development, Government of India and therefore traditional universities' funding depends on the State's mandate. Many traditional universities run communication/media programmes under a self-financing format but have to follow UGC guidelines for collection and utilisation of fees/funds. While private institutes have better resources with higher fees charged by them, the inclination to increase profits at times reduces investments in training resources or at times the "job" approach makes "education" placement centric.

Even after pricing the programme at a premium, the issue of "affordability" of such programmes (Ranganathan, 2006) challenges the representation with 'limited diversity in the newsroom' (Akhileshwari, 2004; Vij, 2004; Sanjay 2006).

An analysis of Federation of Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industries (FICCI) annual event “Frames” (http://www.ficci-frames.com) for media sector since 2000 suggests a lack of concern for media education by the industry. In the last 14 years, FICCI Frames discussed “education” only seven times. The panel titles have been *Education and Manpower Training* in 2002, *Education and Manpower Training: Mandatory for Growth* in 2003, *Talent Crunch in the Media and Entertainment Industry* in 2008, *The Great Talent Indian bazaar* in 2009, *Skills' Crunch in Developing the Media and Entertainment Industry* in 2012, *Skills in M and E - The Next Big Leap Towards Creating Greater Talent* in 2013, *Skill Education in Media and Entertainment: A Transformation in Making* in 2014. As evident the industry focus has shifted from discussing “talent” and “resource” to “skills” in recent years but “media education” is still not the agenda for the Indian media industry. Agrawal (2006) notes that “private sector made no investment in media education, this was not the case with educational institutes supported by government”.

The programmes started under traditional universities “naturally situate themselves in the academic mould of the university system with concern for nomenclature, curriculum inputs, evaluation criteria and faculty resources” (Sanjay, 2006). While private institutions can be proactive to market needs and job demands, the pressure to “place” students makes “education” a mere exercise of giving the diploma/degree with the aim being to provide/get a job. They generate resources from students' fees without any other regulatory body to control/monitor their finances. Fees are exuberantly high, making it out of reach for students from an average economic background. The policies in terms of recruitment, curriculum reform, and evaluation are far more arbitrary compared to traditional universities (Desai, 2008). The Indian media industry “expects media education curricula to meet the industry demands” but is not very positive about ‘suitability of training for long-term career goals' (AMIC, 2002, p. 40).

Balasubramanya (2006) reports on a national survey of journalists in India covering 835 journalists working in 11 different languages publications covering 14 states of India. He found that only one-third had formal education in journalism at the graduate or postgraduate level including diplomas or certificates of which nine percent had formal training abroad. The majority (75 percent) were young (20 to 40 years of age), sixty percent educated in urban areas, for seventy two percent it was their first job. This in a way indicates little relevance of formal education in media/communication.

India: diversities or divides?

India represents 28 states and seven union territories. The country has 22 official languages and language is a crucial element of debate and discussion for communication. The nation is filled with contradictions yet united by a composite policy framework. While most Southern states including Kerala have near-total literacy with the claim of almost 74 percent of its population read at least one newspaper or magazine, Northern states like Bihar, one of the poorer states, having half of its population illiterate, has just about 15 percent of its population read newspapers or magazines. Yet interestingly three state journalism universities Makhanlal Chaturvedi National University of Journalism in Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh and Kushabhau Thakre University of Journalism at Raipur, Chhattisgarh, Haridev Joshi University of Journalism in Jaipur, Rajsthan or even national university like Indira Gandhi National Open University are in the northern part of India.

Demographic studies on the provisional data of Census 2011 indicates two contrasting demographic "nations" emerging in the country with all the four Southern States achieving replacement level fertility of 2.1 children per woman required for population stabilisation and four large north Indian States of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan lagging far behind (http://populationmatters.org/2011). If media has to address such audiences, how and what need to be covered in the local-national press? The nature of diversity and integration that Indian media has to address to reach such diverse audiences, can only be imagined.

Language is also a battleground in India as the Southern part of India has often been marginalized in the process of promoting the national language "Hindi-centric, Delhi-centric" programming on Doordarshan, public service broadcaster. Berry (2007) in her blog comment, "innumerable numbers of instances where the south has been sidelined from mainstream news and prime time shows. The latest being the song show *antakshari* where the four zones supposedly representing India do not include the south".

The monopoly and reluctance of Doordarshan has reduced with the tough competition from private broadcasters in Southern India. Sun originally begun as a Tamil Satellite Channel has engulfed other South Indian States with an expansion of regional channels in other languages including Telugu, Malayalam and Kannada. There are other channels in Malayalam, Tamil or Telugu (Asianet, Kairali, Global, Jaya TV, KTV, Raj TV, Vijay TV, Eenadu Teja and many others). With their great success, private satellite channels created history in Southern India due to "a preference for the language, quality of programme content, availability of preferred programming types or through identification with the socio-cultural context" (Muppiddi, 1999).

Sanjay (2006) quotes a survey of 37 media organisations in Delhi, carried out by the Centre for Social and Development Studies and notes, "Hindu upper caste men hold nearly 71 percent of top jobs in the national media. Women, non-upper Castes and Muslims are grossly under-represented". A Similar study of Southern states could not be tracked for this article.

North-South divide

National figures and databases about the academic programmes or the nature of students in media/communication courses or even names of universities offering those programmes, are non-existent. Studies have revealed unequal representation in media jobs and diversities of language and culture in media news rooms as well as class rooms. Even the focus and research concerns in university departments across the North and South are different but absence of a "national" professional association make the task difficult. The only prevalent professional association is "Association of Communication Teachers of Tamil Nadu and Pondicherry" none known to the author in northern India except for the numerous Facebook pages. None suffice to be "national" in content and character.

The North-South divide within India with reference to media/communication education in terms of disciplinary locations, curricular trends, media organisations and histories, and research practices need closer examination.

Disciplinary locations

Media/Communication education is "vocational", "professional" or an "academic" discipline, the definition depending on the proportion of "application" versus "theory". Ranganathan (2006) notes that UGC clubs journalism under social sciences with the result that it is treated at par with "history" or "literature", "economics" or "political science". She comments that it cannot be treated like that mainly being a "skill-based course" and "students need to be provided with a strong academic base to facilitate understanding (to deal with a range of issues that cover anything under the sun)".

In the Indian context "journalism" gets viewed from "communication/mass communication" perspective as evident from UGC nomenclature of "journalism and mass communication". A special issue (October-December 2003) of Vidura-Journal of Press Institute of India titled "Teaching Communication" discusses journalism/media education. Even The Asian College of Journalism having started a diploma course in journalism in 1994 from Bangalore relocated it to Chennai and now offers three specialisations–print, electronic and new media. By the twenty first century the conventional journalism departments have been forced to expand into communication studies, or including subjects like films/cinema, electronic, "new" media and media "management".

Apart from multiplicities of nomenclature, the programmes are positioned under various faculties. There are hundreds of Diploma programmes many positioned under faculty which initiated them. Many southern universities offer electronic media production (Anna University), audio visual media (University of Hyderabad) whereas the only one to offer M.A. in Broadcast Journalism is MCNUJ, Bhopal. Centre for Advanced Media Studies (CAMS), Punjabi University, Patiala, started a four-year B.Tech. course in TV, Film Production and Media Technology.

Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey (SNDT) women's University, first women's university in India, offers a "Postgraduate Diploma in Communication and Media" (1994) and "Masters in Communication Media for Children" (which began as Diploma in 1984) both under "Faculty of Home Science". The newly launched Bachelor in Mass Media (BMM) is under the faculty of Arts and currently the faculty of "Communication and Media studies" is being formed.

An index analysis of "Association of Indian Universities" (AIU, 2002) Handbook listing 273 university level institutions including 52 Deemed Universities in India shows that postgraduate degrees in communication/media subjects are awarded under the "Master of Arts"(M.A.) in some universities while other universities award "Master of Science" (M.Sc.). If one counts the exclusive degrees in communication/media, the number of institutions is not more than 20 but many offer diploma programmes. The name of degree ranged from visual arts, film studies, mass communication, communication and journalism, mass communication and journalism, communication studies, communication, broadcast journalism, mass media, audio visual media, mass relations. Similar titles are given for the undergraduate degree also. There are others allied deviations like University of Mumbai offers Bachelors of Cinema Appreciation and Yashwantrao Chavan Open University offers Masters in Educational Communication.

University of Pune offers Masters in Communication Studies, Masters in Mass Relations, and Masters in Journalism and Communication, all three under different institutions and faculties. Avinashilingam Institute of Home Science and Higher Education for Women offers Masters of Arts–Journalism (Hindi) under faculty of Humanities. Postgraduate programme in Development Communication of Madurai Kamaraj University states its eligibility criteria as, “Bachelors Degree except in Commerce/Business Management/Home Science with 60 percent marks” (AIU, 2002, p. 655).

Curricular trends

The subjects taught under journalism education in 1920 were history of journalism, press laws, editorial practice and newspaper administration. Today this has been transformed into technology and management. Many two-year programmes have 12-16 subjects (AMIC, 2002) while three year undergraduate course has 36 subjects (Solomonraj, 2006) and most lack focus (Belavadi 2002, Aram 2005). AMIC (2002) based on the syllabi of 15 communication/media institutions lists 78 topics/subjects in its annexure. The areas range from theoretical inputs about history of journalism, sociology, and ethics to practical aspects of scriptwriting, reporting and editing, creative writing.

The undergraduate courses of University of Madras began in the 1980s whereas the University of Mumbai (in Western India) started its Bachelor in Mass Media (BMM) in the year 2000. The Association of Indian Universitites (2002) elaborating on the Indian University systems specify, “subjects of science stream can’t be taken with those of Arts and Humanities (exception Mathematics and Geography)...in case of professional courses and subjects in the science faculty; the medium of instruction is almost exclusively English. In the Arts, Humanities, Social Science and Commerce faculties it is both English and the regional language. At the postgraduate level instructions are usually in English”.

Solomonraj (2006) examining undergraduate education in mass media at the University of Mumbai in Western India raises questions based on his experiences. “Whether the course provides sufficient and substantial academic and intellectual base for building effective professionals? Is the course helping students to have objective and critique skills? Are there too many papers (36 papers were taught in three years)? Are the syllabi too sketchy? There are concerns about the quality of teaching, examination system and the lack of systematic and continuous interface with industry…The most important question is whether the course is helping nurture thinking and critiquing individuals?". The similar opinion was voiced in the context of the South (Belavadi, 2002; Aram, 2005).

Research practices

The author participated in the "Journalism and Mass Communication" section of the 31st session of Indian Social Sciences Congress in 2007 at Mumbai. All the scholars from the University of Hyderabad presented papers on ICT (Information and Communications Technology) whereas everyone from Mumbai University presented work associated with print journalism. The difference in research agendas can be tracked even by undertaking an analysis of dissertation titles across India, but comprehensive databases are still not a reality. *Shodhganga* and other online repositories of research in journalism and mass communication may change the situation in future.

In India, the dichotomy of pure and applied, academic and market research are watertight. The research in both the spheres remains largely undistributed for different reasons (Desai, 2008). India also has a long tradition of electronic media research, especially television, compared to print. Due to private ownership, print media research inherently is concerned about circulation, marketing and sales promotion. Academic research about journalism, mostly done in traditional universities as a mandatory requirement has its own limitations. Most of the available material refers to research about journalists in terms of perceptions-opinions-backgrounds (sociological surveys), nature and language of news content (content analysis), but limited critical theoretical work on practice of news production. Experiences of journalists and tensions between editorial and advertising spaces though written in popular spaces at times available in English (Goswami, 2002; Sahay, 2006) rarely gets space in academic journals also owing to the dichotomy of practitioner and academician roles. There is plenty of material available in Indian languages, little translation or documentation is attempted due to lack of responsibility and resources. "First major survey of journalists in more than 20 countries, published in 1998, did not include journalists from India" (Thussu, 2005).

The Publications Division of the Government of India is the biggest publisher publishing in ten languages and Research and Reference Division publishes two reference books annually; *India: A Reference Manual* and *Mass Media in India*, both usually mirror the previous year edition with minor statistical changes. There are books written by journalists in Indian languages as well as in English covering personal experiences as well as media analysis but comprehensive databases are the need of the hour.

Academic journals are not too many as far as journalism and mass communication is concerned. Makhanlal Chaturvedi National University of Journalism (MCNUJ) publishes *Journal of Communication Studies* in English (which discontinued) and *Media Mimansa* critique of media in Hindi. Interestingly it is on 5th September 2014 that MCNUJ started a research department. The Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC) publishes two journals, *Communicator* (in English, started in 1965) and *Sanchar Madhyam* (in Hindi, started in 1980). *Vidura*, journal of Press Institute of India, carries popular articles by journalists. In 2008, Sri Padmavati Mahila Visvavidyalayam started *Indian Journal of Media Studies* and Global Communication Research Association published its journal from Banaras Hindu University titled *Journal of Global Communication*. Manipal University supported *Global Media Journal*, online Indian edition, which was relocated at University of Calcutta. Individual driven publications like *Communication Today* from Jaipur, *Mass Media* from Delhi are other such examples.

At the risk of being subjective, the author has read more research publications in international journals by Southern research scholars taking South India as a location of study compared to Northern India. One of the reasons also may be the efficacy of English language down South. The claim, though demands empirical verification. Research in most developing countries also has multiple problems (Eapen, 2000) reflected even in the context of media education. There are spaces like The Centre for Study of Developing Societies-Delhi (http://www.csds.in), www.sarai,net, Centre for the Study of Culture and Society-Bangalore (http://www.cscsarchive.org), Centre for Media Studies-Delhi (http://www.cmsindia.org/cms). Indian Council for Social Science Research (http://www.icssr.org) provides grants to journalists to pursue research but database of past research was hard to find.

Only 10-15 universities in India offer doctoral research in journalism and since most journalism programmes are skill-oriented UK trained Indian researchers could not contribute to those programmes (Kumar in Murthy, 2011). Most of the market research is subscription-based and is expensively carried out with the objective to know market positions. Academic journalism research is mandatory for public universities teaching journalism but they become more of administrative endeavors rather than academic ones with limitations of scope and resources. MICA (earlier Mudra Institute of Communication Ahmedabad prior to it was Mudra Institute of Communication and Advertising) started AICTE (All Indian Council of Technical Education) approved doctoral level programme in the communication discipline in 2011.

Most academic research done in Indian languages remain undistributed. Even a database of journalism and mass communication textbooks or scholarly books by Indian authors can be a task that IIMC or IGNOU can take up as a part of research and documentation of the discipline.

CONCLUSION

Though there are differences of inception, language, approach, focus across north and south, "Journalism education in India is still to attain the 'rigour' that can fetch the subject the status of a front ranking independent discipline (Muppiddi, 2004) (in many universities not many years ago it was a part of language departments like Hindi or English)". In brief, if the world is divided in North-South, so is India. There is rise of the South globally, India too will unite one day without the divide.

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Journalism Education, Profession and Research in Bangladesh: Finding a Way Out*

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University based journalism education in Bangladesh has been subjected to a number of constraints while keeping pace with the fast-moving situation in the profession and media. Journalism departments have incorporated broadcast production and new media courses in their curricula to address the needs of media after the emergence of private TV channels and proliferation of online journalism. However, these inclusions still could not meet the demand of the market due to the lack of adequate lab facilities for practical classes, as well as resources, particularly books and teaching staff with the knowledge of technical know-how, and research constraints in the departments. Through an investigation into the infrastructure, curricula, pedagogy, and research abilities of different journalism departments across Bangladesh, this study has found that teaching, research, and expansion activities are yet to be organised properly. In conclusion a set of recommendations is made in order to find a contextual solution in regard to strengthening the capabilities of journalism departments to face the numerous challenges.

INTRODUCTION

The media sector in Bangladesh has experienced a sudden boom at the dawn of the new millennium. Democratisation in the media world has boosted the proliferation of private media just after the reemergence of democratic governance in the late 1990s. Countrywide 314 dailies, 151 magazines, 11 commercial and 14 community radio stations, and 25 private television channels have increased the demand for

* A version this paper was first presented in the Media Governance Roundtable at the Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi, India between 25-27 February, 2013 arranged by the Centre for Culture, Media and Governance.

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skilled professionals (Media Registration List of Government of Bangladesh, 2013). Corresponding to the expansion of the media industry, there seems to be an increase in the number of students who choose journalism as their future career as they possibly think it entails glamour, instant popularity, power and prestige. While taking into account the imminent needs of the industry, both public and private universities, including a few non-government institutions, have expanded journalism and media educational services for aspirants. But, none of the university departments offers mere journalism degrees as the syllabi blend courses from mass communication, media studies, broadcasting, and digital production.

Journalism syllabi at different public/autonomous and private universities have covered practical skills training and a general contextual education under a liberal arts or social sciences umbrella – with the aim of making proficient workers who will have the skills for analysing and gathering information, writing stories quickly, and serving the people, society, and the nation at large. Exercising both the "craft" and "professional" model, educators Kabir (2011), Ullah (2008), Rahman (1999) have found that the curricula and study of journalism still remain strikingly poor in focusing on the media's role and its tasks in the society. This intellectual challenge is becoming more acute when new media are converging with traditional media. Moreover, this sudden proliferation of private media brings the profession under corporate control wherein the professionals become paid workers and ultimately lose their independent voice as the watchdog in the context of Bangladesh. The old order – role of media as the guardian of the peoples' interest and of the state's – has changed due to such compromises. Journalism, thus, is becoming the mouthpiece of businesses, shareholders, and corporate consumers. As the profession changes its nature in the face of new challenges from factors like corporatisation of the industry, globalisation, and new media intervention, along with the dispute between educators and professionals, journalism departments are struggling to adapt themselves to the changing scenario.

Though university-based journalism education in Bangladesh has passed half a century this year with a dubious recognition by the professionals, these new changes are posing fresh challenges for educators to decide as to what syllabi and teaching method would best fit the potential needs of the emerging sectors. Despite incorporating new courses in curricula, educators are facing constraints in the departments when they try to keep pace with the fast-moving media industry and profession due to the want of necessary resources, mainly money, books, research, and qualified teaching staff. Through an examination of the infrastructure, available facilities, curricula, teaching methods and research capabilities of the departments, it has been found that teaching and research activities are yet to be organised properly in different journalism departments.

State of media and journalism: A brief account

Bangladesh had a single state-run radio and television channel till 2000. The opening up of the air space at the dawn of the new century brought 25 private television channels and 11 FM radio stations, along with 14 community radio stations into existence. According to the Department of Films and Publications registration record in March, 2013, a total of 314 dailies, 108 weeklies, 15 fortnightly, and 28 monthly magazines were published both in Bengali and English across the country. But, except 20 major newspapers, most of these news outlets continue their business with one or two journalists only. A very few pay their staff according to the Wage Board approved salary package.

Radio broadcasting was not in a good position in terms of quality and quantity even a few years ago. However, it is getting popular now. The country's business community extended their investments in television broadcasting. Chowdhury (2005) remarks, "media has gone beyond politics and entered into several sectors where social and commercial interests meet"(p.5). This also attracts a greater number of investors as the huge investment in print gets less mileage than that in broadcast media. Within this framework, media is dynamic and responsive. However its weakness is in defining its role in relation to the market and public service. Almost every newspaper, radio, and TV has got its webpage and seven online newspapers and news agencies are also operating their services.

Access and penetration

The National Media Survey 2011, reports that 40% of Bangladeshi men and 14% women read newspapers at least once in a week. According to the Nielsen Media and Demographic Survey 2011 (Quoted in Powell, 2012, pp.13-15), radio listening had declined to 15% of the population in 2011 from 36% in 1999. Over the same 12-year period, access to television in urban areas had increased from 69% to 91%. The proportion of the population watching television had increased dramatically from 24% to 67% in the rural areas. The Nielsen survey indicates that Bangladeshis who still listen to radio are increasingly tuning in on their mobile phones rather than a traditional radio set. It shows that 73% of the radio listeners tuned into stations on their mobile phones, and 34% listened to the programs produced by radio. This change in the listening habits reflects the fact that the young urban Bangladeshis frequently listen to music broadcast by FM stations through earphones attached to their mobile handsets. However, one in every five Bangladeshis among 154 million people does not watch TV or listen to radio at all. The Nielsen survey also reported that 20% of the population (male 13% and female 27%) had no access to any media whatsoever.

Freedom and regulation of journalism

The Reporters Sans Frontiers ranked Bangladesh as a partially free country in the press freedom index for a couple of years. Unlawful harassment and intimidation by political goons and law enforcing agencies of the journalists and media which was common has declined now. However, policy, articles, codes and 25 laws are still affecting free, democratic, and responsible media. Article 39 of the Bangladesh Constitution says: (1) Freedom of thought and conscience is guaranteed (2) subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of the security of the state, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an office – (a) the right of every citizen to freedom of speech and expression and (b) freedom of the press, are guaranteed.

Article 43 provides that every citizen has got the right to privacy of his correspondence and other means of communication, subject to any reasonable restriction imposed by law. Article 108 empowers the Supreme Court to make an order for any contempt. With these articles, the constitution apparently guarantees freedom of expression and opinion. But, it has kept the balancing theory in view while guaranteeing freedom of speech, which is hedged by the subject of reasonable restriction. The Penal Code-1860, the Code of Criminal Procedure-1898, the Official Secret Act-1923, the Contempt of Court Act- 1926, Printing Presses and Publication (Registration and Declaration) Act-1973, the Press Council Act 1974 – apart from the constitutional provisions – are major obstacles to free media climate in Bangladesh. Journalists have also to follow the "code of conduct" prepared by the Press Council.

Employment opportunities and journalism graduates

The Bangladesh Federal Union of Journalists enlisted 3,766 journalists across the country. It is evident that television is increasingly becoming the medium of choice for new entrants as wages, income opportunities, and exposure are all more and professional competence has got greater value in the broadcasting sector than print. However, most of the districts and *Upa-zilas'* (Sub-districts) correspondents are paid very poorly or are unpaid. Haque (2009) has found that editors, in general, look for two things in their prospective employees: i) ability to write and edit; and ii) a sincere interest in a news career. They are underrated in media houses. Employers are sometimes reluctant in recruiting journalism graduates claiming they have a poor level of practical knowledge and prefer to keep them in their organisation as a trainee without salary or with a small amount of salary, which discourages journalism graduates taking the profession immediately after completing their university education. The Sub-Editors' Council Directory (2009) for example has enlisted a total of 441 sub-editors from 53 media organizations in the capital city Dhaka. In the list, 76 were found to be graduates from journalism while the rest (365) were from other subjects, which indicates that graduates from other disciplines still have dominance over getting jobs in media organisations. Similarly, advertising agencies are running business in the country, but industry-owners do not know seem to know about the advertising courses taught in the university departments.

Journalism education: Inception and the current state

Journalism education began its journey in Bangladesh in 1962 with a Post Graduate Diploma Degree course through the establishment of the Department of Journalism at the University of Dhaka (DU). After 30 years of solitary existence of the first journalism department, Rajshahi University (RU) started the second journalism school named as the Department of Mass Communication in 1992 and University of Chittagong (CU) started the third one, named the Department of Journalism in 1993. Though it took 30 years to start the second journalism department, since 2006, every year one new university launches a journalism department.

The latest one has started its journey in 2012. A total of 14 journalism departments are now running their programs in Bangladesh. They place journalism under a greater umbrella – mass communication and media studies. Three public universities – (DU- MA, MPhil, and PhD), RU and CU and two private universities (Stamford and Daffodil International) have graduate-level programs. The Press Institute of Bangladesh (PIB) provides a one-year Diploma in Journalism under the National University. About 700 students are usually enrolled on average for diploma, undergraduate, and graduate programs; and, around 400 students have completed their graduation every year. Except for the PIB, journalism is not taught in a separate degree program or department in any university in Bangladesh.

During this 50-year journey, journalism departments in Bangladesh have metamorphosised either into mass communication and journalism or media and journalism studies. In this article, journalism department, therefore, has been used as an alternative to each of the titles. Ullah (2012, p.4) points out that journalism education has run through seven different paradigms during the decades: (a) vocational training to diploma, (b) mere journalism to mass communication and journalism, (c) interdisciplinary approach, (d) liberal humanistic to social science approach, (e) technology-less to technology-plus approach, (f) privatisation of public education, and (g) collaborative efforts with foreign universities. All these paradigmatic shifts were enforced from an appreciation of ground realities. In the case of the second major shift, Rahman (1999) explains that immediately after the independence of Bangladesh in 1971, DU found communication and media to be great mobility multipliers and agents of modernity, development, and change by the proponents of dominant development scholars, "this way of thinking resulted in the shift of journalism education from mere journalism to mass communication and journalism (p. 143)."

In the case of the third and fourth shift, journalism education metamorphosised into media or communication programs without apparent attention to the curriculum's connection to potential media jobs in Bangladesh. Such a shift was required not because of a narrow need to prepare competent professionals, but, rather to fulfill the demand of the students to widen the scope of their job opportunities and thus help become well-equipped workers for any profession where media industry is still small and unorganised in many cases. Ullah (2008, p.7) points out that the move of journalism departments towards social science faculties and being named either as mass communication and journalism or as journalism and media studies, however, could not meet the demands of the various job markets. It is rather an epistemological expansion of US journalism school and curricula trends because the US universities adopted Mass Communication in the journalism programs in the late 1960s. Many Asian universities, including Bangladeshi universities, have followed suit since the 1970s after exploring the curricula by new faculty either by achieving higher degrees or having Fulbright scholars from the US. The last three shifts expose the shortcomings of journalism educators in their syllabi and pedagogy styles. Journalism educators also face tremendous pressure to redesign curricula addressing the main issues – demands from the industry, commercialisation of university education, and globalisation or internationalisation of journalism and media education. Kabir (2011) remarks that due to this situation, "the teaching of communication skills and craft has been haphazard" (p. 49).

Dhaka University experienced all the seven shifts. However, other university departments primarily adopted the latter one (collaborative efforts with foreign universities, and accommodating globalisation of journalism education) and have been following almost the same curriculum adopted by Dhaka University, with the exception of two private universities. Responding to market demands these two universities offer some new courses, mainly on technology. The result is that no university in Bangladesh offers a pure journalism degree, rather a technology-savvy curriculum. That emphasis does not support the traditional values of the 150-year-old Bangladeshi profession, which saw journalism as a public service mission.

A UNESCO-Bangladesh survey (2009, p.25) found 472 courses under different titles offered at nine university departments, including 132 journalism-focused courses. The syllabi cover a range of courses in mass communication, media studies, digital productions to language and sociology, along with some basic journalism courses. The survey categorised 57 courses as common, and 75 as different. The syllabi included 72 practice-oriented and 60 theory-based courses, 36 focused on traditional journalism (concepts of journalism, news gathering and writing, reporting, editing, depth reporting, crime reporting, feature writing, environment reporting, magazine editing, broadcast journalism, and development journalism). The other 28 courses were on new media and technology-based subjects (including editing and desktop publishing, electronic journalism, photo journalism, video and film production, computer and online journalism, radio and television journalism).

Journalism profession: New dimension and training needs

Early journalism history in Bangladesh was led by nationalist groups, and was not a highly paid or an accredited profession. Political activists joined the profession considering media as another front in their movement. Nationalist social reformers and political activists used press as a weapon to fight against the colonial power. Media was political before independence, and played a contributory role in the nationalist movement till 1971. Media struggled against the autocratic regime during the 1980s and 1990s and became a more professional and a wage-driven profession compared to the earlier journalism, where the socio-political role of the journalist appeared to hold sway.

The mono-function approach of the media changed in the 1990s as it recognised the non-political dimensions of readers and broadcasting consumers.

This approach means that the domination of anti-government standpoints by media and journalists played a role as a social mover/advocate for social change. Political weakness also created a chasm between readers and state management which led to weaker interest in political governance in general. This distancing forced media to redefine itself as a tool not just of political advocacy, but as an entertainer, producer of urban culture, reflector of development concerns and generator of social identities.

The first decade of the new millennium has witnessed a fundamental shift in the cultures of journalism. The role of information for "public good" and media as a "watchdog" has been transformed into a "vehicle of communication". Information as commodity here is being given visibility by print, electronic, and online media where the role of journalists has become that of an information worker, rather a social reformer. Summarising the contemporary Bangladeshi journalism scenario, Abed Khan (2011), the then editor of *Dainik Kaler Kantho*, (a widely circulated national daily,) remarked at a *Jatri* seminar that the journalism profession was seeing dark days. Journalists were serving the interests of the business community and the corporate world by turning themselves into commodities. Comparing journalists to a gladiator, he remarked, "journalists are too fighting with each other just to serve the purpose of others". He continued, "when professionalism is controlled by business community or corporate world the journalists' unity divides and the ethics of journalism get ignored."

This seems a compromise for committed journalists regarding the fate of the normative culture of the profession – objectivity, public service and the watchdog role through reporting.

The deeply polarised nature of national politics continues to create fissures within the media, with owners, who are often compelled to take sides, pressuring professional staff. Commercialisations, fragmentation of readers and audiences, and decrease in responsible and socially-oriented journalism have consequences of evolving changes in the new environment.

Journalism, as a profession is currently moving towards an unknown future. The sudden proliferation of private media brings the profession under corporate control wherein the professionals become paid workers, and ultimately lose their independent voice as the watchdog of the good and accountable governance. Journalism also fails to attain the full shape of a profession and has rather become the mouthpiece of businesses, shareholders, and corporate consumers. Encapsulating this situation, BBC Media Action Bangladesh reported, "the media market in Bangladesh has mushroomed over the past 10 years, with a large range of highly profitable newspapers and satellite TV channels springing up. At the national level, the media has become dominated by a few large corporations – often with primary interests in other commercial sectors" (2012, p.2).

The political polarisation of the journalist community for more than two decades furthermore affects any serious reflection on the profession. The division has also given the owner as well as the government an opportunity to dictate terms. The conventional professional values – objectivity, neutrality, and responsibility are often ignored. All these negative characteristics persuade changes in newsroom environment, media agenda, print and broadcast contents, professional hazards and responsibilities, ethics, public trust, etc. Even the media's role as the fourth estate is getting newer dimensions every moment. But, to enhance the normative role of media in the society, journalists must carry out their duties as watchdog through keeping a balance between power and money in the context of Bangladesh.

Media critics (Khan, 2011; Khan, 1997) argue that the journalism profession is retreating from the goal of public service. Lack of objectivity of media professionals regarding what is being reported has led towards highly politicised and partisan news outlets, sensationalism, and infotainment. This new dimension demands more proficient media professionals with strong technical and analytical skills because only writing skill is not sufficient for nurturing good journalism. Interdisciplinary study in relevant humanities and social sciences needs to be encouraged to provide a rich background for all aspiring media professionals. To be a competent media worker in the Bangladesh context, at least some skills are needed – ability to understand the socio-economic dynamics, political culture and polarisation, patron-client relationship of the society, their needs and impact of those in all spheres of life.

Journalism education: Constraints

Various studies (Ullah 2012; Unesco-Bangladesh, 2009, Foote et al, undated) indicate that Bangladeshi journalism education faces some challenges that include striking a balance between vocational and academic training, adapting to the social changes in a period of rapid growth of electronic media, Information and Communication Technologies in industry, and dealing with increasing commercialisation. The institutions, on the other hand, face a dearth of infrastructural facilities, constraints of logistics, inadequate research capabilities of educators, reading materials and curricula guidelines. These two surveys suggest that the fundamental problems that all departments face are infrastructure and resource limitations. This includes a lack of proper infrastructure from hardware and buildings to new books and journals, equipment and trained faculty. These issues are discussed below:

Infrastructure and resources

Almost all the new journalism departments began their journey without adequate resources such as infrastructure, books, labs and even competent faculty members. The UNESCO-Bangladesh survey (2009) recommends at least one media lab, studio lab, photography lab, editing, and production lab facilities as essentials to have a good journalism department. But, most of the departments suffer from the want of these infrastructural adequacies. The survey records that only DU, Independent University, Bangladesh (IUB), Stamford University, and University of Liberal Arts, Bangladesh (ULAB) have some lab and infrastructural facilities. The other departments have only some computers and young teaching staff without adequate newsroom, professional, teaching and even research expertise. In fact, public universities and their teachers suffer from a lack of funding support and infrastructure. Furthermore, these are burdened with academics who have not been able to update their skills and knowledge in a rapidly changing field. Therefore, they are able to provide education only on the fundamentals. They face problems in linking those fundamentals to the changes taking place in the industry. The private universities, on the other hand, suffer from a lack of quality teachers and sound academics. Thus, Ullah (2012, p.12) claimed, what is taught there is only the craft, not the philosophy, context, or history of journalism. In other words, these institutions are producing good technical hands, but not good analytical and thinking skills.

In March 2014, 211 full-time faculty members with 26 PhDs were teaching in 17 universities. Other 174 faculty members have master's degrees from the three public and two private (IUB and ULAB) universities.The other faculty members have Master's degrees from three public universities, and have one to three years of professional experience in print or broadcast media. Dhaka University had 13 adjunct teaching staff from the professionals while the other public universities just one or two. Except Jagannath University (JthU), all the new public universities began their department's activities under the leadership of non-journalism faculty. Journalism educators, who are mostly young, gather experience on a trial and error basis.

Private universities hire popular professionals or reputed senior faculty members (For instances, Daffodil International University hired Professor M. GolamRahman, Stamford University hired Professor Abdul Mannan, ULAB hired Professor Shakawat Ali Khan- all are most senior professors from DU) from public universities for branding their universities. These senior faculty members from public universities have been working as the heads of the departments but they did not wish to join in the private institutions fulltime. This part-time attachment did not provide a strong ground for shaping the new departments. The UNESCO-Bangladesh study (2009), while assessing the journalism department's capacity, found that computer and multimedia training were very important for every faculty. This study had found that the latest technical know-how on live broadcasting and online publishing were a major dearth among almost all the faculty members.

Journalism departments in Bangladesh suffer from the usage of old-fashioned textbooks that do not work well in the fast-changing media environment. Ullah (2012) in a survey had found a total of 397 books which were recommended as reference reading in different universities. Most of the textbooks were outdated (published between 1960 and 1980). These books have arrived at Bangladesh as donations from the Asia Foundation. Reporting and editing courses recommend on an average 10-12 books, including at least three in *Bengali* language. Except a few translated books, textbooks in *Bengali* language are not available. In every case, the curricula avoid mentioning the years of publication of those books. The survey recommends the urgent need of books in areas of audio-visual journalism and radio-TV production, editing, communication theory, and research in the local language and on the local context. Next to feature writing, the priority list would include development communication, media management, news reporting, photo journalism, desktop publication, and graphic arts. No department subscribes to any international journal on journalism, media, and communication. The only exceptions are three mother (Dhaka University-DU, Chittagong University-CU and Rajshahi University- RU) universities who subscribe to a maximum of two to three journals for their central libraries.

Curricula

Three types of schools exist regarding journalism curricula – skills training, liberal arts emphasis, and on-the-job training. Bangladeshi journalism educators prefer a blend of basic skills and liberal arts in their curricula. The existing course curricula in all public and private universities can be divided into theory, practice, and study under four major curriculum categories: (a) communication studies, (b) journalism/media reporting, writing and production, (c) social sciences and (d) media research. But, it has found a lack of agreement about the basic framework for the curriculum. Ullah (2012) records that public universities are concentrating on traditional journalism curricula while combining subjects from social sciences and liberal arts to make their graduates better informed. Private universities on the other hand, emphasize more on the application of new technologies, considering the job requirement in the present media market. Similarly, almost all the public universities offer between 120 to 128 credits with 32 to 40 courses at undergraduate level and 32-40 credits at the master's level, with a variety of optional courses. Private universities offer many practical courses with 120 credits which are not followed by the public university curricula.

The prime debate is not only on the course content, but also on which courses are to be taught in which year/semester as well as the marks distribution for practical and theory courses. Most of the curricula have got a 60 percent focus on theory-based courses, including communication, development, health and population studies. The remaining 40 percent are devoted to journalism topics, such as reporting and editing, feature writing, radio and television journalism, and specialized reporting (environment journalism, finance and business journalism, etc.). The core and optional/allied courses are yet to be uniquely decided. Besides, an element of discrimination about the acceptability of syllabus has also been identified. Private university departments' curricula are authorised by the University Grants Commission (UGC) while the public university curricula are authorised by the academic councils of the respective universities.

Though journalism educators have a consensus regarding taking professionals onboard for the curriculum designing process, except DU, the remaining institutions are yet to take any professionals to help them design the course curricula. Non-availability of quality experts is seen as one of the reasons for non-inclusion of professionals in preparing curricula. Kabir (2011) explains the reason in this way "… many of the most famous and respected journalists and media professionals of the past and present had no formal training, but yet learned their craft on the job. Their experience though is shoddy in many ways in the context of professional standards"(p.48). This element has widened the distance between senior professionals and faculty members in chalking out an industry-friendly framework for journalism curriculum.

Pedagogy

Journalism education traditionally covers practical skills training on the one hand, and general contextual education and liberal arts courses on the other. Although the specific needs and demands of media systems differ from region to region and are largely determined by (and are a reflection of) the particular culture, law and history, the delicate balance between practical and contextual knowledge has always been the main area of attention within journalism programs. About 70 percent of Bangladeshi journalism course contents are practical. But, the process of arranging practical classes is literally impossible in many of the departments due to the lack of media labs and inadequate financial capabilities to hire practitioners. While evaluating the pedagogy of public university journalism courses and teaching, Kabir (2011) observes, "the general instructions and classroom lectures on journalism and mass communication in the universities are bookish, devoid of practical demonstration, and the classes are conducted by faculty with decades-old experience" (p.50).

Ideally, journalism teaching and training ought to be carried out by a coach who excels both on and off the field. In reality, one sees in journalism departments a polarisation in its faculty profile between those who are with an impressive professional background but with minimal research or teaching experience and those with brilliant results or has research doctorate qualifications but minimal industry experience. The problem in selection of journalism faculty is often whether the higher credence should be given to applicants with doctorate qualifications but minimal professional media experience, or to those with well-established industry experience but holding only an undergraduate degree. In this context, the pedagogy of journalism education is controversial too in Bangladesh. Educators are in a dilemma about teaching methods, whether it is their role as a coach, or a player in classroom teaching from a micro level view. Similarly, there is no agreement on professors' teaching loads or the way degree programs are structured at the macro level. Loo (2001) argues, "conceptually, a teacher and a trainer can be linked, respectively, to that of a coach who has never played the game, and a coach who is a professional player" (p.23).

Ullah (2012) has found that all the private and two of the public universities are offering four courses in a semester of six months' duration while the other universities offer eight to ten courses in a traditional year-based curriculum. In addition, journalism departments are still skewed towards print media, while opportunities are also opening up in the electronic and online media. Universities are yet to help the students avail themselves of this opportunity. While expressing his dissatisfaction at the pedagogy, Kajol, a journalism graduate from CU, now working in a prestigious daily as a senior reporter, claims that journalism students enter the profession after having 4/5 year-long university courses and the departments must draw their classes and facilities with plans 10 years ahead of the prospective trends of journalism. He narrates, “I was taught about the ‘horseshoe-shade table’ for sub-editors (copyeditors), but never have I seen this kind of table in my newsroom” (Quoted from Ullah, 2012).

Research evidence on journalism education

Though there is no available data about research and publication, it can be claimed that the majority of faculty members are not credited with ‘A’ grade publications due to their poor research expertise. The young faculty members are not exposed to reputed journals and articles. These young teachers enlighten themselves with PhD in journalism and media schools from North America, start publications in the reputed academic journals in recent times, but the numbers are very few. The absence of developing any mechanism for assessing faculty members at public universities is also a major setback for having an index to measure the competency of teaching staff.

No remarkable research evidence exists regarding the capacity of journalism departments in Bangladesh till 1997. The Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, USA, took the first step to find out the problems in Bangladeshi journalism schools under its project – Strengthening Journalism Education in South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka). Thereafter, no steps have been taken till 2009, although a total of 10 public and private universities have established journalism programmes by this time. The Bangladesh Centre for Development Journalism and Communication Studies completed a comprehensive survey on the capacity of journalism schools of Bangladesh in 2009 with support from UNESCO. Since then, six more universities have started journalism departments but it is evident that no university has taken the initiatives on how to strengthen journalism education even in their own university. They all have copied the syllabus from three major universities.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

There was a paucity of evidence on the outcome of journalism education in the Bangladeshi media profession till 1996. After a 35-year journey of university-based journalism education in Bangladesh territory, the United States Information Service, Dhaka, arranged a colloquium on Relations of Educators and Professionals in 1996 as part of the preparation of the Colombo conference – the Southern Illinois University, USA initiated this effort in 1997. The key recommendations from the colloquium were: (a) professionals and educators need to work together in enhancing journalism education in the country, (b) journalism students need to be provided well-supervised, structured internships, and other training opportunities, such as field trips and access to equipment on site, (c) career and job fairs to hire qualified graduates from journalism education programs should be held, (d) practical research of value conducted by media professionals should be sponsored, (e) resources to fund labs for the improvement of physical facilities, and endowed faculty chairs, and donated equipments should be provided, (f) a more practical curriculum and development local reading materials should be designed, (g) a systematic database of alumni, alumni relations should be fastened, and they should be encouraged to participate in the education of future media professionals, (h) renowned professionals as adjunct teachers, and advisory boards composed of these professionals should be hired and (i) practical research with immediate application for industry should be conducted. These recommendations were also reflected in the Colombo conference (Foote et al, undated).

Earlier, International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) conducted a survey under the leadership of Professor Eapen in 1991 about the text books used for journalism education in the five SAARC (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and Pakistan) countries. Eapen (1991) claims that nine out of ten books referred for students either were outdated or of the USA origin. Since then there was no serious thinking either among journalism educators or professionals about strengthening the issue of locally published books and reference readings. Due to financial constraints, these departments were not getting the latest books or subscribing to journals, or even did not have well-equipped audio-visual and computer lab and allied facilities. DU got a studio from the Asia Foundation while RU and DU got computer labs from Danida, IUB received some broadcasting equipment from BBC, but these were not current equipments. Except ULAB, others did not have any high standard of lab facilities for students and teachers for their practical know-how. In view of the challenges discussed above, Bangladeshi journalism educators needed to be prepared and to respond to some urgent issues. Some steps would be helpful in enhancing the capacity of journalism departments and research activities:

(a) many Asian universities have journalism departments under a wider school. Journalism schools brought under the School of Communication/ Mass Communication or Information Studies (for example Nanyang Technological University, Singapore offers Journalism/Information Science/ Mass Communication under the same school). However, this process will not work right now in the Bangladesh context due to budget and facilities constraints. Keeping journalism under the same umbrella, universities can prepare an integrated curriculum at the bachelor's level aimed at a unique standardisation, and make a separation between journalism, media studies, and mass communication courses at the graduate level. Journalism can also be divided into print and electronic tracks and can adopt the curriculum of UNESCO 2007 on an experimental basis.

(b) Bangladesh now has a relatively viable media industry. But there is a lack of industry support for a broad-based journalism education. Even the link between journalism education and the profession is not strong enough, and in fact, there exists a clear division between those who teach journalism and those who practise it. Both the sides need to change their rigid mindsets to find out a suitable solution. Journalism departments therefore need to develop collaboration with the local media houses. This will serve both the parties – the internship which will give real-life training to the students and the media houses which will also be able to tap into well-trained talents.

(c) A council for journalism educators needs to be formed urgently, which will be responsible for setting a specific standard to ensure quality journalism education for all universities. This council will work with the departments, media organisations, and the University Grants Commission. Professionals can contribute updated knowledge, and skills in the field, and the full time faculty will be a resource for theory and research, and the UGC will shoulder the coordination activities. The tripartite engagement of educationists, professionals, and UGC administrators will be responsible for the coordination, supervision, and monitoring of the programs.

(d) Journalism educators are often blamed for their inadequate research on the curriculum. Teaching staff, on the other hand, often complain about lack of adequate research funds. In reality, salaries and research grants for university teachers are not commensurate with their capability and scholarly excellence in many cases, at least in public universities. Private universities are yet to think about research engagement of their permanent faculty. The university fund allocation and administrative process are also discouraging the educators from engaging themselves in serious research. At least, a few 'A' grade journals are needed to be subscribed to for the enlightened new faculty.

(e) Departments face constraints of books as senior media professionals and teachers are not encouraged to contribute in this regard. Local publishers show lukewarm interest in producing books, which fit into the context of Bangladesh, mainly due to marketing and sales limitations. The UGC can commission book projects in local languages and set a faculty promotion rule with scholarly publications in refereed journals.

(f) Annual survey of communication and journalism graduates and pedagogical research needs to be carried out regularly in each communication and journalism department to know the state of their graduates in the job market and to find out the shortcomings in the curricula design. The survey and research findings should be disseminated to other communication and journalism departments and media houses and communication and media research organisations.

In conclusion, it can be said that the overall situation of the media industry, journalism education, and research has an indication that journalism education is a burgeoning field in Bangladesh as in many other parts of the world. There are many controversies about the quality of journalism degrees. The redesigning of curricula in the education and media institutions faces manifold drawbacks like: (a) there is no common standard to teach journalism at university; (b) fast-progress of the industry in comparison to the journalism departments; (c) poor budget allocation by the profit-driven private university administration or the university grants commission for public universities; (d) extension of west-centric syllabus by faculty after enlightening themselves in the US, UK, Australia and other European countries; (e) inadequate research culture on syllabi and on output by the graduates in the practical field; (f) scarcity of necessary text books with local examples and outcome based curricula; (g) controversy regarding the mission of the university education – preparing all round intellects or ready-made workforce for the industry.

Finally, the overall climate makes it clearer that the ignorance of the progress of the profession and industry is a hindrance for journalism teaching. Rather, an interdisciplinary study relevant to humanities, social sciences and vocational training will be helpful to some extent. To make a balance between academic and vocational education and to overcome the challenges from the usages of new technologies in practical journalism, departments require a good amount of modern equipment. In so doing, journalism departments need financial support.

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African Countries and the Challenges of Lobbying for a Permanent Seat in the UN Security Council

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Lobbying in Africa, is subject to various interpretations, among which is the most resented interpretation by the common man that lobbying is bribery. This kind of interpretation is not unexpected given the kind of society many African countries are known to be made up of. Corruption as the leading factor and bribes in the name of lobbying by African leaders inform an average African of his wrong impression about lobbying. But lobbying as a tool in public relations, international relations, national and international politics is devoid of the popularly held anti-social interpretation. The objective of this article is to show lobbying as a standard function of public relations and international relations that can afford the lobbyist an opportunity of acknowledging the crucial importance of those lobbied in order for an achievable purpose. Africa needs sincere lobbying to enable it to have a fair representation in the Security Council's permanent seats. To do this, implementing reforms of the UN and the Security Council is crucial. This article has highlighted challenges facing Africa in its bid to have at least a permanent seat in the Security Council. Among others, Africa is faced with constant instability which gives the industrialised nations advantage over African nations. Also mentioned is the issue of lack of development in the countries that make up the continent. Prospects of African countries having permanent representation in the Security Council have also been discussed. Among suggestions made, African countries must be committed to one another to enable them have a common front while lobbying for permanent seat(s).

INTRODUCTION

In Africa, the concept of lobbying has often been a misconstrued one, especially among non-public relations experts and practitioners. Perhaps, this misconception

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is not unconnected with the overwhelming corrupt practices prevalent in the continent and the unfortunate leadership examples portrayed by African leaders (Wragg, 1992; Oboh, 2008). At all the levels of life, lobbying plays a significant role. In organisational, state and international affairs, lobbying in any guise cannot be ignored. Lobbying functions mainly in both domestic and political needs. Wragg (1992) asserts that lobbying varies between organizations. He adds that lobbying and parliamentary liaison, in the broadest sense, are a significant aspect of work of trade associations and pressure groups. Lobbying arises when there are divergences of opinion on all manner of subjects.

Lobbying and diplomacy

Lobbying is a function of public relations which is eminently associated with the government relations. Wragg (1992) submits that "lobbying is a question of specific politicians" (p. 140). In doing this, organisations can be seeking to influence the decisions of the politicians in the organisations' favour. Similarly, nations of the world are engaged in the same practice of seeking to influence others in their respective interests. According to Wragg (1992), organisations lobby members of parliament because the organisations feel that their interests need to be protected. Wilcox, Cameron, Ault and Agee (2003) see lobbying as being "closely aligned with governmental relations or public affairs, and distinction between the two often blurs" (p.346). Like Wragg (1992), Wilcox et al (2003) note that lobbying is one of the campaigns to influence impending legislation. They however, add that lobbying is a more specific activity.

To tie lobbying to international public relations and diplomacy makes possible countries of the world to share their mutual interests and understanding and able to elicit the goodwill of one another. Wilcox et al (2003) argue that governments of virtually every country have one or more departments involved in communicating with other nations. Lobbying is one of such departments. The major hurdle some countries may encounter in trying to communicate to influence others is the systems of government adopted by the different countries which are at variance with one another (Newsom, Turk & Kruckeberg, 2010). This observation may however, be a guide to countries that wish to lobby other nations.

In international relations, lobbying is an essential part of diplomacy since countries of the world do not only need to co-exist but also to co-exist and relate with one another. Palmer and Perkins (2001) believe that "the world community is a historic reality. It is made up of all people everywhere – most of whom live in 'sovereign' states that must 'co-exist' on the same planet. Through sheer necessity these states have relations with each other" (p.1). The fact that some sovereign states are more powerful than others, economically and politically and that global occurrences are vectors in world unity and peace makes it imperative for lobbying among countries of the world.

International lobbying should therefore not be seen as a one-way traffic where the poor and less powerful countries of the world would have to lobby the rich and more powerful countries. It is on realisation of this that both the rich/powerful and poor/less powerful countries of the world station their diplomats everywhere in the world to cater for the needs of their home countries. In doing so, the necessity of a rich/powerful country lobbying a poor/less powerful country is always very conspicuous. Lobbying can be used for exchange of diplomatic roles by countries of the world. Rich and powerful countries of the world need the co-operation of poor and less powerful ones to exist and vice versa (Wilcox et al, 2003).

The UN Security Council

The UN Security Council is the main UN body responsible for global peace and security. The decision of the council affects all member-states in matters of global peace. The Security Council originally consisted of eleven members, each representing a member-nation. The council was enlarged to fifteen members in 1965 with five permanent members and ten non-permanent members who serve for two years (Palmer & Perkins, 2001). The permanent members comprise China, France, Russia, United Kingdom and the United States of America. The non-permanent member representatives are elected by the General Assembly of the United Nations. The composition of the permanent membership of the Security Council is dominated by European countries. There is one Asian country while North America has one country. Apart from the non-proportional representation of the continents, other continents of the world completely lack representation in the permanent membership of the Council. Africa which is the second largest continent in the world is one of such continents.

Many times, many African countries have been elected to serve in the Security Council as non-permanent members and they have been performing optimally. For instance the Nigeria's representative for 2010/2011 in the Security Council, Prof. Joy Ogwu got a commendation from the UN Secretary, Mr. Ban Ki-moon for major contributions to the current global peace and security (The Nation, April 23, 2010).

The Security Council is burdened with the responsibility of calling on parties in dispute to seek a solution by negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, resort to regional agencies or arrangements or other peaceful means of their choice if the parties fail to exhaust the procedures for pacific settlement.

The Council reserves the power to ask members of the United Nations to apply such measures as complete or partial interruption of economic relations and of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communication and the severance of diplomatic relations and may even take such action by air, sea or land forces as may be necessary, using the armed forces, assistance and facilities that UN member-states have pledged to provide (ww.un.org/en/sc/).

Article 51 of the United Nations Charter provides that "nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security" (www.yale.edu/lawweb/.../un/unchart.htm). The responsibilities of the Council stated here are only few of the crucial responsibilities of the Security Council which are germane to global peace and security. These enormous and crucial responsibilities are vested in the hands of only a few members of the United Nations – fifteen among whom, if one permanent member vetoes, the decision fails to stand. The recent UN decision on Syria was delayed because of the veto power of Russia until Russia was able to evolve a peaceful measure that was acceptable to all sides that led to the process of destroying Syria's chemical weapons. The power of the United Nations therefore seems to rest prominently on the five permanent members of the Security Council while some continents of the world are not represented in the permanent membership of the body. This is against the democratic principles of the West who also form the majority of the permanent membership of the Security Council.

Perhaps, it is on this recognition that countries of the world have seen the need for the enlargement of the Security Council and its permanent membership. The agitation for the enlargement of the body started some decades ago. Many member-nations of the organisation have engaged one another in serious debates regarding the expansion of the Security Council and permanent membership of the council (Radio Japan, International News, April 22, 2010).

African countries and the need for permanent membership of the Security Council

Out of the 196 member-countries, of the United Nations, African countries make over 25% of the body (World Population Reference Bureau, 2005). However, the continent is not fairly represented in the council. In spite of Africa's contributions to world peace in terms of sending troops on peace missions to various countries of the world and other global engagements, Africa is still not given the opportunity to be represented by permanent member(s). Some observers attribute lack of regard for African countries to the high rate of instability in many African countries. Libeling-

Kalifani (2010) for instance, decries his experience of civil war in Uganda since the country's independence in 1962. Similarly, Irobi (2005) submits that many multi-ethnic societies in Africa agitate for survival at the expense of development. This is in consonance with Powell's (1992) observation that "conditions of wealth or scarcity, equality or disparity, shared cultural values or disputed ones, have been seen as the sources of variation in political performance" (p.30). The issue of instability may not have been the only reason since continents of the world which are relatively peaceful are not fairly represented except Europe and North America.

Apart from the issue of free states at the time the League of the Nations was formed, the permanent members of Security Council are basically industrialised nations which can contribute enormously to the finances of the UN as well as assist developing nations among which most countries in Africa are. UNESCO (1981) asserts that "in many countries, and in many fields, the intolerable gulf between the 'haves' and the 'have-nots' continents continues to widen because the richest nations continue to grow richer" (p.179). All African nations, in one way or another depend on these countries. Because of this lack of self-dependence, many African countries have failed to reach self-actualisation even when there is a dire need for such self-actualisation (Udoudo, 2010). Whatever the situation with African countries, Nwosu (2007) has summed up the need for African countries to be duly represented in the UN and specifically in the Security Council as he states:

> We sincerely believe that such a reform must include the greater involvement or inclusion of the less developed countries like Nigeria (especially in the Security Council) and other such countries from other regions of the world that have played leading roles in ensuring stability in the world, which is the major reason that led to the establishment of the UNO and its predecessor, the League of Nations (p.2).

Nwosu's position is one very many calls by countries, organisations and individuals for the reform of the Security Council and permanent seat(s) for Africa. This is a deserving call that needs the co-operation of African countries. To achieve the needed co-operation, lobbying becomes a necessary tool.

African co-operation and challenging factors

Lobbying among African countries is essential because such lobbying can lead to a common front by the African countries; to enable them to lobby nations of other regions of the world to support African membership. Co-operation among African countries is the most important unifying factor to enable them to lobby both the very powerful member-countries of the UN and the Security Council as well as the less powerful ones whose support is germane to the election of an African country (or countries) to the permanent seat of the Security Council.

One challenge that African nations have faced is the lack of co-operation that is required to enable them to lobby all other countries for support for a permanent seat(s). Since the need for reforming the UN and the Security, in particular arose, many African countries have identified their respective interests in becoming a permanent member of the Security Council representing the African continent, should only one position be given to Africa. This show of interest seems to be done at the expense of regional co-operation which would bind all African countries together to make them have one voice and remain resolute in their quest for such representation. Countries, such as Nigeria, South Africa, Egypt etc have indicated their interest. While there is nothing wrong in these countries' show of interest, the bottom line of their search for the representation should be valid co-operation even among the prospective candidates so that in the event of one seat for Africa, they should present one country and lobby for support for the one country.

The fear about African co-operation is that often African issues are approached by African countries in accordance with the dictates of the economic and political powerful countries upon which they depend. When this happens the lobbying which would have started from among the African member-states of the UN, would rather come from the various external influences and African countries would remain the ones to be lobbied instead of the ones to lobby. In doing so, the interest of Africa is not the primary objective but still the interest of such countries with global power which bank on Africa's loyalty.

If the economically powerful nations of the world have had the power to initiate and succeed regarding who is installed as the leader of a country in Africa, getting countries of Africa against others is not too difficult. In this regard, Moemeka (2007) has observed that Africans have always blindly swallowed whatever is presented to them by the West. Udoudo (2010) observes that some Africans are still yet to see anything good in their countries and in Africa as a whole. Africa's dependence on the dictates of the industrialised nations of the world stems from instability in politico-economic processes and insecurity.

There is no African country that can claim that it has not linked itself to a political system or economic system of one powerful country of the world or another. The Zimbabwean government has gone between the West and Iran to look for an external country to depend upon. While the coalition Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) and the civil society in Zimbabwe were vehemently opposed to the Iranian President's visit to Zimbabwe on April 22 and 23, 2010, the government of Zimbabwe and its supporters were proud of having the Iranian

President Ahmadenijad visit Zimbabwe. The action of the Zimbabwean government was seen by Prime Minister Morgan Tsvangirai as "a colossal scandal" to spite the Western powers (www.theinedependent.co.zw/.../bitter/-...) but on the other hand, the government through the former coalition, Morgan Tsvangirai was used to look for the support of the West in revamping the economy of the country.

This unstable relationship with enemy-countries of the world because of lack of stability in Africa has robbed African countries of the opportunity to co-operate with one another in lobbying for the common good for Africa just as it is the case with the issue of a permanent seat in the Security Council. The same was the issue with East and West economic and political power blocs when the USSR was the Eastern World Power. Many African political and economic decisions at the international level were divided between the two blocs. This lack of self-trust has given rise to Africa's indifference in contributing to much global significance (Nwosu, 2007).

Opubor and Nwuneli (1985) assert that "the major direction of information flow in the world today is between and among the political and economic capitals of the world, New York, London, Paris Bonn, Tokyo and Moscow". Until African countries become united as a people with one particular objective, the issue of a permanent seat in the Security Council may be seen as another "New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO)" issue where the gap between the developed and developing nations of the world continues to widen instead of reducing. (UNESCO, 1981; Udoakah & Udoudo, 2009). African countries are thus not only challenged to adopt appropriate lobbying techniques as a public relations tool to persuade other continents to accept their position but are also expected to apply other adequately acceptable communication techniques such as conferences and seminars where possible to influence public opinion (Newsom, Turk & Kruckeberg, 2010) regarding world views held by African themselves to be addressed before presenting their common choice to other nations of the world.

The politics of lopsided membership of the Security Council

The great emphasis on the politics of democracy by countries all over the world in any form cannot be overstressed. Idemudia (2008) observes that a "great majority of nation-states in the world call themselves democracies" (p.138). He adds that these democracies range from systems which have evolved over hundreds of years to the ones which have just emerged. Among such recognised long-time democracies are Britain and the United States of America who are the key players in the UN and the Security Council.

Democracy, as championed by these two world powers is a system of government that is based on fair representation. This goes back to the origin of democracy in Greece where everyone in the city-state was free to contribute to the government of the society. This was possible because the city-state was small enough to carry everyone along. Maybe, this is why Plato (2007) believes that whoever cannot act on his own does not know the purpose of his existence.

The politics of fair representation became necessary when the states became too large for everyone to take part in the deliberation of their own affairs. The principle of social contract took the place of everyone's participation (Ward, 1976). Because of the dynamics of politics, the growth of politics (democracy) has risen beyond city and nation-states to regional and global status symbolised by such regional bodies and the United Nations which is the apex global political institution.

The question about the United Nations and its agencies and organs, such as the Security Council is, how democratic are they? In representation, in decision making, in equality and in sovereignty accorded member-nations, how democratic are they? When it comes to global power play, the UN plays a major role in getting all the countries of the world democratised but fails to be democratic itself. This is greatly depicted in the lopsided permanent membership of the Security Council. Since the global trend as championed by the UN and the powerful countries such as the United States and Britain is democratisation of the world, a global institution such as the United Nations with its organs such as the Security Council should be democratised to serve as a good example. The interest of the global leaders seems not to be in that direction. Why this lack of interest? Uche (1996) is vehemently critical of the interference in UN affairs by a few domineering countries. He gives examples of how the United States, France and Britain largely violated the United Nations resolution on trade and economic embargo against Rhodesia for her Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI). Similarly, Uche (1996) reiterates that the UN resolution on trade and economic sanctions against South Africa for her apartheid policy was violated by the Western powers. Other instances are commonplace.

Whatever the thinking, there is an exhibition of hypocrisy by these "big" countries who canvass for democracy in every part of the world but fail to allow democracy to prevail in a global institution such as the UN with its organs. Nwosu (2007) observes that it is this conspicuous lopsidedness and double standards that should prompt African countries to lobby other nations of the world into accepting the need for reforming not only the United Nations but more importantly, the Security Council to enable Africa to participate fully in global peace and security. African countries especially those which are relatively peaceful should see themselves and wish others to see them beyond the level of contributing peace-keepers on missions. They should as well be made to participate in the discussion of issues which lead to the decision to send peace-keepers on mission (Ya'U, 2002).

Thus, Africa can be seen beyond the level of being manipulated to suit the control of World Trade Organisation and General Trade Agreement (GTA) as noticed by some observers (Ya'U, 2002). It is left to African leaders to stop fighting for the creation and leadership of the "United Sates of Africa" as championed by the late Col. Gadaffi of Libya but to unite with all purpose of sincerity with the spirit of lobbying other nations of the world and to present a country or countries credible enough to be accepted as candidates for permanent members of the Security Council. Africa has all the potential to start this cause and succeed. What is needed is sincere co-operation. An example is Tunisian Mustapha Masmoudi's persistent call for a New World Information and Communication Order (Uche, 1996).

Prospects for African permanent membership in the Security Council

The prospect of Africa having at least one permanent seat in the Security Council lies with the African countries themselves. When they realise the genuine need for Africa to be permanently represented in the Council then they will search within and stop being guided by international politics of the industrialised nations. Africa needs stability in order to organise itself above the influence and the dictates of the industrialised nations who use grants and donations to buy the conscience of the developing or underdeveloped nations (Nwosu, 2007).

The pivot of African affairs is development and development can mainly thrive where corruption is generally seen as anti-social and hated. When African nations have started to develop themselves, they would be insightful and would not lend themselves to the development plans of international agencies, hence, African countries would be counted among those that can offer genuinely to global development(Opubor & Nwuneli, 1985; Ya'U, 2002; Udoudo, 2012). Over-dependence on the technology of the industrialised nations for everything by African nations, informs the world that Africa is still lagging far behind (Mansell & Wehn, 1998).

Another index of lack of development is instability. Beside Middle East countries, Africa seems to record the highest rate of instability in the world. Then if the main duty of the Security Council is to maintain peace and security, it may be illogical to use the same people who are not peaceful to preach peace for others. The challenge therefore, is for African countries to use regional and sub-regional organisations in the continent to maintain a lasting peace within and among countries of Africa (Afigbo, 2003). Based on these highlights, it can be inferred that the prospect of Africa's permanent membership in the Security Council largely depends on Africa's self-actualisation and the ability to carry out successful international political lobbying to convince nations of the world of the continent's deserved right to be permanently represented.

Lobbying from within: How?

The idea of solving African problems by non-African leaders is completely outdated. It is time the African states and leaders started searching for ways of solving their problems themselves, especially those problems with global interests (Ya'U, 2002). African states are known for a very long standing union (former Organisation of African Unity, now, African Union). There are also sub-regional unions in the continent, such as Economic Community of West Africa (ECOWAS), Southern African Development Community (SADC) and East African Community (EAC). In the first place, these sub-regional bodies need to evolve a very strong unity at their individual levels. Then through the sub-regional bodies, countries in the sub-regions can be persuaded for their supports for a country or countries that have the prospects of representing Africa in the Security Council of the United Nations (Nwosu, 2007).

The African Union's arm like the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is a good avenue to discuss and lobby for the seat(s) in the Security Council since Africa's representation at that level is also part of the development of the continent. Nwosu (2005) suggests that African countries should through public relations mobilise themselves for a common cause. The meeting of the General Assembly of the African Union should serve as a collation point where the various stands of the sub-regions should yield to a common stand and be adopted by the African Union as the resolution of entire Africa that has to be used in lobbying nations of other regions of the world. Indeed, Africa needs a common voice to be able to have a country or countries to represent the continent in the permanent membership of the Security Council (Nwosu, 2007).

Countries that have prospects to represent Africa as permanent members in the Security Council should be able to use their diplomats to engage their host nations in Africa in serious discussion with the view to influencing their host nations on the need to be elected to represent the continent. Such discussion at both regional and sub-regional levels can flow much more easily and narrow down the number of interests. All that is required is a genuine understanding that Africa needs to be represented in the permanent membership of the Security Council (Uche, 1996). The Non-aligned nations for example, used serious lobbying in getting the United Nations and more especially the Western industrialised nations to agree to impose sanctions on the infamous apartheid regime in South Africa (Kochler, 1982; Reddy, 1988). African leaders may need to be as committed as the then Prime Minister in the Interim Government of India, Pandit Nehru declared in 1946 that:

> The kernel of our policy is the ending of colonialism all over Asia, or for that matter, in Africa and elsewhere and racial equality …and the end of domination or exploitation of one by another (www.mahatma.com/.../showNews.php?).

The importance of lobbying by African countries is manifest in what Ukpong (Radio Nigeria Network News, March 23, 2013) has stated that the election of an African…, from Morocco as the current head of International Parliamentary Union (IPU) held in Geneva between 17th and 20th March 2014 was a result of co-operation and serious lobbying among African countries before they were able to lobby non-African countries.

International public relations does not end at the level of government-to-government. It goes beyond this level to the citizens and the legislature. Lobbying being one serious tool in international public relations therefore requires that citizens and legislatures in the lobbied nations should be spoken to with the view to making them accept the subject matter. Wilcox et al (2003) argue that "… governments of virtually every country have one or more departments involved in communicating with other nations… Even larger sums are devoted to lobbying efforts to obtain favourable legislation for a country's products…" (p.386). Wilcox et al (2003) add that Costa Rica lobbied the United States Congress to let its sugar into the nation at favourable rates. In older democracies, especially the United States, there are expert lobbyists whose responsibilities include influencing legislative and government actions (Wilcox et al 2003). The services of these experts can be sought to consult those whom they know can play a role in supporting African cause.

To achieve this feat, the journey may not be too far but it requires commitment and ability to convince the world that Africa needs to be represented in the Security Council as a permanent member. African countries need to have more collaborative politics in their approach towards acquiring at least, a permanent seat in the Security Council of the United Nations. The first hurdle is that the industrial countries which are the permanent members and are enjoying the present exclusive club that characterises the Security Council would not think that the status quo should change. Africa, after settling on a country or countries to represent the continent should seek inter-regional co-operation with countries and regions of the world which have similar feelings and thus lobby them for consistent pressure for democratic composition in the permanent membership of the Security Council. A cue should be drawn from the world that celebrated the late Nelson Mandela from his release from prison as a world hero even by those who saw Mandela as a terrorist and would not grant him the permission to their countries while the fight for the freedom of South Africa was on (Meredith, 2010). There is need for African nations to have the same spirit shown during the apartheid regime in South Africa in lobbying other nations of the world to accept their position. Indeed, Africa must understand that since the world's emphasis on government is democracy, the Security Council of the United Nations should be a reference point to the hypocrisy of the democratic nations that resist democracy for the Security Council.

The second hurdle that Africa must scale is proof of credibility. Africa must prove that the continent has nations that can represent the continent in the Security Council. This proof has to be searched from within. Udoudo (2010) observes that one of the problems of Africa is that Africans do not trust in themselves while many do not see anything good in the continent. A rallying point for achieving a feat such as having a representative in the UN Security Council is self-trust. African countries whose leadership style is oppressive and ethnocentric need to adopt a pattern of leadership that is people-oriented before they can be seen as being able to speak for other parts of the world in any matter of global crisis (Udoudo, 2012).

CONCLUSION

This discourse has examined lobbying as a tool of public relations, political campaign and international relations which can be employed to achieve set objectives. The application of lobbying to achieve a permanent seat in the UN Security Council for Africa is necessary even though the need to reform the UN and Security Council has been lingering. The choice for Africa as discussed in this article is for them to do away with issues which give the industrialised nations undue advantage over Africa and make them cash in on these to make African nations irrelevant in the permanent position of the UN Security Council.

Summary

- African countries must learn to be committed to one another to enable them have a common front while lobbying for permanent seat(s).
- African countries must earnestly seek and maintain stability in the continent.
- African leaders should always strive towards drastic reduction in cor ruption and aim at developing their countries without waiting for the dictates of the industrialised countries.
- The campaign for permanent seat by African countries must be more

rigorous and persistent.

- The serious campaigns for a permanent seat(s) must start from within – among the African nations who will form a common bloc to reach out to countries in other regions of the world.

Africa's over-dependence on the industrialised nations may work against African co-operation and ability to present a common front. Thus, the search must start from among African countries themselves before they can lobby non-African countries.

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Visual Persuasion in Print Advertising: An Inquiry into the 'Incredible India' Campaign

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The omnipresence of a consumerist culture requires an inquiry into the persuasive forces which mobilise consumers into making a choice. Needless to say, communication theories have come a long way from the effects or the functionalist paradigm to the nuanced understanding of audiences as active participants. They are no longer looked at as passive people who could be easily persuaded. At the same time, companies are allocating huge marketing budgets to advertising their products and services with the aim to persuade consumers to purchase. The advertising industry spends an enormous amount of time and effort to figure out the best strategies for getting consumers to buy products. To study these dynamics, it is important to revisit the propaganda theories of communication. It is imperative to understand the techniques that are being employed to capture attention of consumers and the persuasive elements which are being employed. This study specifically looks at the visual architecture of print advertisements and deconstructs it into its various elements. The reason why a particular colour, form or design has been used and what it symbolises is of primary concern. The study examines the print advertisements of the "Incredible India" campaign launched by the Ministry of Tourism in India in order to understand the intricacies of visual persuasion.

INTRODUCTION

Visual persuasion is central to print advertising and is considered to be dependent on the principles of gaze and attention. Marketers and the promotional divisions of companies use advertising as a tool to inform, remind and form opinions but most importantly to persuade individuals to purchase products and services, offered by the company. The source, message and receiver's characteristics have a crucial role to play. This paper builds on from Messaris's study (1994; 1997)

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on visual persuasion to understand how marketers employ techniques of visual persuasion to influence their so called "target customers". Which visual will work and which will not, poses a serious challenge to advertising professionals, as it is an arduous task to understand audiences and their reaction. Advertising has historically worked on the principle that attitudinal change among consumers leads to behavioural effects and action. One of the oldest models of advertising is the AIDA model which assumes a sequential and linear flow between the Attention, Interest, Desire and purchase Action (Strong, 1925, p.76). While many versions and modifications to this model came about later, advertising is mostly seen as a tool to influence consumer perceptions (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989) and purchase behaviour (Kamins, 1990). In line with this understanding, advertisers gave a lot of attention to visuals as a means to draw attention. Visuals are often used to break the clutter and grab the "eyeballs" of the consumers (Messaris, 1997). Advertisers may use fear appeal, celebrity endorsements or emotional appeals through visuals (Messaris, 1997). The sole aim of the advertising industry is to persuade people to buy products. This industry spends an enormous amount of time and effort to figure out the best strategies for getting individuals to do what they want.

This study examines print advertisements of the "Incredible India" campaign launched by the Ministry of Tourism in India and analyses the different visuals used to persuade the audiences.

Advertising and visuals

It is well established that pictorial elements in advertisements, such as colour and layout, can influence a variety of advertising outcomes (Finn, 1988) and that small alterations to a picture can have a huge impact on the favourability of consumer beliefs (Peracchio & Meyers-Levy,1994). Research has shown that visuals in advertisements can be more memorable than words (Childers & Michael, 1984). Visuals are suggestive but at the same time they are open to interpretation. This interpretation according to Kardes (1993) leads to "self generated claims"[1]. Such claims turn into strong beliefs and cannot be altered much by counter-arguing. But the biggest drawback of indirect advertising through visuals is that it requires consumers to be more involved with the advertisement (Kardes, 1993). This is why visual advertisements primarily focus on grabbing the consumer's attention and keep the consumer hooked by making it "interesting".

Visuals are used by advertisers to make claims which may seem unreasonable when written in words. According to Messaris (1997), associating two unrelated objects through pictures, such as healthy young adults and cigarettes or automobiles with mountain scenery, causes viewers to take the association for granted without questions. In addition, Tanaka (1994) suggests that advertisers turn to pictures when they don't want to take responsibility for the covert content of their advertising messages. Researchers have speculated that advertisers use images to imply messages that cannot be verbalised (Pollay, 1991).

Scholars have made comparisons between visual and verbal messages in advertising (Myers, 1994). Most of the research indicates that images are often unable to convey the explicit arguments that words can convey and that visual advertisements need words to convey their meanings. On the other hand, Messaris (1997) has argued that omission of words can often work to the advertiser's advantage, by making possible the implicit visual expression of controversial messages.

The study of visuals and their persuasive power is incomplete without understanding perception. The knowledge of visual perception is used by advertising professional to generate images which would have a greater impact on the consumers. Perception can be understood as the process by which individuals gather, organise and assimilate the stimuli from their environment to form a meaningful whole (Schacter et al, 2011). Using the knowledge of Gestalt psychology (Humphrey, 1924) advertisers meticulously generate images which emphasise and highlight certain aspects of the visuals and diffuse others. Consumers while viewing advertisements choose to focus on certain aspects of a visual to make them more clearly accessible to the mind.

Capturing attention

If a visual is unable to capture the attention of the consumer, it is rendered useless. The stimulus has to make contact with a sense organ of the individual for it to elicit a response (Clark, 1994). One function of attention is to regulate the amount of additional processing effort a stimulus receives (Clark, 1994). It has been established through research that paying closer attention involves more processing effort and vice-versa. "Attention works at two levels and so focusing on one image leads to a decrease in the clarity of all other images. The mind is also found to be attentive enough to remember images shown only for a brief period or the subliminal[2]" (Wright, 1998). While the conscious memory is stimulated by a colour, sound or a smell which is used by the mind to recall, the subconscious memory is that which is recorded in the mind without the individual being aware of it (Wright, 1998). Hence advertisers use subliminal messages to stimulate the subconscious memory.

Attention is also captured through the use of archetypes. These ideal types are used so that audiences from different cultural settings can relate to the visual and engage with it. The depiction of a mother, who loves her child unconditionally and cares for it immensely, would be an example of an archetype commonly used by advertisers to draw attention (Messaris, 1997). Another tendency of viewers is to respond well to a spokesperson or model staring directly outward, seeming to look into the viewers' eyes or reach into the viewer's "real" space (Messaris, 1997). People tend to be especially responsive to the eyes and mouth, which they normally look at during everyday interaction with their peers. Greater perceived proximity has been shown to increase attention and involvement with advertisements (Messaris, 1997). It has been found that advertisements with few, but informative, focal points gather more attention than advertisements with no specific focal points. High contrast stimuli, such as bright colours and sharp visual edges also draw more attention (Yu, 2006).

The response to visual advertising is different among men and women i.e. there are gender differences in visual persuasion. Research has shown that advertisements emphasising female bodies, sex appeal, and sporting activities appeal more to men than females (Yu, 2006).

Visual images

Through his book, *Visual Literacy: Images, Mind, and Reality*, Messaris (1994) has challenged the conventional ways of looking at visual images. His work has given meaningful perspectives on reading visual images which borrows from semiotics[3], structuralism[4], and contextualism[5]. Semantics and the syntactic also play an important role in visual communication.

A semantically-oriented description focuses on how the elements in a particular image are related to their meanings. A syntactically oriented description is concerned with the inter-relationship among the elements themselves as they combine to form longer meaningful units.

Visual perspective is a very important feature of visual images. The perspective is the point of view, or the location of the viewer. So, the perspective may be that of an insider or an outsider, it can be in terms of the elevation (up versus down) or distance (far versus near). Previous research on visual perspective has examined the effects of the positioning of the attitudinal object in relation to the viewer. The mental images formed on the basis of visual information can also be influenced by the camera angle from which the pictures are taken (Moriarty, 1987). This research suggests that when an object is depicted from a low, upward-looking camera angle then the object is judged more positively than when it is viewed from a high, downward looking angle.

Visual persuasion

Visuals when put in a system of meaning can signify a lot, which may mean nothing to anyone outside that particular system. This system could be common language, culture, history etc. "According to Charles S. Pierce symbolic meanings were established through a process of cueing. He had categorized signification into three types, as iconic, symbolic, or *indexical*" (Moriarty, 1987). According to him, visuals could turn into symbol that came to represent something by convention or by association. For example, a dove can signify peace. Therefore, an understanding of symbolic meanings of visuals or picture is necessary to study visual persuasion. Messaris laid out three distinct properties of visual persuasion as iconicity, indexicality, and syntactic indeterminacy. According to Messaris (1997), an iconic sign, looks like what it represents. For example, a picture of a rose has visual patterns and details that resemble a real life rose. In other words, it is the ability of images to imitate the appearance of reality. Iconic signs were literal and representational. Messaris (1997) believed that pictures that violate reality drew attention effectively. An example would be the visuals of gravity defying stunts.

Iconicity is exploited by advertisers by using sexual attraction and physically appealing to people to sell products. Many have critiqued Messaris by arguing that pictures are no closer to reality than any other mode of communication and that the illusion of iconicity is purely due to arbitrary cultural conventions (Goodman, 1976). Developments in the area of perceptual psychology support the idea that there are substantial parallels between the responses to pictures and the responses to real visual environment.

An indexical sign, in contrast, is a clue that links or connects things that occur simultaneously in nature. For example, wilted leaves may signal that a flower needs watering. Lastly, syntactic indeterminacy is the lack of visual syntax to make causal claims and explicit arguments. According to Messaris (1997), the fact that visual structures lack the explicit syntactic rules found in verbal language allows advertisers to make visual arguments which would be unacceptable or even illegal if they were expressed in the more explicit terms of a verbal statement. Messaris (1997), points out that the persuasive power of an advertisement is derived from the viewer's implicit belief that the images are for real and not tampered with. The author further examines the different forms of visual manipulations and how these visual lies are created. Messaris (1997) believes that visual deception through altering of photographic images is a way through which advertisers mislead consumers.

The persuasion-propaganda relationship

Before going any further, there is a need to understand persuasion as a concept and its evolution from the Aristotelian rhetoric to its current day comprehension. At the same time an endeavour has to be made to study the relationship that persuasion shares with propaganda. Have persuasion and propaganda come to mean the same? Is propaganda a form of persuasion or is propaganda a distinct category of communication where elements of informative and persuasive communication may be incorporated? In today's day and age is it easy to distinguish between persuasion and propaganda? These questions need to be discussed and debated and contextualised in the frames of the global importance that advertising has come to assume. Are advertising and PR persuasive or is it propaganda at work?

It has been historically understood that propaganda is a form of persuasion which attempts to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist (Simons, 2001). On the other hand, persuasion is an interactive dialogue where both the persuader and persuadee stand to gain (Petty, 1996) . In Ancient Greece, while Aristotle tried to understand the art of persuasion, efforts were being made to develop techniques for influencing public opinion (propaganda). "Victim hegemony" pioneered by the tyrant Pisistratus was one of the earliest propaganda techniques. This technique can be enunciated as "the description of oneself or one's group as the victim of unjust behaviour on the part of others so as to gain public support and, hence, power" (Marlin, 2002). To demonstrate this technique Pisistratus wounded himself and damaged his own property to make it look like his enemies had attacked him (Marlin, 2002). In contrast Aristotle focused on describing how communication elements could bring about persuasive effects in audiences. His elements included proof, use of emotion, organisation and style.

After the World War II, research was generated in the field of persuasion and the nature and effects of propaganda. Researchers were earlier concerned with attitude change and later attempts were made to predict behaviour and behavioural change. At that time the different definitions of "persuasion" were concentrated on the sender and ways in which the sender could craft a more persuasive message. Over a time period, persuasion studies shifted its emphasis to the receivers, their motives and attitudes and the effectiveness of a message. Nowadays, persuasion is considered to be a mild term while propaganda has some serious negative connotations. These pejorative connotations of the term propaganda came about in the 1800's before which it was not a bad thing to be propagandistic. In the early 1600's the Roman Catholic Church used the term propaganda in a sociological sense and referred to it as a diffusion of ideas that would not occur naturally, but only thorough cultivated or artificial generation (Black, 2001). So, propaganda was defined as a moral campaign to harmonise the content and teachings of the church (Black, 2001). Throughout the years propaganda was used in political campaigns, revolutions and to gain support for war and for new ideas. It played a significant role in the rise of both Communism and Fascism and reached a new level of scientific sophistication during World War II (Black, 2001). Films like *Triumph of the Will* and *Battleship Potemkin* are classic examples of propaganda through cinema. This is how propaganda got its “bad reputation”.

Researchers like Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) through their personal experiences of the WWII began to study the conditions under which persuasive messages were most likely to influence people. They looked at the source or the speaker, the message content, the arguments presented by the speaker and lastly the nature of the audience or the kind of appeal (fear or humour) that worked best for them. This study came to be known as the Yale attitude change approach. But with nearly 65 years of research into persuasion most researchers believe that individual differences and contexts determine the nature of effects.

Throughout the 1900s, various schools of sociology and psychology studied propaganda, especially in relation to the media. Fotheringham (1967) was among the first who diverted the focus of persuasion studies from the producers to the receivers and their flow of thought and psychological states (Borchers, 2002). Later theoreticians emphasised the role of signs (semiotics) in studying persuasion and how meanings can be co-produced and co-created rather than being passively injected into the individual (audience). A lot of research revolved around the tools of persuasion but some scholars like Timothy Borchers (2002) were concerned “not just with the tools used by persuaders or the attitudes of receivers, but rather with how both the sender and the receiver come together to create a shared reality.” This change in the way how persuasion was being perceived gave some credit to the receiver of the message as being an active participant in creating a psychological, social and physical state which facilitated persuasion. According to Mulholland (1994), “persuasion acts rather to encourage the other person to share the view of the user, than to insist on imposing it; the persuader simply presents the best case possible and then leaves it to the other to accept or reject it. Moreover, persuasion takes into account and allows for differences in viewpoint.” Mulholland’s definition is meant to apply mainly to individual interactions rather than mass communications situations.

Researchers have conducted numerous studies on what makes persuasive communication effective. Simons (2001) explored the psychological aspect of persuasion by looking at influences on attitudes. For him, attitudes were an outcome of values and beliefs. According to him, a message that succeeded with one receiver might backfire with others. This was all part of what Simons called the BVA theory, after its central elements of belief, value and attitude. An important assumption of this theory is that “the message recipients are rational in the way they form and modify attitudes on the basis of beliefs and values” (Simons, 2001).

Post the BVA theory, the Yale approach also made several contributions to the study of persuasion by identifying the essential ingredients of persuasive communication but the problem was that the persuader could not decide which elements were more important than others. In other words, what should the person crafting a persuasive campaign be most concerned with? Is it the source and its credibility or should one concentrate on the content of the message? In answer to these questions, one very influential theory of persuasive communication was devised by Richard Petty and John Cacioppo's called the ELM or the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Simons, 2001). ELM is based on the idea that "persuasion is a consequence not just of external cues but also of the thoughts that the persuadee generates in response to external communications" (Simons, 2001). Imperative to the ELM is the distinction between central and peripheral routes to persuasion. The central route is the one which involves greater elaboration of thoughts than the peripheral route. People who process information centrally ask themselves probing questions, generate additional arguments, and possibly seek new information. Those who become persuaded after a heavy mental labour tend to be resistant to counter arguments and remain persuaded. The central route requires high levels of ability and motivation, so it is not useful for all people and for every situation. Therefore, peripheral processing is sometimes used. It involves the use of heuristics or cognitive shorthands, which are drawn upon relatively mindlessly. ELM assumes that for persuasion to work, the persuader must get the persuadee's attention.

One very effective way to gain an audience's attention is by playing to their emotions. There are a number of ways in which emotions can help influence attitude change. It was found that if a person is in a good mood, they are likely to take the peripheral route, and if they are in a sad or neutral mood, they are more likely to take the central route. This argument was supported by the study they conducted on college students (Simons, 2001). They also found that the central and peripheral routes are not mutually exclusive and often people use them in combination (Simons, 2001). Moods are difficult to decipher and access and what adds to the complexity is that moods change very fast. Most research on the effects of emotional appeals in persuasion has focused on fear arousal. This technique is one of the most commonly used in attempts to change attitudes. Studies by Petty and Rogers found that, "If a moderate amount of fear is created and people believe that listening to the message will teach them how to reduce this fear, they will be motivated to analyse the message carefully, changing their attitudes via the central route." (Simons, 2001). Researchers also found that fear-arousing appeals will fail if "they are so strong as to make people feel very threatened" (Simons, 2001).

Another important aspect of emotional appeals to be considered is the difference between cognitively based and affectively based attitudes. Cognitively based attitudes are based more on beliefs about the attitude object, whereas affectively based attitudes are based more on emotions and values. Aronson (2002), suggested that cognitively based attitudes should be confronted with rational arguments, while affectively based attitudes should be confronted with emotional appeals. Apart from emotions; cultural background also plays an important role in persuasion.

Research on propaganda in the field of politics, religion, war etc has been going on independently of persuasion studies but many scholars like Jowett and O'Donnell (1999) have classified propaganda as "a sub-category of persuasion". Their definition focused on the communication process, especially on the purpose of the process. In their words, "propaganda is the deliberate, systematic attempt to shape perceptions, manipulate cognitions, and direct behaviour to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist....propaganda uses strong and mainly covert tactics, and hardly allows for resistance to its influence, and has as its goal an absolute imposition of its own wishes on others. If it meets with opposition it simply increases the pressure on others to accept what it seeks. It insists that its message be accepted, and further that it be acted on. It can and does fail if its tactics are inappropriate or badly used, but in the hands of experts it more often succeeds than not." (Jowett & O'Donnell, 1999)

The subtle differences between propagandistic and persuasive communication is diminishing. Advertisers and public relation professionals both aim to manipulate perceptions to achieve a positive end result. This end result may be the adoption of an ideology or the purchase of a product/service. The viewers are bombarded with information which is aimed at galvanising them into action.

There are no clear cut boundaries between persuasion and propaganda. They employ similar techniques and if it is suggested that propaganda is a subset of persuasion then the reverse can also hold true. Propagandistic communications employ elements of persuasion but at the same time most persuasive techniques today have a hint of propaganda. The research in both fields has moved separately but with simultaneous developments. The disciplines of persuasion and propaganda have had similar progressions. They experienced a paradigmatic shift from the importance given to the source or the sender of the message to the message and its characteristics and finally to the psychological, sociological and cultural understanding of the receiver.

The "Incredible India" campaign

The Indian Tourism Department launched the "Incredible India" promotional campaign primarily to enhance tourism in India. The campaign was funded by the

Government of India and Experience India Society, which is a consortium of travel agents in India. Through the various print and electronic media advertisements designed, it aimed to highlight the various tourist attractions in India, such as Himalayas, wildlife, yoga and ayurveda etc. The advertising agency Ogilvy and Mather were assigned the charge of the print media campaign.

Methodology

In 1987, Moriarty offered an effective typology for analysing visuals. The first category of visuals determined whether a visual was photographic or an illustration. At the next level, it is determined if visuals were literal or symbolic. If literal, they could be further subcategorised into identification (brand, logo, and package), description (what it looks like, parts attributes, and schematics), comparison (between two competitors, before and after) or demonstration (how to do, make, use, etc.). Symbolic visuals could use association (lifestyle, typical person, situation), association with a character or celebrity, metaphor, storytelling or aesthetics.

This paper analyses 34 print advertisements from the "Incredible India" campaign; the advertising visuals were analysed based on the broad themes and patterns, the execution style and by function. A purposive sample[6] was used to select the adverts.

Findings

Through a content analysis of the print adverts of the "Incredible India" campaign, four major themes emerged namely tradition, nature, colours of India and mental/physical state. These broad themes could be further categorised. The theme of tradition included knowledge, history, religion and festivals; Nature could be sub-categorised as wildlife and landscapes (mountains, deserts, water bodies); colours was either single or multi-colour and lastly the two distinct states of the mind/body were active or relaxed.

Table 1: Four major themes of the Incredible India Campaign

[A] Tradition	1) Traditional knowledge/wisdom 2) History 3) Religion 4) Festivals
[B] Nature	1) Wildlife 2) Landscapes (mountains, deserts, water bodies)
[C] Colours of India	1) Single color 2) Multiple colours
[D] Mental/physical state	1) Adventure Sports 2) Relaxation

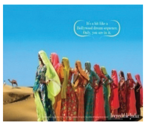
The content analysis revealed that in the sample adverts collected, photographs dominated over illustrations. It was also found that the literal functions of the visuals exceeded their symbolic functions. Moreover, illustrations performed more symbolic functions when compared to pictures. Literal functions outnumbered symbolic functions when it came to pictorial visuals. There were some adverts which included pictures as well as illustrations and there were a few which comprised of a picture collage. The theme of tradition was visible in 17 of the visuals analysed, 12 had the theme of colours, and 14 depicted natural forms. Indian tradition emerged as the most dominant theme in the advertisements taken as the sample for analysis.

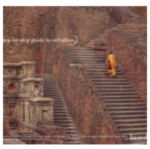
The visuals which showed traditions had the main function of description while those with nature as their main theme had the function of demonstration. Demonstration works well with activities because it captures the essence of "doing something". Traditions need to be explained to those not familiar with the Indian culture and therefore a description is more appropriate in such circumstances. The visuals from the category of "physical/mental" state had more symbolic functions than literal functions. Also, the theme of "colours of India" had visuals that had aesthetics as its most prominent function. Six of the visuals in this theme category were for the purpose of aesthetics i.e. they provided a visual appeal and had been used to gather attention.

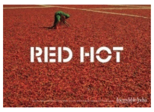
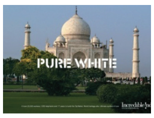
Different pictures had different colours, but monochromes dominated the scene. This made the visual look simple and avoided distractions. At the same time, multi-coloured pictures were also used to depict the different colours of India. There were almost equal number of visuals which showed activity, adventure etc. and which depicted calmness, quietness and relaxation. The pictures showed both indoor and outdoor locations so that it would appeal to a large range of audiences. Landscapes like mountains, deserts and water bodies were mostly clubbed with mental states like adventure sports/relaxation.

Most advertisements were descriptions of some tradition and served a literal function but there were nine advertisements which used metaphors and story-telling to describe India. Also, advertisements depicting traditions like festivals and religion are more aesthetically appealing. These are all persuasive elements which have been integrated in the advertisement to capture the target audience. A detailed analysis of the sample advertisements is shown in Table 2.

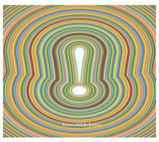
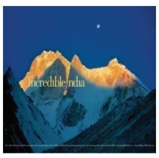
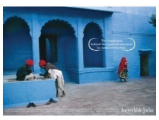
Table 2 : Detailed analysis of the sample advertisements

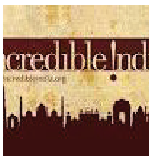
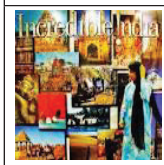
Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture	Colours of India+ Tradition (monuments)	Pure Gold		Aesthetics
	Picture	Colours of India + Tradition (Knowledge) + Physical and mental state (Relaxed)	Oil Paint	Demonstration	Association Aesthetics
	Picture	Colours of India + Tradition (religion)	Multi-colour	Description	Aesthetics
	Picture	Tradition (religion)	Doors open in all four directions. All are truly welcome.	Description	
	Picture	Nature (Landscape Desert)	It's a bit like a Bollywood dream sequence. Only you are in it	Description	Story telling
	Picture	Nature (landscape mountains) + Colours of India + Physical and mental state (active, adventure)	Deep Purple	Demonstration	Association

Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture	Colours of India + Tradition (festivals)	Just how do you paint a canvas that's ten feet high, weighs over four tons and does not stand still	Description	Metaphor
	Picture	Tradition (festivals)	With probably as many festivals as days on the calendar, it's tough deciding on the time to visit.	Description	Storytelling
	Picture	Physical and mental state (active, adventure) + Nature (Water body)	Don't worry there's always rebirth	Demonstration	Metaphor
	Picture	Tradition (religion) + Physical and mental state (relaxed)	A step-by-step guide to salvation	Description, Demonstration	
	Picture	Physical and mental state (active, adventure)	Rat race, stress, corporate friction. Rise above it all		Metaphor
	Picture	Colours of India + Tradition (knowledge)	Mustard yellow	Identification, Description	

Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture	Nature (water body) + Tradition (knowledge)	One day man will travel at the speed of thought.	Demonstration, Identification	
	Picture	Colours of India + Tradition (knowledge)	Red Hot	Identification, Description	
	Picture	Colours of India + Nature (Water body)	Water colours		Aesthetics
	Picture	Nature (Wild life)	Not all Indians are polite, hospitable and vegetarian		Metaphor
	Picture	Colours of India + tradition (history monuments)	Pure white	Identification	
	Picture+ Illustrations	Nature (water body)+ Tradition (knowledge) + Physical and mental state (relaxed)	The ancient science is a result of a flourishing partnership between life and knowledge. It is a simple way of outsmarting illness by maintaining the delicate balance between one's humour. Where else will you find mystic wisdom that refuses to grow old with time? Wisdom that is an incredible balm for the mind, body and soul. Each one of us is a unique composition of five elements. Ether, fire, water, air and earth	Description, Demonstration	

Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture+ Illustrations	Nature (waterbody)+ Tradition (knowledge) + Physical and mental state (relaxed)	Meditation Wordsworth searched for a 'happy stillness of mind'. Many around the world are getting their daily dose of bliss through meditation. You need no equipment. Only focused concentration and an Isolated environment. The Indian Himalayas, sheer bliss for your mind, body and soul	Description, Demonstration	
	Picture+ Illustrations	Nature (landscape deserts) + Tradition (Knowledge) + Physical and mental state (relaxed)	When stimulated, the sensory receptors of our soles release energy that quickly travels to the spinal cord from where it is dispersed through the entire nervous system. It eases stress and tension. Now that should quickly get you travelling to only one place: India. Therapy for your mind, body and soul		

Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture	Physical and mental state (relaxed)+ Nature (landscape mountains) + Tradition (Knowledge)		Demonstration, description	
	Picture	Nature (wildlife)		Identification	
	Illustration	Colours of India		Identification , description	Aesthetics
	Illustration	Colours of India			Aesthetics
	Picture	Nature (Landscapes mountains)		Description	
	Picture	Nature (Landscapes deserts)		Description	
	Picture	Colours of India + tradition			Aesthetics

Print advertisement	Execution style	Theme	Words/ Tag line	Function	
	Picture	Celebrity (Aamir Khan)		Identification of the brand embassador	Association with celebrity, Story telling
	Illustration	Miscellaneous			Story telling
	Illustration	Tradition (history)			Story telling
	Picture collage	Miscellaneous		Identification	
	Illustration	Miscellaneous		Identification	
	Illustration	Miscellaneous	www. Incrediblein-dia.org	Identification	
	Picture collage	Tradition (history)		Identification	

Pure Gold, Oil Paint, Multi Colour, Deep Purple, Mustard Yellow, Red Hot, Water Colours, Pure White were all part of the colour themed print advertisements published under the Incredible India campaign. The Pure Gold or the golden colour is accompanied by a visual of palace interiors, which suggests opulence and richness. The grandeur and splendour of the palace, associates well with "gold", the rare and precious metal used commonly for ornamentation in India. The "oil paint" tag line is accompanied by a visual of the oil massages which are known for their healing and therapeutic quality. The "Kerela massage" is a popular tourist attraction, which uses medicinal oils and is performed by the specialised, trained masseuse. The "red hot" is a picture of red chillies which are known to be very spicy (hot) and abundantly grown in India. Mustard Yellow is accompanied by a "bhunga" (a house made of mud) and the picture of the white marble mausoleum of Mumtaz Mahal, called Taj Mahal goes well with the Tagline of "pure white". The Taj Mahal is a symbol of pure love and togetherness. The advertisement with a tag line "water colours" is accompanied with a visual of a vast expanse of water and the colour blue. Apart from these, there were a few illustrations which also symbolise the colours of India.

There were advertisements that suggest peacefulness and tranquillity than those which look at the extreme sports and adventure activities. In the sample chosen for this study, only two advertisements exhibit an element of extreme sports. One showed the image of white water rafting and the other showed paragliding. The one with paragliding uses it as a metaphor to send the message of "rise above"; it suggests an escape from the busy and highly corporatised lifestyle of today, which can be extremely demanding and stressful. The other advertisement tries to capitalise on the thrill of attempting something wild and dangerous. Apart from these, most adverts depict India as a traditional and spiritual destination which provides calm, soothing and serene surroundings. A picture of a slow ride on the back waters of the Kerela or the picture of a Monastery with an advertisement copy saying "a step-by-step guide to salvation" or even the advertisement which endorses yoga and meditation are all part of promoting India as a destination for soul searching and spirituality. The copy of all these advertisements calls India an incredible balm or a therapy for the mind, body and soul.

The picture of the Asiatic lion and the Royal Bengal Tiger has been used in different advertisements to draw attention to the wildlife of India. There were some advertisements which exclusively focused on the landscape of India with pictures of the Thar Desert and the Himalayan Mountains. The religious and cultural heritage of India has been highlighted in many of the print adverts like the one on Golden Temple, which talks about inclusion and welcoming people from all parts of the world and from different religious backgrounds. Another advertisement shows the

Rajasthani desert landscape with women wearing traditional attire standing in the foreground and the advertisement copy referencing a Bollywood movie setting. The advertisement on the myriad religious festivals of India is another attempt to establish an image of diversity and heritage. These images were colourful and the focused on plurality.

CONCLUSION

Visual imagery is used to command attention, stimulate curiosity, and demonstrate product features and benefits, establish a personality for a product, associate the product with certain symbols and lifestyles, and anchor the brand identity in the minds of the target audience (Yu, 2006). Additionally, advertisers use visual imagery to enhance or strengthen the message about their product.

A print advertisement includes a collage of images and text i.e. words and pictures that, when combined, create an overall effect on the readers. Communication by visual image is the most important dimension of an advertising message.

It can be understood from the analysis that pictures as well as illustrations play an important role in conveying meanings. In conjunction with words, they are able to depict real life images and situations. Advertisers use images to verbalise messages which cannot be written down in words. Images are also used to create consistent patterns so that the message to be communicated gets reinforced and ingrained in the minds of the consumers. In this particular campaign, techniques like celebrity endorsements, visual manipulation and tampering through computer technology have been used to persuade consumers. A lot of pictures were visually enhanced by changing the lighting, brightness, contrast, sharpness etc. to make them more appealing to the consumers. This substantiates Messaris's argument that visual manipulation is done for persuading audiences. Also, Messaris's claim of syntactic indeterminacy did hold true in case of the visuals analysed. None of the visuals, which were sampled, were able to make clear causal claims.

The text, words or captions used in all the advertisements were congruent with the visuals used. The functionality depicted through visuals was based on the explicit and latent needs of the consumers. Clearly depicted functionality helps advertisers sway customers to purchase their products or services.

NOTES

1 Interpretations made by audiences/ consumers, lead them to make claims about the product, service, brand etc. These claims are made by them and can differ from one con sumer to another

2 A stimulus or mental process below the threshold of sensation or consciousness.

3 Semiotics is the study of meaning making through signs and symbols

4 Structuralism emphasises the uncovering and understanding of larger systems and structures and their relationship to culture

5 Emphasises the context in which an action or an expression occurs. The context provides meaning to those actions or expressions.

6 It is a non probability sampling technique, where the sample is chosen based on the judgement of the researcher.

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Journalism and the Pursuit of Sustainability

Aleida Rueda[1]

Sustainability, following the classical concept of the United Nations, refers to the process that we can meet our present needs with the current resources without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs with the resources we have left. The concept is based on two essential components: "needs" and "resources", so that a sustainable process is achieved when there is a balance between both in the present that ensures the same balance and the future. Although the concept lacks practical methodologies to make this possible, there has not been an obstacle for its indiscriminate use in public policies and speeches, international agreements, marketing and the mass media. In this context, and without delegitimising the ultimate goal of the sustainable development, it is worth asking: How to cover sustainability? Do we need a journalism specialised in sustainable topics? Does it make sense in developing countries where most of the attempts to be sustainable are frequently unsuccessful? Is it enough to talk about the environment to be sustainable? What characterises the stories focused on sustainability? This article raises the convenience of having sustainable journalism not only for the relevance of having stories related to sustainability in the mass media but also the need to include scientific information and a sufficiently specialised news making process to make citizens actively involved in public decisions and social transformations. In this sense, rather than a journalism that is sustainable only because it covers sustainability issues the author proposes a journalism that is sustainable itself for its ability to meet the citizens' needs of the present with current resources—and scientific information- without compromising the ability of future generations—of journalists—to do the same.

The overall objective, to be sustainable

What today seems an international fad, a few decades ago was a subject irrelevant, outside the sphere of public affairs of most countries. To care about the environment, to think about sustainability[1]—with its famous definition of using

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efficiently the existing resources so that future generations will use them to meet their own needs (WCED Report, 1987)—and to see development as a process that considers the responsible management of the natural, social and economic progress based on scientific knowledge[2], are relatively new concepts that have been gaining importance in debates, international policies and public speeches of policymakers.

In 1970, United States adopted the first national policy with a sustainable environmental approach that resulted in the creation of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) whose main objective is to work independently in the creation of laws to preserve the quality of the environment, human health and natural resources. Two years later, during the Stockholm Conference, held by United Nations, the concept of "sustainable development" appeared as a consequence of a debate among the representatives of developing and developed countries on the need to consider a global model that does not affect the environment in a destructive way. These first discussions raised some issues, action plans, recommendations and agreements that included issues such as: to maintain the earth's capacity to produce renewable resources and absorb waste; to share resources instead of exhausting them; to plan development in a rational way in order to resolve conflicts between the environment and development; and to help developing countries (with resources and advice) to succeed in becoming sustainable (Environmental Protection Agency, 2011).

From the Stockholm Conference, several international events and initiatives appeared with specific targets focused on the preservation of the natural resources such as the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) which is also known as the Brundtland Commission; the UN Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 which resulted in the Earth Summit and the Agenda for the XXI century (Agenda 21), the Kyoto Protocol (related to climate change), the World Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002, among many others that have occurred since then (Environmental Protection Agency, 2011). As a consequence of these initiatives and recommendations that raised sustainable development as a suitable model to foster the development of nations, the mass media started including sustainability issues within their journalistic agendas. In recent years, it is easy to find journalistic products that seek to show the strategies from governments, companies and academia related to sustainable development.

The question that this article intends to analyse is how this coverage is working and what are its characteristics and their consequences.

Sustainability, beyond planting trees

Although the Brundtland Commission's concept of sustainability has gained acceptance and fame, it is far from being a scientific concept that provides specific criteria to seriously evaluate if anyone (or anything) that calls itself "sustainable" really is. Hence, scientists (ecologists and biologists, especially) have proposed an alternative concept that could guarantee some scientific nature: "resilience", the ability of an ecosystem to return to its initial state (or a state close enough to the original) despite perturbations made by humans.

Resilience[3], as a substantial component of the concept of sustainability, not only transforms the apparent innocence of the "use of current resources" into a "real disturbance", but also forces us to make practical analysis and scientific projections on the state of the current ecosystem and its possible future, by defining it in terms of measurable variables. In a scenario in which the fishing of the trout in a specific port is decreasing due to the decline of the quantity of trout, for example, the classical concept of sustainability would tell nothing about how to understand the situation and prevent it, while the resilience approach would involve a series of analysis (the ecosystem assessment, the life cycle of the fish, the impact of climate change, the social and economic conditions of fishers, the historical exploitation of the resource, and so on) to determine when and under what conditions the perturbation of the trout ecosystem was made and how it can be recovered without breaching the limit of system to keep producing it and absorbing its waste without compromising its integrity.

As noted by Lele (1994), convenor at the Centre for Environment and Development in India, "resilience must refer to a situation where the perturbation applied to the system is significant (to cause it to move far away from equilibrium) but temporary (a shock or a period of stress–Westman, 1986), because a continuously applied perturbation will eventually drive any system out of its stability domain, regardless of the size of the domain".

This notion, therefore, includes the concept of "limit" and the idea that when the perturbations surpass it, they can lead to the collapse of the system. Parallel to the resilience of an ecosystem (in an ecological dimension), sustainable development raises the concept in two other dimensions: the social and economical, which refer to the ability of people to produce and exchange items—but not only money—to carry out its development in these two areas.

To think about sustainability as a process in which what is disturbed (social, economic and ecological systems) is in equilibrium with its ability to re establish, regenerate, or—in the worst case—adapt to change, not only entails routes to have more measurable issues, but injects some significance to the concept: when we talk about sustainability we should also talk about the need to bring about changes in the current pattern of human disturbance to systems to reduce human misery in the present and in the future, which involves transformations in values, institutions and technologies (Lele, 1993).

Now, the questions remain to be investigated: Is this the model used by the mass media in its coverage of sustainable issues? Do journalistic products provide useful information about sustainability so that readers can perform some kind of transformation or, alternatively, demand them from their authorities that decide for them? In one sentence: Is sustainable journalism contributing to bringing the population to a more sustainable interaction with the planet and their niches in the present and in the future?

Our "sustainable" media

Many sustainability issues in media could serve as examples for analysis. In September 2013, the hurricane *Ingrid* and the *Storm Manuel* hit Mexico (by their east and west sides) causing one of most recent tragedies in the country. After a short review of the news in the most important Mexican newspapers, we can assess that most of them described acceptably well the storm impacts: they reported the number of victims, the geographical areas with higher damage, the locations of cyclones, they warned about the most dangerous areas and, in some cases, they talked about the economic impacts[4]. All of them reported what the president and local authorities said related to the allocation of resources to the most affected areas. In none of the articles, however, were there traces of science in the explanations or direct sources. With one exception (El Universal, September 23, 2013), all the stories published during the subsequent days ran with the same fate.

What did they lack? What could have made the reporter who wanted to write a story with a sustainable approach? First, with a telephone call to a specialist in the National Weather Service or the Centre for Atmospheric Sciences at the National University of Mexico (UNAM), the reporters would have known that intense rains caused by the simultaneous presence of a hurricane and a storm were predicted by scientists since September 13th (one day before the big damage occurred). From such information, it would have been possible to assess interesting questions such as: How do they know? If there was this information available, why were the national and the local authorities not aware of it? Beyond the "science" of immediate prevention, a sustainable approach would have forced the reporter to explore other paths in terms of the human perturbation: if the impacts of this water discharge (both underground and on the surface) were emphasised in places with landslides and floods, and if this kind of places are easily foreseeable, what kind of prevention was made before allowing people to settle in these places? In other words, when and who decided to exceed the limit of what the ecosystem could "hold" in terms of housing or touristic infrastructure? What type of urban planning was made? Who allowed the change in use of land use: from agricultural areas with natural rainwater channels to spaces full of houses that are now severely damaged? What scientific information did the people have who authorized such constructions? What scientific information should those people have had before buying these houses? What science is utilised today by the mass media in order to have a projection of the perturbation already made and decides whether it is feasible to go back there or better to think of relocation?

This argument contains a questionable assumption: if there is science in the coverage, then will the media be truly sustainable? In fact, even the news full of scientific information can give an idea of sustainability which actually is nonexistent. This means science doesn't ensure sustainability but to make stories about sustainable issues, scientific explanations are essential. It is relevant to ask what for. Why sustainable journalism does needs science? Going back to the Brundtland definition of sustainability plus the concept of "resilience", "sustainability" in journalism would require us to predict what type/amount of resources we will leave for future generations and what they will need. In that sense, how could journalists make such predictions except with environmental sciences (including ecology, economics and social sciences)? We can assess the coverage of the Manuel and Ingrid phenomena again: did the reader of any of those articles receive any information about predictions to help future generations meet their needs? The answer will be simple: media coverage gives no signs of thinking in these terms of sustainability.

Deciding for specialisation

Anyone could do the same exercise with local examples of news coverage on issues that can have a link to sustainability. And this brief review of journalistic products would probably be enough to realize that most of the Mexican press lacks a sustainable approach: either from the system's ability to regenerate or from a minimum assessment about how truly "sustainable" is what government or companies name so. The same review could be enough to discover that the scientific explanations and sources that can predict what type/amount of resources we will leave for future generations are usually absent in these stories.

There can be many explanations. On the one hand, the individual decision made by the reporter to consider that these issues are not essential for his/her story or to avoid the research work needed to include them. On the other hand, the decision made by the mass media organizations of not hiring reporters professionalized in scientific issues who would be able to understand and explain the depth of these events. The argument of course must need explanations: Should media companies need specialized journalists? Should there be specialised reporters on science to include in their products the complexity of the sustainable approach? The logic (and several authors) says yes: "reporters with a specialty in science journalism are better equipped than general reporters to provide context and background to the research", says Harvard researcher Russell (2006). Why? What happens when a "general" journalist covers science topics? Mooney and Matthew (2005) assert that "when an unskilled reporter covers science, the focus of the coverage tends to be more located in the political context of conflict that in the process of science" and also in the immediate effects more that the long-range consequences, just as it happened in the coverage of Ingrid and Manuel events. A treatment located only in the political framework lacks the three dimensions that must be included in the sustainable development: economic, social and ecological, and therefore it lacks the questions and relevant information so that citizens can make informed decisions.

With amazing normality there are cases in which journalists are victims of pressure from companies or governments which give (with amazing normality too) the guidelines and requirements of sustainable development. Therefore, science journalism or that journalism that considers sustainable development as one of its main topics (or perhaps it is pertinent to say any kind of journalism) questioning, training, research and critical analysis of the decision-making processes that impact on the lives of citizens are imperative, especially when these processes are based on scientific information.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is proposed that a journalism whose purpose is comparable with that of the sustainable development. A journalism (and more specifically: generations of journalists) which not only covers, describes events or reports what others say, but a journalism that includes the questions and predictions of resources and needs useful for the citizens to participate in the decision making process related to their quality of life and in its role as a generator of changes; a journalism that guarantees the minimum information that allows the reader, viewer or listener to carry out—as Lele (1993) says—transformations in values, institutions and technologies needed to regulate the current pattern of human disturbance to systems and not to foster human misery in the present and in the future.

This kind of journalism would not only include the evident social justice component inherent to journalism, but rather becomes, in fact, an object of self-sustainability, a sustainable journalism itself that meets the current information needs of citizens to ensure that future generations of journalists will have a job market in which they can carry out the same activity, essential for the development and sustainability of society itself.

NOTES

1 "Sustainable" Diccionario de la Real Academia de la Lengua (www.rae.es)

2 National Prize of Journalism on Sustainability (Mexico) http://premioperiodismoensustentabilidad.com

3 The concept of resilience (from the Latin verb: resilio, resilire, which means 'jump back') is used in the positive psychology as "the ability of a person or group to continue projecting themselves in the future despite destabilizing events, hard conditions of life and sometimes severe trauma. "Resilience" in www.psicologiapositiva.com.

4 Articles reviewed by the author from de CNN Mexico, El Universal, La Jornada, El Economista and Excélsior.

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Book Review

Indian Advertising Laughter & Tears: 1950 to 2013

Author: Arun Chaudhuri
Publisher : Niyogi Books, New Delhi, 2014
Price: INR 795/- (PB), ISBN 9789383098477. Pages: 388

Understanding Indian Advertising in a Lighter Vein

By Anup Kumar Das
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In the book titled "Indian Advertising Laughter & Tears: 1950 to 2013" author Arun Chaudhuri narrates the stories of the formative years of Indian advertising since there had been a transitional shift from a controlled economy to a liberal economy. The author shares the insider story of a budding creative industry, where he worked with leading agencies as a creative director for four decades leading many successful advertisement (Ad) campaigns.

In this book the author paints the socio-economic conditions of Indian society spanning six decades of study. He rediscovers fascinating stories of ups and downs, formation and closure, mergers and acquisitions of Indian Ad agencies. He observes that Indian advertising is influenced by certain extraneous factors, which are namely:

- The changing political scene across states of India;
- The state of technologies in various spheres that are used in the making of advertisements;
- Television (TV) replaced print as the most favoured medium for adver tisers and agencies; and
- The emergence of new media.

This book is chronologically divided into six chapters depicting six decades, namely, (1) 1950-1960: Overview; (2) 1960-1970: Transition; (3) 1970-1980:

Growth; (4) 1980-1990: Learning; (5) 1990-2000: New Age; and (6) 2001-The Present Time: Ahead. In this book, the author notes the following fascinating facts on Indian advertising symbolising six decades.

- 1950: Clarion… evolved into a peculiar company having the rare ability to kick itself in the rear rather too frequently.
- 1970: Indian agencies were now managed entirely by Indians; they did not do a bad job despite the disincentives.
- 1980: The bigger advertisers and their agencies recruited touts who were based in Delhi.
- 1990: The manner in which Sir Martin Sorrell consolidated his Indian Ad empire is a lesson for takeover tycoons.
- 2000: Now youngsters are on duty 24X7, like TV stations. God help them since our laws will not!

The author in overview chapter observes that in the 1950s "market demand for consumables and durables was limited since consumers had little disposable income". Many British companies, existing since British colonial rule, were closing their operations or closed their Indian subsidiaries. Only one adult among seven could read and write. The Indian farmer, who constituted over 90% of India's population then, was so poor that he did not eat two square meals a day. At this juncture Prime Minister Nehru took a socialist approach in governing the Indian economy and businesses. More emphasis was given to institutional capacity building than wealth creation for a handful of individuals. Nehru wanted to build India, a civilisation radically different from the then capitalist order. Choudhuri also observes during this period the nation turned into a prison, stifling ambition, curbing industry with free Indians being governed like a subject people.

In later chapters, Choudhuri portrays how advertising agencies incessantly help the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) firms in spreading of brands' image beyond the urban milieu. In fact, rural marketing communications and non-profit advertisements are also dealt with by specialized Ad agencies for better penetration into the rural and social-sector markets.

Indian advertising agencies and advertisers closely experienced the process of opening up the Indian economy post-1990. The author also observes a rapid transitional shift during the 1990s and later period due to economic liberalisation and globalisation of the Indian economy. Due to globalization of services and opening up of multinational industrial sectors in India, middle-class professionals emerged across the sectors (both manufacturing and service). While these people attained prosperity and affordability, advertisers wanted to attract them as their prospective buyers and consumers. Ad agencies helped in brand communications and image building for consumer products and services. Services also became recognisable brands. Image-conscious middle-class people also got attracted towards brands endorsed by celebrities.

A drawback of this book is that there is no mentioning of the existence of the Advertising Standards Council of India (ASCI) as a self-regulatory and standard-setting body, which was established in 1985. ASCI have adopted a Code for Self-Regulation in Advertising that is obligatory to Ad agencies and advertisers in India. Many distasteful, vulgar or racial advertisements, particularly which appeared in TV commercials, could be curbed due to efforts of ASCI after public outcry. Although, another group always pitches for freedom of expression and artistic freedom criticising any censorship attempt in TV commercials or print advertisements.

Another drawback of this book is that there is not adequate coverage on the working of the Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity (DAVP) – a nodal agency of the Government of India. Established in 1955, DAVP became an important agency for releasing advertisements of different ministries and departments of the union Government and also public sector undertaking (PSU) companies. DAVP collaborates with different professional advertising agencies for creative designing and copywriting of public sector advertisements. In fact, many regional and national dailies survived due to the flow of Government advertisements to them. This book covers advertisement campaigns with great details by different PSUs, such as Air India, MECON, Steel Authority of India (SAIL), Life Insurance Corporation (LIC), and Burmah Shell (present Bharat Petroleum Corporation Limited). In fact Air India advertisements, at different points of time, are discussed in detail to portray the changing pattern of mobility of Indian citizens due to the growth trajectory of the Indian economy or economic prosperity of some sections of people.

The author also discusses advertising campaigns by private sector corporations containing social messages, such as “We are proud to celebrate India’s Republic” released by Chicago Telephone & Radio Co Ltd, “Our children will know each other better…”released by Dunlop, “On the road to progress, steel links India’s frontiers…” released by Tata Steel, “Village doctor – a man with a cause” released by Imperial Chemical Industries (India), and “Malaria – close-up of a killer” released by Imperial Chemical Industries (India).

The author recalls brand building strategies of a cooperative brand Amul with a creation of the memorable tagline “Utterly Butterly Delicious Amul”, followed by creation of fictitious popular character the Amul girl in 1967. Due to overwhelming success of the Amul brand, cooperative societies emerged as an active economic actor empowering farmers and grassroots people across the country.

On one occasion author becomes critical of dull advertisements released by government departments. For example, commenting on an advertisement titled "Children are the twinkle of our eyes, protect their vision…" Chaudhuri assesses "fortunately, the DAVP, who designed and released this advertisement, included at least one child in the frame. Most of the visual space is taken up by officials." Analysing another advertisements released by the Bureau of Energy Efficiency (BEE), Chaudhuri assesses "as is evident, India has travelled a long way down the road of sycophancy 60 years after Independence. Now, leaders big and small appear in ads at the taxpayer's expense." There are several such commentaries on public sector advertisements. This book appears to be a useful tool for public sector managers to assess designing and copy writing principles of creative commercials and advertisements.

In this book, creative directors are portrayed as key drivers in the business of advertisement. They become very central to the success of advertising agencies as well as advertisers. The author presented brief biographies of several pioneering Indian admen and creative directors.

If something is truly reflective to gauge the mood of Indian the economy, that is Indian advertising. This book has made a good attempt to narrate historical anecdotes of Indian advertising and its key actors, while making Indian advertising services world-class. This book reproduces several advertisements of the bygone times with appropriate narratives to make the reading pleasure and interesting.

This book is an essential addition to scholarship, studying various aspects of advertisements, public relations, corporate communications, social promotion, and non-profit marketing in great details. Thus, this book is a must read for communication strategists, corporate communicators and public relations managers working with government agencies, public or private sector companies and non-government organizations. The book is also recommended for scholars of history of advertising, mass communications and brand communications in India.

Structure of Narratives in Cinema: Propp's Morphology and the South African film *Yesterday*

Divya Sreenivas

This study examines strategies through which feature films accomplish the dual role of entertainment-education. Propp's (1968) morphology of a folktale was used to analyze a South African film, 'Yesterday', containing HIV/AIDS messages. Analysis highlights that educational messages were conveyed through the portrayal of the 8 main characters and 31 functions performed by them. This study also found that Propp's methodological framework: (a) presupposes a classic comedy structure but is useful to analyze other genres; (b) clearly enumerates and operationally defines the component parts of a narrative's structure; (c) is useful for analyzing films despite its derivation from oral folklores.

Social and Cultural Concurrence: The Reception of Bollywood in Malaysia

Rohini Sreekumar & Sony Jalarajan Raj

Indian cinema often referred to as "Bollywood" has been one of the most visible sectors of entertainment, expanding operations to cater for an emerging global Indian leisure economy. As with other industries operating within a capitalist market, the expansion of products into new markets is a strategic ambition of the Indian film industry. India is increasingly looking to exploit foreign markets for its popular cultural products, as significant swathes of the Asian continent experience economic and cultural modernization. In particular, Malaysia, a nation with a diverse ethnic population consisting of three major groups – the Malay majority, and Chinese and Indian minorities – has long displayed an appreciation for Indian cinema that transcends race and ethnicity. The consumption of Indian cinema in Malaysia operates within the paradigm of 'contra-flow' whereby new media production capitals are emerging to cater to newly capitalized audiences in emerging regions like Asia. Within the developing regions like Malaysia, audiences increasingly seek out media products that reflect local socio-cultural environments. This study explores the cultural and economic conditions that characterize the reception of Indian cinema from a Malaysian perspective.

Communicator 2011 - Abstracts

Perceiving Americans through Hollywood Cinema: A Study of Indian Youth

C.N. Archana & V. Durga Bhavani

Hollywood cinema has been criticised for presenting a biased image of other nations, thereby contributing to the existing stereotypical images of Arabs, Muslims, Iranians, Turks, Afro-Americans, Asians and others. Only a few studies have examined the question of how others perceive the U.S. and its culture through Hollywood. The current study aims at identifying the perceptions of Indian youth about American society based on stereotypes portrayed in Hollywood cinema. The study also attempts to establish the gender differences, in terms of associated perceptions.

Peruvian Cinema: An Analysis of the Representational Logic of Race in *Madeinusa*

Natalia Ames Ramello

The Peruvian film Madeinusa (Director Claudia Llosa, 2006) is open to multiple and contradictory readings in terms of gender and race issues; hence the need to address diverse theories in the article, such as psycho-analysis, feminism, ideology and spectatorship. However, the main focus is situated in the representational logic of race depicted in the movie, following an Anti-Eurocentric perspective that explores the issues of stereotypical representation. The approach is a discursive one, based on the theoretical concepts proposed by Shohat and Stam (2002).

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