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Journal of Media and Social Development

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MUHAMMAD ZAKARIA
MOHAMMAD ALI ASGAR CHOWDHURY

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HEMDEEP KAUR

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Exploring the Effect of Reporter-Source Relationship on Reporting Outcome

MUHAMMAD ZAKARIA
MOHAMMAD ALI ASGAR CHOWDHURY

Abstract

Quality of news story widely depends on the quality of the source. A vital part of the reporter's job consists of cultivating sources, the lifeline of journalism. The present study attempts to study the impact of different aspects of cultivating routine sources on their news related outcome in the context of Bangladesh. For this study, data were collected through structured and self administered questionnaire from 105 reporters (N = 105) working in different newspapers in the country's second largest city and commercial capital Chittagong. Chi-square (χ^2) tests were performed between reporting outcome as the dependent variable and different component of relationship as independent variables. Besides, Spearman's correlation was employed to see the association between the variables. The findings reveal that maintaining friendly relations, nurturing relationship in everyday life, showing respect to off the record and concealing sources identity were appeared to be significant ($p < 0.01$) predictor for high level of news outcome, while maintaining friendly and good relationship and presenting gift were associated ($p < 0.05$) with outcome.

Keywords: Routine Source, Reporter, Interpersonal Relationship, Cultivating Source, Reporting Outcome

Authors: **Muhammad Zakaria**, Assistant Professor, Department of Communication and Journalism, University of Chittagong, Chittagong-4331, Bangladesh, E-mail: zakariacu@gmail.com

Mohammad Ali Asgar Chowdhury, Associate Professor, Department of Communication and Journalism, University of Chittagong, Chittagong-4331, Bangladesh, E-mail: asgar@cu.ac.bd

INTRODUCTION

Routine human sources of news are those people with whom reporters contact regularly in a beat and the contacts provide the reporters with information and supply documents for preparing news (Berkowitz, 2009; Fleming, Hemmingway, Moore, & Welford 2006; Jones, 1976; Pape & Featherstone, 2005). These sources include officials, clerks, law-enforcing agency officers, lawyers, politicians, secretaries, legislators and ministers (Fleeson, 1998; Mencher, 1991). Routine sources are the prime and widely used medium of gathering news worthy and reliable information as well as covering a beat for reporters in all forms of reporting (Brooks, Kennedy, Moen, & Ranly, 1992; Frost, 2010; Hall, 1994; Itule & Anderson, 2007; Jones, 1976; Mckane, 2006; Teel & Taylor, 1988). A personal contact in a news story will often reap a reporter more news facts than going through the “official” channels (Burken, 1976, p. 44). There is an axiom that human sources are the newsmen’s ‘life blood’ (Mencher, 1991, p. 282). Without trusted sources a reporter cannot have access to information and therefore, it is not possible to do his or her job properly. Some journalists attributed the source-book as ‘Bible’ considering its importance (Rich, 2010, p. 87). Though reporters get information from various sources such as personal observation, Internet, other news media, still they have to rely heavily on ‘word-of-mouth information’ of human sources for obtaining breaking news, routine information, day event, news-clue and exclusive news (Neal & Brown, 1997, p. 225). From getting information on a road accident to reveal the corruption against prime minister—all are the contributions of the relationship between human news sources and reporters. Even sometimes, human sources are the only way for having access to physical sources, for examples, written documents, records and files. Hence, reporters have to make rapport and bring up their sources due to their significant existence for having information provided by them. It is inevitable for newsmen to know their sources along with other pertinent facts such as their area of works, their interest, their contact numbers, when and where to find them, which documents sources

handle regularly and what type of information they can provide, which subject they will talk about, and above all, how they can be allured and pressured (Burken, 1976; Charnley & Charnley 1979; Neal & Brown 1997, Rich, 2010). In fact, reporters can enhance their efficiency if they have proper cooperation from routine sources.

Like other countries, there are some legal, institutional and attitudinal barriers to smooth and effective reporter-source relationship in Bangladesh. ‘Official Secrecy Act’ is working as an impediment for decades, consequently many government officials are reluctant to talk and be intimate with reporters being afraid of this act, thus restricting the information flow. Besides, some institutional obstacles are observed here where different government institutions, agencies and autonomous bodies often ban the entry of reporters after being irritated with news published against them. These factors are resulting in growing attitudinal problem and inferior complexity among potential sources that impede them to interact with reporters. These hurdles compel reporters to take tactics to coax the sources for providing information they seek for. As a result, in some cases reporters have to barter some enticing amenities with sources for having desired information those are aberrant from journalistic ethics. For instance, reporters often attribute sources’ name, quotes and deeds positively; present gift; give money and take sources’ suggestion regarding writing news, even conceal news related to public interest etc. However, inversely, many reporters follow systematic approach along with ethical norms to develop and nurture sources mainly focusing on building up interpersonal bond and establishing a relationship of trust based on humanity. In fact, the country is facing the deficiency of appropriate guidelines as journalists’ apex bodies, media houses, scholars and experts have failed to provide essential and detailed tips in terms of cultivating news sources.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The conceptual structure for this study is based on some common concepts of cultivating human sources described by many journalists, experts

and authors. Globally, regarding cultivating sources some traditional activities and “responsibilities” are widely practiced and followed by reporters (Charnley & Charnley, 1979, p. 196). Usually, reporters spend much time in cultivating routine sources to assure that the reporters care about them in a personal way and in return, sources provide the reporters with newsworthy information and necessary tips that assist to file news stories.

Actually, reporter-source relationship is a form of “interpersonal relationship” (Adler & Rومان, 2006, p. 188), a significant “dyadic person-to-person” link such as friendship (Gamble & Gamble, 2005, p. 233) where “intimate” interpersonal relationships are characterized by high degree of understanding, warmth and friendliness (Dobkin & Pace, 2003, p. 187). For getting newsworthy information, first of all, a reporter has to establish a “friendly” relationship with a number of people (Mencher, 1991, p. 282) and to maintain this relationship and personal connection as well (Frost, 2010). In addition, while covering a beat, the reporter should nurture the relationship in everyday life through the exercise of composure, understanding and a reasonable aptitude contrary to common wellbeing (Mencher, 1991).

To maintain a good relationship some beat reporters do favors for their sources whenever possible (Brooks, Kennedy, Moen, & Ranly, 1992; Mencher, 1991); even sometimes reporters present gifts to their sources and their family members. Besides this, Neal & Brown (1997) emphasized on showing courtesy in attributing source’s name and quotes positively in the report. They mention that it is common civility to attribute positively in a news story to its source, even when attribution isn’t necessary to the reader. According to the authors, above all, the sources lend a hand to a reporter to get the story, and most are dissatisfied if their names are not cited.

In addition, sources expect to be protected and reporters protect them when confidentiality is requested (Mencher, 1991; Neal & Brown, 1997; Pape & Featherstone, 2005). The protection of sources has also “ethical” connotation (Brooks, Kennedy, Moen, & Ranly, 1992, p. 304). Reporting custom encourages all reporters to protect their news sources, even to the point of imprisoning (Jones, 1976). In a number of situations in America

reporters are protected by “shield law” that pronounces communications and transactions between a reporter and his news source a matter of privilege (Itule & Anderson, 2007). Actually, a reporter has to make such an accord to protect sources from losing their career, their job, losing livelihood or even their life (Frost, 2010). Usually, the reporters provide protection for sources by showing respect to off the record and concealing source’s identity when sources want to be remained anonymous in the news story (Jones, 1976; Neal & Brown, 1997). This involves not only keeping their name and identity concealed from readers, from everyone else in the beat and even other reporters in the newspaper, but also taking the crucial steps to make sure that no one can make out the link between source and reporter (Pape & Featherstone, 2005). Moreover, in some cases, the source’s relationship with the reporter is such that the source feels free to make the suggestion regarding the reporting process (Mencher, 1991).

OBJECTIVES

The overall goal of this study is to explore the impact of different elements of cultivating sources on reporting outcome in the context of Bangladesh. Some other specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- To analyze the degree of various components of relationship maintained by the reporter with their sources;
- To examine the interrelationship between different elements of source-reporter relationship.

METHODOLOGY

Study design and sample size

Convenience sampling, a type of non-probability sampling was used in the study. The study consisted of a sample of 105 reporters (N = 105) working in different newspapers in Chittagong City. Participants of the study have been working as reporters in bureau offices of 18 national and six local newspapers in the city. The study area has been selected for the convenience of the researchers. The survey was conducted during the month of January

and February 2016. Mean age of the respondents was found to be 33.18 years (SD = 8.03) and mean duration of involving with reporting were reported as 9.74 years (SD = 7.25). A total of 115 questionnaires were administered and 105 were returned back; all were usable. The response rate was 91.3%.

Data collection

Data were collected by pretested, structured and self administered questionnaire consisting of three parts such as demographic and background characteristics of respondents, different elements of relationship maintained by reporters with sources; and the questions related to news outcome. The questionnaire was finalized after a pilot study on 10 respondents. Five graduate students who were quite acquainted with social science research worked as data collectors.

Dependent variables

Three statements comprising the desired reporting outcome of reporters using key source in the beat such as getting daily event, having clues as well as story ideas and obtaining newsworthy information for exclusive story in the beat were constructed to assess the level of reporting outcome. 5-point Likert scales were used ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) for analyzing the components. Afterwards, the researcher computed these three variables into one variable expressing the total news outcome (M = 2.32, SD = .54). Then the average scores were classified into two parts; accordingly dependent variable was dichotomous whether reporting outcome was attributed as either 'low' or 'high'.

Independent variables

As it was mentioned earlier this study aims at to examine the association between reporter's endeavors of maintaining relationship with source and news gathering, so eight components pertaining to relationship were employed as independent variables. Most of the variables imply the canon of cultivating sources such as taking care of the sources, providing protection of them and exchanging between two parties were mentioned in the erudite works of copious scholars and journalists. In addition, few variables were adopted as

these elements of relationship are practiced regularly by some reporters. The eight independent variables are: *maintaining friendly and good relationship* by reporters with sources, *nurturing relationship* in everyday life, *doing favor*, *presenting gift*, *attributing source's name and quotation positively* in the report, *showing respect to off the record*, *concealing sources' name and identity* and *putting emphasis on sources' suggestion* relating to reporting in newspaper. In applicable variables, either 'low-moderate-high' or 'rarely-sometimes-always' answer options were used to analyze the degree of cultivating sources by the reporters.

Statistical analysis

Data were entered and analyzed using SPSS version 16. Data were analyzed at three levels. Primarily, descriptive statistics using frequencies and percentage distribution were used to see the demographic, socioeconomic and background characteristics of respondents (See Table 1). Secondly, descriptive statistics using cross tabulation and chi-square (χ^2) test were used to see the overall percentage distribution of the study for both cultivating their most important source in the major beat and overall reporting outcome. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Finally, Spearman's correlations between the independent variables and news outcome were applied to see the association more evidently.

Ethical considerations

Informed consent was obtained from all participants in the study. Confidentiality of collected information was maintained by the facilitators. Study participants had the right to opt out of the study any time they wanted.

FINDINGS

Socio-demographic and background characteristics of study respondents

Table-1 shows the socio-demographic and background characteristics of the study participants. Of the total respondents, 72 (68.6%) had completed graduate level education; whereas 33 (31.4%) had attained undergraduate

level. As regards the discipline of study, majority of the respondents (63, 60%) were from non-journalism background, while 42 (40%) had studied at the department of Journalism in higher educational institutions. Besides this, in terms of educational institution 68.4% and 35.2% were from universities and colleges respectively. Same number was reported in case of the participants' age between 28-35 years as well as 36 years and above amounting 39 (37.1%) and remaining 27 (25.7%) were aged between 21-27 years. Of the total reporters, 90 (85.7%) were males and only 15 (14.3%) females. Regarding the respondents' position in newspaper organizations, most of them were Staff Reporters accounting 61 (58.1%) followed by Senior Reporter with 32 (30.5%) and Trainee Reporter 12 (11.4%). Of the participants, 44 (41.9%) had 5-12 years reporting experience, 32 (30.5%) had 1-4 years and 29 (27.6%) had 13 years and above professional experience. Besides, 21% participants covered *Economy and Business* as their main beat followed by *Crime/Court* (16.2%), *Education* (11.4%), *Health/Environment* (10.5%), *Politics* (9.5%), *Port/Customs* and *Service Sector* as well (8.5%). During the survey, 37.1% reporters have covered their major beat for 1-3 years while 33.3% and 29.5% were with 4-9 years and 10 years and above respectively.

Moreover, 68 (64.8%) respondents demanded that they had high level of knowledge on their major beat while 37 (35.2%) claimed moderate knowledge. Of the participants, majority (50.5%) were highly satisfied with their profession, while 40% and 9.5% were satisfied with moderate and low level respectively.

Distribution of news outcome by different elements of relationship maintained by reporters with key routine sources

The percentage distribution of the frequency of reporting outcome by different elements of relationship maintained by the reporters with their key sources is presented in Table 2. Overall, 67 (63.8%) participants reported high level of news outcome and remaining 38 (36.2%) reported of having low outcome in this regard. It was evident that the higher *the friendly and good relationships* maintained by the reporters, the more reporting outcome

Table 1: Demographic and Background Characteristics of Respondents

Background characteristics (N=105)	Category	Frequency(f)	Percent (%)
Education	Undergraduate	33	31.4
	Graduate	72	68.6
Discipline of study	Non-Journalism	63	60.0
	Journalism	42	40.0
Educational institution	College	37	35.2
	University	68	64.8
Age	21-27 years	27	25.7
	28-35 years	39	37.1
	36 years >	39	37.1
Gender	Female	15	14.3
	Male	90	85.7
Occupation	Trainee Reporter	12	11.4
	Staff Reporter	61	58.1
	Senior Reporter	32	30.5
Reporting experience	1-4 years	32	30.5
	5-12 years	44	41.9
	13 years >	29	27.6
News beat	Economy and Business	22	21.0
	Politics	10	9.5
	Crime/Court	17	16.2
	Health/Environment	11	10.5
	Port/Customs	09	8.5
	Education	12	11.4
	Service Sector	09	8.5
	Others	19	18.1
Beat experience	1-3 years	39	37.1
	4-9 years	35	33.3
	10 years >	31	29.5
Respondents' knowledge of major beat	Moderate	37	35.2
	High	68	64.8
Satisfaction with this profession	Low	10	9.5
	Moderate	42	40.0
	High	53	50.5

were noted accounting 75.4%. In addition, reporters who *nurtured relationship* in everyday life in high level with sources had a higher likelihood to have more newsworthy information amounting 77.8%. Similar relationship was found in case of *doing favor* for sources as well as *presenting gift* to sources in getting news. Table 2 also depicts that obtaining news related outcome increased gradually among the reporters who *attributed sources' name and quotation positively* sometimes and always with 79.4% and 80% respectively. Although this study found no significant association in obtaining daily event, news-clue and exclusive information for the reporters' *showing respect to off the record* and *concealing sources' name and identity*, but it was noteworthy that almost all reporters provided protection for their sources. News outcome was noted to be higher with 79.4% among reporters who had sometimes *put emphasis on sources' suggestion* regarding reporting in newspaper followed by rarely *giving importance to sources' suggestion* (56.5%) and always *putting emphasis on sources' suggestion* (55.6%).

Table 2: Bivariate Analysis between Different Elements of Relationship Maintained by the Reporter with Routine News Source and Reporting Outcome

Independent Variables	Number (%)	Level of News Related Outcome		Chi-square	P-Value
		High (n = 67) Number(%)	Low (n = 38) Number(%)		
Maintaining friendly and good relationship				8.926	0.012*
Low	16 (15.2)	6 (37.5)	10 (62.5)		
Moderate	32 (30.5)	18 (56.2)	14 (43.8)		
High	57 (54.3)	43 (75.4)	14 (24.6)		
Nurturing relationship in everyday life				14.498	0.001**
Low	13 (12.4)	4 (30.8)	9 (69.2)		
Moderate	29 (27.6)	14 (48.3)	15 (51.7)		
High	63 (60.0)	49 (77.8)	14 (22.2)		

Doing favor				11.053	0.004**
Rarely	44 (41.9)	20 (45.5)	24 (54.5)		
Sometimes	30 (28.6)	23 (76.7)	7 (23.3)		
Always	31 (29.5)	24 (77.4)	7 (22.6)		
Presenting gift				8.373	0.015*
Rarely	81 (77.1)	46 (56.8)	35 (43.2)		
Sometimes	16 (15.2)	13 (81.2)	3 (18.8)		
Always	08 (7.6)	8 (100.0)	0 (00.0)		
Attributing source's name & quotes positively in report				12.051	0.002**
Rarely	51 (48.6)	24 (47.1)	27 (52.9)		
Sometimes	34 (32.4)	27 (79.4)	7 (20.6)		
Always	20 (19.0)	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)		
Showing respect to 'off the record'				1.931	0.381
Rarely	09 (8.6)	4 (44.4)	5 (55.6)		
Sometimes	08 (7.6)	6 (75.0)	2 (25.0)		
Always	88 (83.8)	57 (64.8)	31 (35.2)		
Concealing sources' name and identity				1.787	0.409
Rarely	03 (2.9)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)		
Sometimes	01 (0.9)	0 (00.0)	1 (100.0)		
Always	101 (96.2)	65 (64.4)	36 (35.6)		
Putting emphasis on source's suggestion to reporting				5.303	0.071
Rarely	62 (59.0)	35 (56.5)	27 (43.5)		
Sometimes	34 (32.4)	27 (79.4)	7 (20.6)		
Always	09 (8.6)	5 (55.6)	4 (44.4)		

Rows against the categories of variables sum to 100%. P-Values are based on chi-square (χ^2) test.

* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$.

Association between reporting outcome and different elements of relationship maintained by reporters with their key routine sources in the beat

Bivariate analyses were done to see the association of each component of relationship with the outcome pertaining to news. On the bivariate analyses different variables concerning relationship maintained by the reporters were found to be significantly associated with news gathering. Using Pearson’s chi-square test (Tables 2), significant predictors of having desired reporting outcome were *friendly and good relationship maintaining* by the reporters with their key sources ($\chi^2 = 8.926$; $p = 0.012$), *nurturing relationship* in everyday life ($\chi^2 = 14.498$; $p = 0.001$), *doing favor* ($\chi^2 = 11.053$; $p = 0.004$), *presenting gift* ($\chi^2 = 8.373$; $p = 0.015$) and *attributing source’s name and quotes positively* in the report ($\chi^2 = 12.051$; $p = 0.002$).

A correlation analysis (Table 3) was performed to determine the relationship between news related outcome and different elements of relationship maintained by reporters with their key sources. Spearman’s correlation showed that news related outcome was significantly greater with more *maintaining friendly and good relationship* with sources ($r = .40$, $p < 0.01$), more *nurturing relationship* in everyday life ($r = .49$, $p < 0.01$), more *doing favor* ($r = .33$, $p < 0.01$) and more *presenting gift* ($r = .28$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, reporter’s news outcome was positively correlated with *concealing source’s identity* ($r = .24$, $p < 0.05$) and *putting emphasis on source’s suggestion* regarding reporting in newspaper ($r = .23$, $p < 0.05$). This study could not be sure why data did not find any relationship between news outcome and attributing source name and quotes positively as well as showing respect to off the record.

We also analyzed the correlations between eight components of relationship used in this study. Among elements of reporter-source relationship maintaining friendly relationship had positive association with nurturing relationship ($r = .64$, $p < 0.01$), doing favor ($r = .35$, $p < 0.01$) and presenting gift ($r = .34$, $p < 0.01$). In case of nurturing relationship, we found a positive connection with doing favor ($r = .39$, $p < 0.01$) and presenting gift ($r = .32$, p

< 0.01). It is also noticeable that, the reporters who did favor for their sources were more likely to present gift them ($r = .52$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 3: Spearman’s Correlation between Reporting Outcome and Different Elements of Relationship Maintained by the Reporters with Key Routine Sources in the Beat

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Maintain Friendship	–								
Nurturing relationship	.64**	–							
Doing a favor	.35**	.39**	–						
Presenting Gift	.34**	.32**	.52**	–					
Attributing source	.04	.14	-.09	.06	–				
Respect to ‘off the record’	.03	.05	-.03	.11	.47**	–			
Concealing source’s identity	.01	.04	.21*	.26**	.11	.19*	–		
Following suggestion	.06	-.03	.20*	.16	.04	.16	.15	–	
News related Outcome	.40**	.49**	.33**	.28**	.07	.05	.24*	.23*	–

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

DISCUSSION

From the data analysis, it is found that there are some effects of reporter-source relationship on reporting outcome. The findings of the study are discussed with regard to different elements of relationship between reporters and routine sources.

Maintaining friendly and good relationship: The reporters have to establish rapport and amicable relationship with news sources through good manners and courtesy etc. (Charnley & Charnley, 1979). Indeed, this element of relationship is the primary prerequisite of effective dyadic interpersonal relationship. Reporters have to chat, spend time, offer birthday greetings, show interest in their work, their family, get the names of children and spouse and use them and have lunch or dinner together. In return, the reporters get desired information from them. This study also found this basic element as a predictor for gathering news in both bivariate and correlation analysis.

Nurturing relationship in everyday life: Generally after building good relationship reporters who take care of their sources regularly get more newsworthy information from them (Mencher, 1991). In this stage, reporters have to pay more attention to psychological aspects such as practicing mutual understanding, having patience and being compassionate. Our findings through statistical analysis reported significant association between this element of relationship and reporting outcome.

Doing a favour: Reporters have to do *favours* to the routine sources in every opportunity, as the reporters frequently ask the sources to do favours for them, for instance, giving their time, sharing information, looking up records and providing documents (Mencher, 1991). If a source wants a favour in return, the reporter cannot decline unless it would be unethical (Brooks, Kennedy, Moen, & Ranly, 1992). Most of the time, the favours asked by the sources usually are small things. This study observed a strong impact of this element on reporter's news product from chi-square test and Spearman's correlation.

Presenting gift: In Bangladesh's perspective, this element of relationship was included in the study questionnaire by the researchers from their previous experience as reporters. Some sources often become happy having a tiny gift from reporter such as a birthday gift, a pen probably he got while covering an assignment of corporate organization. Here, it is traditional exchange between reporters and sources, and in some cases sources also provide the reporters with 'gift' to cajole reporters to make story in favor of them enhancing their own status or position. However, our findings depict a positive association between *presenting gift* and getting desired news from two non-parametric analyses; although data report that three-fourth of the reporters rarely practice this element.

Attributing source's name and quotes positively in report: For getting intimacy with sources, the intelligent reporters often *attribute their name and quotes* in the report (Neal & Brown, 1997). In Bangladesh, often some sources in position of power and politics provide reporters with

news information aiming at publishing their name and speeches in newspaper. Bivariate analysis of this study found a significant relationship between two variables.

Showing respect to 'off the record': Neal & Brown (1997) mention that when sources use the phrase '*off the record*,' it may have different meaning. So, the reporters should interrupt quickly and make them explain what they mean. Does the source mean that the reporter can't use what he or she is about to tell him under any circumstance? Or does the person mean that it's all right to use as long as the reporter don't attribute it. Is the source trying to tell the reporter something for publication, or only for background information? However, according to the professional ethics, a reporter must be obliged by 'off the record'. Our study also illustrate that 83.8 percent respondents always maintain it. This is why, no significant association was found in this regard in both statistical analyses.

Concealing sources' name and identity: Many sources in government, such as politicians, bureaucrats and officials, want to supply information and documents to a reporter with the terms of not willing to print their names in the report. If the reporter agrees to protect a source, he must do it (Brooks, Kennedy, Moen, & Ranly, 1992). In our country, the reporters also do not reveal the sources' identity due to traditional and ethical obligation. Our findings support this generalization as respondents maintain this practice accounting 96.2 percent. As like as previous element, no relationship was reported in chi-square test, while a positive correlation was seen between news outcome and protection of sources.

Putting emphasis on source's suggestion to reporting: In our country, sometimes powerful sources often try to influence the reporter regarding the reporting process, as they think that they have right to do this as they provide with the information. They suggest reporters on different issues, such as, whether and when it should be published, particular angle and aspect of the story, which information should be emphasized and which to be concealed etc. As it is seen in present study, only 8.6 percent of the

reporters put emphasis on source's suggestion in terms of reporting resulting in no relationship between two variables, while Spearman's correlation found an association in this regard.

CONCLUSION

In summary, several findings found that most of the reporters reported high level of *maintaining friendly and good relationship, nurturing relationship* in everyday life, *showing respect to 'off the record' and concealing sources identity* among the eight elements of relationship studied in this research. Besides, different elements of routine source-reporter relationship were found as significant predictor for getting high level of news related outcome. Particularly, in bivariate analysis, *nurturing relationship* in everyday life, *doing favor and attributing source's name and quotes positively* in the report were appeared as significant determinants of obtaining high level news outcome. In addition, *friendly relationship maintained* by the reporters with their key sources and *presenting gift* were also associated with getting newsworthy product. These results were also appeared to be consistent with Spearman's correlation having some deviation.

This study has several limitations that should be considered in conducting further study on this issue. First of all, reporters working with national dailies in Bangladesh's capital Dhaka and reporters from other district and upazila (sub-district) levels were not included in the study. If these samples could be included one would have got another perspective on source-reporter relationship.

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Mass Media for Health Communication and Behavioural Change: A Theoretical Framework

SANTOSH KUMAR GAUTAM
RAJESH KUMAR

Abstract

Health communication is a technique of informing, influencing, and motivating individuals, institutions, and public at large about important health issues. Mass media have an important role in health communication. The objective of this study is to investigate the role of mass media in health communication. A systematic review of different health campaigns based on health communication theories and models for attitudinal and behavioural changes have been done. Research papers related to health communication theories and models for attitudinal and behavioural changes published in peer reviewed journals have been reviewed for the purpose. These research papers were selected through multiple searches with different key words such as 'health communication theories', 'television and HIV/AIDS', 'health communication for behavioural changes', on INFLIBNET online library such as Jstor, Taylor and Francis, Willey Blackwell etc. The study finds that driven by different theories and models, mass media are using communication strategies such as infotainment/edutainment and are using Sitcoms and Suspense thrillers in developing countries for creating health awareness and for attitudinal and behavioural changes. The study also indicates that television is a powerful tool for informing, influencing and motivating people towards achieving desired behaviour particularly in relation to HIV/AIDS and other health related issues which warrant attitudinal and behavioural changes.

Keywords: Health communication, attitudinal and behavioural changes,

TRA, TPB, HBM, SCT, Cultivation theory, Diffusion of Innovation, HIV/AIDS

Authors: Santosh Kumar Gautam, Research Scholar, School of Media & Communication Studies, Doon University, Dehradun – 248001 Email: santoshgautam80@gmail.com

Rajesh Kumar, Associate Professor and Head , School of Media & Communication Studies, Doon University, Dehradun – 248001, Email: rkdoon@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

The theories relevant to the use of mass communication/mass media for health communication primarily connect communication process to health awareness and also to attitudinal and behavioural changes pertaining to health issues in target group(s). Petty, Brinol and Priester (2009) believed that mass media play important role in creating awareness and mobilize people towards positive change in health behaviour. Several theories of health behaviour such as Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), Health Belief Model (HBM) etc. identify pathways and determinants that ultimately lead to changes in health behaviour. Major theories in mass media studies such as Diffusion of innovation, Cultivation Theory and Agenda Setting help to identify impact of health campaign. Based on a review of major theories of health communication, Fishbein et al., (2002) opined that four factors could influence individual's intention and behaviour:

- a) Perceived susceptibility of the individual to an illness or disease;
- b) Individual's attitude towards a particular health behaviour;
- c) Perceived norms, in turn, influenced by the group and the community environment in which an individual operates;
- d) Self-efficacy, an individual's confidence in performing behaviour.

Together, these four sets of factors can decide success of mass media health campaigns. Mass media, especially television and cinema are important tools in shaping up modern life style. Policy makers use television, cinema and newspaper for shaping health related attitudes and behavior of the people

because mass media have enormous impact on individuals and society.

Mass media influence attitude and behaviour of the people at four levels, viz., Individual level, Network level, Organisational level and Community or Societal level (Kreps, 1988; Kreps & Thornton, 1992; Thornton & Kreps, 1993). An attempt has been made in this research paper to understand and analyze different theories in relation to role of mass media for health communication and behaviour change at all these four levels. Experiences and experiments pertaining to all these theories have also been discussed.

Individual or Intrapersonal Level

Individuals have their own beliefs, experiences, attitudes, intentions regarding any existing health behaviour. They examine pros and cons on the basis of these beliefs before performing recommended health behaviour. Therefore, health policies must have abilities to dispel previously existing beliefs and health behaviors. Prior to formulation of health promotional strategy, it is necessary for policy makers to identify individual's existing beliefs and behaviours. Therefore, individual or interpersonal level theories can be helpful to understand individual's behaviour. In addition to exploring behaviour, individual level theories focus on belief, knowledge, attitude and self-efficacy. The success of HIV/AIDS prevention interventions are often based on health behaviour theories which emphasize skill and capacity building associated with disease prevention (Greene, Hale and Robin, 1997). There are several theories related to individual level health behaviour change communication and some of the most important theories and models of health communication including Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Health Belief Model (HBM), and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) have been discussed here.

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA): According to TRA, two factors, i.e., attitude, and subjective norms affect an individual's intention to perform certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1975; Fishbein, 1979). A person holds belief that a particular behaviour leads to a certain outcome and he/she evaluates the outcome of that behaviour. If the outcome seems beneficial to the individual,

he/she may intend to participate in a particular behaviour. Subjective norms, on the other hand, arise from normative beliefs which shape a person's perception to perform certain behaviour. In its purest essence, the subjective norm is a type of peer group pressure. These peer groups may be friends, family members, co-workers, community leaders, neighbors etc. The TRA also assumes that the individuals are rational in decision making process; individual's presumption may not be entirely relevant for HIV/AIDS related behaviour that is heavily influenced by emotions (Airhihenbuwa & Obregun, 2000).

Several studies (Nanyonjo, 2009; Corcoran, 2007; Fishbein & Yzer, 2003) revealed that the application of TRA in HIV/AIDS prevention campaigns explore linkages between individual's attitudes, beliefs, intentions and behaviour. They suggested that person's normative beliefs which affect individual's behavioural outcomes are very important for success of health promotion intervention. Delaney et al. (2004) reviewed TRA based mass media campaign of road safety, which was designed to improve the road user's behaviour and encourage people for safe driving. The differing roles of publicity in public health promotion has been identified and discussed in the context of theories of behaviour change. They reported that campaigns with emotional appeal are more effective than those which are purely informative. Beadnell et al. (2008) also examined utility of TRA for predicting men's safer sexual behavioural practice in the context of three variables, i.e., practice of monogamy, use of condoms with steady partner and intention to use condoms with casual partners. The study considered a single outcome variable, i.e., behaviour for which intention, attitude, self-efficacy and subjective norms were measured. The study found that these variables had effect mediated by TRA variables of self efficacy, attitude and social norms while others directly affected intention or behaviour or both.

Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB): TPB was developed by social psychologists and has been widely applied to understand health behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The theory incorporates some of the central concepts in social and behaviour sciences and it defines those concepts in a way that permit

prediction and understanding of particular behaviours in a specified contexts. According to TPB, behaviour is influenced by individual's attitude and attitude is influenced by existing beliefs, and the subjective norms endorse the execution of the behaviour. The TPB differs from TRA that includes an additional construct, i.e., perceived behavioral control which permits individual to do certain behaviour. For instance, a baby is suffering from Small pox; the behavioral beliefs of her parents may be that it is a divine disease and may cure by itself within a week. Here attitude is shaped by beliefs of an individual which impacts his/her health behaviour. Consequently, an individual may accept or reject recommended behaviour. Because of social norms regarding disease, sometimes behaviour change process may face conservative thinking types of obstacles but here, motivation to comply act as a catalyst motivate people to perform certain behaviour.

European Monitoring Center for drugs and drugs addiction (2013) used TPB to design mass media campaign for prevention of drug use among adolescents. The campaign often addressed specific substances with the objectives to reduce the use of drugs and raise awareness about associated problems. According to TPB, drug use is a consequence of a rational decision (intention), which is based on the individual's attitude to use drug, the perceived social norms towards drug use, and the belief about controlling one's own behaviour. Health interventions are aimed at setting or clarifying social and legal norms regarding drug use. Stead et al. (2002) mentioned in their study that Scotland road safety department also used TPB to design "*FoolsSpeed*" campaign. The aim of "*FoolsSpeed*" campaign was to reduce inappropriate and excessive speed on Scotland's roads. The campaign was started in 4 phases from 1998 to 2001. The 1st phase of the campaign introduced campaign logo and key messages. The 2nd phase of campaign named "*Mirror*" was designed to address attitudes regarding speeding and speed choice. The 3rd phase of the campaign named "*Friends and family*" was designed to address subjective norms in relation to speeding and last phase of the campaign named "*Simon Says*" was designed to control perceived behavioural control. The realistic approach of campaign was successful in creating awareness

about road safety. Oyero & Salawu (2014) said that TPB is helpful in understanding sexual behaviour change in the process of fight against HIV/AIDS.

Health Belief Model (HBM): HBM consists of three parts that are individual perception, modifying factor (gender, age) and likelihood of action (Becker and Rosenstock, 1984). This model can be used as a pattern to evaluate individual's behavioural change. The HBM proposes that behaviour of an individual can be predicted on the basis of how is he vulnerable? The vulnerability depends upon individual's perception regarding disease. The vulnerability is expressed through risk (perceived susceptibility) and seriousness of consequences (severity). The perceived susceptibility and severity variables are needed to be considered before taking decision. This means that an individual has to examine cost and benefit or plus/minus before performing intended health behaviour. For example, a person must have perception of the susceptibility or risk of the health problem like HIV/AIDS and the problem must be seen as severe (Freimuth, 1992, p.101). Thus, the HBM suggests that a person must weigh the costs and benefits before taking decision. Cue to action works as a catalyst to remove perceived barriers (Uwalaka & Matsuo, 2002).

United States government launched "*Let's Move*" campaign under health promotion initiatives which was based on HBM and SCT (Georgiadis, 2013). The "*Let's Move*" campaign was designed to prevent childhood obesity. The campaign released a series of Print, TV, Radio and outdoor public service advertisements to influence and motivate public for behaviour change. The campaign was popular among US citizens and was successful to educate viewers how to prevent childhood obesity. The study found that "*Let's Move*" was successful in engaging US citizens in fitness and weight loss activities. To check utility of HBM, Adeokun et al. (2013) examined the five components of HBM using multivariate analysis. These components are perceived severity, perceived susceptibility, perceived benefits, self-efficacy and cue to action. They found that only three out of five components are strong predictors of HIV/AIDS related sexual behaviour change such as intention

towards risk reduction changes and use of condoms. The study suggests that the major HBM predictors of behavioural changes in Ibadan, South West Nigeria were perception of self-efficacy, perception of risk infection, knowledge of People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLHAs) and exposure to HIV/AIDS prevention campaigns. Thus, perception of self-efficacy, perception of susceptibility and cues to action, i.e., mass media campaigns, were the critical HBM components affecting behavioral change of the targeted groups.

Turner et al. (2004) studied design, implementation and effectiveness of Osteoporosis prevention programs on 300 middle aged women by using HBM. The response was positive as 392 people attended the orientation classes. The study concludes that increasing perceived severity, perceived susceptibility, perceived benefits, self-efficacy and cue to action while decreasing perceived barriers were actions which encourage people for participation. Tarkang and Zotor (2015) investigated possibility of HBM in HIV/AIDS prevention. Their study revealed that HBM is very useful in sexual behaviour change. Thus, mass media campaigns based on HBM motivate people to practice safe sexual behaviour. It may be applied to adult education program that primarily focuses on increasing use of condoms that aims to prevent pregnancy, sexually transmitted disease (STDs) and HIV/AIDS infection. The secondary objective of the programs is to increase early detection of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) or HIV.

Interpersonal / Network Level

Interpersonal or Network level theories of health behaviour are based on the premises that individuals are influenced by social environment where they reside and operate. Social environment may create favourable environment which is helpful for adoption of new health behavior. The opinions, thoughts, behaviour, advice and support of the people's surroundings influence an individual's feelings and behaviour. The individual has also a reciprocal effect on those people. The social environment includes family member, friends, colleagues, shopkeeper, opinion leader, religious leader, politician, and doctors etc (Glanz & Rimer, 2005). There are several theories

reported at interpersonal level but here Social Cognitive theory and its related studies only will be discussed.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT): The Social Cognitive Theory explores reciprocal interactions of people and their environments, and physical determinant of health behaviour (Bandura, 1989). SCT proposes that people not only learn from their own experiences but also from cognition (self-efficacy) of social environment existing around them. According to SCT, three factors affect the likelihood that a person will change health behaviour, viz., Self-efficacy, Goals, Outcomes expectancies. SCT is an improvisation over Social Learning theory (Bandura, 1977). Social Learning Theory says that people learn from their experiences by observing actions of others and benefits of those action while SCT says that people learn not only from their experiences but also from cognition (self-efficacy) and social environment around them. Oyero & Salawu (2014) stated that if an individual has a sense of self-efficacy, he/she can change sexual behaviours even in the presence of barriers. For e.g., HIV/AIDS messages require building people's self-efficacy towards desired sexual behavioural change, so that they can have motivation to live an ideal sexual life by believing that they can control their sexual behaviour. Jorgensen et al. (2001) used SCT in planning their health campaign to promote colorectal cancer screening. The program was designed to raise awareness of colorectal cancer and motivate people aged 50 and older to discuss with doctors about colorectal cancer screening. Eadie et al. (2009) emphasized that SCT was the basis of successful mass media campaign to promote screening for early detection of mouth cancer among people of Scotland. The media campaign aimed to increase public awareness and knowledge of mouth cancer and to encourage early detection of disease among high risk populations aged over 40 years. The campaign's evaluation suggests that it was successful in improving awareness of symptoms and in encouraging people to participate in screening for early detection of mouth cancer.

SCT has been successfully experimented in HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention programs. Bandura (1992) said that prevention of HIV/AIDS

infection requires people to exercise influence over their own behaviour and their social environment. SCT also points that individuals go through cognitive process before taking decision and weighing pros and cons of practicing sexual behaviour. In this regard, Safran et al. (2010) suggest that SCT is particularly useful in explaining pathways of HIV/AIDS transmission behaviour in Men having Sex with Men (MSM) who did not participate in the screening process due to fear and lack of confidence.

Community / Societal Level

Community level models explore how a social system functions and changes. These theories and models also explore how to mobilize community members and organizations for adoption of recommended health behaviour. Community level models offer strategies that work in a variety of settings, such as health care institutions, schools, worksites, community groups and NGOs and government agencies. Communities are understood in geographical terms. Any community has its own treasure of knowledge, experiences, values, beliefs, attitudes, language, rituals, folklore, lifestyle, and customs in a specific period of time and particular region but it can be defined in terms of other criteria as well. For example, there are communities of shared interests e.g., artist community, doctors community, engineers community, teachers community, bureaucrat community etc. The conceptual framework in this section offers strategies for intervening at community level.

Communities itself find out the problems and their solution. However, public health professionals often adopt the method of community organizing programs that reflect priorities initiated by them. Community organizes programs with the community's priorities rather than with extremist public health agenda. Community organization merged with ecological prospective recognized multi-level of health problems (WHO, 1986). It can work with SCT based strategies that take into account the dynamics among personal factors, environment factors and human behaviour. Social System Theory (SLT) and SCT influence the health decision making process of human being. SLT can also be useful for this purpose. Community organizing is not a

single mode of practice; it can involve different approaches to effect behavior change i.e. society development, Social planning and social action. At time, these models may overlap and combine.

Diffusion of innovation (DOI): According to Rogers (1995), diffusion is a process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over a period of time among members of a social system. It is targeted communication in which message concerning new ideas are propagated. The DoI model advocates that scientists and development planners must share information with one another in order to reach mutual understanding and development. DoI has been used to study the adoption of a wide range of health behaviours and programs including smoking cessation and use of new test and technologies by doctors and development planners. Two most important principles of DoI used in HIV/AIDS prevention campaigns are creating awareness about HIV/AIDS infection and its prevention and using opinion leaders to influence attitudes and behaviour of the masses (Freimuth, 1992). According to Bertrand (2004), DoI was central to one of the most HIV/AIDS prevention programs to date, i.e., "Stop AIDS" in San Francisco. In early 1980s, gay men in San Francisco took action to combat this deadly disease. The "Stop AIDS" campaign was begun by conducting focus group discussions (FGDs) to learn awareness level of gay community about HIV/AIDS. However, campaign planners soon realized that FGDs were having a strong educational effect, as men shared information about HIV/AIDS prevention. Thereafter, "Stop AIDS" employed a group of outreach workers from the gay community to conduct small group meetings in homes, which was the beginning of DoI process in the fight against HIV/AIDS. From 1985 to 1987, "Stop AIDS" campaign reached 30,000 men through its various outreach activities.

Cultivation Theory (CT): In the 1960s, George Gerbner developed a research project called Cultural Indicators, which was designed to provide a broad, integrated approach to study television policies, programs, and impacts (Gerbner, 1969). The cultural indicators approach involves a three pronged research study, i.e., institutional process analysis, message system analysis

and cultivation analysis. Institutional process analysis was designed to investigate formation of policies for massive flow of media messages while message analysis and cultivation analysis, both relate and help to develop theories about most subtle and widespread mass medium, i.e., television. He coined a theory of media effects called cultivation. He argued that mass production and distribution of message systems transform selected private perspectives into broad public perspectives. For most viewers, the new types of delivery systems such as cable, satellite and Internet meant even deeper penetration and integration of dominant patterns of images and messages into everyday life (Gerbner, 1998). Cultivation theory helps us to understand the consequences of growing up and living in a cultural environment dominated by television and it has also been used to explore behavioural effect of television. However, psychological health has received less scrutiny in relation to effect of television programs. According to Gerbner & Gross (1976), the cultivation theory is a social theory which examines the long term effects of the television. The primary proposition of Cultivation theory states that the more a person is exposed to a message provided by the media, the more likely that the person starts believing that the message is real and replicable. He investigated the extent of television in which television viewing contributes to audience conceptions and actions in areas such as gender equality, minority, human rights, age role stereotypes, health, science, the family, educational achievement and aspirations, politics, religions and other topics. Morgan, Shanahan & Signorielli, (1994) validate cultivation theory and say that prolonged exposure to a set of mass media messages can influence behaviour, beliefs, values or attitudes of the viewers. Several longitudinal studies on adolescents (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1980; Morgan, 1982; Morgan, Alexander, Shanahan & Harris, 1990) showed that television can exert an independent influence on attitudes and behaviours over a time, but that belief structures and concrete practice of daily life can also influence subsequent viewing.

Soul City Institute and partners used community for promoting public health and societal development in South Africa. Soul City's model of social

and behavioural change used mass media to advocate and mobilize targeted individuals, communities and border society. In this program five communities were tasked to make their areas better by addressing health and communities development issues. The focus of program planners was enabling community members to organize themselves in order to solve their problems. Soul City used popular media to spread development messages for which a reality series was documented into 13 episodes and engaged audience to vote most successful community. The Soul City telecast 15 sessions of two edutainment series named “*Soul City*” and “*Soul Buddyz*” targeted at 8 to 12 years old respectively. The program was also recorded in the form of radio drama in 11 official languages of South Africa and broadcast on radio. Before shooting the reality program, Kwanda learning camp used methodology called organization workshop. The learning camp provided an opportunity to participants to learn how to convince a community gathering including governmental department and NGOs for HIV counseling and testing. The series got high viewership, attached more than a million audiences on late night television show and feedback of the audience indicated that many viewers were motivated and willing to take action for betterment of communities. The study also indicated that how television can be a useful tool for making authorities and leaders more accountable. The research findings showed that communities were capable to find out solution of problems by providing favourable and right environment and resources. It also showed that when communities organize themselves it became easier for responsible authorities to deliver development services (Ramafoko, Andersson & Weiner, 2010).

Organization Level Health Behaviour Change

Organizations too can play a crucial role in health promotion (Flora, Maibach & Maccomby, 2010). The organizations such as universities, schools, workshops, supermarkets, outlet centers, mills, NGOs and factories etc help to identify common health problems and mobilize government agencies, NGOs to make sure availability of resources and to develop and

implement strategies for achieving collective goals while health educators can also utilize organizations for delivering health messages. The objectives of organizational level health promotion efforts are to improve health of employees, their family members and consumers. Organizations must set an agenda for health promotion and create awareness about health issues. For internal and semi-internal audiences, organizations can provide fitness equipments, gym facilities, healthy food canteen, machine for health screening, blood pressure check-up and health activities within organization which can be helpful for health promotion. Organizations can use mass media to promote health of employees and their family members. Newsletters, pamphlets and brochures can be helpful for informing about health promotional activities. Budget, health workers and equipments are very important resources to achieve organizational level health behaviour.

For consumers, organizations such as universities, NGOs, supermarkets and multiplex cinema groups can be utilized for spreading messages to improve public health. *Anna FM* located in *Anna University* campus, Chennai, India produced a project called “*Shakti Arivayadi*” (Know your power, Women!). The Program was aimed to spread science information among women community living in rural areas. It was a long project with main topic like women’s health, environment awareness, food and nutrition etc. Another health promotion program was launched by Stanford University for health improvement of university employees. The objectives of health program were to increase physical activities and decrease weight of participants. Social and behavioral strategies were implemented as a way to engage participations in the exercise program. Yet another health campaign “*Health Plus*” was started by Institute of Health & Aging, University of California for their employees. “*Health Plus*” offered a variety of services that were designed to enhance the employee’s health by physical, mental and social activities (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011).

CONCLUSION

This study finds that the behavioural change approach of health interventions has moved beyond the interpersonal and mass media mediated levels. Health communication interventions at interpersonal, small groups, organizational, community and cultural levels have become more effective. Theories and models of behavioural prediction/change are particularly useful for those health interventions that aim to develop and strengthen intention of targeted groups to perform a desired behavior. The study also finds that theories do provide framework for health intervention to impart message to change targeted beliefs. Campaign planners have amalgamated two or more theories to design health intervention and evaluate its effectiveness at various levels. For example, TRA, TPB and SCT help to deliver health message effectively at individual level where as Cultivation Theory and DoI help to deliver and evaluate health messages at Organizational and Community or Societal levels. Theories such as TRA, TPB, HBM, SCT have been used to identify individual’s existing attitudes, beliefs, experiences and intention related to health issues and concerns and have also been used to design effective health promotion campaigns to address health problems. Finally, the study finds that an innovative health program coupled with a creative communication strategy can effectively reduce health problems.

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Politicians as News Consumers: A Survey of Mass Media Usage Habits of Politicians of Karnataka

ASHA K
N. USHA RANI

Abstract

Media shape the political process and is responsible for seeking public participation in political process. Media power in politics is not a myth but a reality as media continues to have impact on political activities and in influencing public opinion. Media are central to the political functioning but do politicians consider media as dependable sources they turn to and trust and do they cite media reports in their discussions, presentations and political conversations? Studies about what are the politician's news habits and what are their media and news preferences and how they connect with media provide insight into influences of media on politician's news habits. Do politicians express more credibility of media is a point worth pondering as media has proved to be double edged sword. This study is based on a survey conducted with politicians belonging to the State of Karnataka. The findings reveal that all the respondent politicians (100%) were reading the newspaper, the traditional media. They attached a lot of importance to reading the newspaper. All the respondents irrespective of the nature of membership and their education level, were found reading newspaper daily. However, they have rated the credibility of newspaper as moderate. Nevertheless, Newspaper still continues to be one of the main sources of news for politicians.

Keywords : Mediatization of Politics, Political Reality, Media Motivation, Political Engagement, Mass Media, Newspaper, Magazine, Radio, Television, Media Credibility

Authors: Dr. Asha K, Special correspondent, Deccan Herald, Bangalore, India; Email; ashabangalore5@gmail.com

Dr. N.Usha rani, Professor, DoS in Journalism, & Mass Communication, University of Mysore, Manasagangotri, Mysore-570 006, India; Email: usharani_mc@yahoo.co.in

INTRODUCTION

‘Mass media were perceived to have immense power because the impact would not be constrained by other competing social and psychological influences on individuals’ (Melkote & Steeves 2001). Enormous power was attributed to mass media propelling them to be the ‘New Power Centre’ in the society in the whole of 19th and 20th century. The political power of mass media was bolstered by Hitler’s media strategy to use radio and cinema as agents of propaganda in 1930s reinforcing the belief in the power of mass media. Political influence on mass media and the desire to control media changed the dynamics of political communication. The history has witnessed the media power in politics.

Political communication is absolutely necessary to establish democracy as it provides adequate information, consolidating community and generating legitimacy (Habermas, 2006). Throughout the history, mass media have grown as agents of political communication influencing political and cultural beliefs. Media were established with an agenda to participate and challenge the political regimes in public interest in most of the cultures throughout the history. ‘The core position of mass media is said to create media power, a kind of power that can be influenced by but is not reducible to social, political and economic power’ (Habermas, 2006). The emergence of Newspapers, radio, cinema and TV as agents of mass communication caused significant changes in the society establishing media as one of the important social institutions. The enormous influence wielded by mass media compelled intolerant political regimes to control media in the guise of ethics, culture, communal harmony, security and war. History is replete with instances of political regimes who believed in government control of mass media as media was presumed to be the new power centre in the society. The unprecedented

expansion of mass media raised the issue of public discourse in media and the presence of public perspective in news and views.

Media shape the political process and is responsible for seeking public participation in political process. Media power in politics is not a myth but a reality as media continues to have impact on political activities and in influencing public opinion. From reporting facts, ‘media has become an integral part of the political process by becoming a definer and constructor of political reality’ (Gurevitch, Coleman & Blumler 2009). Politics is the staple diet of media and media cover elections, political events and politicians with increasing priority in front pages and top headlines in TV news. The coverage has shaped the public appetite for political news in broadcast to print to digital occupying the prime space and time of media.

‘Modern politics is mediated politics’ (Bennett and Entman, 2001) where media has assumed the role of shaping political process. ‘Mediatization’ of politics meaning ‘ increasing intrusion of the media in the political process’(Mazzoleni and Schulz 1999) has pushed society, government and other institutions to be media driven . ‘However, close inspection of the evidence reveals that political institutions in many nations have retained their functions in the face of expanded media power. The best description of the current situation is “mediatization,” where political institutions increasingly are dependent on and shaped by mass media but nevertheless remain in control of political processes and functions (Mazzoleni and Schulz, 1999). Media is calling shots in TV debates where politicians are selected for their specific stance on an issue for framing news in the way it is desired by the media. Getting 30 to 60 minutes time during prime time in television debates on a topic of public importance is rewarding for any politician in influencing public opinion. Politicians aspire to be friendly with journalists and win their trust by becoming source of political news.

Media are central to the political functioning but do politicians consider media as dependable sources they turn to and trust and do they cite media reports in their discussions, presentations and political conversations? Media power has always overwhelmed politicians to the extent of owning media houses in India. Over 60 percent of media are owned by politicians in India

illustrating the efforts to control and manipulate the flow of information in media. ‘Politicians are no longer interested in buying media space but they much prefer ownership’ (Indian paid media documentary). In the state of Tamil Nadu, former Chief Minister and leader of DMK party, Karunanidhi and his family owns *Kaliagnar*; Chief Minister of Tamil Nadu and leader of AIDMK party Jayalalita owns Jaya TV; Film actor turned politician and leader of DMDK party Vijayakanth runs Captain TV; Congress leaders in Tamil Nadu runs Mega TV and *Vasanth* TV; PMK leader runs *Makkal* TV; Kalanithi Maran, the political family of Tamil Nadu and former Union Minister owns Sun TV; In the state of Andhra Pradesh, *Saakshi* TV and *Saakshi* newspaper belongs to Y.S.Jaganmohan Reddy leader of YSR Congress; Chief Minister and leader of Telugu Desam Chandrababu Naidu’s son is CEO of Studio N; *Telangana Rashtra Samiti* has TNews; In Karnataka former Chief Minister Kumaraswamy owns Kasturi TV and former ministers and politicians Janardhana Reddy brothers own *Janshri* TV; In Kerala, CPI (M) backed Malayalam Communications runs three TV news channels including *Kairali*; Congress in Kerala runs *Jai HindTV*; M.K. Muneer has India Business TV; In West Bengal CPI(M) controls TV-24 *Ghanta*; Trinamool Congress has Kolkata TV; in Punjab Sukhbir Singh Badal of Akali Dal political party and Deputy Chief Minister of Punjab owns PTC group of Channels; from States of Nagaland to Odisha politicians and ruling parties own newspapers and TV channels; Suvarna TV of the Asianet group is owned by Indian MP Rajeev Chandrashekar,. There are many instances of media having political affiliations. Politicians and political parties in India have their mouthpieces to control dissemination of news. Therefore, politicians overwhelmingly prefer mass media to be in public limelight and to get political news round the clock illustrating bonding between mass media and politicians.

‘Much of what politicians do is driven by their belief in the power of media, which motivates their desire to be featured in news coverage’ (Cohen, Tsfati, Sheaffer, 2008). Studies about what are the politician’s news habits and what are their media and news preferences and how they connect with

media provide insight into influences of media on politician’s news habits. Do politicians express more credibility of media is a point worth pondering as media has proved to be double edged sword. What type of mass media, print or electronic or new media that are considered as sources for political news is vital that one needs to find out to understand the perception of politician as news consumer. Media like newspapers and TV channels have been inviting politicians to serve as Guest Editors to get more TRPs and public attention. Politicians are regular panelists in TV debates increasing their visibility in mass media. Many politicians are columnists in newspapers and news magazines garnering more media space to connect with the public. However, media is conventionally given news through press releases or press meets by the politicians to promote their interests. Studies on what prompts media to cover politicians reveal that ‘politicians’ media motivation is positively related to the extent of their media coverage’ (Sheaffer and Wolfsfeld 2004). Politicians differ between themselves in media motivation but adopt all strategies to prevent negative portrayal in the media with an eye on elections and their survival in politics. Though the belief that media can make or mar a political career is a myth in present times, politicians are wary about negative coverage in the media and indulge in media motivation. British MPs have even observed that voters do not believe they work for the constituency’s interest unless they have a prominent media profile (Ross and Sreberny, 2000). Public’s perception of the politicians is influenced by the coverage in the media determining their visibility.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In a study on US Presidential elections of 2012 the media habits of presidential candidates showed that Barack Obama used ‘digital direct messaging to engage in a new level of conversations with the voters, transforming campaigning into something more dynamic, more of a dialogue’. It points out that Obama had a substantial lead over challenger Mitt Romney ‘in the use of digital tools to talk directly with voters - bypassing the filter of traditional media’. (PEW Research Center, 2012). The study shows that

Presidential candidates preferred web and social media over traditional media in US elections establishing the arrival of social media intervention in high profile presidential elections dislodging the prime place given to TV in US elections. Campaigns posted perhaps more content on social media platforms than on traditional media announcing the arrival of social media as the major source of political news. Traditionally American elections used to fight over Television as presidential debates on Television were regarded as a major global spectacle. Studies reveal that digital technology has replaced the traditional media with political candidate's media use habits has changed.

The use of communication media varies between politicians illustrating their attitudes towards traditional and new media. In a study on an analysis of Twitter use amongst the British Conservative party (Bulman et.al, 2009) politicians who are most personable in their Tweets are liked by the followers than those who Tweets only formal issues. Politicians who discuss about their daily engagements, meetings and reveal more about public issues are liked by the Tweeter followers than those who just express their opinions on public issues. The study illustrates the Twitter use habits of politicians and their influence on their followers. How politicians relate to digital information technology and new media forms the focus of many studies. Most of these researches endorse the popularly held hypothesis that despite having contradictory political identity politicians are 'consistent with digital discourse and are populist due to their pro-technological character' (Nilsson and Carlsson, 2014).

Media and politicians is a broad area under which one comes across voluminous studies on media and election campaigns. 'Over the last 20 years, a successful election campaign has come to depend in large part on successful use of the broadcast media. As a result, media experts are part of most politicians' teams, and their strategies help determine the results of the election. Usually, themes or "images" are more important than issues' (Nimmo, 1970).

Politicians believe in the power of media and a study on the influence of presumed media influence in politics endorses the premise, 'politicians'

belief in the power of media increases their motivation and effort to appear in media coverage, which in turn is related both to greater media prominence and to more parliamentary activity ' (Cohen, Tsfaty, Sheafer, 2008). Many studies have revealed politicians' interest in getting positive portrayal in the media to influence their electorate and promote political agenda (Mutz 1989; Becker and Kosicki 1995).

Politicians and invasion of privacy has received attention by the researchers giving insight into what politicians think of journalists who delve into their personal lives. The study reveals politician's perspective on protecting their private lives from the media glare. 'The media should pry into politicians' private lives but only if there was a legitimate public interest' (Phillipps, 2002) concludes the study.

In a research on gender discrimination in relationship of politicians with media it was found that 'male MPs have personal contact with journalists more frequently than do female MPs in Sweden. However, it's common in most of the countries for politicians to have personal friends among journalists. Studies have also revealed that politicians seek advice from journalists during political crisis. Many new politicians who are not aware of media logic learn to adapt to deal with media and journalists. Research also reveals that politicians leak vital information to the media to gain media trust and to get positive coverage. (Aalberg and Stromback, 2011)

Political communication is a well researched area reflecting upon relationship between politics and media in general and television in particular. Research endorses the oft repeated premise that television – politics relationship that emerged in 1960s still prevails to some extent in the digital era but faces new pressures that weaken the primacy of the broadcast-centered model of political communication. (Gurevitch and Blumler, 2009)

Mass media have become dominant tools of political communication influencing political institutions. The political role of television shows that television moved into the center of the political stage opines many studies. Politicians and media differ from one another in their interests and share a sense of mistrust between them. Mass media especially television portrays

political image and the 'political reality' is what shapes people's perception of politicians. One of the researches argues that mass media can hinder political transparency through media manipulation. 'Given the limited time available for broadcast and the limited attention of audiences, stories about political strategy, political infighting, political scandal and the private lives of politicians tend to crowd out less entertaining stories about substantive policy questions. Political life begins to conform increasingly to the image of politics portrayed on television' (Balkin, 1999).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on the usage of mass media by politicians of Karnataka for their personal and public utility. It focuses mainly on traditional media consisting of newspapers, magazines, radio and television.

- To study what are the politician's news habits and what are their traditional media preferences in the age of new media;
- To examine news preferences of politicians and how they connect with traditional media;
- To analyze the influences of media on politician's news habits.
- To study politicians' perception of traditional media and media credibility;
- To examine the media preferences, print or electronic, of politicians that are considered as sources for political news;
- To analyze the perception of politician as news consumer;

METHODOLOGY

The study is an exploration of the usage of mass media by politicians of Karnataka. The intention is to study how politicians of Karnataka are using mass media for their personal communication, daily work and for public good in the era of information technology. Survey method of research was used in the current study to understand the profile of politician as a news consumer and media intervention in politicians' media engagement. A well designed questionnaire was administered.

The Karnataka State Legislature has a total of 225 members and the

Legislative Council has 75 members. There are 28 Lok Sabha members from Karnataka. The sample size consists of politicians representing various elected bodies and a section of the seasoned politicians which included former elected representatives, former ministers and party presidents. In all, the total respondents were 125 from across Karnataka. The sampling technique adopted was stratified and simple random selection of the MLAs, MLCs and MPs. Conscious efforts were made to give representation to every district. The sample consists of 39 Members of the Legislative Assembly, and representation has been given to all the 30 districts while selecting the respondents. Similarly, 10 Members of Lok Sabha represent an equal number of constituencies of different districts. As many as 26 Members of the Legislative Council and 25 Corporators were selected.

A structured questionnaire was developed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The questionnaire was pre-tested and finally had a total of 70 questions classified to collect relevant information pertaining to Socio demographic and Economic Profile, Political Party Affiliations, mass media usage habits, participation in media debates and writings and politicians' attitude towards media credibility. There were six open ended and 64 closed ended questions, providing relevant options to choose appropriate responses.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Karnataka's total population in 2015 is estimated at 65 million. The 2011 census report says that the male population is over 31 million, while female 30 million. Gender ratio shows that there are 968 females per 1,000 males. Despite this ratio which indicates that women population is lesser than men, there are no conscious efforts by political parties to bring women into politics in good numbers or at least in proportion to their population. Among the 125 respondents, 114 (91.2%) were male and the rest 11 (8.8%) were female. As the representation to women is marginal, in accordance the representation is given.

The age of the respondents was classified ranging from 25 to 65 years and above. The highest numbers of respondents were 46 -55 years (31.2%) while the least were of 25-35 years (4.8%). As much as 28% of the

respondents were 55-65 years, whereas 18.4% were above 65 years and above, and 17.6% were 36-45 years. Majority of the politicians in the State are middle aged. Both youth and senior citizens are not in large numbers. It is generally believed that in India, it takes not less than 40 to 45 years to settle down in politics and even the middle-aged persons are considered as young in politics. Further as per the convention men find more representation than women in politics. While women get branded as aged if they cross middle-age, the same is not said about men. Hence political parties, in general, do not make any special efforts to accommodate women unless there are compelling reasons.

Education qualification of the respondents show that majority of them were graduates 56.8%. Next to them were post-graduates 20.8% followed by SSLC 14.4% , diploma holders 4.8%, and school dropouts and degree dropouts were equal in number in terms of percentage 1.6%. The results point to the fact that educated youngsters are entering politics and the days of semi-literates and illiterates are significantly declining. The literacy rate itself has increased in Karnataka. The census report of 2011 has indicated that Karnataka's literacy rate has increased to 75.36% from 66.64% in 2001. Majority of the respondents were Hindus 93.6%, followed by Muslims 4.8% and religious minorities, Christians and Jains 0.8%. The results show that Hindus continues to be the major players in politics, while minorities whether religious or linguistic are minuscule in numbers. Some of the major political parties do make conscious efforts to field minorities as candidates to catch vote bank. As much as 60.8% of the respondents belonged to general category followed by the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) 24.8%, the scheduled castes 9.6% and the scheduled tribes 4.8%. Caste plays a major factor in politics and plurality is a hard fact. Those who fall under the bracket of general category, meaning advanced socially, educationally and economically, are dominating politics. There is reservation in seats while contesting various bodies for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes and this has helped to a certain extent in facilitating them to enter politics.

Now, regarding the profession of the respondents, it is observed that the highest number of respondents 40.8% was found to be engaged both in

politics and agriculture. The second highest 34.4% were found doing both politics and business. The third highest 8.8% were only politicians. Next to it, were those who were politicians cum lawyers 4%, followed by politicians who were doctors and politicians and those who were in politics and other profession 4.8% each.

Income was categorized broadly under four categories. The least was Rs 25,000 a month and the highest was Rs 3,00,000 and above. The highest number of respondents were seen having income of more than Rs 3,00,000 a month ,47.2%, followed by 24% in the scale of Rs 76,00,000 – 1,50,000, 22.4% in the bracket of Rs 1,50,001- Rs 3,00,000 and 6.4% in the group of Rs 25,000-75,000. The monthly salary and emoluments for legislators are revised from time to time through legislation. The last revision was in March, 2015. As per law, the legislators, 300 in all, are entitled for a fixed salary of Rs 25,000. Other allowances they can claim are, telephone charges Rs 20,000; constituency allowance Rs 40,000; postal charges Rs 5,000; salary of personal assistant Rs 10,000; constituency travelling allowance Rs 40,000. In all it comes to nearly Rs 1, 40,000.

Almost all legislators are on one or the other legislature committee. For attending the meetings of the committees, usually held either in Vidhana Soudha, Bengaluru or Suvarna Vidhana Soudha, Belagavi, the daily allowance per day within Karnataka is Rs 2,000 and Rs 2,500 per day outside Karnataka. Travel allowance is sanctioned at Rs 25 a km irrespective of the mode of journey or a fixed allowance of Rs 1,500 for each meeting. They are also entitled to go on all-expenses paid tour, which is billed as study tour, twice anywhere in India or one foreign trip during their term which is five years in case of an MLA and six years in case of an MLC. Legislators' and their family members' medical bills including the dental care is met by the government. Members of Parliament get a salary of Rs 50,000 a month and with various allowances it touches Rs 1.4 lakh. A Bengaluru Corporator gets around Rs 8,000 honorarium a month, while a mayor gets nearly Rs 20,000. Being a politician with membership to an elected body is quite remunerative¹.

The respondents' mother tongue was checked under eight categories. While 80.8% were found to be Kannada speaking, those with Telugu as mother tongue were 5.6%. Those speaking Tulu and Urdu were equal in percentage (4.8%) followed by Kodava (1.6%). The rest having mother-tongue like Tamil, Konkani, Marathi were just 0.8%. Karnataka politics continues to be a strong forte of the Kannada speaking people. As much as 92% of the respondents were married, and unmarried comprised 4.8% followed by widower 1.6% and widow 0.8%.

Media Habits of Politicians - Newspaper

All the respondents irrespective of the nature of membership and their education level, were found reading newspaper daily. Answering to the query of the duration or the time spent for reading newspaper, it emerged that the maximum respondents (58.4%) said that they read newspaper for an hour in a day. The next was 27.2% saying that they devoted less than 30 minutes reading newspaper, while 14.4% said they spent two to three hours a day reading the dailies. The results showed that the respondents have newspaper reading habit. More than half of the respondents were found spending an hour reading the dailies. And, a good number of the respondents were glancing through the papers as they were spending an hour. And, those who were devoting a couple of hours for doing serious reading of newspaper were the least.

For the question, which language newspaper did they read for news purpose it was found that as much as 56% of the respondents read both Kannada and English dailies. The next highest was 20% who were reading only Kannada papers followed by those who were reading all Kannada and local dailies published in local languages in districts (14.4%), followed by 9.6% who said they read Kannada, English and local dailies published in district in different languages. There is huge difference in the percentage of readers of only Kannada reading and those who read both Kannada and English dailies.

For the question to rate the credibility of newspaper for news purpose,

78.4% said that the credibility was moderate. And, the next highest percentage of the respondents (13.6%) said that they view newspaper credibility as high, followed by 7.2% saying it was low and 0.8% did not reply. The inferences were that though cent per cent of the respondents did read newspaper and consider it as a major source of news; they consider the credibility of news as moderate. However, the respondents saying the credibility was low were far lesser than those who said moderate and those who attached high credibility to news published in newspaper.

Table 1: News that interests the respondents most

Media V/S Type of news	Newspaper			TV			Radio		
	Response		% of responden ts (N=125)	Responses		% of respond- ents	Responses		% of respond- ents
	f	%		f	%		f	%	
Politics	125	47.7	100.0	116	50.7	92.8	11	19.0	8.8
Sports	22	8.4	17.6	19	8.3	15.2	0	0.0	0
Crime	8	3.1	6.4	3	1.3	2.4	0	0.0	0
Business	12	4.6	9.6	3	1.3	2.4	0	0.0	0
Entertainment	25	9.5	20.0	53	23.1	42.4	44	75.9	35.2
Development	39	14.9	31.2	14	6.1	11.2	2	3.4	1.6
Culture	24	9.2	19.2	18	7.9	14.1	1	1.7	0.8
Science	7	2.7	5.6	3	1.3	2.4	0	0.0	
Total	262			229			58		

f – No. of responses

What type of news in Newspaper interests politicians query revealed that Politics (47.7%) takes top priority followed by Development (14.9%), Entertainment (9.5%), Culture (9.2%), Sports (8.4%), Business (4.6 %), Crime (3.1%), and Science (2.7%).

As far as electronic media were concerned the priority changed except in Political news (50.7%) and (19%) in television and radio respectively. Preference for other type of news on TV showed Entertainment (23.1%), Sports (8.3%), Culture (7.9%), Development (6.1%), Business (1.3 %), Crime (1.3%), and Science (1.3%).

Preference for other type of news on Radio showed, Entertainment (75.9%) overtaking even Political news (19%) followed by negligible interest in Development (3.4%) and Culture (1.7%) and no interest in Sports (0%), Business (0%), Crime (0%), and Science (0%).

The inference was very clear that all the respondents were reading political news in a newspaper. Newspaper still continues to be one of the main sources of news for politicians. Newspaper was no more a strong attraction for sports news. With the invasion of television and dedicated sports channels being operational, hardly anyone spare time to read sports related news unless readers have special liking for newspaper and sports columnists, according to a cross-section of the respondents. Surprisingly none of the respondents were interested in sports news in radio. Crime stories or reports did not interest the respondents, though a minority of them had said they did read crime news. During informal interactions with the respondents it was gathered that there were many reasons for not taking routine crime news seriously. Newspapers tend to give too much importance for crime stories. TV channels usually glorify major crime related news and thus kill the curiosity of people to read again the same in newspaper. Crime news unless involve high profile people or written interestingly, fail to make busy people like politicians pay attention to it. However, none of the respondents said crime news interested them in radio. AIR (All India Radio) being an autonomous body of the government, do not attach much importance to crime news.

The respondents have amply made it clear that they were not keen on reading business news in newspaper. It is not that none of the politicians were into business. But when it comes to reading business news as such they were not interested. This could be because they were not getting news pertaining to the business in which they were involved. Also, reading business news may not interest them because usually English dailies carry national and international level business news, while Kannada or local dailies do not pay much attention for business news. However, none of the respondents said they liked business news in radio.

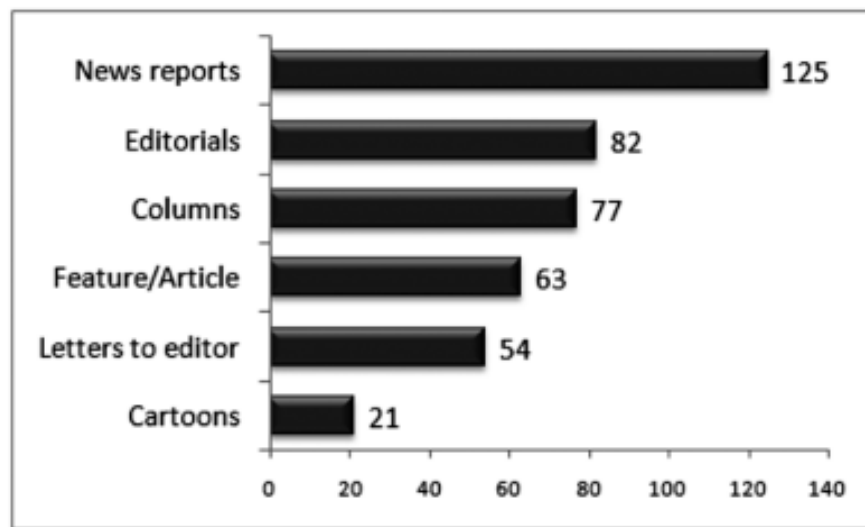
Entertainment news data indicated that the majority of the respondents were not interested in reading entertainment news. This is obviously due to invasion of television which is a powerful visual infotainment media. In addition, even the Internet based media are serving as infotainment platforms. Basically, like sports, entertainment is action based and hence, print is no more attractive. Little less than three-fourth of the respondents were found to be not interested in reading development news. This reflects a lot on the respondents, majority of whom are law makers and some of them, in their capacity as ministers, are policy and decisions makers too. Unlike newspapers, television and Internet based communication forums are not devoting space for developmental issues. It is clear that the respondents were not paying much attention to development related reports, comments, opinion pieces etc. Like sports and entertainment, even culture related programmes have become visually appealing in television. Unlike the print, television does not offer in-depth write ups on culture. The approach of print and visual media towards culture related issues are different. It appears that science was not an appealing subject for the politicians. Unless one has curiosity or interest in science related issues, they will not devote time to read. However, it was not that none of them were reading science related reports. But they were few and negligible.

Newspaper content is a mix of news and views in the form of news reports, editorials, columns by columnists, feature stories and letters to the editor. The survey shows that news reports are read regularly by 100% of the respondents whereas Editorials (65.6%), Columns (61.6%), Feature stories (50.4%) and Letters to the Editor (43.2%) do not sustain the interest of the politicians. Interestingly Cartoons (16.8%) which usually poke fun of politicians do not draw much attention along with brainy Crosswords/ Sudoku section attracting only 2.4% of politicians.

The data indicated that there was good response to columns in a newspaper because the respondents who were reading columns far exceed those who did not. Usually columns are written by subject experts or people having a good standing in society. And, for politicians it serves as food for

thought. Usually current issues, which matters or interests public, become the subject for columns. It also helps readers to form opinion.

Figure 1 : Politicians Regularly Read in Newspaper



Like columns, even editorials have readership among politicians. For editorials, there is more number of readers than for columns. Editorials help in forming opinion as they go beyond news. Sometimes it helps policy and lawmakers to understand a subject from a different perspective or to feel the pulse of the people. This could be one of the reasons for reading editorials.

Features/articles, which are usually meant for leisure reading, did interest politicians but not as much as editorials and columns. The data indicated that compared to features, editorials and columns had more readers among the respondents.

Letters to the Editor section in a paper usually reflects the people's sentiment and opinion on current topics. It also highlights problems faced by them in getting work done from government and public utilities. While English dailies usually publish letters which are related to national issues, regional/local dailies specifically focus more on local issues. More than half of the respondents were found to be not reading. If a politician is sensitive to

developments around him/her, he/she must care for what people say about government, policies and developments. For this Letters to the Editor column serves as a feedback channel. But the data revealed that the politicians were not paying attention to this crucial section.

Cartoons in newspaper are mostly political satire. With least words it comments a lot on current issues. It usually takes a dig at politicians, utterances by politicians, unscientific and populist decisions by government. Cartoons can also be on non-political subjects. Almost all papers have pocket cartoons. There are some papers which have devoted space on its editorial page for cartoons. It was obvious that the respondents were not responsive or interested in cartoons. One needs to have sense of humour to understand cartoons. May be the respondents did not understand the significance of cartoons and also lacked sense of humour. And, they also may get annoyed with cartoons because cartoonists usually take a ring side view of men in power and government.

From the data yielded it was very clear that there were not many politicians who were interested in crossword/Sudoku. Crossword is a word puzzle, while Sudoku is a number-placement puzzle. While crossword helps in enriching language power, Sudoku, meaning single number in Japanese language, is both number and alphabet puzzle. Both help mind to relax and be focused on the task on hand. One can enjoy crossword provided he/she has a good command over language or at least be interested in improving language ability by learning new words. It also serves as a stress buster and brain teaser. One needs aptitude as well as time to get engrossed in these columns. May be the respondents did not have both. In newspaper, crossword/Sudoku had the least readership among the respondents. The data thrown up clearly showed that the respondents, being in politics, were highly inclined towards reading news reports. There was no exception for this among the respondents.

Opinions are expressed in editorials and columns. For these two categories also there were readers. It must be helping politicians to form opinion and hence they may be reading editorials and columns regularly.

Features and articles were also popular but they were below news reports, editorials and columns. Despite being lawmakers and in public life, the respondents were found not keen on reading the Letters to the Editor section, which is a very important part of a newspaper. While at least there was some percentage of readership/viewing for cartoons, there were hardly any takers for crossword and Sudoku. The poor response to cartoons showed that the respondents were either did not have a mindset to enjoy them or they did not want to spare time for them. Crosswords and Sudoku have niche readership. Language ability matters a lot if one has to get hooked on to these columns. But hardly the respondents were showing any interest in these.

Magazine and Radio

Continuing on the subject of media habits, it was intended to know the frequency of listening to radio and reading magazine and accordingly under the question five categories were given to indicate the frequency of listening to radio and reading magazines. An additional option for indicating not liking both radio and magazine were also provided. Firstly, among the 125 respondents, 62 respondents (49.6%) disclosed that they never read magazines and likewise 76 respondents (60.8%) of respondents stated that they never listened to radio at all.

Among the MLAs, 66.7% of them did not read magazine at all among the MLCs, 50% did not read the magazines, among the Corporators (56%), among the Seasoned Politicians (25.0%) and among the MP-LS 22.2% of them did not read magazines at all. Going by the educational status of the respondents, it was observed that among the graduates, nearly half (47.9%) of the respondents did not read magazines at all whereas post-graduates (23.1%), SSLC passed (83.3%) and Diploma holders (50%) did not read magazines at all. Reputed magazines usually give in-depth analysis of current issues. Sometimes the write-ups could be better than those published in newspapers. Well researched articles are published in magazines. Also, many investigative reports of national interest are also published. There are

magazines which are exclusively meant for entertainment, politics, sports, science and fashion. But the respondents were found to be not interested in reading magazines.

Now, with respect to the respondents reading magazines, it emerged that the highest percentage (29.6%) read on a weekly basis, followed by those who were reading occasionally (16%), and the percentage of reading magazine frequently was low with 4%. Only one per cent of the respondents were reading magazine daily. The data also reflected the diminishing interest and market for magazines/periodicals. With the advent of television and social media, the reading habit, especially magazines has declined. Observing the same results by educational status, post-graduates (46.2%), Diploma holders (33.3%), graduates (29.6%) and SSLC passed (11.1%) politicians read magazines once in a week.

With respect to radio, among the MLAs, 59.0% and 61.5% MLCs did not listen to radio at all. Corporators (68%), Seasoned Politicians (50%) and MPs –LS (55.6%) did not listen to radio at all. Going by the educational status of the respondents, it was observed that graduates (66.2%), post-graduates (34.6%), SSLC passed (66.7%) and Diploma holders (66.7%) did not listen to radio at all.

The inferences were that a large number of respondents neither were interested in magazine nor radio. Between magazine and radio, magazine was found to be more appealing when it comes to news.

On the question of quantum of time spent on reading magazines, the respondents were given five categories to express their option. They were less than 30 minutes, 1 hour, 2-3 hour, 3 hours & above and Not Reading categories. Accordingly, 74.6% said they spent less than 30 minutes while 22.2% spent an hour in a day for reading magazines. The rest 1.6% each said they spent 2 to 3 hours and 3 hours and above respectively.

The inferences were that the respondents were not fond of reading magazines. Nearly half of them were not reading magazines at all. There are many magazines which do in-depth research on current topics. They go beyond news sometime. But the respondents were found to be not making it

a point to read magazines. This could be because of invasion of TV and the Internet also. Unlike some decades ago, now sources of information are more. Also, there are Internet editions of magazines. Even this might have also lead to diminishing interest in reading print copies of magazines.

In continuation on time spent on media habits, the respondents were asked to indicate their reply to any of the categories- less than 30 minutes, 1 hour, not specific- to indicate how much time they spent listening to radio and also whether they were not listening to radio. Accordingly 75.5% said they spent less than 30 minutes for radio listening, while only 2% saying they spent an hour in a day. The rest 22.4% said they cannot specify the duration of listening to radio in a day. The data revealed that more than half of the respondents did not listen to radio at all. And, those who were listening for less than half-an-hour in a day were the highest category among the respondents. And, some of the respondents said they did listen but they were not paying attention to as to how much time they were spending listening to radio. It was clear that radio was not a major attraction to people, especially those who lead a busy public life. In a way it is also reflected on the diminishing attraction of radio with the advent of various other sources of news and entertainment. For the question to which radio channel they tune to listen to news purpose alone, the cent percent (100%) listen to AIR news bulletins. The results showed that even for news, the respondents were not much dependent on radio. And those who were listening to radio news, the option were the FM radio news channel of AIR. All India Radio FM station airs 18 news bulletins every day for a short duration of two minutes per hour. Private radio stations are not giving exclusive news bulletins though at times they do flash news highlights. But they do not air major decisions of government in the form of hard news or as announcement. Private players are not allowed by the Central government to air news bulletins.

For the question to indicate the credibility rate of magazines for news, four options were given – high, moderate, low and no response. The highest percentage (79.7%) said they attached moderate value, while 10.9% said the credibility was high and 9.4% said it was low. The data revealed that the

respondents were not fond of reading magazines for news purpose. It is no more considered as one of the sources of news because those who did not respond to any of the options to indicate their view topped the table. But those who said the credibility was moderate were far higher than those who said it was low and high.

For the question as to how much credibility the respondents attached to news, four options were given – high, moderate, low and no response. The highest response (45%) who chose to ignore the question. Among those who responded, 43% said they were of the view that news bulletins by radio (AIR) enjoyed high credibility, while 12% said it was moderate. None chose to say that credibility was low. The data showed that radio was no more seen as a source of news and hence the question as to how much credibility was attached to news received highest response as no. However between the high and moderate category, the higher response was for high credibility and the moderate was much lower than that. But a point to be noted was that none, even among the poor percentage of response, said credibility was low for radio news. It meant that radio news was not facing paucity of credibility but the percentage of listeners was very low. Another reason could be that AIR announces only decisions taken by government without offering comments or analysis. It becomes just an announcement. Hence, the distortion could be least and thus gets credibility touch.

Table 2: Listening to Different Types of Content in Radio

Radio programs	f	%
Entertainment	35	71.4
Politics	11	22.4
Development	2	4.1
Culture	1	2.0
Science	0	0
Business	0	0
Crime	0	0
Sports	0	0
Total	49	100

N=49 [Note: The respondents saying “not at all” are not considered]

Answering to the query on what interested the respondents most in radio, eight sub choices were given. They were – entertainment, politics, development, culture, science, business, crime and sports. The highest response 71.4% was for entertainment. And, next came 22.4%, for politics. For the rest of the programmes, the percentages were as follows; Development 4.1%, culture 2% and other four programmes namely science, business, crime and sports were not the choices at all.

It was evident from the data that unlike in newspaper, in radio, entertainment was the first choice. Radio is serving more like film music vending machine. All private radio channels have become a source of entertainment – meaning for music. Furthermore, when asked on whether science news interest them, 100% did not respond which indicated that they were not at all interested. This yet again proved that there were no takers when it came to science related programmes or news. This was more obvious in case of radio. Even AIR FM station dedicates a lot of time in a day for airing music. Radio is no more a source of news but a source for entertainment or to be precise film music. It is only AIR which is allowed to air news bulletins. But even that does not serve as a source of news, thanks to the advent of TV and the Internet based forums.

Under the question to what extent the respondents were listening to news in radio, four categories were given as choice. They were - Listen to a Great Extent, Listen to Some Extent, Do not listen at all and cannot specify. Accordingly, 65% of the respondents said they listened to news to some extent while 10% said they listen to news on radio to a greater extent. On the other, one-fourth (25%) of the respondents said that they were not specific to what extent they were listening to news. Once again it became clear from the data that news bulletins hold no attraction to the respondents in radio. The maximum number of the respondents was not listening to news bulletins and the habit of listening to radio for news seems to be diminished over the years.

The question to what extent music on radio was being listened by the respondents; three categories were given – Listen to some extent, Do not

listen at all and Cannot say. Among the listeners which constitute 40% of respondents nearly 83.7% of them listened only to some extent, while 16.4% said they cannot specify illustrating no consistent listeners for radio. The data was an indicative that the respondents were not keen on listening to music on radio as the maximum number of respondents said they did not lend their ears to music. Radio FM channels serves like a companion while travelling owing to high degree of mobility. But seems to be not so in case of the politicians because they are usually conversing on mobile phone while travelling or would be talking to their assistant co-passengers. This could be one of the reasons. And, they may not be interested in music also. It was not that there were no listeners to radio music among the respondents. But their percentage was half of those who did not listen at all.

Television

For the question whether the respondents were watching television, five categories were given to indicate their reply. As much as 86.4% said that they were watching TV on a daily basis. And, the rest were not very significant though those who watched TV frequently (about 4 to 5 days a week), 6.4%, occasionally (2-3 days/week) 4%, followed by 2.4% who do not watch TV at all and 0.8% saying they watch TV once a week.

The results speak a lot on how watching television has become an integral part of daily life of the respondent politicians. A whopping percentage (86.4%) said that they watched television every day. Observing the pattern of watching television daily by the types of members of democratic institutions, among the MLAs (79.5%), MLCs (88.5%), Corporators (96%), MP-LS (100%) and Seasoned Politicians (80.0%) were watching television daily. Interestingly the next highest percentage (6.4%) of the total respondents was those who were watching frequently (4 to 5 days a week) but not daily. Surprisingly, as many as three respondents (2.4%) of the total respondents stated that they did not watch television at all.

It is obvious that television has become a major source of news, information and entertainment. Still it does not match newspaper reading

habit among the respondents as every respondent has said that he/she reads newspaper every day. Mobility has come to radio, music system and television. A smartphone with the Internet facility can function as tape recorder, television, radio and music system among other things. Still, the respondents were not found to be using their mobile phone as a multipurpose gadget.

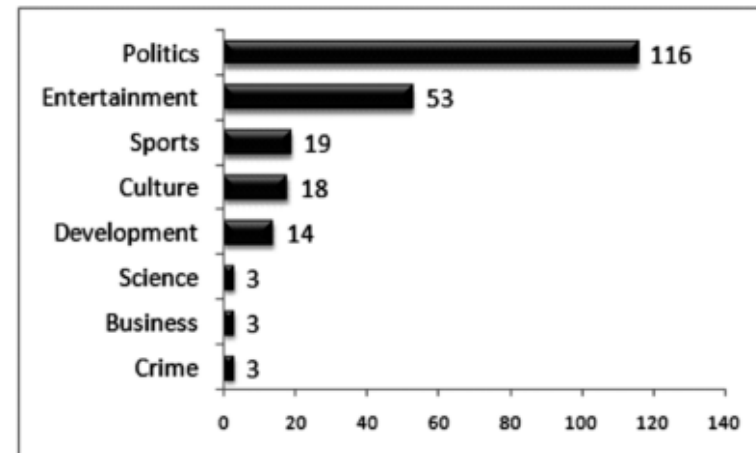
On the question of devoting time for watching television by the respondents, four categories were given to the respondents– Less than 30 minutes, 1 hour, 2 -3 hours and Not watching television at all in a day. As much as 75.4% said that they watched it for less than 30 minutes in a day. The next highest response was 22.1% who watched for an hour, and those spending 2 – 3 hours were found to be 2.5%. The data analysis showed that the maximum respondents were watching television for less than half-an-hour. This also meant that either they surf channels rather than keenly watching or spent some time to watch the highlights or part of a programme in a casual manner. Those who spent an hour watching television were less than half of those who spent less than 30 minutes. The percentage of the respondents who had ample time to take television seriously and watch it in a day for a couple of hours was very less. But those who were not at all watching television were marginal. Watching television has become a habit or part of daily life.

Under the question which television channel or channels the respondents regularly watch for only news purpose, five categories were given. They were asked to answer one of these – Only Kannada, Kannada and English, Kannada, English and Others (meaning Hindi, Tulu and Telugu) and Do not watch TV at all. The maximum 54.9% said that they watched both Kannada and English TV channels for news purpose. The next highest was 34.4 %, those who watched only Kannada channels, followed by Kannada, English and others, which included Hindi, Tulu, Telugu (10.7%) and the rest each 2.4% not watching TV at all. It was clear that the maximum number of respondents were comfortable in watching both Kannada and English TV channels for news purpose. The next highest was found to be those who were depending on Kannada channels for news purpose. There were who

made a combination of Kannada, English and other languages which could be regional channels or Hindi. But they were not significant in numbers. And, those who were not watching TV were marginal.

Answering question on rating the credibility of television news, again four categories were given as option – high, moderate, low and did not reply. The highest response was 59% saying that the credibility was low. And, the next highest was 38% saying it was moderate and 3% did not reply. No one opted for high. The data was indicative of poor trust enjoyed by viewers when it comes to TV news. Because, the highest respondents said that they considered credibility of news as low, while the next highest percentage said it was moderate. The interesting point to be noted was that none said the credibility was high. There may be many TV channels which give news bulletins 24/7 an on hourly basis. Despite having dedicated channels for news, the quality of news is far below the expectation of viewers. Also, news content and scenes of actions are repeated for hours and sometime for the whole day. Sometimes information is tweaked either to suit the policy of the channel or to get higher Television Rating Point (TRP). It is common to see half truths being presented as exclusive news or breaking news. These factors and more must have made the respondents not to attach high credibility to TV news. More than half said the credibility is low.

Figure 2 : Type of news that respondents most interested in television



Note: The above figures are number of responses. N=122

Under the question what interest most the respondents in television, eight sub choices were given. Those were politics, entertainment, sports, culture, development, crime, business and science. Accordingly 116 responses (50.6%) [Representing 95.1% of total respondents] (Figure 2) said they liked to watch/listen to political news. The next highest viewership was found to be for entertainment 53 responses (23.1%) [Representing 43.4% of total respondents] followed by sports 19 responses (8.3%) [Representing 15.6% of total respondents], culture 18 responses (7.9%) [representing 14.8% of total respondents], development 14 responses (6.1%) representing 11.5% of total respondents], Science, Business and Crime each 3 responses (1.3%) [Representing 2.5% of the total respondents].

The data revealed that for the respondents, political news, developments programmes attracted more. Usually those in public life lead a busy life. Still, whenever they spare time to watch TV, they devote time to watch political news. For the younger generation, TV is one of the major sources of entertainment. In case of the respondents, it was a choice next to news. Sports, culture and development occupied the next place of choices in order. TV channels, especially language ones, glorify crime incidents. However, it was found to be not a choice of priority among the respondents. So also business and science related programmes.

Finally, when asked their opinion on how responsible television channels in covering news, 43.4% said that television channels *were irresponsible* in covering news. Among the MLAs (39.5%),MLCs (46.2%), Corporators (45.8%), MPs – LS (66.7%), and Prominent Politicians (42.1%) were of the opinion that television channels were *irresponsible* in covering news. On educational front graduates (47.8%) and 32% post graduates said that television channels were irresponsible in news broadcast.

Only 36.1% said that television channels were *responsible to some extent*, followed by 12 % saying *highly irresponsible* whereas 4.8% rated *responsible* and 3.2% preferred not to express their mind. Among the MLAs, 13.2% of them were of the opinion that television channels were *responsible and* another 31.6 % said that the channels were *responsible to a certain extent*. Among the MLCs, only 3.8% of them were of the

opinion that the channels were *responsible* and another 34.6% of them were stating that the channels were *responsible to a certain extent*. Among the Corporators, none of them were of the opinion that television channels were *responsible* and another 37.5% said that television channels were *responsible to a certain extent*. On educational front, graduates (47.8%) and post graduates (32%) rated *irresponsible* whereas graduates (32.9%) and post-graduates (40%) rated *responsible to a certain extent*.

The main observation was that TV news coverage faced trust deficit with little less than half of the respondents saying they were not happy with the content. Interestingly, those who rated TV channels as *responsible* and those who say *they cannot say anything* were almost same in terms of percentage. The reasons for expressing disenchantment with news coverage could be many including biased news, irresponsible/wrong inferences, targeting individuals with ulterior motive or due to unprofessional approach.

Participation of Respondent Politicians in Media

The primary question in this section pertained to the participation of politicians in media related activities like serving as guest editors, writing articles or columns for newspapers. Interestingly cent per cent of the respondents said they had not been guest editors. Inviting politicians, VIPs, celebrities and famous writers as guest editors has become a trend in newspaper offices to increase readership. While English dailies invite mostly important politicians such as chief minister or minister, sometimes regional dailies invite film personalities, litterateurs and religious leaders in addition to men in power.

Table 3 : Contribution of the Respondents to Newspaper

Contributing to Newspapers	f / %
Politicians as guest editors in newspaper	0 (0.0)
Contributing articles / features for newspapers	8 (6.4)
Contributing to a newspaper as columnist	0 (0.0)
Contributing to Letters to the Editor Section	2(1.6)

Note: Percentages in parenthesis

This exercise could be for various reasons including to show the clout of dailies among political class, to get exclusive stories and also to give a variety touch. Whoever functions as guest editor would be helped by newspaper staffers to select stories. But a guest editor also should have his/her opinion and must be aware of current issues. None of the respondents had said they had functioned as guest editor.

The question asked was whether the respondents contributed features or articles for newspaper. As much as 6.4% said they did not contribute articles/features for newspaper. Writing features/articles gives freedom to express views. Such writing does not demand much of writing skill. Any subject can be chosen to be written as feature/article. One needs to be a good observer, collect information and present the same in an acceptable form of writing. Here the respondents have showed that they did not have an inclination to write. May be they lack skill, interest and time to spare.

For the question whether they write a column for a newspaper as a columnist, 100% of the respondents said they did not. None of the respondents were columnist. Either none of them were capable or they were not interested in writing a column. Also, it could be newspaper houses were not interested in giving politicians a forum to write because it would be difficult for politicians to raise above party politics and write objectively. A column by a politician becomes a plus point for a newspaper provided the writer has some significant standing in politics as well as in society. And, also he/she should be bold enough to articulate thoughts without prejudice. Otherwise, columns do not make any appeal to readers.

The question was that whether they were contributing to the Letters to the Editor Section in newspaper evoked negative response with 98.4% never wrote a letter to the newspaper expressing their opinion or highlighted public grievances. Letters to the Editor column in any newspaper reflects the pulse of the readers/people. Current topics are discussed here. It is published at least 6 days in a week. Making accusations/comments/compliments to policy makers, law makers and government is the striking feature here. In addition, a problem faced by readers which needs government attention is also

reflected. But the data collected clearly established that the respondents were not bothered about this section of a newspaper and they were also not responding. No paper can afford to ignore an elected representative's views if it is presented logically. Still, this section of newspaper gets hardly any response from politicians.

Table 4: Participation of the respondents in TV programmes

TV Programmes participation	Regularly	Rarely	Not at all	Total
Participation in TV programmes /Panel discussions	34 (27.2)	32 (25.6)	59 (47.2)	125 (100)
Interviews in TV channels	28 (22.4)	55 (44.0)	42 (33.6)	125 (100)
Giving sound bites for TV news bulletins	62 (49.6)	46 (36.8)	17 (13.6)	125 (100)

[Percentages in parenthesis]

Under the question whether they participated in TV debates or discussions or interviews, three categories were given, *Regularly*, *Rarely* and *Not At All*. The highest per cent of the respondents 47.2% said they *Did Not Participate*, while the second highest was 27.2% who said they *Regularly* Participate and the rest 25.6% said that they *Rarely* Participated.

Almost all news channels invite politicians for interviews, debates and discussions on current issues. It serves as a platform for politicians to reach out to the masses instantly. From the statistics it was clear that little less than 50% of the respondents were Not Participating, while those who were participating *Regularly* were more than those who were participating *Rarely*. Usually spokespersons of a political party repeatedly participate in TV programmes because they were supposed to put out the views of their party. And, those who are residing in the capital city– are often invited by TV channels for programmes. It is not that those who do not participate are incapable of airing their views. But there are advantage residing in the capital because they often get publicity. Also, some consciously keep off from the

media to avoid controversies. And, very senior politicians who have established themselves well in the field usually do not like to participate in routine panel discussions. They prefer addressing a press conference rather than sharing a forum with junior politicians. These were some of the reasons given by the respondents during informal interactions for the present study.

The question whether they gave interviews to TVs had three categories—Regularly, Rarely and Not At All. The highest response – 44% - was for Rarely. 33.6% (Table 4) said they Did Not Give interviews, while the rest 22.4% said they Regularly gave interviews. The data showed that among the respondents, the highest number chose to say that they Rarely giving interviews. And, the next highest was those who were Not giving interviews. The third highest number of respondent politicians said they had Never given interviews. For participating in panel discussions/debates one need to be articulate and spontaneous to counter other panellists if they differ in views. In case of interviews, one needs to answer questions. The data showed that the respondents were found to prefer giving interviews Rarely than participating in panel discussions.

The question whether they gave sound bites had three categories namely, *Regularly*, *Rarely* and *Not At All*. As much as 49.6% said that they were giving sound bites to TV channels. And the next highest response was 36.8% stating that they were *rarely* giving and 13.6% said they *did not give* sound bites at all . TV channel reporters struggle hard to get a sound bite from politicians. This is to make their programmes more trust worthy and to enhance visual impact. Getting a politician to speak can be a challenge for TV channels sometimes. The data showed that nearly 50% of the respondents were *Regularly* giving sound bites. And, there were considerable number of them giving sound bites *Rarely*. And, those who were totally kept off from even reacting to question by TV channels were very less. Sound bites last for a few second or minutes. In a way not much time has to be spent by politicians to react or respond to a question. But still they get to be noticed. At times, it serves as a best opportunity to express their views on crucial developments and reach the masses within no time.

For the question whether they own a newspaper, as high as 98.4% said

they did not own a newspaper. However, 1.6% turned out to be newspaper owners. It was clear that the respondent politicians did not own newspaper houses in significant numbers. The reasons could be many. It is not a very lucrative business anymore unless print is integrated with other types of media like TV, web editions etc. Therefore may be politicians are not keen on investing in this business. Investing time and money in knowledge field may not be an interesting profession for them. And, they may have the fear that their paper getting branded with one particular party and then losing market. If a politician runs his/her own paper, the rival papers usually downplay coverage to him/her. For politicians coverage in all papers and TV channels is essential to reach out to maximum people.

For the question whether the respondents owned magazine, as high as 99.2% said they were not publishing any magazine. The rest hardly 0.8% said he/she owned a magazine. The data clearly indicated that the politicians have not invested their money and time in owning and publishing magazines. Like newspapers, even running a magazine is not attractive in terms of revenue earnings. It is also not a big plus point for them to get political mileage as magazines have limited readership.

The question whether they owned FM radio channel yielded the data which indicated that 100% of them not owning a channel. The data showed that the respondents were not at all interested in FM radio business. It could be that it is not their cup of choice. Financially and politically owning a radio channel may not be of any significance to them.

Under the question do you own a TV channel, three sub choices were given – Yes, No and Holding stakes. The maximum 96% said they did not own a TV channel. The highest was 2.4% stated they held stakes, while the rest 1.6% owned a TV channel. Politicians require as well as love to get publicity. But the data showed that they did not like to invest in television business. The majority said they did not own a TV channel. And, those meagre percentages of politicians who have invested, they held only stakes. TV industry is a cost intensive one. Usually mega companies or a group of people invest. A couple of politicians were found having stakes, while lesser than number of the respondents found owning a TV channel.

FOOTNOTE

¹ As per the Karnataka Legislative Assembly Secretariat, an MLA is entitled for a maximum telephone charge of Rs 15,000 a month. Bills for the telephones installed in the Legislators' Home where the MLAs get accommodation free, is paid by the members directly to BSNL. One telephone is installed at the place of members' choice at government cost in the name of secretary. Only rent of the telephone is reimbursed.

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Role of *Raitha Samparka Kendras* for the Development of Agriculture Sector in Karnataka

**PUNITHKUMAR L.M.
VAGDEVI H.S.**

Abstract

Agriculture is a way of life and not mere an economic activity in the Indian sub continent. Agriculture and allied activity is also the major source of employment generation in India as well as Karnataka. Therefore, government has taken several programmes to develop agricultural sector. One of the important programmes of Agriculture department of Government of Karnataka is Raitha Samparka Kendras that provide information to the farmers related to agriculture and allied sector. The main objective of this study is to review the RSK intervention in the development of agricultural sector. The study is based on secondary data. The data is collected from the department of agriculture and cooperation in Karnataka and various published journals. This study tries to outline the working of Raitha Samparka Kendra (Farmer's Communication Centre) and come up with suggestions to strengthening its working. The study believes that, it is imperative to provide relevant information continuously to farmers at grassroots level by establishing centres at gram panchayat (village governance) level.

Keywords: RSK, Information Dissemination, Agriculture, Karnataka

Dr. PunithKumar L.M., Project Fellow, UGC-UPE, FA-II, University of Mysore, Mysuru. Email: punithmayanna89@gmail.com

Vagdevi H.S., Project Fellow, UGC-UPE, FA-II, University of Mysore, Mysuru. Email: vagdevipurani@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Agriculture is a way of life and not mere an economic activity in the Indian sub continent. Agriculture and allied activity is also the major source of employment generation in India as well as Karnataka. India, which is in the run for information development has introduced and is carrying forward nationwide digital programmes to modernize agriculture with a view to attain food security and also to bring in structural changes including socio-economic transformation among farming community. It can be said that, information diffusion play a pivotal role in enhancing agricultural productivity. Information administered in the right way can enable right knowledge to reach intermediaries and small farmers in a timely manner. Such timely dissemination of information undoubtedly reduces the risk and uncertainty. But, efficient agricultural information management depends on adequate mechanisms to generate, capture and disseminate the same effectively. This calls for institutional arrangements. A successful agricultural programme is one which amalgamates both scientific research and indigenous knowledge. The respective governments have taken several measures to develop agriculture through various new programmes.

Karnataka has a typical composition of having regions with most of the agro-climatic condition in the country. A large portion of the land falls under semi-arid conditions facing severe agro-climatic and resource constraints. Karnataka is always been looked upon and has taken lead in many aspects. Even with agriculture, it is the first State in the country to have unveiled its own Agricultural Policy as early as 1995. This is a part of State list that is enshrined in our constitution. Successive policies have laid emphasis on improving agricultural output in the state. It was the State agriculture programme (2000) that stressed upon productivity by creating an information pool/source for the farmers. This programme turned the attention from productivity centric to farmer centric and laid foundation for information penetration to the grassroots. It was realized that information provided to farmer at right time will directly help in increased productivity. In this direction a step towards information dissemination was taken forward by setting up *Raitha Samparka Kendra*.

Raitha samparka kendras was introduced by the government of Karnataka under ministry of Agriculture and Co-operation during 2000- 01 to provide effective Agrcultural extension services to farmers. This was envisaged to meet the growing demands of farming community to adopt the latest technologies. *Raitha Mitra Yojane* was implemented in the State since 2000-01. *Raitha Mitra Yojane*, a demand driven Agricultural Extension System which replaced the earlier extension system T&V which means Train & Visit system. The Agricultural Extension Centres opened under this new programme at *Hobli* level are called *Raita Samparka Kendras* (RSK). The main aim of the RSK is to provide up-to-date information on farm practices and market intelligence to the farmers. The 2006 Karnataka state policy has came up with more initiatives to strengthen the working of RSK's.

METHODOLOGY

The study is based on secondary data as that is the only source of gathering information for a study of this nature. This is a secondary research that uses data collected through primary research. In this secondary research method, data was collected and analyzed from different sources of information consisting of government records, registers, technical reports and journals. A review of secondary data is always recommended for all studies. The government records are authentic sources of information as all the welfare programmes are controlled and funded by the government. The secondary data was collected from the department of agriculture and cooperation of government of Karnataka. This study tries to outline the working of *Raitha Samparka Kendra* and come up with suggestions to strengthening its working.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Raghu Prasad et al (2012) analysed the *Raitha Samparka Kendras* in Karnataka state. In this study based on primary data, 122 farmers were selected for field survey. The study identified that information delivery mechanisms and its infrastructure in the RSKs are very weak and there is

minimum information dissemination on any aspects of agriculture and allied activities. Nearly 80 percent of the RSKs are functioning under rented buildings and farmers are also of the opinion that the RSK officials are not able to provide information related to important allied areas such as horticulture, animal husbandry and so on. The study brings in the loophole in the setup of the RSKs and the inefficiency of the institutional appointee. Roopa et al (2014) examined the performance of *Raitha Samparka Kendras* in *Doddaballapura* taluk of Karnataka. The research is based on both secondary and primary data. 144 soil samples were collected to assess the soil fertility in terms of nutrient. The study identified that the nutrient status in these soils is optimum. The information generated in this study could be used for temporal study of soil fertility to compare the fertility status in future.

RAITHA SAMPARKA KENDRA

To meet the growing demands of farming community engaged in the pursuit of latest technologies, *Raitha Mitra Yojane* was implemented in the State in 2000-01. Accordingly, 747 *Raitha Samparka Kendras* have been established one at each *hobli* (sub-blocks) levels. Each RSK is headed by an Agricultural Officer (Agricultural Graduate) duly supported by Assistant Agricultural Officers and Agricultural Assistants, whose number is decided based on the agricultural potential in terms of cropping intensity, irrigation facilities, crop diversification etc., in that region. The RSKs have been set up at *hobli* levels to provide information to farmers on crops, irrigation, cultivation practices, technologies available and market facilities.

Farmers can visit these RSKs personally and get the required information or they can contact the RSKs over phone to obtain the technical know how about crop selection, manure, marketing information, seed and soil testing facilities and crop protection problems. An 'Interaction' register is maintained in the RSK. Farmer's name, address and the purpose of visit are entered in the register. Agricultural Officer in charge of the RSK will then give suggestion or recommendations to the problems posed by the

farmers in writing in a prescribed format and the details will be entered in the interaction register. The technical staffs of the RSKs visit groups of farmers in all the villages of the *hobli* on a regular basis. Apart from scheduled visits the field visits are also undertaken to assist farmers in adoption of new technologies.

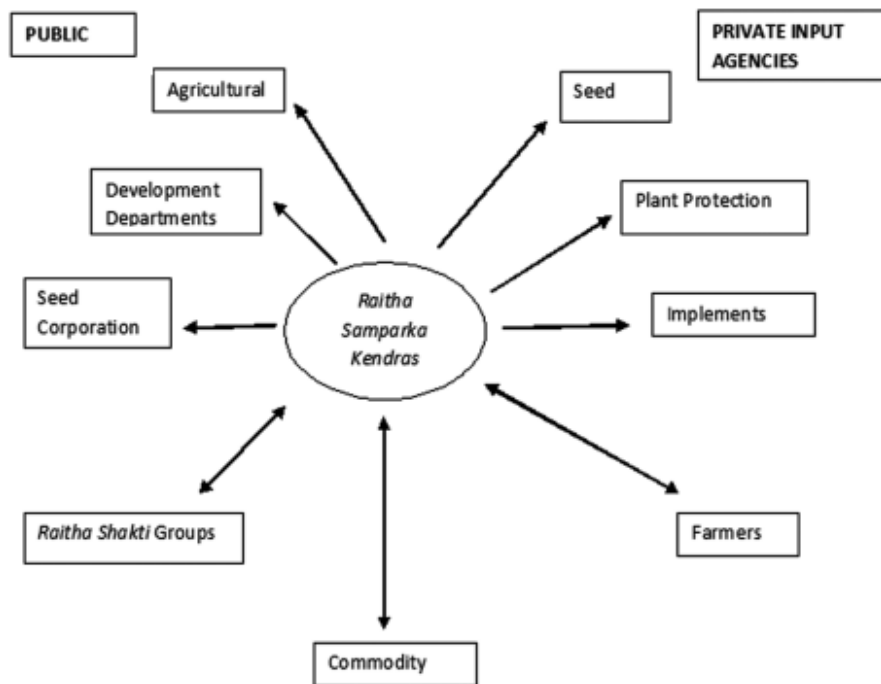
Main objective to set up *Raitha Samparka Kendras* at *hobli* level is to provide updated crop production related knowhow, arrangement of critical agricultural inputs, primary soil and seed testing facilities and arranging interface with public and private sector technologies.

The objectives of RSK;

- To provide updated information on crop production options, market practices
- To facilitate on site provision for critical inputs like seeds, bio-fertilizers, micro-nutrients
- To provide primary seed and soil testing facilities.
- To provide a forum for on-farm demonstration about new technologies developed by both public and private sector agencies.

According to the department, there are 747 *Raitha Samparka Kendras* spread across the state, one for each at *Hobli* or sub-block level. The *kendras* cater to the need of 5,628 *gram panchayats* covering 7.8 million farmers. This scheme covers entire state of the Karnataka. The scheme is funded by department of agriculture and cooperation through Government of Karnataka. RSKs provide agricultural inputs and technologies required by farmers and Rs. 28.3 crore has been allocated in the state budget during 2014-15. Out of 747 RSKs, 148 have their own buildings and budgetary allocation is utilized to purchase land and buildings to house *Kendras*.

Networking between Public/Private Institutions and farmers through Raitha Samparka Kendras



The above flow chart shows that, RSK in all its fervour will be a converging point where farmers get the best of all public and private initiatives. This is a place where farmer being at the centre can access all information from various departments, corporations and private companies. The working of RSK is subject centric and hence if worked at full potential it will be effective redressal mechanism to enhance the productivity.

User charges

The Government of Karnataka has allowed collecting user charges at the approved rates. The user charges are being collected from various public and private sector companies involved in Agricultural activities and also from the farmers as detailed in the Table 1.

Table 1: Facilities Provided and Rates Charged

SI. No.	Facilities	Rates of Service charges (in Rs.)
1.	Seed sample testing	5.00 per sample
2.	Soil sample testing	3.00 per sample
3.	Rentals for the space to stock and sale agricultural inputs by the public sector and private sector companies	100.00 per month
4.	Rentals for the space used for demonstration purpose by the public sector and private sector companies (for a plot of 3m x 30m dimension)	300.00 per plot for a period of four months
5.	Rentals for promotional activities conducted in the premises of the RSK's by the public sector & private sector companies.	100.00 per day per event
6.	Service charges for sale of seeds and other inputs	8 percent of net value.

Source: Raithamitra.kar.nic.in

CONCLUSION

Agriculture being the main occupation in the state, government has taken several measures to improve this sector by disseminating the knowledge related to agriculture. *Raitha Samparka Kendras* have been operating in the State for a few years now. These act as the knowledge centres for the farmers that provide information on farm and market practices. However, the operation as well as swiftness of *Raitha Samparka Kendras* needs to be improved substantially. The RSK should support agricultural practices, information about these practices, information about the markets and the probable changes in the market, as well as new technologies. This can be realised if the *Kendras* are efficiently equipped, in terms of training and manpower. It is been suggested by few committees that there isn't sufficient investment from the government to give boost to this initiative.

To provide information on agriculture and allied sector information to the farmers continuously it is very necessary to establish the new centres at each *gram panchayat* level. A well trained Agricultural graduate should be in charge of each *Raitha Samparka Kendra*. This training should concentrate on giving the basic knowledge of various inter connected disciplines at the agricultural universities in the state. It is been emphasised by the Satish Chandran Committee (1993) that there is a need to start a Plant Protection Training Institute. One of the Regional Technology Development Centers (RDTC) may be converted as an institute for Plant Protection to provide training to grassroots level functionaries at RSKs by properly developing and up-grading the present facilities.

These *Kendras* should serve not only as hub of information for the farmer but also as a meeting point for consultation by the farmers. To boost the participation of farmers, *Raitha Samparka Kendras* should hold consultations with the farmers at the beginning of every season and advise accordingly about the subsequent season, as well as crops to be grown based on weather forecast and market intelligence.

The aim of RSK is to make the primary sectors more dynamic and profit oriented. The backbone of this initiative is its emphasis on farmers' participation. In all it has a 'Farmer –Centric' approach. Since the beneficiary is at the centre of this approach the onus of the dynamic working of the institutional set up depends equally on farmers also.

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Point of View

Challenges of Film Education in the Age of Internet and Information Technology

A.S. KANAL

Abstract

The word 'Film' that was associated with celluloid and with the experience of watching films in a cinema hall has moved forward. Today films are made using celluloid/ video and digital technology. These films are shown in cinema halls, Television, Computer or Mobile phone or out- of- home screens via cable and Internet. Challenge for filmmakers is to understand the strengths and limitations of each screen and structure the content accordingly. This presentation will justify the need for film education and discuss the Scope, Possibilities of Formal, Online and Non-formal modes of Film Education and challenges faced in the Internet age.

Keywords; Film education, filmmaking, Online - Distance Education, Non-formal Education

Author; A.S.Kanal, Director Vikshi Institute of Media Studies, Pune and Former Faculty, Film and Television Institute of India, Pune, Email: vikshi.kanal@gmail.com

NEED OF FILM EDUCATION

In the article *The Role of Film in Society*, Vikas Shah writes, "Film has a uniquely powerful ubiquity within human culture. In 2009, across major territories, there were over 6.8 billion cinema admissions (compared against a world population of roughly the same number) creating global box office revenues of over US\$30 billion" ... "British Tourist Authority estimates that approximately 20% visited the UK because of the way it is portrayed in films or on television...." (thoughteconomics.com).

Data shared by Film Federation of India on their website indicates, “Nineteen hundred sixty seven feature films (1967) in 38 Indian languages were censored in the year 2014-15.” (www.filmfed.org). No data could be traced on the number of short films; non-fiction films; experimental films and educational or propaganda films made in the same year (2014-15). The number of films made under these categories could easily run over a few thousand films.

Technology has simplified the process of Film making. With a cell phone in hand and a computer at home, a large number of individuals are making films today. To this group of film makers their creative urge to express their ideas supersedes over to understand and follow language of cinema. Outlet for these filmmakers is YouTube or other Internet platforms, ‘25 film festivals in India and many more internationally’ (Wikipedia.org) says FICCI-KPMG Indian Media and Entertainment Industry Report 2015. The Indian Media and entertainment sector, which is expected to grow at a CAGR – Compound Annual Growth of 13.9% and is expected to reach INR 1,964 billion by 2019, has a higher demand for skilled professionals across each of its sub-sector” (www.kpmg.com)

Table 1 M&E Sector Employment by Sub-Sector

Sub Sector	Employment (in millions)		
	2013	2017	2022
Television	0.14	0.28	0.64
Print	0.06	0.07	0.13
Radio	0.02	0.03	0.04
Animation, VFX and Gaming	0.02	0.03	0.04
Films	0.16	0.24	0.44
Overall Sector	0.40	0.65	1.30

Source: www.kpmg.com

BIEF- India Brand Equity foundation’s January 2016 report says, “The Indian media industry has tremendous scope for growth in all the segments due to rising incomes and evolving lifestyles. Media is consumed by audience

across demographics and various avenues such as television, films, out of home (OoH), radio, animation and visual effect (VFX), music, gaming, digital advertising and print”. (www.ibef.org), What these reports and data suggest is that the education system must gear up to develop professionals in Media in an order of 1.30 million by 2022 or about 0.21 million per year.

State of Film and Media Education in India

Like in the past, till today, individual storywriters, journalists, poets, musicians, singers, aspiring actors, engineers and other professionals come to join the film industry. They acquire filmmaking skills churned by the industry. Till the time Film Institute Pune came into existence (1960), the only formal education in films was available at Sri Jayachamarajendra Polytechnic in Bangalore. Under Radio Engineering program, this polytechnic offered courses in cinematography and sound recording. FTII Pune started offering courses in Direction, Screen Play Writing, Cinematography, Sound Recording and Sound Engineering, Editing and Acting with an intake of 10 to 12 students per discipline each year. Film Institute of India officially became Film and Television Institute of India in 1971. However, Training in Television -not education - was brought to the FTII campus only in 1975, four years after that. It was only in the year 2003 that FTII started offering one-year course in Television production. Wikipedia lists 17 institutions in India offering specific area formal education in filmmaking; this includes SRFTI – Satyajit Ray Film and Television Institute, Kolkata, West Bengal that came into existence in 1995.

In 1980’s, universities offering journalism courses moved on to establish mass communication courses. According to shiksha.com “there are 470 colleges in India offering courses in mass communication” (media.shiksha.com). These colleges do introduce the students to some production techniques in Radio, Film and Television.

Two Aspects of Film Education

There are two major aspects of education in films. One is understanding

cinema, its historical perspective, its socio-political, cultural milieu and nuances etc., The other aspect is education of making films, which involves teamwork where different contributors put together their respective expertise, knowledge and skills that each of these professional requires and mental faculties or attitudes that are essential to each of them. In a film school both these aspects must go side by side.

Access to films through Internet

Today, Internet has brought films on the doorstep to watch. They are available through official streaming avenues like Netflix as well as through unofficial sites. Many important or talked-about films, that otherwise are not available to interested viewers, are now accessible to them. This has helped in widening the understanding of cinema to a great extent – especially with the younger generation.

This interest in films is also being transformed into a desire to make films. This medium of expression fascinates people of different walks of life, of different age groups. However, formal education in filmmaking is neither possible, nor practical or desirable to many of them. For such aspiring filmmakers, guidance for making films is also being available on the Internet or through short-term courses offered by many private institutes.

Guidance for Filmmaking

Today, thanks to Internet, one can read essays discussing the critical aspects of a film. One can watch a film as various aspects of it are discussed in Voice Over by experts. Video lectures in detail by experts (like Syd Field) on subjects like screenplay writing and so on are available on Internet. Articles on various subjects related to films and filmmaking are available. There are structured, progressive tutorials on different areas of filmmaking (for example grammar of editing as well as step-by-step guidance for operations of editing softwares).

Today, Internet has become a platform where individuals can share their thoughts and experiences. Film makers internationally are sharing their experience in making a film, what went in developing scripts, challenges

faced in making the film and so on. They have also started sharing how VFX assists them in constructing certain images that they could visualize but were unable to capture in real life shooting. Images that would give new experience to the audiences. Not only filmmakers, even the viewers too put in their response to a film or a television show they have seen. A testimony of Dr Juergen Schaefer – “how TV’s Dr. House helps solve a real medical mystery” (www.ew.com) is one example. It shows how much research must have gone into the scripts of such shows, what kind of appeal they hold and why. Like yesterday’s sci-fi becomes a reality today. With this kind of opening up of film fraternity, filmmaking has suddenly started looking accessible. All this information on net encourages individuals to make films. However, randomly learning through Internet without a learning plan may pose some problems.

Every now and then we come across people who have made short films without following the basic principles of film grammar or ways of effective communication. This is not because one wants to reject grammar, but because one is not aware of it. What many of such individuals search on the net is tutorials related to operations that will enable them to use their camera and editing software effectively. With this information in hand and an idea or subject in mind, they start making films. Once a film is ready, they are confident that whatever they wanted to say will reach the audience. They show their films to their friends and family who are aware of their ideas. They provide explanations if anyone is not clear, and fill in with information they wanted to share. Actually there are gaps in what they want to say and what is on the screen. In the excitement of having made a film, they even post their films to various film festivals and upload on You Tube. This process of filmmaking is good as a starting point. But to be effective communicators, much more is needed apart from operating knowledge. They require guidance to know what else is to be learnt. In this environment, task of the educators (face to face or on Internet) would be: push the boundaries of students’ prior learning and introduce new systematic learning without shattering his confidence, a learning that will motivate the students to embrace risks and experiment with content without losing the essence of the subject.

Formal Education in Film Making

When so much information is available on the Internet, are the institutes involved in formal education become redundant? The answer is a definite no. As we all know, there are many advantages of formal education in any field.

Environment

Formal institutes offer an environment where groups come together with a common objective for a specific period and with a specific mindset. They come where actual contact with teachers and with fellow students is the crux.

Structured syllabus

Formal education is syllabus oriented. A panel of experts puts together the essentials of each stream – knowledge, skills, and attitudes. While designing curriculum, desired learning outcomes are listed, task breakdown is done. Then activities are designed to facilitate the learning of these parts.

Actual experience of making films

The biggest advantage of formal education could be that the students get to actually make the progressive exercises, experience the problems as well as excitement of making films, get feedback, develop understanding to judge their own work.

Different streams of film-making team under one roof

Making films is a collaborative art. Also, it is technology dependent. Collective learning in a formal setup offers much advantage. An ideal film school will impart education in all possible aspects of film making - creative, technical as well as managerial - under one roof. Making a Film is a collaborated effort of a creative team supported by managers and marketing teams. Creative team for a feature length film can have all or some of these team members - (1) Screen Writer, Dialogue, lyrics writer (2) Director (3) Cinematographer (4) Production Designer / Art Director (5) Sound recording

and sound designer (6) Editor (7) Music Director (8) Costume designer (9) Make-up and Hairstyle professional (9) Choreographer (10) Stunt coordinator and fight master (11) VFX and Animation experts (12) Actors and voice artists.

While educating students in the above-mentioned streams, Film Studies, which enhances the understanding of cinema, cannot be ignored in film schools. Non-fiction films like Documentary, Educational Films, Social Message Films, Corporate Films and Advertisement films, Gaming , Media Management and Research, Social Effects of media, Communication-Theories and Practices Media Technology – Production and Exhibition etc., too have a great potential and demand for specialized inputs. To make a film in any genre, the first thing one is expected to do is to write a screenplay. And so, of all the streams suggested above, Screen writing should be given the highest weightage. Screenplay is the backbone of a film, a road map to film production.

Screenplays

Most of the times, writing screenplay is a collaborative effort between Director and Screenwriter. Such collaboration is easily possible in formal education. Besides, further collaboration with students of production designer and cinematography can give complete visual design to a script and a direction to move forward. Scripts, thus developed and written, can then be made into films. In formal system, the same script can also be given to different production teams to make a film. Examining different films made on the same script can provide some explanation to how a written work evokes different sensibilities.

Classrooms

If a classroom is hooked with Internet, a teacher can use video examples to illustrate a point. In the same way, students too can show video that fit best for their explanation of a topic.

After Schooling

Peer groups thus formed can continue to work together after completing education. Not only this, one of the practical advantages that film school students automatically get is that they become a part of the lineage their school has created. This makes it easier for them to approach their seniors when they are out of the school. They also get to do networking with professionals during workshops.

The Wide Gap

Though there are advantages of formal education in film making, there are some problems also. The biggest one is the gap between the capacity of the existing institutes offering formal education and the requirement of trained and qualified professionals needed by the industry. Another aspect is the time frame of formal education. It may not be possible for everyone to put in that much time and, also, money. The solution here is internet.

Reducing the Gap – Leaders must lead

Knowing well that it is too expensive to setup a film school, it is time that leading film schools in India - FTII, SRFTI, State Govt. funded Film Institutes and Private Film schools – open their doors of knowledge and let aspiring film makers learn from them through ONLINE courses supported by hands on workshops. Along with this, these organizations should offer short courses and workshops for school / college teachers who can guide and encourage students in making films using low end equipment – even their mobile phones - and computer with basic editing software (developing a new generation of film makers.)

Challenges

Hundred years of cinematic experience and nearly 60 years of FTII has not given students of cinema text books on film making. Non-availability of text books in Indian languages with illustrated examples from our own films creates a gap in learning.

Language of communication – verbal and written – Learning is language dependent. Today, in India, we are making feature films in 38 languages. If filmmakers are taught film making in their own language, he/she will be able to learn the language of cinema faster. One may argue here that Internet offers translation of text in different languages. So why to write books and articles in many languages. Internet translations match words but need not give matching meaning to a sentence in translated language. (For example – ‘capture’ *images*, = *Kabja karna*).

Develop curricula that will offer choice based education in filmmaking and other allied media. A system that will offer full flexibility to a student to choose what one wants to learn and, if desired, acquire multiple skills. (Multiple skills are especially needed in non-fiction film production).

Guidance on production work will put additional demands on faculty. The biggest challenge of all is that Indian Universities have not accepted film making and other allied subjects as a subject of mainstream education. They need to find a way to treat these practical-oriented professional subjects in a different manner than only the scholarly, theory-oriented subjects.

ONLINE – Open Learning

Teaching filmmaking-using Internet, in Indian context, can offer challenges from film production technology. Here it would be expected that students would have some means to capture and edit video images – at least a mobile phone and a computer with editing software. Any organization offering ONLINE course in filmmaking must establish a website where students will upload their project work. All students of the ONLINE course will have access to see the work of others. Organization should also establish a web based forum where students could discuss each other’s work to develop a better understanding of a subject. Faculty also should visit this forum regularly and respond when it is found that discussion is drifting away. Conducting practical examination and assessing specific area learning will be a time consuming exercise. The process of ONLINE film education will become much more effective when virtual classroom technology takes its root in Indian environment.

Non-formal Education

Non-formal education in any subject including filmmaking has one very strong aspect – a student is highly motivated. It is for this passion to learn that a student searches for a mentor. This mode is full of risk as a student may be exploited. But once again student is mentally ready for this. For a mentor, the challenge is to look beyond the desire and need of the student and guide him through. Typically, in film making profession where there is a huge uncertainty, providing systematic inputs is a difficult task. Studios/ production houses do accommodate professionals with varied backgrounds as internees. In these places, it is largely the responsibility of a learner to intensify self learning by observing and persuading experts to share. With access to Internet and watching discussions and tutorials a learner can connect/ relate to what is happening in pre-production planning, production and post-production, and grow. Lastly, a creative mind combined with command over techniques and technology – the art, together with the craft – can produce wonders.

Note: This paper was presented in National Conference on “Indian Cinema in the Global Village: Challenges and Possibilities”, August 16 – 18, 2016, Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), New Delhi

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Proliferation and Diminution of Social Media Usage for Civic Engagement by NGOs

HEMDEEP KAUR

Abstract

The current study has analyzed the factors responsible for the proliferation and decrease of social media usage for civic engagement viz. volunteerism. Before determining the use of social media it is important to know what hinders Internet usage. So, effect of other media usage (print, television, telephone, radio and face to face communication) on frequency of Internet usage was determined on weekdays and weekends. Gamma test was used to determine the kind of relation between frequency of different media usage and Internet usage. Statistical analysis proved that spending time on any other media does not lower the frequency of Internet usage on both weekdays and weekends. Four factors were studied those may initiate people to volunteer such as learning volunteerism from parents, affiliation of religion/ community, learning volunteerism from friends and self-motivation. Friedman test proved that most of the respondents volunteer because they are ‘self-motivated’ to help others while ‘learning volunteerism from friends’ motivated them least to participate in offline civic engagement. Effect of various factors on online civic engagement is also measured such as previous offline civic engagement, lack of time, perception regarding the utility of social media for volunteerism, non-usage of social media by other members of the NGO and computer proficiency. Friedman test was used to determine the most dominant factor responsible for online civic engagement. Results revealed that among these five factors ‘previous offline civic engagement’ of the respondents motivated them most to use social media for civic

engagement. On the other hand, online civic engagement has embraced the diminution because of 'non- usage of social media by other members of the NGO'. Friedman test was again used to determine the features of social media which deterred and promoted civic participation. Analysis revealed that 'Affordability' as a feature of social media has motivated NGOs most and 'anonymity of identity' discouraged the most to use this medium for civic engagement. Results of the current study are also linked with theories such as self- determination theory and theory of evolution.

Keywords: Civic engagement, social media, volunteerism and NGOs

Author: Hemdeep Kaur, Research Scholar, School of Communication Studies, Punjab University, Chandigarh, **Email:** godmurs@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

The present study has determined the factors responsible for the proliferation and decrease of Internet usage, offline civic engagement and social media usage for civic engagement viz. volunteerism. These factors include the time spent on other media, pre-existing affiliations, different features of social media, computer proficiency, previous offline civic engagement, lack of time, perception regarding the utility of social media and non- usage of social media by other members of the NGO/ civic group.

Before focusing on social media usage for volunteerism, the current study has analyzed what hinders the Internet usage. So, effect of various media usage such as print media, television, telephone, radio and face to face communication on Internet usage was determined. Internet is divided into three categories such as web 1.0, web 2.0 and web 3.0. Web 1.0 allows its users to view the content only and most of the users are the 'consumers' of the content and not the 'participants'. Example of web 1.0 is static websites those allow users to read the content only. On the contrary, the term 'web 2.0' is formulated with the concept of 'user generated content' because user can generate and alter the content as they can be 'participants'. Social media comes under web 2.0 because it allows users to 'engage' in civic issues.

Online engagement has become possible only after the emergence of social media because its interactivity features allow users to generate the content. The term 'engagement' has come into being only after the invention of social media because one needs to put efforts to engage and it is not like television which does not require active participation of the user. This is the reason that the current study has analyzed the role of different features of social media in encouraging civic participation of NGOs.

FICCI- KMPG, Indian Media and Entertainment Industry report 2013 reveals that since 2013 there were 226 million Internet users in India and they are expected to reach over 496 million by 2017. On other hand, worldwide social media accounts were 3505 million since 2013 and expected to reach over 4870 million by 2016. So, when there is huge population of social media users in India as well as worldwide and it is expected to increase in future, it becomes pertinent to study the media usage trends by NGOs.

Ahmed and Jaidka (2013) analyzed 104059 tweets concerning Delhi gang rape case on Twitter; a micro blogging site. These researchers analyzed the tweets since the beginning of the news outbreak. Their research focused on inter and intra- group communication and information dissemination. They found that social media actually transformed 'consumers' into 'producers' as they used Twitter like citizen journalists.

Anwer and Shrinivasan (2012) also discussed one of the incidents in their news report that how a 19 year old girl used social media during protest. They said that it was the time of protest when police arrested agitators and among them a girl used Twitter on her mobile phone and asked for help. She continually tweeted every move that how she was being put into van then they reached at police station. It was noticed that within few hours more than thousand people retweeted her and very soon this message reached over 2 lakh people. The result was that media, lawyers and activists reached at police station to rescue protestors. So, considering social media importance for the promotion of civic engagement the current study has analyzed the factors what actually hinders its usage by NGOs.

OBJECTIVES

- To determine whether other media usage (print, television, telephone, radio and face to face communication) deters or increases the frequency of Internet usage on both weekdays and weekends.
- To analyze whether pre-existing affiliations such as learning volunteerism from parents, friends, religion/ community and self-motivation promote/ discourage offline civic engagement.
- To investigate whether computer proficiency, previous offline civic engagement, lack of time, perception regarding the utility of social media for volunteerism and non - usage of social media by other members of the NGO/ civic group promote, initiate/ discourage NGOs to use social media for civic engagement.
- To examine which feature of social media deters and increases the online civic engagement of NGOs.

METHODOLOGY

Structured questionnaire was prepared to interview the heads of NGOs. A Sample of 60 NGOs was selected from Tricity of Chandigarh, Panchkula and Mohali. Snowball sampling method was used to select the sample for the study as the subject involved use of Internet based media by the NGOs.

Theoretical Perspective

The first theory Self- determination theory was used to know what actually motivates people to volunteer. Self- determination theory is a macro theory of human motivation, personality development and well being. This theory was initially developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan in 1985. Theorists say that all human beings have fundamental needs and if basic needs are satisfied then people act with a sense of full endorsement and volition. ‘Social contexts also effect the need satisfaction as well as type of motivation’. Social contexts are of two types; ‘proximal interpersonal contexts’ and ‘distal contexts’. ‘Proximal interpersonal contexts’ includes the behavior of people’s parents, teachers, friends, managers, physicians and coaches. So, on this basis the current study assumed that behavior of

parents actually affect the human motivation means respondents learnt altruistic behavior from their parents, friends and community.

Theory of evolution also discusses the same point. It is known as ‘theory of natural selection’ and proposed by Charles Darwin in his book ‘the Origin of Species’ in 1859. Darwin observed that offspring inherit most of the traits or habits from their parents than anyone else. Except Darwin, George Johann Mendel (1866) also discussed the concept of ‘inheritance’ though Darwin did not notice his concept. Darwin also asserted that ‘any variation which is not inherited is unimportant for us. Further criticizing Darwin theory, Newman, H. H. (*ibid*) says, “Our modern experimental studies have shown that somatic modifications due to environmental changes are not hereditary (p.386).” This theory is basically from science field and has been written many years ago. It clearly discusses the concept of altruism and claims that altruism can be inherited from parents. So, on the basis of the theory it is assumed that people learn and inherit altruism from their parents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses the results related to the four objectives. The contradictory and supporting review of literature and theoretical perspective are also discussed with the results.

Frequency of various media usage affecting Internet usage

This section starts with determining the effect of various media usage on frequency of Internet usage on both weekdays and weekends. Gamma test was used for statistical analysis. Data on weekdays proved that spending time on telephone, radio, television, print media and face to face communication does not lower the frequency of Internet usage. Results also revealed that time spent on telephone, radio, television, print media and face to face communication on a weekend does not deter the frequency of Internet usage. The results in detail are discussed in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1: Time spent on other media deters/ increases the frequency of Internet usage on a weekday

Print and Internet on a Weekday							
Print	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	2	1	1	4		
20-60 min	0	7	6	7	20	.473	.121
60-120 min	1	9	4	4	18		
>120 min	0	3	3	7	13		
Television and Internet on a Weekday							
Television	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	2	1	0	3		
20-60 min	0	7	6	10	23	.811	-.043
60-120 min	0	9	3	3	15		
>120 min	1	3	3	5	12		
Radio and Internet on a Weekday							
Radio	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	1	0	0	1		
20-60 min	0	2	2	5	9	.651	.179
60-120 min	0	0	1	1	2		
>120 min	0	2	0	3	5		
Telephone and Internet on a Weekday							
Telephone	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	0	0	0	0		
20-60 min	0	8	5	2	15	.493	.114
60-120 min	0	6	3	10	19		
>120 min	1	7	6	6	20		
Face to Face Communication and Internet on a Weekday							
Face to Face Communication	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
20-60 min	0	2	0	2	4		
60-120 min	0	3	2	3	8	.789	-.072
>120 min	1	16	12	14	43		

To determine the kind of relationship between frequency of different media usage and frequency of Internet usage, gamma test was used. Analysis proved that in case of print, television, radio, telephone and face to face communication p value is greater than .05 which led to the rejection of alternate hypothesis and acceptance of null hypothesis. Results revealed that there is a weak positive relationship between frequency of Internet usage and print, radio and telephone usage on a weekday. So, weak relationship is considered as ‘no relationship’. On the other hand, face to face communication and television share the negative weak relationship with Internet because gamma value is negative. Here, also weak relation is equal to ‘no relation’. Even p value is greater than .05 which proved that both the variables are equal. Results in detail are discussed in Table 1.

Many researchers have also conducted the research to determine the effect of time spent of different media on Internet usage. These researchers have not done the analysis on basis of weekend and weekday. For instance Shah et al. (2002) have found that ‘time spent with other media’ does not decrease the Internet usage. While Shah, Kwak and Holbert (2001) said that people who spend more time on television eventually use very less Internet for civic engagement.

Gamma test was used to determine the effect of other media usage on frequency of Internet usage on a weekday. In case of telephone, analysis has shown the positive relationship between two variables because gamma value is .197 (19.7 %). So, there is a positive weak relationship between frequency of telephone and Internet usage. Weak relationship means that time spent on telephone increases the frequency of Internet usage but weak relationship is equivalent to no relationship. In such cases results may vary if sample size is increased. Though the relationship is weak data has proved that time spent on telephone does not deter the frequency of Internet usage. In case of radio, again analysis has shown the 0.40% positive relationship between two variables which is equivalent to ‘no’ relationship.

Table 2 Time spent on other media deters/ increases the frequency of Internet usage on a weekend

Telephone and Internet on a Weekend							
Telephone	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	0	0	0	0		
20-60 min	1	10	3	5	19	.239	.197
60-120 min	0	6	4	7	17		
>120 min	1	3	10	4	18		
Radio and Internet on a Weekend							
Radio	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	1	0	0	1		
20-60 min	0	3	0	4	7	0.915	.040
60-120 min	0	1	2	0	3		
>120 min	0	2	0	2	4		
Print and Internet on a Weekend							
Print	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	1	1	1	3	.073	.302
20-60 min	1	8	3	3	15		
60-120 min	1	6	9	5	21		
>120 min	0	4	4	7	15		
Television and Internet on a Weekend							
Television	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	0	3	1	0	4		
20-60 min	0	7	4	8	19	.544	.111
60-120 min	0	6	7	2	15		
>120 min	2	2	4	6	14		
Face to Face Communication and Internet on a Weekend							
Face to Face Communication	<20 min	20-60 min	60-120 min	>120 min	Total	P value	Gamma value
<20 min	1	0	0	0	1		
20-60 min	0	0	1	2	3	.374	-.242
60-120 min	0	2	2	3	7		
>120 min	1	17	14	11	43		

Further in case of radio and television again the relationship is weak positive. On the contrary, face to face communication and Internet shares a negative relationship because gamma value is $-.242$ (24.2 %) and p value = $.374$. Again this relationship is weak negative and equivalent to no relationship. P value is also accepting the null hypothesis. Thus it proved that spending time on any other media does not lower the frequency of Internet usage. Results in detail with p and gamma value of every variable are discussed in Table 2.

Impetus and deterrent factors for online and offline civic engagement

The initial study has considered it important to determine factors encouraging people to volunteer as well as factors initiating volunteers to use social media for civic engagement. Four factors were studied those may initiate people to volunteer such as learning volunteerism from parents, friends, religion/ community and self-motivation. Effect of various factors on online civic engagement is also measured. These factors are previous offline civic engagement, lack of time, perception regarding the utility of social media for volunteerism, non- usage of social media by other members of the NGO and computer proficiency. So, this section determines the factors responsible for both offline and online civic engagement.

Figure 1 Mean ranks of ‘Pre-existing affiliations’ responsible for offline civic engagement

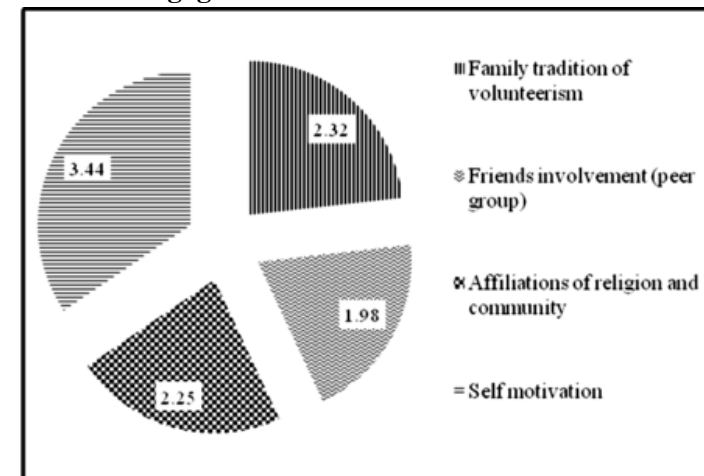


Figure 1 explains the pre-existing affiliations responsible for offline civic engagement. Friedman test was used to determine the major impetus and deterrent factor. Friedman test gave the p value= .000 which means that there is difference between variables. Friedman proved that most of the respondents volunteer because they are self- motivated to help others. After self- motivation, ‘learning volunteerism from parents’ have high mean rank and the lowest mean rank is of learning volunteerism from friends.

Barber, Mueller, & Ogata (2013) also determined the level of civic participation of students aged between 12 to 18. Researchers have found that Parents’ civic engagement also encouraged students to participate in civic issues. Their study also revealed that self- determination plays a major role in encouraging students to participate in civic issues.

Figure 2 Means ranks of factors promoting online civic engagement

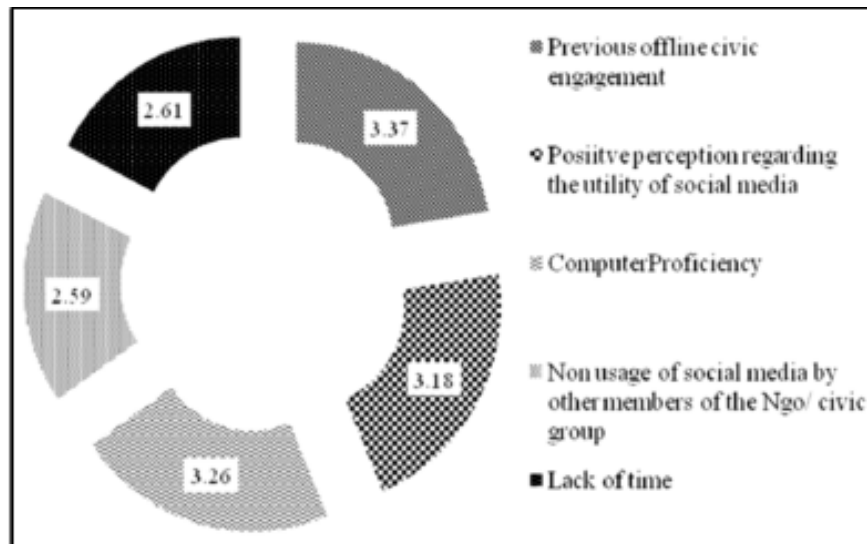


Figure 2 demonstrates the full analysis of variables initiating and deterring online civic engagement. Friedman test is used to determine the most initiating as well as discouraging factor in online civic engagement. Friedman gave p value= .000 which means that there is difference between variables. Friedman proved that ‘previous offline civic engagement’

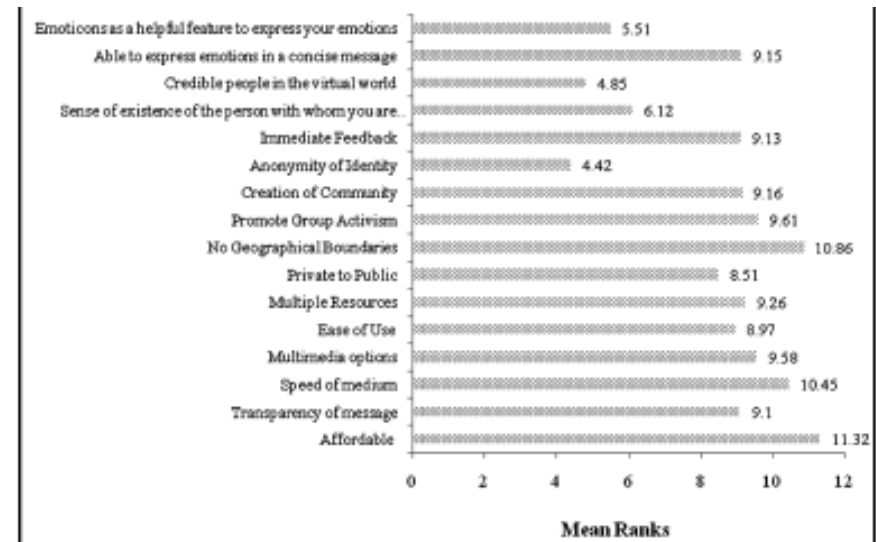
encourage NGOs most to use social media for civic engagement because it has highest mean rank (3.37). On the other hand, ‘non usage of social media by other members of the NGO’ has the lowest means rank which signifies this factor as ‘most discouraging’. Even Mano (2013) found that respondents having low Internet proficiency participate very less in online civic activities.

Shah et al. (2002) also examined the effect of time pressures on online civic participation. Their research revealed that lack of time discourages social media usage which further hampers online civic participation. Waters (2010)also carried out the research to know that why NGOs use social media tools. Researcher found that lack of time and lack of skills deters the social media usage for civic engagement by NGOs.

Features of social media deters/ encourages civic engagement

The current study has analyzed which feature of social media has encouraged as well as discouraged NGOs to use it for civic engagement. NGOs were asked about the 16 different features of social media. Results regarding every feature of social media are given below in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Features of social media promoting/ deterring civic participation



Friedman test was used to determine the features of social media which has deterred and promoted civic participation. Analysis revealed that 'Affordability' as a feature of social media has encouraged NGOs the most to use this medium for civic engagement. The p value given by Friedman test is .000. It means that there is a difference between variables. Mean ranks given by Friedman test proved that the second strongest factor is '*no geographical boundaries*', third '*speed of the medium*' fourth '*promote group activism*', fifth '*multimedia options*', sixth '*Multiple Resources*' means lots of ways/ resources to cross check the things, seventh '*Creation of Community*', eighth '*Able to express emotions in a concise message*', ninth '*Immediate Feedback*', tenth '*Transparency of message*', eleventh '*Ease of Use*', twelfth '*Private to Public*', thirteenth '*Sense of existence of the person with whom you are communicating*', and fourteenth '*Emoticons as a helpful feature to express your emotions*'. While '*Credible people in the virtual world*' which was considered the major deterrent factor actually proved to be the second deterrent factor. The major deterrent factor is '*Anonymity of Identity*'.

Waters (2010) also found that social media is a 'cost effective tool' which NGOs use to demonstrate the accountability and transparency. Wasserman, H. (2007) also carried out the research to know that how ICTs has proved beneficial for social movements. Researcher says that it was observed that e-mail and Internet promoted citizen activism because new technology allows the communication without beyond geographical boundaries and of course at low cost. So, NGOs were also asked whether they use social media for civic engagement because it is 'Affordable'. Results of the current study proved that it is true because 41 respondents felt that 'to a large extent' affordability of technology have initiated them to engage in online civic engagement. While 11 said 'to some extent' and not even a single respondent mentioned that affordability does not encourage their online civic engagement.

Further, Self-determination theory developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan (1985) mentioned that if basic needs of human beings are satisfied then people act with a sense of full endorsement and volition.

Autonomy is one of the needs which means that people want the freedom/ right of self- government. From decades people have struggled a lot to protect or gain autonomy. Linking the right of self- government with the current study, NGOs were asked whether 'Multimedia options' such as video conferencing with stakeholders and volunteers, sharing images, audio, etc. to execute their plans have initiated them to use social media. Results proved that more than 80% respondents find multimedia options useful for their NGO.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the current study is to determine the factors those hinder as well as promote the usage of social media for civic engagement. History of Internet says that social media comes under web 2.0. Features of this platform allow users to generate the content and to act according to their wishes while web 1.0 allows its users to read the content only. So, the present study has analyzed the effect of various media usage on frequency of Internet usage. Results revealed that time spent on telephone, radio, television, print media and face to face communication on a weekday and weekend does not deter the frequency of Internet usage. The main focus of the research is on social media. So, the current study has determined which feature of social media has actually motivated NGOs to use it for civic engagement. Results revealed that 'Affordability' as a feature of social media has encouraged NGOs the most to use this medium for civic engagement. On the other hand, 'Anonymity of Identity' as a feature of social media discouraged NGOs most. Apart from social media usage, the current study has also determined the factors those have motivated people to volunteer. Statistical analysis proved that due to self-motivation most of the respondents volunteer. When it comes to online civic engagement, it was found that 'previous offline civic engagement' encouraged NGOs most to use social media for civic engagement. Thus research has shown that factors related to volunteers (pre-existing affiliations, lack of time, computer proficiency, etc.) and social media (features of social media) affect the online civic engagement of NGOs.

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