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DICTIONARY OF MASS Communication & Media Research

A GUIDE FOR STUDENTS, SCHOLARS AND PROFESSIONALS

David Demers



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Note to Reader

Italicized words are defined in this dictionary, with the exception of bibliographic entries, where italics is used to identify books, journals, newspapers, and magazines.

The Index contains a complete listing of the concepts and terms defined in this dictionary.

Preface

During a conversation I had with a colleague in late 2004, I mentioned that I was writing this dictionary.

"How can you do that?" he asked. "Scholars in our field don't agree much on anything."

He had a good point. In the field of mass communication and the social sciences in general, scholars and professionals often disagree about how to define basic terms and concepts. The concept of *mass communication* itself is a good example.

One introductory textbook defines it as "the process through which messages reach the audience via the mass media." Another says mass communication is "the process of designing and delivering cultural messages and stories to diverse audiences through media channels as old as the book and as new as the Internet." A third textbook defines it as "the process by which a complex organization, with the aid of one or more machines, produces and transmits public messages that are directed at large, heterogeneous, and scattered audiences." And the dictionary you are now reading defines it as "the process of delivering messages to a large number of geographically separated people through a technologically based medium."

To be sure, these definitions share some common ground. All assume, for example, that mass communication is transmitted through some kind of technology, as opposed to face-to-face communication. Without some common agreement about concepts (or *intersubjectivity*, as social scientists call it), knowledge itself would not be possible.

But there are some significant differences in the definitions offered above. The first three limit the process of mass communication to mass media organizations, while the last one does not exclude individuals as mass communicators (via the Internet). The second and third definitions assume that audiences are diverse (or what some scholars call "mass" audiences), whereas the first and fourth make no assumptions about the character of the audience. The first and fourth imply that mass communication can take place in developing and homogeneous societies or nations, which often depend heavily on mass media such as radio.

To some scholars and professionals, differences like these are a source of frustration. They believe social science needs consensus. Others are even more critical. They see the differences as a sign of *postmodernism*—or the notion that science and knowledge are impossible.

But to me and others, the differences are a source of inspiration, because they stimulate new ideas and theories about mass communication and human behavior in general. For example, if individuals—not just institutions—have the power to mass communicate through the Internet, then what impact could this new form of *power* have on the distribution of ideas and knowledge in society? Could the *Internet* help decentralize political and economic power much like the *printing press* did after the 15th century? (See *information revolution* for details.) More specifically, could the Internet rob mass media of their power to mediate much of the information and knowledge generated in society?

To me, the most frustrating aspect of the social sciences isn't the fact that scholars disagree on definitions. It's the fact that many of them fail to define their concepts at all or do not spend enough time defining and refining their concepts (see *corporate media* as an example). Concepts are the building blocks of science, so they must not be taken for granted.

The key to defining good concepts is not to begin with the idea that one definition fits all. No single *conceptual definition* or *operational definition* is always right for every occasion, for definitions often depend upon context, time and place. Instead, the key is to define a concept that provides the greatest utility in explaining or interpreting the social problem under study. Thus, any of the four definitions of mass communication provided earlier in this preface may be useful in solving research problems, depending upon the context.

My goal in writing this dictionary, then, was not to compose the definitive dictionary on mass communication. I do not think that can be done, nor do I expect readers to agree with all of the definitions I've provided herein. Instead, my primary goal was to write a dictionary that would stimulate new ideas and theories about mass communication processes and effects—something other social science dictionaries and encyclopedias have been doing for me for many years.

I am grateful to a number of people who directly or indirectly helped in the production of this book. In particular, they include Ms. Carrie Lipe, Mr. Tim Connor and Dr. Paul J. Lindholdt for critiquing and copyediting the text. I thank Ms. Purba Das, Dr. Melvin DeFleur, Mr. Jethro Delisle, Ms. Linda Delisle, Dr. Douglas Blanks Hindman, Professor John Irby, Dr. Igor E. Klyukanov, Dr. Alex Tan, Mr. Ming Wang, and Mr. Lu Wei for reading portions of the book, correcting errors, and providing feedback about what terms to include or exclude.

I am especially grateful to Dr. Phillip J. Tichenor, my Ph.D. adviser, who stressed the importance of defining concepts and who played a significant role in defining my own research program. I also thank my wife, Theresa, and our daughter, Lee Ann, for putting up with my busy work schedule.

David Demers Spokane, Washington Summer 2005



ABC (American Broadcasting Company) a *television network* company owned by The Walt Disney Company.

absolutism the philosophical doctrine that truth is absolute and objective; opposite of *relativism*.

absolutist ethics the notion that there is a right or wrong response to any ethical situation.

Proponents of this perspective believe in hard and fast rules to guide decision-making, regardless of the circumstances or the situation.

See absolutism and situational ethics.

access law an area of media law that deals with the government's or public's "right" to access (i.e., obtain space or air time from) the mass media and the information they generate.

The U.S. Supreme Court has basically ruled that the First Amendment does not give the public a right of access to print media, such as newspapers and magazines. But there is a very limited right to access if the media are broadcast, and at the federal level journalists have no right to keep confidential their sources, notes, and film.

In the court case Miami Herald Publishing Co. v. Tornillo (1974), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that a newspaper is not required to publish the comments of a politician who was attacked in a newspaper editorial. The court basically said that compelling the newspaper to print the reply would mean the newspaper would have to devote space and money to printing the reply, and this could have a chilling effect on the press.

This ruling does not apply to broadcast media, however. Unlike the print media, there are a limited number of airwaves. Although the FCC eliminated the *Fairness Doctrine* in 1987, the FCC still requires broadcasters to treat political candidates fairly.

At the federal level, the *First Amendment* provides relatively little protection to journalists who wish to keep confidential their sources, notes, and film. But many states provide protection through *shield laws*.

If a federal crime has been committed and journalists have evidence that could help solve that crime, journalists can be forced to turn over that information. This principle was established in Branzburg v. Hayes (1972).

The U.S. Supreme Court ruled that three reporters had to turn over information about confidential sources to grand juries investigating criminal activity. One of the grand juries was investigating drug use and sales. The other two were investigating the Black Panthers, a militant organization, according to the government.

In all three cases, reporters refused to give confidential information to the grand juries. They promised their sources confidentiality and argued it was necessary to obtain their cooperation. If reporters were required to turn over the names of confidential sources, the sources would be reluctant to talk to them, and the public would be deprived of valuable information about key social issues.

The court disagreed. It could not accept the argument "that it is better to write about crime than to do something about it."

Although journalists can be compelled to testify before grand juries, the high court did allowed Congress or state legislatures to pass laws to protect them. These are called shield laws. Twenty-eight states have them. But there is no federal shield law because journalists couldn't agree on what such a law should protect.

Shield laws basically state that no journalist engaged in a newsgathering capacity shall be compelled to testify in a legal proceeding or before a court about the information he or she has gathered. Oddly, the protection in some states extends only to reporters and to print journalists, not to photographers or broadcasters. Historically, journalists, and news organizations have not been very effective at lobbying for these and other protections. In fact, many journalists and news organizations believe politics should be left to legislators and citizens.

Sources: Miami Herald Publishing Co. v. Tornillo, 418 U.S. 241 (1974) and Branzburg v. Hayes, 408 U.S. 665 (1972).

access provider a company or institution that provides users with access to the Internet.

Access providers include for-profit companies that are usually called *Internet Service Providers* (ISPs), and not-for-profit providers, such as universities, which offer free access to students and staff.

account executive (AE) a public relations, advertising or marketing research practitioner who essentially is a sales person with a good working knowledge of the business.

The account executive sells a product or service (e.g., consulting services, advertising or research) to a client and then oversees the

production or management of that product or service. Although other employees in the organization normally do not work for the AE, the AE usually oversees their work and has control over what gets presented to the client. The AE usually earns more money than the other specialists because the AE position is directly responsible for generating revenues.

acquisitions editor the person who plays a key role in acquiring manuscripts for a *publishing house*.

The acquisition editor often solicits book manuscripts from authors and helps make decisions about whether to publish the manuscript.

action behavior that is goal-directed, intentional or purposeful.

action research research motivated by a desire to solve social problems or improve social conditions.

action standard a criterion for determining whether to market or to continue research on a product, service or idea.

active audience the idea that mass media have limited effects on people because people consciously use media to achieve their own goals. See *free will, determinism,* and *uses and gratifications.*

Adams, Samuel (1722-1803) the best example of an editor from the Revolutionary War period in American history.

Adams edited the "Boston Gazette," which became a center for radicals (or Patriots). Adams also helped organize the Sons of Liberty, the group that staged the Boston Tea Party and other political actions designed to call attention to the Patriot cause and weaken British power.

Adams signed the Declaration of Independence and held a number of appointed and elected political posts, including governor of Massachusetts. Public relations practitioners admire Adams for employing public relations principles to generate support for the anti-British political movement.

administrative research research that helps mainstream political, social, and economic institutions achieve their goals.

The term often has a negative connotation, suggesting that researchers who practice administrative research are blind to the abuses of power inherent in the *status quo*. In the 1970s, sociologist Todd Gitlin criticized sociologist *Paul Lazarsfeld* for conducting research that helped *mainstream media* to maintain power and control over consumers.

See critical theory.

Source: Todd Gitlin, "Media Sociology: The Dominant Paradigm," *Theory and Society*, 6:205-53 (1978).

advertising a form of persuasion in which one social actor purchases space or time from a media organization in an effort to influence the opinions or buying decisions of consumers or an audience.

Generally speaking, advertising and other forms of persuasion differ in that advertisers must pay a media organization for placing or airing content. Although some media organizations offer free advertising to nonprofit organizations (e.g., public service advertising), that advertising technically is not free because the media organization must absorb the costs of lost revenues.

Advertising is the main source of revenue for most magazines, newspapers, *television networks*, and radio stations.

Advertising content can be divided into two major categories: commercial and political. Commercial advertising includes all advertising that attempts to persuade consumers or businesses to purchase various kinds of products or services, such as automobiles or grocery items. Most ads fall into this category.

The second category, political advertising, also attempts to influence people, but the goal here is to persuade citizens to vote in a particular way or to support a particular issue or idea. Political parties and candidates purchase the bulk of political ads, especially just before an election. However, citizens and special-interest groups may also purchase ads to influence the political process.

The effectiveness of advertising depends heavily upon four major factors:

1. <u>Consumer needs</u>. The best advertising campaign in the world will be ineffective if there is limited demand for a product or service. During the early 2000s, many of the Internet companies discovered this. They offered services that on paper seemed great and their ads were very well done, but there was no consumer demand.

2. <u>Quality of message</u>. Does the advertisement attract and hold the attention of the consumer, and is it memorable? Many devices and methods are used to attract and hold attention, including humor, fancy graphics, attractive actors, catchy phrases, and songs.

3. <u>Message repetition</u>. How often does a consumer see an advertisement? As a rule of thumb, the greater the repetition, the stronger the persuasive effect. But this rule will not hold true if the product or service in the advertisement does not satisfy a consumer need or if the quality of the message is low.

4. <u>Reaching the right consumers</u>. Does the advertisement reach potential consumers of a product or service? If not, then the advertisement will not be effective. That's why placement is such an important part of the advertising process.

Advertising campaigns are often ineffective. However, effectiveness isn't always known because in many cases no post-evaluation is conducted.

The field of advertising also has developed several codes of ethics. The best known is the Advertising Code of American Business, which was developed

in 1965 by the *Advertising Federation of America*, the Advertising Association of the West, and the Association of Better Business Bureaus, Inc., and endorsed by the International Newspaper Advertising Executives.

The code is concise, consisting of nine major points: (a) <u>truth</u>—advertisers should tell the truth; (b) <u>responsibility</u>—advertisers should substantiate their claims; (c) <u>taste and decency</u>—advertising should not be offensive; (d) <u>disparagement</u>—advertisers should not unfairly attack competitors or their products; (e) <u>bait advertising</u>—advertisers should offer products and services at the advertised price; (f) <u>guarantees and</u> <u>warranties</u>—advertising of guarantees and warranties shall be explicit; (g) <u>price claims</u>—advertising shall avoid price or savings claims that are false; (h) <u>unprovable claims</u>—advertising shall avoid the use of exaggerated claims; (i) <u>testimonials</u>—advertising containing testimonials should be real and honest.

See Internet advertising, N. W. Ayer & Son, and subliminal advertising. Sources: E. Lincoln James, Corenealium B. Pratt and Tommy V. Smith,

"Advertising Ethics: Practitioner and Student Perspectives," *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 9(2):69-83 (1994).

advertising agency an individual or private company that creates and/or places advertisements in *mass media*.

The first agency was founded by Volney Palmer in Philadelphia in 1843. He solicited ads, gave them to the newspapers, and billed the advertisers.

Currently about 15,000 independent advertising agencies do business in the United States. This number more than doubles to about 35,000 if media buying services, media representatives, display advertising, directmail advertising, and advertising material distribution services are added to the list. But in terms of public exposure, the advertising agencies get most of the attention (or glory or blame).

Advertising agencies are often classified into four different types.

1. Full-service advertising agencies offer a full array of services,

including research, creative, placement, and public relations services. 2. <u>Creative boutiques</u> are "idea factories" and typically focus on

creating the advertisement or campaign. They offer concept development, copywriting, and artistic services.

3. <u>Media-buying services</u> are independent agencies that specialize in buying space and time. These services typically can purchase space or time at a lower rate because they buy in volume.

4. <u>Interactive agencies</u>, relative newcomers to the field, focus on preparing advertising messages for new media, including the Internet, CD-ROMs, and interactive television. They are sometimes called cyberagencies.

Sources: U.S. Census Burcau, 1997 Economic Census, Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services, Series EC97554A-US (December 1999).

advertising awareness a concept for measuring consumer awareness of advertisements.

See aided advertising awareness, aided awareness, unaided advertising awareness, and total advertising awareness.

advertising campaign an organized effort that uses advertising to promote a candidate, idea, product, company or service.

Advertising Council a nonprofit organization that focuses on producing and distributing public service advertisements.

The history of the Advertising Council goes back to World War II, when the advertising industry lent aid to the U.S. government and the war effort. The War Advertising Council, consisting of volunteers from advertising agencies and media organizations, created advertisements to support the war effort.

The WAC produced a total of 150 war-related campaigns, including campaigns to help raise bonds to pay for the war and to recruit women for civilian and military jobs. After the war, the organization dropped "War" from its name.

Sources: The Advertising Council Web site, <www.adcouncil.org>.

advertising tracking study a study designed to track *awareness* and effects of advertising.

See aided awareness, unaided awareness, and total advertising awareness.

affiliate a radio or television station that associates itself with a network. See *television network*.

agenda-building the process through which an organization or society prioritizes its social, political or economic problems. See *agenda-setting hypothesis*.

agenda-setting hypothesis the notion that the more news media emphasize an issue or event, the more importance readers or viewers place on that issue or event.

The agenda-setting hypothesis was developed by Max McCombs and Donald Shaw at the University of North Carolina, who argued that the power of mass media lies less in telling people what to think (persuasion) than in telling them what to think about (the agenda). In other words, top stories in the mass media set the agenda for public discussion, and this public agenda, in turn, sets the legislative agenda. Their ideas were built in part upon those of media professor Bernard Cohen, who argued that the media may not always be successful in telling people what to think but in what to think about.

McCombs and Shaw tested their theory in the 1968 presidential election. To maximize possible effects, they surveyed 100 undecided voters and asked them what they thought were the key issues in the campaign. McCombs and Shaw also content-analyzed newspapers, magazines, and

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television news broadcasts to determine how much emphasis the media placed on various issues. They found a strong correlation between the voters' agenda and the media's agenda. The top-ranked items on the media's agenda were also highly ranked on the voters' agenda.

Since the 1970s, hundreds of studies have found support for this hypothesis. Although many questions linger, agenda-setting played a big role in reviving the notion of powerful media effects. Mass communication researcher James Tankard writes that agenda-setting helped revive "the effects question in research. Much communication research up until the early 1960s had minimized the effects of mass communication. Through agenda-setting, it appeared that mass communication might have some significant effects after all."

See Guard Dog Theory.

Sources: Maxwell E. McCombs and Donald L. Shaw, "The Agenda-Setting Function of Mass Media," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36:176-187 (1972); Bernard Cohen, *The Press and Foreign Policy* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1963); James W. Dearing and Everett M. Rogers, *Agenda-Setting* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 1996); Werner J. Severin and James W. Tankard Jr., *Communication Theories: Origins, Methods, and Uses in the Mass Media*, 5th ed. (New York : Longman, 2001); and Maxwell McCombs, Donald L. Shaw and David Weaver (eds.), *Communication and Democracy: Exploring the Intellectual Frontiers in Agenda-Setting Theory* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1997); David Pearce Demers, Dennis Craff, Yang-Ho Choi, and Beth M. Pessin, "Issue Obtrusiveness and the Agenda-Setting Effects of National Network News," *Communication Research*, 16(6):793-812 (December 1989); James W. Tankard Jr., "Maxwell McCombs, Donald Shaw, and Agenda-Setting," pp. 278-286 in Wm. David Sloan (ed.), *Makers of the Media Mind: Journalism Educators and Their Ideas* (Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1990), p. 284.

aggregation see level of analysis.

aided advertising awareness the percentage of *respondents* aware of advertising for a product, service or company after being prompted with questions or materials.

Measures of aided advertising awareness are used frequently in *advertising tracking studies*.

See unaided advertising awareness and total advertising awareness.

aided awareness the percentage of *respondents* aware of a product, service or company after being prompted with questions or materials. See *unaided awareness* and *total awareness*.

aided recall the percentage of *respondents* who recall various characteristics

or features of a product, service or company after being prompted with questions or materials.

Also see aided awareness.

Alien and Sedition Acts a law passed in 1798 by the Federalist-controlled Congress designed to muzzle anti-Federalist editors. Editors who wrote stories containing "false, scandalous or malicious" comments about the Federalists could be fined \$2,000 and imprisoned for two years. The law only punished those who wrote false statements, not truthful ones. But this act was a step back for freedom of the press.

Ten editors and publishers were convicted, and the laws created such a furor that the Federalists were unable to renew it. After *Thomas Jefferson* became president in 1800, he pardoned all those in jail and canceled remaining trials.

See freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and Jefferson, Thomas.

alienation a condition or state in which people feel estranged from a group or culture.

In *critical theory* and neo-Marxist media research in general, alienation is usually viewed as an outcome or effect of capitalist productive processes, and mass media are seen as producing content that helps mask these consequences from those who are alienated. *Karl Marx* argued that capitalism and the division of labor created jobs that alienated workers from the products of their labors. Workers are alienated partly because they work not for themselves but for a ruling class that oppresses them.

The de-skilling of labor is often cited as one of the reasons workers become alienated. However, alienation theorists point out that ordinary people typically do not blame capitalism for the problem, partly because mass media produce an ideology that justifies economic inequality and fails to link alienation to the structure of productive processes.

See critical theory, ideology, Marx, Karl, and Neo-Marxism.

Al-Jazeera a television station in Qatar that gained notoriety during the 2003 Iraq War when it broadcast videotaped messages from al Qaeda and its leader, Osama bin Laden.

The network, funded in its early years by the emir of Qatar, is often criticized by governments in the Middle East and the West. However, the station is popular with many ordinary people in the Middle East and was by far the most popular source of news there during the 2003 Iraq War.

The Al-Jazeera staff recognizes that its coverage offends a lot of governments and the West. But they say they are just trying to report the news objectively. In fact, most of the journalists who work for Al-Jazeera were trained at and once worked for Western news organizations like the *British Broadcasting Corporation* and *Cable News Network*.

Media scholars point out that Al-Jazeera's coverage of the 2003 Iraq War tended to be more favorable toward the Arab point of view. For example, the channel clearly showed more scenes of civilian casualties of the war than did Western *television networks*.

But scholars point out that Western news media coverage was also biased because it downplayed civilian casualties and relied more heavily on Western news sources than on non-Western sources.

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Sources: Muhammad I. Ayish, "News Credibility During the 2003 Iraq War: A Survey of UAE Students," pp. 323-334 in Ralph D. Berenger (ed.), *Global Media Go to War: Role and News and Entertainment Media during the 2003 Iraq War* (Spokane, WA: Marquette Books, 2004); John Clark, "War Through Al Jazeera's Eyes," *The Los Angeles Times* (June 6, 2004), p. E10; and Stephen Quinn and Tim Walters, "Al-Jazeera: A Broadcaster Creating Ripples in a Stagnant Pool," pp. 57-72 in Ralph D. Berenger (ed.), *Global Media Go to War: Role and News and Entertainment Media during the 2003 Iraq War* (Spokane, WA: Marquette Books, 2004).

alternative hypothesis see hypothesis.

alternative media mass media that present news, information, and entertainment content that challenges dominant values or political and economic elites as well as *mainstream media*.

In the 1960s, alternative newspapers were often called "underground newspapers." They published content that opposed the war in Vietnam; supported women's, environmental, and civil rights; and criticized powerful multinational corporations. Today, the remnants of those newspapers have abandoned most of their radical ways and are money-making enterprises that tend to emphasize arts and entertainment more than politics.

The Independent Media Center, or Indymedia, is perhaps the best known radical media. The loosely knit organization maintains a Web site (www.indymedia.org) that allows virtually anyone to contribute news and information. Although some large cities have given rise to anti-capitalist, anti-globalization publications and Web sites, alternative media have limited influence because of lack of resources and more conservative political times.

See mainstream bias.

American Association of Advertising Agencies, The (AAAA) a trade association representing the advertising agency business in the United States.

Founded in 1917, AAAA's membership now accounts for about 75 percent of the total advertising volume placed by agencies nationwide. The main goal of AAAA, according to its Web site <www.aaaa.org>, is to offer its members services, expertise and information regarding the advertising agency business.

American Advertising Federation (AAF) a trade association that represents 50,000 professionals in the advertising industry.

AAF has a national network of 210 advertising clubs and college chapters. Its Web site <www.aaf.org> contains information about internships, scholarships, and jobs.

American Booksellers Association, The a nonprofit association representing independent bookstores (i.e., bookstores not owned by or affiliated with major chains or corporations). The organization's Web site contains information about conferences and trends in the book industry <www.bookweb.org>.

American Society of Magazine Editors (ASME) a professional organization consisting of *editors* of consumer magazines and business publications.

This organization's Web site <www.magazine.org> contains information about editorial trends and issues, internships, jobs, and issues facing the magazine industry.

American Society of Newspaper Editors a nonprofit association composed of daily newspaper editors and people who serve the editorial needs of daily newspapers.

The organization's Web site <www.asne.org> points out that the organization promotes the interests of journalism and vigorously defends the First Amendment.

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc. a nonprofit

organization devoted to advancing the interests of women in broadcasting. The organization's Web site <www.awrt.org> contains information

about the organization, the issues on which it focuses, and membership.

amplitude modulation (AM) see radio technology.

AM stereo a technology that allows transmission of stereophonic radio signals to consumers via AM (Amplitude Modulation) radio.

The concept of AM stereo goes back to the 1920s, and more than 300 AM radio stations are broadcasting in stereo in the United States today.

However, consumers never really embraced the technology, because of four major problems: (1) Radios capable of receiving AM stereo broadcasts cost about twice as much as conventional radios; (2) AM radio has over time become oriented more toward talk and news than music, which is the primary format for stereo; (3) There is a lack of stereo programming for AM stations; and (4) FM radio reception still has higher quality and remains the format of choice for music-oriented stations.

Most consumers are unaware of the AM stereo technology. Also, the concept of AM stereo radio, and even FM stereo radio, has become even less relevant with the advent of wireless Web radio and satellite radio. See *radio technology*.

analog a method of analyzing or storing data that uses signals or pulses of varying degrees of intensity (as opposed to digital, which uses numbers). See *recording format*.

analog computer a computer that uses analog to perform calculations or accomplish tasks, in contrast to a *digital computer*, which uses numbers (usually a binary system).

See recording format.

analog recording see recording format.

analysis of variance an *inferential statistic* used when the *dependent variable* is a *continuous measure* and when the *independent variable* is a *nominal measure* that contains three or more *values*.

A t-test is used if the independent variable is a binomial.

animated film a movie whose primary characters are animated; that is, created from drawings or computer graphics.

The early animated films were made by hand, with artists drawing and coloring frame by frame. Increasingly, though, computers and advanced graphic technology have been used to produce animated films. "Toy Story," a 1995 box office hit, was the first film made completely with computer animation.

anonymous source a news source whose name is not revealed.

appellant the party to a lawsuit that loses and appeals the case to a higher court.

See appellee.

appellee (or respondent) the party to a lawsuit that has won a case and become a defendant when the case is appealed to a higher court. See *appellant*.

a posteriori knowledge knowledge acquired after experience (i.e., from sensory perception).

See a priori knowledge, empiricism, epistemology, and rationalism.

a priori knowledge knowledge acquired through means other than sense perception (before experience).

Mathematical truths are an example. See *a posteriori knowledge, empiricism, epistemology,* and *rationalism*.

Arbitron the best known commercial media research service that estimates the number of people listening to various radio stations in a market.

Radio stations pay Arbitron and other companies to provide such data, which is then used to set advertising rates. As a rule, the greater the number of listeners, the higher the advertising rates can be set. Research companies issue periodic reports assigning ratings points to time slots or programs. One rating point is equivalent to one percent of the listening audience.

area probability sample a type of *cluster sample* in which geographic areas, such as census blocks, are sampled at the first stage of analysis; and units within those areas, such as households, are enumerated and sampled at the second stage of analysis.

Areopagitica a document written in 1644 by Englishman *John Milton*, probably the most widely cited work in defense of a free press.

Its most famous phrase is: "[T]hough all the winds of doctrine were let loose to play upon the earth, so truth be in the field, we do injuriously by licensing and prohibiting to misdoubt her strength. Let her [truth] and falsehood grapple; who ever knew truth put to the worse, in a free and open encounter?"

In short, Milton argued that truth will win out when it confronts falsehood. In principle, this idea is widely accepted, but in practice, media scholars point out that social actors with power can often manipulate information and ideas.

See public relations and social control.

Armstrong, Edwin Howard (1890-1954) inventor of FM radio and other broadcasting technologies.

At the age of 14, Armstrong became fascinated with the technology of wireless radio and one of its inventors, *Guglielmo Marconi*. Armstrong built his own wireless apparatus and later attended Columbia University's School of Engineering. In his junior year, he invented regeneration. Basically, he took Lee De Forest's Audion tube and substantially improved its ability to send and receive radio signals.

After hearing about Armstrong's work, De Forest, who is sometimes called the "father of radio," quickly filed a number of patents on variants of the regeneration technique. With the help of AT&T, De Forest then filed a patent lawsuit against Armstrong. The battle lasted 14 years and went before the U.S. Supreme Court several times. Although there was little evidence to support De Forest's claims, AT&T lawyers were able to get a sympathetic ruling from a lower court judge, which effectively broke Armstrong's patent.

Armstrong also invented the superheterodyne, a technique for improving reception and tuning. Superheterodyne is still used in radios today. Westinghouse paid him hundreds of thousands of dollars for the rights. Armstrong also invented a super-regenerative receiver, and RCA paid him millions for that one.

By the late 1920s, Armstrong was a multi-millionaire and on the faculty at Columbia University, where he worked full time on his inventions. The loss of the patent to De Forest was humiliating, but

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Armstrong was determined to prove his worth. In the early 1930s, he invented the first workable FM radio system.

Researchers had tried FM radio in the 1920s, but they rejected it because the sound was worse than AM radio. Armstrong's wisdom was to vary the frequency of transmission, which eliminated interference and produced a much higher quality sound than AM radio. The sound was so good, in fact, that it was better than phonographs at that time.

He took his FM invention to RCA, but the company rejected it, because RCA had invested heavily in AM radio. So Armstrong sold the idea to smaller companies. In the late 1930s, RCA retaliated, asking the Federal Communications Commission to give away FM's frequency assignments (44 to 50 megahertz) to television, an emerging new technology. But the FCC saw through the ploy and gave the whole band to FM.

In response, RCA offered Armstrong a million dollars for his patents. Armstrong rejected the offer because RCA wouldn't give him royalties.

When World War II broke out, Armstrong allowed the military to use his patents without charge. FM radio was a tremendous aid to the Allied war effort.

Meanwhile, in 1945 RCA convinced the FCC to move the FM band to 88-108 megahertz, where it is today. (By the way, 44-50 megahertz would have been Channel 1 on television. That's why there is no Channel 1 today.) This effectively made Armstrong's system obsolete. FCC also voted to limit FM's broadcasting power and required them to send their programming over AT&T's expensive coaxial cables. This move effectively retarded the growth of FM radio.

In 1949, Armstrong brought a patent infringement lawsuit against RCA, which was now building FM receivers using his patents. RCA kept Armstrong on the witness stand for a year and even claimed that it had invented FM radio.

By 1953, Armstrong's patents had expired and he was near bankruptcy. His wife left him after an argument on Thanksgiving Day. About two months later, he jumped to his death.

His wife, Marion, eventually settled with RCA for \$1 million and then filed lawsuits against Sylvania, Motorola, and CBS. She won all the cases and collected millions.

The scientific community has never accepted the court decision that gave patent rights to De Forest. The International Telecommunications Union elected Armstrong to the pantheon of electrical greats, which includes Alexander Graham Bell and Marconi.

See radio and radio technology.

Sources: Don V. Erickson, Armstrong's Fight for FM Broadcasting: One Man vs. Big Business and Bureaucracy (Tuscaloosa, AL: University of Alabama Press, 1973) and Lawrence Lessing, Man of High Fidelity: Edwin Howard Armstrong, a Biography (Philadephia: Lippincott, 1956). **ARPANET** (Advanced Research Project Agency Network) a technology, introduced in 1969, that connected computers at government-supported research sites, mainly universities; the predecessor to the *Internet*.

Within a few years, ARPANET joined with networks developed by U.S. allies overseas and with networks at the Department of Energy, the National Aeronautical and Space Agency, and the National Science Foundation. In 1974, Vinton Cerf of Stanford University and Robert Kahn of the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (formerly ARPA), coined the term "Internet," short for "between networks."

See Internet.

art director (also called production designer) a person in the film-making industry who is responsible for designing the set, costumes, and background scenes for the film.

The art director also works directly with lighting and makeup personnel.

See motion picture.

aspect ratio the ratio of the width of a movie theater screen to its height. During the 1950s, movie attendance dropped partly due to

competition from television. In response, Hollywood studios began using cameras with a wider aspect ratio, meaning the width of the screen was proportionately much wider than the height. The rationale was that wider screens provided a more realistic image.

CinemaScope, SuperScope, WarnerScope, and Panavision were some of the names the studios gave to the process.

Associated Press (AP) a cooperative news service that supplies news stories, features, and other content to nearly 7,000 newspapers and broadcast media in the United States.

AP is the largest and most powerful news service in the world. See *news service*.

association (a) a group of *social actors* that organize to pursue a particular cause or interest; **(b)** the statistical condition that occurs when some *variable* depends in whole or in part on another variable.

With respect to the second definition, a *state of independence* exists when no association between variables is present. A perfect *relationship* or association exists when changes in one variable depend wholly upon changes in another.

Association of American Publishers (AAP) a nonprofit organization that represents the interests of major book publishers.

Its Web site <www.publishers.org> contains information about the book publishing industry, as well as information about jobs and links to other sites.

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Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC) a nonprofit education association representing 4,000 mass communication scholars, administrators, students, and mass media professionals.

The organization's Web site <www.aejmc.org> includes information about the organization, its goals, conferences, jobs, and research.

attitude a positive or negative feeling toward some object, person or issue.

attributes (a) categories of a *variable* (i.e., male and female are attributes for gender), **(b)** characteristics of a product, service or company, such as dependability, cost, quality and value (i.e., as used here, attribute is synonymous with a variable).

See variable.

audience people who are watching or listening to mass mediated content or who are the intended recipient of such messages.

This term is usually reserved for people who consume electronically transmitted content (e.g., from radio, television and/or the Internet). People who read mass mediated content from newspapers or magazines are usually called "readers."

audience flow see programming.

audio recording a disc, tape or other electronic device on which sound has been preserved.

Music is the most popular form of audio recording. But audio recordings are also made from comedy programs, dramas, and talk shows. In the United States and most Western countries, the recording industry produces audio recordings, especially musical recordings, for profit.

See audio recording technology.

audio recording technology the technology of converting audio sounds into a recording for later playback.

Early recording devices, such as Thomas A. Edison's phonograph, converted sound vibrations into grooves on a tinfoil cylinder or a disk. Electronic recordings were first produced during the 1920s.

During the 1940s, companies began manufacturing records from vinyl, a plastic resin made from petroleum. This resin was more durable and produced a better sound than shellac. Vinyl also enabled production of larger, long-playing (LP) records that could record the contents of an entire symphony on one side (up to 30 minutes). LPs ran at a speed of 33 revolutions per minute, which was much slower than 45s and 78s. In the late 1940s, the 45 rpm became the standard for singles and the 33 rpm for albums. The 78 eventually became extinct. Sound quality was also improved by the advent of multiple-track recording and stereo technology. Multiple-track recording involved recording instruments and voices through separate microphones and tracks. The tracks were then mixed to produced the final music.

Stereophonic sound was produced by sending the sounds of some instruments or vocals to one channel, or speaker, and the sounds of the others to the other channel or speaker. Taken together, the industry called these technical improvements high-fidelity (hi-fi) sound, which meant the recorded sound approached original.

Audit Bureau of Circulation a nonprofit organization that verifies circulation claims of magazines and other print publications.

In the 1930s, magazine publishers were exaggerating the circulations of their magazines in order to secure advertising contracts. Advertisers, advertising agencies, and publishers created an independent "watchdog," the Audit Bureau of Circulation, often referred to as ABC (not to be confused with the broadcast *television network*), to audit and verify circulation claims. Participation was and still is voluntary, and publishers pay a fee for services. Today about 900 of the 25,000 magazines in the United States are ABC participants. Most major magazines participate.

authoritarian theory see normative theory.

autonomy the capacity to act in an independent manner.

The concept of autonomy is employed in many studies of job satisfaction of media workers and is one of the best predictors of workplace satisfaction.

Sources: David Pearce Demers, "Autonomy, Satisfaction High Among Corporate News Staffs," *Newspaper Research Journal*, 16:2 (Spring 1995), pp. 91-111.

average the average is often thought of as the *mean*, but the *median* and *mode* are also averages.

Also see *central tendency*.

awareness see aided awareness and unaided awareness.

awareness, attitude and usage study (AAU) a type of *tracking study* that monitors changes in *awareness, attitude,* and *usage* toward a product, service or company.

Ayer, Francis Wayland see N. W. Ayer & Son.

В

Baird, John Logie (1888-1946) a Scottish inventor credited with building the first television.

In 1926, Baird and a number of large companies were competing to be the first to invent television. Baird didn't have a lot of resources. His assistants worked without pay, and some of his materials included hat boxes and a coffin lid. But Baird beat the competition.

In London on January 26, 1926, Baird became the first person to televise moving objects publicly. His technology was crude, but it worked. And the achievement brought him great recognition.

But being first did not guarantee success. In 1937, the British Broadcasting Corporation selected a system developed by Marconi Electric and Musical Industries. Baird went on to develop color and threedimensional television and worked on radar technology before and during World War II.

Source: Adrian R. Hills, "Eye of the World: John Logie Baird and Television (Part 1)," *Kinema* (Spring 1996), available online at

<www.arts.uwaterloo.ca/FINE/juhde/hills961.htm>.

bandwagon effect see spiral of silence.

bandwidth a range of frequencies (expressed in cycles per second) within a radiation band required to transmit a radio signal.

banner (or banner tabulation or banner tabs) a type of computer-generated *cross tabulation* data table in which the *values* for a number of *variables*, such as *demographics*, run horizontally across the top of the table and the values for a single variable (usually a dependent variable) are contained in the rows.

banner ad an advertisement on the Internet shaped like a box, often extending across the top of a page.

See Internet advertising.

Barnum, Phineas Taylor (1810-1891) 19th-century showman who employed advertising and public relations campaigns to promote his circus and museum.

"PT" Barnum, as he is popularly called, was a master of promotion and advertising during the mid- to late 1800s. He promoted his museum of oddities and his circus show through newspaper advertising, handbills, and posters. When that didn't work, he'd come up with a gimmick to draw attention.

Barnum is credited with introducing a number of important techniques in advertising, including (1) keeping a brand or business name before the public; (2) originating methods of drawing attention; (3) providing more value than a competitor; and (4) using every advantage to get news media coverage of an event.

Source: Irving Wallace, The Fabulous Showman: Life and Times of P. T. Barnum (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1959).

barriers to entry factors that impede the creation or founding of new mass media businesses, such as expensive equipment.

base in data analysis, the number of *cases* or *respondents* used in the denominator when calculating *percentages*, especially in a table.

BBC acronym for British Broadcasting Corporation.

behavior overt action of individuals.

Behavior may or may not be intentional and, unlike *attitudes*, can be observed.

See action.

behavioral intention a predisposition to perform a particular *behavior*. *Purchase intent* is one example of behavioral intention.

behavioral repertoire in *social cognitive theory*, the total number of learned responses available to a *social actor* in a given situation.

behaviorism a school of psychological thought based on the idea that human activity is best understood through observing behavior as opposed to studying the mind and consciousness.

behavior modification a method of changing behavior through the use of positive and negative reinforcement.

belief information a person has about other persons, objects or issues, whether accurate or inaccurate.

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Berle, Milton (1908-2002) the first television superstar.

On June 8, 1948, Berle first appeared as host of "The Texaco Star Theater," a comedy-variety program that aired on NBC Tuesday nights at 8 p.m.

Berle was already a star of stage, film, and radio. But because his comedy partially relied on visuals, radio was not his best medium. He had a toothy grin and wore wacky costumes. He was the first man to dress as a woman on television. People loved it. They called him "Mr. Television" and "Uncle Miltie."

The ratings for his television program were as high as 80 percent, which meant that four out of five households watching television were watching his show. Needless to say, NBC loved him, too. They gave him a contract in 1951 that paid him \$200,000 a year for life (later reduced to \$120,000 in exchange for allowing him to appear on other *television networks*).

Ironically, though, Berle's success on television didn't last long. "The Texaco Star Theater" was dropped in 1953. Berle hosted several other television programs, his last in the 1960s. After that he appeared as a guest performer in films and on many television programs, and also in night clubs.

Sources: J. Y. Smith, "Milton Berle, 'Mr. Television,' Dies at 93," The Washington Post (March 28, 2002), p. A1.

Bernays, Edward L. (1891-1995) an early public relations practitioner who competes with *Ivy Lee* for the title of "father of public relations" and was later pejoratively called the "father of spin."

Bernays was born in Vienna in 1891 and immigrated to New York with his parents before turning 1. His father was a prosperous grain exporter. Bernays was the double nephew of Sigmund Freud; his father was Freud's wife's brother and his mother was Freud's sister.

Bernays's father wanted his son to work in agronomy, and Bernays earned a degree in agriculture from Cornell University. But Bernays found work editing a medical manual and eventually helped promote a play by enlisting endorsements from civic leaders. He became a Broadway press agent and, in that role, learned how to get newspaper write-ups for his clients.

During World War I he worked for the Committee on Public Information, headed by *George Creel*, and became convinced that public relations techniques could be applied to corporations as well.

In 1922, Bernays married Doris E. Fleischman, who helped him run their public relations firm. They consulted for major corporations, the U.S. government, and many U.S. presidents. Fleischman, an early feminist, was very talented but always lived in the shadow of her husband's reputation.

Bernays and Fleischman launched some very successful *public relations campaigns*, including one for Ivory Soap. But the Lucky Strike campaign was the most notable PR campaign.

In the 1930s, women refused to buy the brand because it came in a forest-green pack, which didn't match their wardrobes. American Tobacco didn't want to change the color of the pack because it had already spent millions of dollars in advertising. The solution, Bernays said, was to promote green as a new fashion color.

Enlisting the assistance of a local charity, Bernays planned a "Green Ball." He got fashion designers to provide green gowns, invited an art historian and psychologist to expound on the significance of green, organized a "Color Fashion Bureau" that sent press releases to the news media extolling the virtues of green, convinced a clothing manufacturer to sponsor a luncheon promoting green to fashion editors, and initiated a letter-writing campaign (on green paper, of course) to interior designers, department stores, and others hailing green as the new, dominant color of fashion.

It worked. Sales of Lucky Strike cigarettes among women soared.

Bernays generated a large number of critics who pointed out that the public didn't usually know which events had been staged and which were "real." This led one historian, Daniel Boorstin, to call them "*pseudo events*." "By the time the P.R. men were done," wrote Neal Gabler of *The New York Times*, "it was often impossible to tell the real from the bogus, information from misinformation, and an actual event from a sponsored one. In short, Bernays helped erect a hall of mirrors that changed the nature of reality itself."

Several biographies argue that Bernays had a condescending attitude toward the public. Indeed, in his book "Propaganda," Bernays wrote that "the conscious and intelligent manipulation of the organized habits and opinions of the masses is an important element in democratic society. Those who manipulate this unseen mechanism of society constitute an invisible government which is the true ruling power of our country."

Yes, despite the controversy, Bernays continues to serve as a role model for some people in the field of public relations, because he was very skilled at influencing (or "manipulating") public opinion. He also became very wealthy from his work.

Fleischman died in 1980. Bernays wrote several other major books, including "Public Relations" and "The Engineering of Consent." He also taught at several universities and continued giving lectures up to 1995, when he died at the age of 103.

See Lee, Ivy, pseudo event, and public relations.

Sources: Edward L. Bernays, Crystallizing Public Opinion (New York: Liveright, 1923); Edward L. Bernays, Propaganda (New York: Liveright, 1928); Edward L. Bernays, Public Relations (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952); Edward L. Bernays, The Engineering of Consent (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1955); Stuart Ewen, PR! A Social History of Spin (New York: Basic Books, 1996), quoted material obtained from <www.bway.net/~drstu/chapter.html>; Neal Gabler, "The Lives They Lived: Edward L. Bernays and Henry C. Rogers; The Fathers of P.R.," The New York Times (December 31, 1995), quoted material obtained from

<http://partners.nytimes.com/books/98/08/16/specials/bernays-father.html>; and

Larry Tye, *The Father of Spin: Edward L. Bernays and the Birth of Public Relations* (New York: Henry Holt, 2001).

Berners-Lee, Tim (1955-) inventor of the World Wide Web.

Berners-Lee majored in physics at Queen's College at Oxford University, England, and graduated with top honors in 1976. In 1984, he accepted a fellowship at CERN, where he worked on systems for scientific data acquisition and system control.

In 1989, he proposed the World Wide Web, a software system that would allow *Internet* users to transfer and view information over the Internet easily. Before the creation of the Web, about 600,000 people, mostly scientists and government officials, used the Internet, which was not very user-friendly. But Berners-Lee's software was relatively easy to use and gave Internet users the power to create their own Internet sites and link to other sites. In fact, anyone with a computer and modem (a device for connecting a computer to a phone line) could easily enter *cyberspace*.

Berners-Lee made the software available to the public free of charge in summer 1991. For the next two years, he continued to refine the software. Within five years there were 40 million users. Today, about 600 million people around the world are connected to the Internet, primarily through the Web.

Berners-Lee could have gotten rich off his invention. In fact, several major computer companies offered him millions of dollars for exclusive right to develop and sell the software.

But he turned them down. He didn't want any company controlling the software that could link the world into one global system. He wanted it to be free. So in 1994 he founded the nonprofit World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The Consortium governs and improves Web technology. Berners-Lee is the director.

"I have profited so much from seeing the system take off and become so remarkable because I chose not to commercialize it," he told the "San Francisco Chronicle." "If I had tried to commercialize it, it would have prompted people to make separate and incompatible versions of it and it wouldn't have become this marvelous global system."

In July 2004, Queen Elizabeth II Knighted Berners-Lee. He also has won numerous awards and received several honorary doctorate degrees from institutions around the world. These awards include the Finnish Millenium Technology Prize, which included a \$1.2 million award. This award pleased many people, who believe Berners-Lee deserves some financial compensation for his work.

Sources: Laura Evenson, "From the Creator of a Universe; Web Inventor's Book Shares His Goal," *San Francisco Chronicle* (October 21, 1999), p. B1.

Bernstein, Carl see Woodward and Bernstein.

Betamax see video cassette recorder.

B-film a low-budget *motion picture*. See *block booking*.

bias of communication the notion that newer forms of communication technology contribute toward centralization of political power.

The idea was advanced by Harold Innis, a neo-Marxist Canadian economist.

Source: Harold Adams Innis, *The Bias of Communication* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1951).

Bill of Rights the first 10 amendments to the U.S. Constitution. See *First Amendment*.

binomial a variable with two values; often used synonymously with *dichotomy*.

bipolar scale a scale with opposing end points, such as good/bad, small/large, important/not important, moist/dry.

bivariate analysis research analysis that involves two variables. Correlation coefficients are often used in bivariate analysis. See *univariate* and *multivariate analysis*.

Blair, Jayson (1976-) a former "New York Times" reporter who fabricated news stories that embarrassed the "Times" and discredited the profession.

In the late 1990s, Blair was a rising star in University of Maryland's journalism program. He left the university in May 1999 when the "Times" offered him a second internship. In 2001, at the age of 24, the "Times" hired him full-time. A year later the newspaper promoted him to the national desk.

But in 2003, the newspaper fired him after it learned he had plagiarized and fabricated information for at least 36 stories written during his two years at the "Times." One story included a front-page exclusive about the Washington-area sniper shootings. The story reported that the U.S. attorney forced investigators to terminate their interrogation of suspect John Muhammad just before he was ready to confess. The claim was attributed to five unnamed law enforcement officials. But the story was fabricated.

The "Times" conducted an extensive investigation of Blair, concluding he had committed "frequent acts of journalistic fraud." The newspaper, which was severely criticized for the incident, published a front-page apology to readers and corrected most of the errors. The paper's top two editors resigned.

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In 2004, Blair wrote a book about his fall from grace, placing part of the blame on heavy substance abuse and on a bipolar disorder (manicdepressive mental illness). He also blamed the high-pressure newsroom.

Blair received a \$150,000 advance from the publisher for writing a book entitled, "Burning Down My Master's House: My Life at The New York Times."

See ethics and Cooke, Janet.

Sources: David Folkenflik, "The Making of Jayson Blair," *Baltimore Sun* (February 29, 2004); Jack Shafer, "The Jayson Blair Project: How Did He Bamboozle *The New York Times*?" *Slate* (May 8, 2003), <www.slate.com>; Rose Arce, "Jayson Blair Sells Tell-All Book," CNN.com (September 10, 2003); Marcia Purse, "Jayson Blair has Bipolar Disorder," Bipolar.com (2004); "*New York Times*: Reporter Routinely Faked Articles," CNN.com (May 11, 2003).

block booking a practice that, prior to the 1950s, forced independent theaters to show lower quality films, or *B-films*, before having the privilege of showing A-films (expensive productions with top stars).

The U.S. government ended this practice in the late 1940s and also forced the studios to sell their theater chains and monopolistic controls over film distribution.

See vertical integration.

block printing a method of printing that involved carving images on wood and dipping the image into ink and pressing it onto paper or some other surface.

The Chinese invented and refined the process of block printing during the 6th century A.D. Block printing greatly facilitated the distribution of Confucian texts, which extolled the values of devotion to parents, family and friends, ancestor worship, justice and peace. By the year A.D. 1000, the Chinese were publishing weekly reports called "Tching-pao." Crude forms of newspapers made from wood blocks also began to appear in Europe about the same time.

Bly, Nellie (1865-1922) a newspaper reporter who gained international fame for traveling around the world in 72 days.

Born Elizabeth Cochrane, Nellie Bly landed her first job as a reporter after writing a letter to the editor that criticized the "Pittsburgh Dispatch" for failing to support women's right. The editor hired her in 1888 and she chose Nellie Bly as her pen name.

She wrote about tragic living conditions and political corruption in Mexico, went undercover to expose abuse in a mental institution, and was the first woman to cover the Eastern Front during World War I.

But she became most famous after taking up a challenge to beat the Jules Verne character Phineas Fogg's fictional record of circumnavigating the globe in 80 days. She did it in 72 days and sent back stories of her exploits from around the world.

book sheets of paper, parchment, or other materials with writing or printing on them, fastened together along one edge, usually between protective covers.

As simple as that definition may seem, it fails to resolve other questions, such as: How many pages must a book have? What constitutes a cover? And what about the so-called "electronic books?"

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) defines a book as having 49 pages or more, but this number is arbitrary. Many children's "books" have fewer than 49 pages.

Other people try to distinguish books from other forms of media by declaring that books are only published infrequently, unlike newspapers and magazines, which usually appear at least once a month or more often. But even this doesn't always work, because some books, like reference manuals, can be published as frequently as magazines.

And how protective does the cover have to be? Some books have soft covers, others have hard or cloth covers, and some have no covers at all.

Some scholars argue that the single most distinctive character of a book is not the length, the cover, or frequency of publication, but the fact that books often provide more in-depth analysis of a specific idea or set of ideas than other forms of mass media. A book, in other words, is expected to treat a subject in-depth, or at least in more depth than other forms of media.

That's one of the reasons books often have had a greater capacity than other forms of media to change people and societies. They can better explore the boundaries of issues and problems. The Bible, Rachel Carson's "Silent Spring," and Karl Marx' "Capital" have all been cited as examples of books that have mobilized people and changed the world.

See Carson, Rachel Louise, and Marx, Karl.

book club an organization that encourages people to buy or read books.

There are two major types of book clubs. The first is a type of business created specifically by publishers or wholesalers for the purpose of selling books directly to consumers. Book-of-the-Month Club and Literary Guild are examples. They offer titles in specialized topics (mystery, classics, history, etc.), usually at a discount, depending on how many books a consumer purchases.

The second type of book club is best defined as a social activity, wherein a person or group of people get together and select books to read. *Oprah Winfrey*'s Book Club is an example. This type of book club doesn't sell books; it merely recommends titles to readers, who go elsewhere to purchase them.

book prospectus a short document that summarizes a proposed book project to potential publishers or literary agents.

The prospectus normally includes background information about the author, the proposed title for the book, an abstract of the book, a brief

statement about the market potential for the book, a tentative deadline, and an outline of the book's contents. Some authors also will send a sample chapter or two.

bookseller a person or organization, such as a book store, that sells books.

In the 18th century, book publishers generally marketed and sold their own books. Many owned bookshops or hired salespeople, who traveled the countryside. Book publishers frequently placed ads in newspapers.

In the 19th century, book publishers increasingly began to specialize in publishing, leaving the book marketing and selling to independent booksellers. The publisher would sell the books to the book store owner at a discount, who would then mark the price of the books up to make a profit.

See Carey, Mathew.

boomerang response a media effect that is opposite of what was intended.

Bourke-White, Margaret (1904-1971) a photojournalist who gained a reputation for never letting manners get in the way of a good photo story.

For example, when Mahatma Gandhi was assassinated in 1948, she rushed to his Indian home, where family and friends warmly welcomed her, but asked her to take no pictures. She smuggled a camera in anyway, and took a shot before being thrown out. She even tried to get back in.

Bourke-White has been described as arrogant, demanding, and manipulative. But media critics point out that timidity and good photojournalism rarely mix well. The best photojournalists are tenacious, and Bourke-White is the quintessential example.

Bourke-White was one of the first female photojournalists in the United States, the first person in the United States to publish a photo story, and the first woman photographer attached to the U.S. armed forces during World War II. She didn't shy away from danger. She covered the infantry in the Italian campaign, and then covered the siege of Moscow. Her pictures of emaciated inmates in concentration camps and corpses in gas chambers stunned the world. Later, she covered the Korean War.

Bourke-White published six books in her lifetime. She came down contracted Parkinson's disease in 1952 and died in 1971.

Source: Elsa Dorfman, "A Review of Margaret Bourke-White: A Biography, by Vici Goldberg," *The Women's Review of Books* (March 1997).

B-picture see *B-rated film*.

Bradford, William (1663-1752) a printer who gained notoriety in the American colonies for publishing a copy of the colony's charter without first obtaining permission from local authorities.

Bradford, who had operated a printing press in Pennsylvania since 1685, published the colony's charter in 1689. He was ordered not to do any more printing without a license.

He then helped set up a paper mill. Bradford got into trouble again in 1692 and the authorities seized his press, but he was not punished. Eventually, though, Bradford was appointed to the position of Royal Printer to New York, a post he held for nearly a half century.

See Franklin, Benjamin; Franklin, James; Harris, Benjamin; and prior restraint.

Brady, Mathew B. (1822-1896) a 19th-century photographer best known for his pictures of the American Civil War.

Brady learned to take *daguerreotypes* in the 1840s. He opened studios and began taking portraits of presidents, politicians and famous people, including Daniel Webster, Edgar Allan Poe, and James Fenimore Cooper.

When the Civil War broke out, Brady decided to make a complete record of that conflict. He hired two dozen photographers and stationed them throughout the war zones. He invested \$100,000 in the project, but after the war the government showed no interest in his project. He went bankrupt.

The War Department eventually purchased his pictures at auction for \$2,840. The government paid him \$25,000, but Brady never recovered and died an alcoholic in a hospital charity ward.

Source: Roy Meredith, *Mathew Brady's Portrait of an Era* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1982).

brainwashing the act of changing a person's attitude, belief and/or value system through the use of psychological or physically coercive methods, such as through the use of *propaganda*.

brand a name and/or symbol used to identify a product or service.

brand awareness the percentage of *respondents* aware of a product, service or company after being prompted with questions or materials.

Measures of brand awareness are used frequently in *advertising tracking* studies.

See advertising awareness.

branding the process of assigning a name and/or symbol to identify a product or service.

More specifically, there are several ways to brand a product for sale: 1. <u>Create your own brand.</u> This involves using a company name or

creating a separate brand name for the product line(s) or specific product.

2. <u>Private Label.</u> This involves packaging a product as a "store brand" or for another product company that can market the product as their own. Many food service products are privately labeled.

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3. <u>Control Brand</u>. This involves packaging a product for exclusive distribution in a given geographical area or for specific markets. Typically, arrangements are made with one distributor for a given "control brand."

4. <u>Co-Branding.</u> This can be various combinations of the above options.

brand loyalty the degree to which consumers prefer one brand name product over another.

breach of confidentiality an area of media law which holds that a confidential source can sue a news organization if the news agency violates a confidentiality agreement.

This principle was articulated in Cohen v. Cowles Media (1991). Dan Cohen was a public relations consultant working for a candidate in the Minnesota governor's race. Cohen obtained copies of documents which showed that the opponent's running mate had admitted to shoplifting 12 years earlier. Reporters at local daily newspapers agreed to keep Cohen's name confidential. However, editors of the two newspapers overruled the reporters and stories identified Cohen as the source.

Cohen sued for breach of contract. The high court ruled that newspapers have no special immunity from general laws. Cohen was eventually awarded \$200,000 in damages. Many journalists sided with Cohen in this case, because they believed the editors' decision to violate the confidentiality agreement was unethical.

Source: Cohen v. Cowles Media, 501 U.S. 663 (1991).

breaking news a journalist term referring to news that is unfolding in the present moment.

Also called spot news.

Brinkley, David (1920-2003) co-anchor for the "NBC Evening News" with Chet Huntley from 1956-1970.

British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) a British broadcasting company that is chartered and funded by the government and operates as an independent company accountable to the people of Great Britain.

British cultural studies see cultural studies.

B-rated film a low-budget movie.

broadband a technology that allows high-speed transmission of multiple channels of digital data (voice, video, and text) over a single communications medium, often used to access the Internet.

The term broadband usually refers to high-speed service provided via a coaxial television cable. Wireless broadband technologies are now

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becoming available, and may eventually surpass cable because there are no cables to string and maintain.

See digital subscriber line.

Broadcast Data Systems a weekly service that tracks 300 radio stations.

broadside (or broadsheet) a larger version of a *flysheet* that appeared after Gutenberg's movable-type printing press around 1450.

In England, broadsides were often published prior to public executions and were sold to spectators.

Most daily newspapers today are broadsheet, which is about 14 by 22 inches. Some newspapers are tabloid-sized, which is half the size of a broadsheet, or about 11 by 14 inches.

See flysheet and Gutenberg, Johannes.

Brown, Charles Brocken (1771-1810) early novelist and magazine publisher.

Brown has been called the "Stephen King of the late 18th and early 19th centuries." His first novel, "Wieland" (1798), is the story of Theodore Wieland, a religious enthusiast seeking direct communication with divinity. Wieland's father violates a vow to God and dies by spontaneous combustion. Wieland mistakenly assumes a ventriloquist's utterances are supernatural. Wieland goes insane and, acting upon the prompting of an "inner voice," murders his wife and children. When he learns about his deeds, he kills himself.

Brown called himself a "story-telling moralist." Many literary scholars today call him the founder of the American novel. In the magazine field, he is known as the first publisher to clearly articulate a philosophy for the field. In 1803, he founded "Literary Magazine" and "American Register."

The purpose of a magazine, he said, was to enlighten and amuse. In fact, in the first issue of "Literary Magazine and American Register," he said he had called upon his literary friends to contribute articles that "warm and enlighten." He added that many magazines fail financially because of lack of commitment to a set of principles, but the "public is always eager to encourage one who devotes himself to their rational amusement." He also noted that magazines, because they publish less frequently than daily newspapers, have more time to reflect and comment on the news.

Unfortunately, his own magazine only lasted four years. But his philosophy helped justify the role and function of magazines in society—a perspective that survives even today.

Source: James Playsted Wood, *Magazines in the United States: Their Social and Economic Influence* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1949), p. 37.

Brown, Helen Gurley (1922-) magazine editor who turned "Cosmopolitan" into a the leading magazine for young, professional women. In 1965, Brown took over the editorship of "Cosmopolitan" magazine, a literary publication that was rapidly losing readers. The author of the best-selling book "Sex and the Single Girl," Brown turned "Cosmopolitan" into a magazine for young, career-minded women. Circulation climbed, and today "Cosmopolitan" has a circulation of about 3 million.

browser software that enables a computer user to link to the Internet and the *World Wide Web* and see or hear the images and text.

Netscape Navigator and Microsoft Internet Explorer are two examples of browser software.

bulletin board see newsgroup.

bureaucracy see corporate media.

business manager the person in a media organization who is responsible for the financial affairs of the company.

Accountants and bookkeepers report to this person and keep an eye on the bottom line.

buying intent see purchase intent.

С

Cable News Network (CNN) a cable television news network founded by Ted Turner, headquartered in Atlanta, and now owned by Time Warner, Inc.

See Turner, Ted.

cable television see Community Antenna Television and television.

callback another attempt to interview a potential *respondent* over the telephone, usually made because that person was not available on a previous attempt.

camcorder a television camera and videotape recorder combined into a portable unit.

camera a device for capturing and reproducing still or moving pictures. The first camera was offered for sale in 1839 in London. In 1888,

George Eastman produced the first camera that used roll-film. See *daguerreotype* and *cinematographer*.

cameras in the courtroom a judicial rule or law that allows journalists to photograph and/or broadcast video from a *court of law*.

Before 1935, cameras and newsreels were widely permitted in trial courts in the United States. That changed after the trial of Bruno Richard Hauptmann, who was executed for kidnapping and murdering Charles Lindbergh's child. The coverage of the Hauptmann trial was likened to a "Roman holiday." In response, almost every state enacted laws or rules that banned in-court photography.

But in the mid-1970s, cameras began making a comeback in the courtroom. Proponents argue that the cameras promote openness and greater understanding of courts and, if properly controlled, do not interfere with the conduct of a trial. Today, 48 states (all but Mississippi and South Dakota) and the federal courts allow cameras in the courtroom under some conditions. The U.S. Supreme Court still maintains a ban on cameras, but the court has released audio recordings of its hearings.

Source: John Caher, "Decision Expected Shortly in Latest Challenge Over Ban on Cameras in Courts," *New York Law Journal* (May 14, 2001), p. 1.

campaign an organized effort to promote a candidate, idea, product, company or service, often used by politicians and advertising and public relations practitioners.

Campbell, John (1653-1728) publisher of the first continuously circulated machine-printed newspaper in the American colonies.

Although *Benjamin Harris* published the first machine-printed newspaper in the colonies in 1690, the authorities shut it down after one issue. Fourteen years later, on April 24, 1704, Campbell published the "Boston News-Letter." Campbell was a local postmaster who previously had been issuing handwritten newsletters to colonial authorities. Unlike Harris, Campbell made a special effort to please authorities, which helped the weekly survive for nearly two decades.

See Harris, Benjamin.

Cambridge Press the first print shop in the American colonies, established in 1630 in Cambridge, Mass.

From 1630 to 1670, Cambridge Press published 157 books and pamphlets. Of those, 63 were religious, four were poetry, eight were historical or biographical, and the rest were schoolbooks, official publications, Harvard (College) theses, and almanacs.

The first document printed was the "Freeman's Oath," to which every householder in the colonies had to subscribe before becoming a citizen of the colony. The oath, of course, was a mechanism of *social control*—a way of ensuring obedience to the Crown. The first book, entitled the "Bay Psalm Book," was published in 1640.

Cambridge Press was the only print shop in the colonies for 37 years. It closed in 1692, after which printing presses were set up in Boston, Philadelphia, and New York.

Sources: John Tebbel, A History of Book Publishing in the United States: Volume I, The Creation of an Industry, 1630-1865 (New York: R. R. Bowker, 1972).

Carey, Mathew (1760-1839) an author and publisher who established the first successful general publishing house in the United States.

Carey fled Ireland in 1784 for the American colonies to avoid being imprisoned for publishing a newspaper whose purpose was, in his own words, "to defend the commerce, the manufacturers and the political rights of Ireland against the oppression and encroachment of Great Britain."

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With a \$400 loan from the famous Frenchman Lafayette, who'd helped the colonists win the Revolutionary War, Mathew established the "Pennsylvania Herald." The paper aligned itself with colonists who supported a strong central or federal government (Constitutionalists). The paper was very successful, but he sold it in 1788.

A year later he published his first book—the Douay (Catholic) Bible. The book was very successful. He published Protestant bibles, nature books, science books, literature, fiction, autobiographies, and children's books. He earned \$300,000 in nine years, an amount that in today's dollars would be worth tens of millions.

Carey was also a book seller, establishing a statewide network of *booksellers*. He drew up a constitution for the American Company of Booksellers, the first professional book association. He also wrote several books himself, including "The Olive Branch."

Carey also gets credit for being one of the first publishers to create within his organization a *division of labor*—that is, specialized roles for employees. He had so much business that some employees only set type, while others set up and ran the printing presses or spent their time proofreading. The proofreader role became a recognized trade after the turn of the century.

Source: J. E. Hagerty, "Mathew Carey," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia, Vol. III* (New York: Robert Appleton Co., 1908; Online Edition, 1999, Kevin Knight).

carrier a person who delivers newspapers to homes and businesses.

Carson, Rachel Louise (1907-1964) an author whose book "Silent Spring" helped mobilize the environmental movement in the United States.

In 1957, a biologist sent Carson a copy of a letter to the editor which documented how the pesticide DDT had killed birds near her home. At the time, the public knew little about the dangers of DDT and other pesticides. Although many biologists and environmental scientists were aware of the dangers, the mainstream mass media had ignored many pleas to look into the problem.

Carson, who had worked for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, contacted "The New Yorker" magazine, which suggested that she write the article herself. Carson ended up writing a book in 1962 and called it "Silent Spring"—a title originally intended for the book's chapter on birds.

Carson's argument was that indiscriminate use of pesticides and other chemicals could destroy life on earth. Chemicals were getting into the food chain and threatening all forms of biological life. She also criticized the government for spraying without first informing citizens, so they could take precautions, and for not conducting more research into the impact of chemicals on wildlife and ecosystems.

The U.S. chemical industry tried to discredit Carson, but the negative publicity backfired and created even more interest in her book. President John F. Kennedy asked the Science Advisory Committee to examine the effects of pesticides, and the Committee issued a formal report that backed up most of Carson's claims.

By the end of 1962, more than 40 bills had been introduced in various states to regulate the use of pesticides. In 1970, the U.S. government created the Environmental Protection Agency. In 1973, DDT was banned in the United States. And most importantly, "Silent Spring" helped mobilize environmental groups and movements around the world.

Unfortunately, Carson did not live long enough to see most of these social changes. She died of cancer in 1964.

See book, social control and social change.

Sources: Rachel Carson, Silent Spring (Greenwich, CN: Fawcett Publications, 1962).

cartoon a drawing or series of drawings or a short, animated moving picture that is usually intended to be humorous.

See animated film and comics.

cases the unit of analysis in a survey.

Usually, the cases are people (i.e., *respondents*). But cases may be a market (e.g., county or city) or an organization.

casting director the person who selects and hires the actors and helps negotiate contracts.

The *director* and *producer* are usually involved in selecting stars for lead roles.

Cataloging-in-Publication (CIP) data information created by the Library of Congress for the purpose of classifying books for storage in libraries and for retrieval through the Library of Congress subject headings cataloging system.

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