THE EAST-WEST CENTER is a national educational institution established in Hawaii by the United States Congress in 1960. Its purpose is to promote better relations and understanding between the United States and the nations of Asia and the Pacific area through cooperative study, training, and research. Since 1975, the Center has been administered by a public, non-profit educational corporation, officially known as the “Center for Cultural and Technical Interchange Between East and West, Inc.” An international Board of Governors consisting of distinguished scholars, business leaders, and public servants guides Center policies.

Each year more than 1,500 men and women from more than 60 nations and dependencies in the region participate in Center programs that seek cooperative solutions to problems of mutual consequence to East and West. Working in research and development projects with the Center's multidisciplinary and multicultural staff, participants include visiting scholars and researchers; leaders, policymakers, and other professionals; and graduate degree students, most of whom are also enrolled at the University of Hawaii. For each Center participant from the United States, two participants are sought from the Asian-Pacific area.

Center programs are conducted by five institutes addressing problems of communication, culture learning, food, population, and technology and development. A limited number of open grants are awarded each year for degree education and innovative research in areas not encompassed by institute programs.

The U.S. Congress provides basic funding for Center programs and a variety of awards to participants. Because of the cooperative nature of Center programs, financial support and cost-sharing are also sought from Asian and Pacific governments, public and private sectors, and individuals. The Center campus is on land adjacent to and provided by the University of Hawaii.

THE EAST-WEST COMMUNICATION INSTITUTE concentrates on the role of communication in economic and social development and in the sharing of knowledge across cultural barriers. The Institute awards scholarships for graduate study in communication and related disciplines, primarily at the University of Hawaii; conducts a variety of professional development projects for communication workers in specialized fields of economic and social development; invites Fellows and visiting scholars to the Center for study and research in communication and to help design projects; offers Jefferson Fellowships for Asian, Pacific, and U.S. journalists for a semester at the Center and the University of Hawaii; conducts and assists in designing and carrying out research; arranges conferences and seminars relating to significant topics in communication; assembles relevant communication materials with emphasis on Asian and Pacific material and makes these available for students, scholars, and practitioners at the Center and elsewhere; and publishes papers, reports, newsletters, and other materials emanating from the above activities.
INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION POLICY AND FLOW

A Working Bibliography

Edited by
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East-West Communication Institute
East-West Center
Honolulu, Hawaii
ABSTRACT

Originally prepared for the Fair Communication Policy Conference held in the spring of 1976 at the East-West Center, this working bibliography contains 223 entries covering international communication policy questions and the flow of information among nations. Entries are indexed by author and subject.
INTRODUCTION

This is a selective bibliography in the field of international communication policy and flow. It was developed for the participants at the Fair Communication Policy Conference, March 29-April 2, 1976, at the Communication Institute of the East-West Center. Papers from the conference will be published soon after this bibliography, and the two publications are considered companion pieces.

The conference itself focused on the impact of international communication and particularly the perceived detrimental effects in developing countries, the control of communication in both a positive and negative sense, the development of national communication systems to meet the challenges of international communication, and the various methodologies being used to seek the answers to questions raised by such issues as one-way flow, direct satellite broadcasting, cultural imperialism, dominance, and so forth. As the papers from the conference show, there is little hard data upon which to make judgments.

There is much that could be said about the bibliography and the issues raised at the conference. But we think the bibliography, with its substantial annotations, will soon tell the readers what they want to know. We tried to focus on the critical issues in international communication that have arisen in the past six years or so because that seemed to be a time of great change, with global communication (and its attendant concerns) becoming a reality.

The bibliography is selective, as noted, and therefore is not comprehensive. In many cases, when there were many articles on the same topic, we selected only a few representative articles.

"Imbalance" in the flow of international communication is one of the central issues in the field, and we are afraid we have our own imbalance in this bibliography. Although efforts were made to include materials from throughout the world during the preparation of this work, the result is still too heavy a reliance on North American and European sources. This is partly due to using English-language materials, and partly because of limited access in Hawaii to many publications from around the world. For example, there are dozens of peace research institutes, yet we had access to only a few of their journals. And there is a great deal of important work in Spanish being generated in Latin America. Socialist sources are probably also underrepresented.

This is where we ask the readers help. This is an ongoing bibliographic project, and we seek suggestions and citations on relevant articles. Please send any comments or materials to us at the Communication Institute. International communication policy and flow are global questions, and thinking and research from around the world should be represented in the bibliography.

The bibliography itself changed as we developed more materials, and because of the conference discussions. We started out focusing on international communication Policy questions, but soon the Flow of communication became increasingly important. The final product, as represented here, catches only the beginning of the flow influence. The next edition of the bibliography probably will contain more comprehensive citations on Flow studies and experience. We found that the major Policy issues can only be discussed meaningfully after there is a clear picture of what is happening—what the Flow is actually like, how it is changing, and what influences it. Hence, the input of Flow materials is essential.

The Communication Institute is also beginning a two-year Flow of News and Information research project, and will generate some materials of its own in this area.

Several recent books and articles of great importance to the study of international communication policy and flow have appeared since the basic work on this bibliography was completed, and hence are not included. These include such works as Herbert Schiller's Communication and Cultural Domination (White Plains, N.Y.: International Arts and Sciences Press, 1976), and the study by Tapio Varis and Renny Jokelin on Television News in Europe, a survey of the news film flow in Europe (Tampere: University of Tampere, 1976). Another significant publication is "Report on Means of Enabling Active Participation in the Communication Process and Analysis of the Right to Communicate," Paris: UNESCO, 19 C/93, August 16, 1976. These later publications and others testify to the importance and vitality of the study of international communication policy and flow.
There will undoubtedly be many suggestions on how to improve the bibliography, and we welcome them. There are two anticipated questions which we can deal with now.

First, one of the major annoyances of a bibliography is that the materials are not easy to find. Obviously, books and major journals are no problem, but the conference papers, obscure or discontinued journals, seminar papers, etc. are almost impossible to locate. We have tried to guide readers to the materials, but where we were unsuccessful, please write to me. We have most of the materials in the bibliography, or can pinpoint a convenient source.

Second, it will be obvious that there are many references to a Right to Communicate publication, but no publication is cited. I have been involved for several years in Right to Communicate work, and, along with Professor L.S. Harms of the University of Hawaii, have gathered and edited some thirty essays on the Right to Communicate. They will be published in early 1977 by the Communication Institute.

This has been a year-long project, and will be continued. Many, many people have helped, with suggestions, citations, indexing, annotations, etc. Of particular help has been Monica MacLeod, who was working on a related Institute bibliography, and shared with us what she found. Greg Farstrup prepared the index, which gives in itself a range of concerns in the field. Judy Gonzales did important final copyreading. Sumiye Konoshima, director of the Resource Materials Collection at the Institute, provided continuing guidance on a wide range of matters.

This is meant to be a working bibliography—to be used, and to be improved.
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This paper reports a study concerning the structural relationship existing between the nations of the Center (generally Europe, North America, Japan, Australia and New Zealand) and the nations of the periphery, in order to determine what and how the peripheral nations communicate in matters of international development. The author used Johan Galtung's structural model of social forms in order to test whether the international system could be said to have developed between 1960 and 1970 in regards to interaction-dependence between nations of the periphery and the Center, and interactions between periphery nations with decreased dependence upon the Center. The author's conclusions are basically that the patterns in both 1960 and 1970 were still feudal, although less severe in 1970, and that the periphery nations have contributed generally toward higher international diplomatic entropy but did not demonstrably move toward class-confrontation type of interaction pattern. The author's research design is included, with his three operationally defined interaction indicators (structure of diplomatic representation, partner concentration index, and commodity concentration index), and method to develop feudal dependence, or feudal disregard or class solidarity, along with tables of data for the Asian, African, and South America and Caribbean periphery, for each of the three indexes. These indexes are compared for the two periods of time studied (1960 and 1970). Bibliography.

Alfian gives an example of behavior (kissing) shown on TV in Indonesia now that would not have been allowed several years ago to illustrate the ambivalence toward change that exists in developing countries. He says, "On the one hand there is a serious desire for progress, while on the other exists a latent fear about its undesired results. This cautious attitude appears to have persuaded some developing countries to be more critical about the nature and quality of change or progress occurring in their societies. In this respect, it is healthy. Therefore, it is understandable if they have shown serious concerns and reservations about concepts like the "free flow of information."

Among all media, radio broadcasting seems to have following most closely the concept of free flow of information. Many persons in developing countries have radios that can receive foreign broadcasts. Statistics are provided showing foreign radio-station listening in a sample from four Indonesian cities.

Television is still an urban activity with television stations in only a few cities at present. About 66 per cent of the licensed TV receivers are in Jakarta. Statistics illustrate that television is a luxury item. Imported programs accounted for 34 per cent of the total television time in a 1972 study, with the majority of programming being entertainment. Another survey showed that in 1974, seven of the ten most popular TV shows were from the U.S.A. and these were all entertainment shows.

At present, there is only one TV channel which is controlled by the government. Advertising is sold by the government and has accounted for 9 per cent of the viewing time in 1973/74 in Jakarta. Since it is very expensive, only very large firms can buy this time. In another study, foreign products completely dominated in the respondent's recall of items seen in TV advertisements in the several days before the survey. The author stresses the necessity of developing nations to find out the negative influences of foreign or urban advertising and media messages on their rural populations, especially since satellite broadcasting is being developed rapidly and, in Indonesia's case, goes into operation later in 1976.
This article reviews the major ways that Unesco has tried to reduce man-made barriers to the free flow of international communication. The two major barriers are economic and political. Economic barriers are those that result from the levying of customs charges and internal taxes on the importation of informational materials; lack of "hard currency" in a large number of countries for the purchases of such materials from abroad; high telecommunications charges; high postal rates; and double taxation of correspondents' salaries. Political barriers refer to governmental censorship of the inflow and outflow of communication; discriminatory measures applied to foreign communication agencies for the use of telecommunications services controlled by governments; restrictions on entry, travel, and residence of correspondents; intimidation, expulsion, and refusals to grant re-entry visas to correspondents. The article reviews widespread views on the state's rights position--ideological differences, promotion of the nation's own economic interests, preservation of national cultural identities. The two major Unesco Agreements on the importation of communication materials were signed by few nations due to possible revenue loss and political ideological reasons. Only 23 countries signed the Beirut Agreement (exempting imported materials such as films, filmstrips and sound recordings from internal taxes and customs charges), and 57 countries signed the Florence Agreement (exempting materials such as books, magazines and periodicals). The problem of "cultural imperialism" is compounded because developing nations want to fend off "bad" influences from foreign cultures, but at the same time need the advantages that the more advanced nations can offer to speed up development.

The distribution of population in linguistic groups has been a major determinant of mass media patterns in Sri Lanka. Statistics show the linguistic groups in the country, the number of films and total viewing-time for films in each language, and percentages of locally-produced, Indian-produced, or produced elsewhere films.

Language alone does not determine which films will be popular. Author reviews development of the State Film Corporation, started in 1972, which is now producing films in Sinhalese language, in part to help Sri Lanka's Sinhalese-speaking population be able to view films made locally rather than in India. A great problem is that theaters can rent films cheaper from the Indian film industry than they can be made in Sri Lanka. Films from other nations frequently do not stress the same values the government of Sri Lanka wish to develop in their society.

Changing world conditions, including the development of new technology, make it necessary to re-examine the unique role the mass media play in receiving and imparting communication and to work toward development of a comprehensive, multicultural "right to communicate." By examining how the mass media performs and evaluates itself, the U.N. and other interested parties can see if their guiding principles have relevance for mass recipient's rights. The writer reviews some of the common journalism codes, both national and international. These codes include the concept that mass communicators have both a public and a professional responsibility to contribute to man's right to a free flow of information and ideas. Especially in western societies or Third World nations with colonial backgrounds, the codes all seem to say that freedom of information and of the press is a fundamental human right; that journalists basically are responsible citizens and can regulate their own affairs by imposing certain obligations and restrictions on their peers, etc. But codes are idealistic--they deal with what journalists should do rather than what they can do given the country's political realities. Most codes, then, assist in consensus-building among journalists. There are about five common points in the codes: freedom of the press is not an absolute, there is a general theory of press freedom with responsibility; emphasis on the public service function of the journalist; the most important principle of journalism is accuracy; listings of some specific prohibitions which are not ethical conduct; and the importance of discretion and of professional secrecy regarding sources of information. Many codes also have other principles listed in the article which are not universal but common.
Nineteen Asian Broadcasting Union members participated in this workshop and this report is a list of 25 recommendations concerning participation in international news exchanges among members in the ABU region and exchanges with other broadcasting unions. These recommendations indicate broadcasting as a field should be more socially responsible than that of the press because, especially in the ABU region, high illiteracy rates and limited communication facilities require that the broadcasters put more emphasis in the news on positive developments and to complement reporting of negative events by drawing attention to actions designed to eliminate or alleviate their effects. News and newsfilm exchange along these lines is encouraged.

Part II: Strategies for Advancing the Free Flow and Right to Receive Information. Laskin reviews the legal strategies for advancing information flow. Marks suggests that a moratorium period be allowed before any international decision on control be taken, so that further research on the problems that might come up be continued. He lists some of the necessary studies before actual decisions be decided upon. Buergenthal reviews the international legal rights of individuals to receive information across national boundaries. Hargrove states the case for cultural protectionism by national governments, and the role which international law might play in its justification. Part III: Conference Summaries and Future Directions. Price summarizes the Arlie House Conference by the U.S. government held in February 1974. Paper reviews context of the international debate on this issue, an analysis of the international law setting in which these concerns are voiced, and

This is a yearly publication by the Association for Education in Journalism, in which are listed the titles and a short annotation of theses of Journalism student candidates for advanced degrees from most U.S.A. universities. In the twelve years of this publication, the number of titles has increased about 100 and the number of universities participating almost doubled. General topic listing from the subject index include: Advertising; Audience Analysis; Communication & National Development; Communication Theory, Process and Effects; Communicator Analysis; Content Analysis; Courts and Law of the Press; Criticism and Defense of the Press; Cross-National Studies; Editorial Policy and Methods; Education for Journalism; Foreign Press & International Communication; Government and the Press (Media); History and Biography; Industrial Journalism; Magazines; Media Management and Production; Personnel and Labor Relations; Public Opinion and Propaganda; Public Relations; Radio, Television and Films; Research Methods; Special Minorities; and various minor topics.

Baji reviews many statistics about information imbalances in Asia. A study by All India Radio four years ago compared the wording from each continent that went through the wire services. The Americas accounted for 31 per cent, Europe - 13 per cent, Australia and Africa - each 4 per cent, Asia - 47 per cent.

The problems Asia have to contend with are: (1) The lack of hardware and software essential for media development; (2) The imbalance in information flow within each developed country and the irrelevance of content of media output; (3) The imbalance in information flow among Asian countries. Baji reviews these points in some detail and gives statistics on content of an Indian newspaper from the Indian Institute of Mass Communication's survey.


United Nations Radio and UN Television, working within political, journalistic and financial limitations, try to provide UN information to a world-wide audience. Limits include the mandates granted the parent Office of Public Information by the General Assembly and the attitudes of the national broadcasting organizations which rebroadcast UN material. UN Radio and Television exhibit, on a small scale, institutional similarities to other world-wide broadcasters in the flow of the news.

For historical perspective, the short wave radio voice of the League of Nations was analyzed and found to have had little impact. Radio-Nations (1932-1939) was limited to official non-persuasive material beamed to non-European audiences for 10 minutes in English, Spanish and French lates on Saturday night.

UN Radio's early years (1945-1950) saw the conflict between a plan of a Secretariat committee headed by General Frank Stoner for a world-wide UN-owned-and-operated short wave system and a General Assembly concerned with budgets and a fear of propaganda. "Temporary measures utilizing United States Government short wave transmitters to relay UN news summaries and UN meeting verbatim coverage became the norm, continuing to the present.

UN Radio also had to find a way to meet contradictory directives to work with existing national broadcasters and also to produce material independently. Details on programming, the relationship with the U.S. Government, General Assembly debate on the UN-U.S. tie and the fee structure for transmitter rental are analyzed.

UN-TV, excluded from the UN budget, developed on a self-supporting basis, with fees paid by subscribing national networks, who viewed UN-TV as a news service rather than as a governmental public relations agency. News and feature programming and current distribution are detailed.

To insure impartiality in news summaries, UN Radio centralized news gathering in one Radio News Desk, which supplies language translating and voicing units with uniform news copy, thus insuring a standard approach on all broadcasts. Fairness is achieved by presenting various sides of a dispute so that each party feels his viewpoint received impartial treatment.

In the near future, the UN should petition for a special free or low-cost channel on the Intelsat satellite system to broadcast news and educational material via existing stations and later by direct-to-the-home transmissions. UN broadcasting should place greater emphasis on UN social and economic activities, with lesser attention on self-propagating political coverage. Better understanding of national broadcasters' needs is needed as the UN enters its second quarter century.
Concepts such as "freedom of information" and "free flow of ideas" as described in Unesco documents remain problematic and lend themselves to diverse interpretations. There needs to be more precision of terms, paper appraises the Latin American situation regarding "communication rights" by studying freedoms to (1) send a message, (2) consciously receive a message, and (3) the existence of sources of information, as stated in the stand adopted by a group of professional communicators in Canada (1973 conference on communication rights).

The authors' definition of freedom is, in essence, "freedom of communication exists when human beings effectively have at their disposal unrestrained options as senders and receivers of messages carrying information and opinion." Many concrete indicators of the distribution of sending and receiving options in various Latin American countries are cited, showing an acute concentration of media ownership and control. This means that information freedom and communication rights, as contained in international statements mentioned, are presently ineffective for the majority of individuals in Latin America.

The essay says: "The make-up of the Latin American societies is one, where, with minimal exceptions, mighty minorities exert internal domination over the great majority of the people and have the economy, the technology, the culture, and the communications working almost exclusively for the continuation of their privileges. Consequently, little would be gained by elaborating and refining the definitions on freedoms and rights to communicate if the edifice of society remains hardly conducive to their true and widespread implementation." Ideas for further dialogue are proposed. Bibliography.
Overall conclusions include: (1) The mass communication system of Latin America is so strongly permeated by economic, political and communication institutions of the United States of America that it is not unwarranted to talk of a case of foreign domination. (2) Most of the main mass media in this region, and especially the electronic ones, are directly and indirectly penetrated by major U.S. interests. (3) U.S. originated materials do outweigh Latin American materials to a very large extent in motion pictures, television programming, magazines and news traffic in general. The imbalance is such that it would be unrealistic not to regard the overwhelming U.S. superiority as a threat. (4) U.S. economic and communication institutions do appear to have some noticeable effects on the behavior of many of the major Latin American mass communication institutions. The audience selection and content policies of many of these latter are inseparable from those of the respective U.S. sources. They are criticized for promoting consumerism, alienation, banality, violence, racism, elitism, and conservatism. This is deemed to be in line with the ideologies and interests of the investors and indiscrepancy with the region's efforts to attain national development through social change, cultural autonomy and political sovereignty." Other points, such as on political influence, are made. Concluding statement of paper is: "Thus, in summary, the free flow of information, hailed by the United States and the United Nations as the fundamental tenant of democracy, is not obtained at all in Latin America. It sadly is here no more than a myth." Extensive bibliography included.


There is a rise in demand for information due to rapid social changes and improved technology in the newspaper and news agency field. Most national news agencies utilize international news agency's material so it is a mistake to think that national news agencies "represent" their nation as much as they do the international news agency from whom they get the majority of their material. The international news agencies are continually expanding their facilities and buying more expensive telecommunications equipment which is highly expensive. In order to pay for this equipment these agencies are economically more dependent upon their financial sources.

This intermingling of the news agencies and financial interests provides what author calls the "imperialistic states" with an uninterrupted flow of information from around the world and a means to spread their political views at home and abroad. The article gives some statistics on the number of customers Associated Press had in 1973 to support the statement that news agencies do not make large profits. And their profits have to go into their technology costs.

The development of socialistic news agencies following World War II has given competition to Western news agencies in Europe. Western news agencies have different criteria for news selection than do socialistic news agencies so there is little publication of developments in the socialistic countries, of class struggles, and of national liberation movements.

Another problem is the increase in interpretative news instead of straight news. This is expanding opportunity for value-laden articles being disseminated by the international or large Western news agencies. Author says socialistic news agencies operate under the framework of news toward the cause of peace and the relaxation of international tension.


ASEAN Confederation formed March 11, 1975 in Jakarta to bring together journalists from five South East Asian nations: Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand. Objectives of confederation include: (1) To cooperate fully in advancing journalism; (2) To promote a healthy and responsible press in ASEAN countries; (3) To contribute to and enhance the development of the region as a whole and of the member countries in particular; (4) To promote closer relations, cooperation and greater contacts among journalists in the region; (5) To insure general welfare of the region by uplifting the standard of living; (6) To secure peace and prosperity.
The constitution of the organization shall: "(a) Safeguard the common interest of the journalists and apply the journalists' ethical code in harmony with each country's regulations, rules and policies; (b) Encourage the development of journalism and mutual cooperation based on the principles of ASEAN cooperation; (c) Arrange training and development programs to improve the working knowledge of journalists in the ASEAN region; (d) Encourage greater flow and exchange of views, information and data in South East Asian countries in general and ASEAN in particular; (e) Facilitate the exchange of visits and improve the skill of the ASEAN journalists; (f) Participate in all meetings held by the Confederation of ASEAN journalists."

The symbol, CAJ, will be acronym for the Confederation. Constitution and Joint Declaration of Confederation of ASEAN Journalists, which states the principles listed above in briefer form, are included.


Article reviews briefly history of New York Times. Philosophy of international news story writing, according to interviews with various staff members in 1966, is to grasp the meaning of the flow of events - searching for broader currents of meaning while reporting the day's events.

There are three basic categories within the editorial operation in reporting international affairs: foreign desk which directs staff of full-time correspondents; Washington Bureau which maintains a large number of reporters; columnists who comment on international developments and supply depth and perspective to day-to-day happenings.

Article mentions Bernard Cohen's calculation, from his book The Press and Foreign Policy, that only 15 per cent of the million or so words which come in daily get printed in The Times. The Times averages 200-215 news columns per day but still has to be highly selective as to what gets printed. The paper spends about $3 million of a total news budget of $11 million to support Times foreign correspondents. Table 1: U.S. general circulation daily newspapers and newspaper groups maintaining three or more foreign correspondents. (Compiled from "American Correspondents Overseas," by John Wilhelm for a study done in 1966.) This table includes part-time correspondents. The Times has 38.1 per cent of the total of 236 correspondents. Out of a total of 41, 41.5 per cent are in Europe, 21.9 per cent in Americas (U.N., Canada, or Central/South America), 24.4 per cent are in Asia, 12.2 per cent in Africa/Middle East.

Paper employs at least one stringer in 61 countries (stringers usually are experienced newsmen who work full-time for a national news organization and write for The Times in their spare time). Table 3: Geographical distribution of New York Times stringers: 26.6 per cent in Europe, 21.3 per cent in the Americas, 27.9 per cent in Africa/Middle East, 24.6 per cent in Asia/Pacific. Comments on special assignments, role of the columnist, and details of technical facilities.


Article reviews United States Information Agency (USIA) directives from a 1954 study that was marked "confidential" originally. In the 1954 study over 140 interviews were held to determine what themes about America should be developed. Quotes show that for every opinion held someone else held an opposing opinion concerning projecting the U.S.A. image. The overall theory of the USIA is that the more information persons have about the U.S.A., the less misconception they will have and the less subject they will be to opposing propaganda. So the programs are geared toward presenting American-life in America rather than information about American foreign policy. Some of the positive qualities that are encouraged in USIA programming are that Americans are nice people; America is generous and altruistic; America is democratic; Americans believe in freedom for other people; American life has a spiritual quality; Americans are a cultured people; the U.S. economy is successful; America is a peaceful country. The use of the English language is encouraged in USIA activities for obvious reasons. Some of the stereotypes that USIA tries to overcome are that Americans are cultural barbarians or materialistic and the Hollywood film stereotypes that distorted American life-styles.
The newspapers were published in cities of more than 100,000 population, selected on the basis of geographical location. A 12-week period, February 20-May 13, 1961, was covered on the basis of a "constructed" sample producing 24 issues of each of the eight publications.

Seventeen subject matter categories were developed; within categories content was classified as favorable, unfavorable, or neutral toward the United States. In addition, an attention score was devised which rated each item on a combination of four criteria: headline size, position on page, page of paper, length of item.

Approximately 25 per cent of the foreign news in these papers concerned the United States; U.S. news appeared regularly and was well displayed. The largest proportions of U.S. news concerned U.S. political affairs, both foreign and domestic, the space program, Hollywood personalities, the military, sports and news of day-to-day life, in approximately that order. There was relatively little news of labor and agriculture, religion and education, the arts, or race relations. There was moderate coverage of science and medicine, economic activity and crime.

The over-all picture of the United States was favorable. Favorably presented was news of science and medicine, space program, foreign relations, military affairs, economic activity, and the arts. Least favorably presented was news about labor and agriculture, crime and race relations.

The Australian papers devoted a larger proportion of available space to U.S. news than did the New Zealand papers, but the New Zealand papers contained a larger percentage of favorable news.

The "attention score" showed results highly consistent with those obtained from measurement of column inches alone.


This volume presents six papers presented at the International Scientific Conference of the International Association for Mass Communication Research held at Leipzig, GDR, September 1974. The theme of the conference was "The Contribution of the Mass Media to the Development of Consciousness in a Changing World."

"Mass Media and Developing Nations: A Global Perspective of the Present State of Mass Communication and Its Research." By Kaarle Nordenström. The author states four features of mass communications today: (1) imbalances of resources between have and have-not countries, (2) imbalance of flow of communications between a few dominant Western powers and most of nations of the Third World, (3) the irrelevance of content to the social and cultural problems encountered by these countries, and (4) the fundamental difference that the social system of a country makes for the operation of the mass media. He makes special mention to the unique problems that the socialist countries (which make up 1/3 of the world's population) face in regard to the first three features of mass communication. He stresses the growing awareness and re-evaluation of communication needs for national development, and the alternatives to the present state of development, by the less developed nations of the world.

"The Press in the Developing Countries of Asia and Africa: Its Social and Class Character and Function." By Asad K. T. Ibragimov. The author studies the press in terms of its socio-political activity, and lists five basic types of press: the press of the national bourgeoisie, the revolutionary-democratic press, the communist press, the press of local monopolistic capital, the press published by foreign monopolistic corporations (the first three being national presses). The press in the young countries of Asia and Africa are heterogeneous. The defining of press and other forms of mass communication by a socio-political label is necessary to understand its role in the national and social liberation of the nations of the former colonial countries. Then the transformation of the press into a progressive social force for socialist purposes can begin.
"Mass Media in the Developing World: Four Conundrums." By John Lent. In this paper, four puzzles concerning mass media are identified, along with some possible solutions. The puzzles (or conundrums) are: (1) making mass media economically and culturally practicable for developing nations; (2) having media better serve the interests of the masses, not just elites and white-collar groups; (3) resolving the conflict between press freedom and development journalism, and (4) designing mass media theory and research appropriate to the developing world.

Other articles stress mass-media problems in Sub-Saharan Africa, Communication Research in Latin America, and the formation and development of National Languages and their importance for the creation of indigenous mass media in Africa.


This is the report of an international symposium on the impact of the representation of violence in the mass media on youth and adults. The symposium examined three main questions: (1) What is meant by violence?; (2) What is commonly assumed and what is actually known about the relation between violence in the mass media and violence in real life?; and (3) How can the mass media inform, educate, and entertain in such a way that their influence will tend to reduce violence rather than promote it?

A section of the report examines the problems and opportunities in the developing countries where the media is seen as an index and agent of change.


This book describes the development of a theory of conflict resolution based on psychological and sociological methods, which the author sees as useful in the international setting where more traditional methods of conciliation, arbitration and negotiation have not been successful. Part One deals with this technique and the research done, and Part Two gives an assessment of its significance.


Nine countries' educational institutions are involved in a satellite communication project designed to determine the value of the communication satellite when applied to the needs of less developed areas of the world. Called "PEACESAT"--Pan Pacific Education and Communication Experiments by Satellite—the project started at the University of Hawaii in 1971 with modest budget and equipment. The project emphasizes wide area coverage, two-way communication, the use of small, low-cost, low-capacity ground terminals, and principal participation from remote, non-industrial areas with limited resources and special terrain problems.

Utilizing the United States' NASA ATS-1 satellite, this system has linked institutions and individuals from areas such as New Caledonia, the Kingdom of Tonga, Fiji, Saipan, Honolulu, New Zealand, and Washington, D.C. In small countries and territories of the Pacific Basin, the governments cannot each sustain complete hierarchical systems for health services and education. Utilizing satellite technology and quite inexpensive ground stations (from US$2,500-$7,500 depending on terminal power), this project opens new opportunities for solving problems through organized effort.

Some of the projects done to date are: interactive conferencing to assist in Pacific-wide epidemic control or educational exchanges; a weekly regional news exchange; assisting in medical emergencies; some interconnection activities between Pacific uni-
versities and education institutions. Commercial utilization is prohibited by regulatory agencies. So far, English is the recognized "lingua franca." The specifications for each ground terminal are simple and are reviewed. The article covers the structure and history of the experiment, the use of "terminal managers," and the search for user needs. During the past two years, some 350 user-initiated activities have been undertaken, each ranging from three to 38 hours of satellite time. The article describes these activities within seven categories: decision-maker conferences; professional and in-service training; classroom instruction; community development seminars; information transfer; professional consultation; and public information experiments. The benefits of this international communication system and some of the potential possibilities are elaborated upon.


Social utility is motive behind the PEACESAT satellite communication system. Its purpose is the development and diffusion of knowledge to improve the human condition, such as improving the effectiveness of organized health, education and community services. The PEACESAT system provides a low-cost service to widely separated Pacific Island areas, permitting interactive transmission of voice and print among colleagues and professional centers. It is an example for both developing and developed societies of a telecommunications system that can narrow the gap between the centers of information and expert knowledge and the institutions and professionals who are remote from those centers.

The paper highlights the development of this radio system, reviewing costs and technical details. The specifications of this experimental system include the following: (1) Terminals send and receive messages. (2) Terminals are owned and operated by local institutions. (3) There is no need for "soft-ware" or costly prepared materials. (4) Emphasis is placed on dialogue and on interaction among users. (5) Capital and operating costs are low. (6) Equipment can be operated by indigenous personnel with only limited special training. (7) Multiple channels are available. (8) The satellite serves a wide area of the earth's surface therefore providing sufficient traffic to justify service to "low density" areas.

The ground terminals in the PEACESAT system cost about $5000 and use voice grade circuits to allow two-way communication among a large number of users. These voice grade circuits use narrow band channels which allow the satellite beam to cover a very wide area, thus allowing participation over a large area.

Description, with costs, of a multi-media exchange center which could be available to a satellite communication system user are provided. In order to produce the traffic necessary to justify investment in such a system, Bystrom suggests the development of user networks, in which a particular category of users that is organized into a relationship that allows systematic communications, to jointly use the facilities.

In reviewing the PEACESAT project in its fifth year, some of the alternatives for future development are reviewed.


It is not the way people communicate that determine social structures, rather it is social structures that determine the way people communicate. Disparities between countries and within individual countries have become much more visible. The development of communication technologies enters into social structures.
Using a sociological framework, Campeanu outlines premises useful in the definition of communication and in the definition of the right to communicate. Speech was the beginning of human communication. When writing was introduced, the physiological center of emission and reception of communication moved from interchange between persons directly involved in that communication to inclusion of other barriers between people. Campeanu writes, "communication becomes this way no longer a psycho-physiological performance but a technological one." While speech was easily accessible, writing was a choice privilege which still is not universal.

The development of professional communicators, due to more sophisticated communication technologies, has further removed ease of access for most of society. As Campeanu puts it, "... at a mass scale the chances for the communication consumer to be (a) professional producer of communication are minimum." There is a social pyramid of which the owners of the communication activity have the greatest access, going down to the professional communicators, who have decreased access, and finally to the receivers, who have marginal access. Campeanu discusses some of the difficulties that journalists, for example, are having in developing professional codes toward the protection of their rights to freely express their opinions, illustrating that receivers of communications from the mass media do not have such rights vis-à-vis professional senders.

The problem of industrialization of the mass media are reviewed to stress that economic considerations are paramount over human communication needs.

There is a distinction between public and private communication structures. In the private circuit, members of society have whole access to communications, while in the public circuit, members have only partial access.

The essay concludes by reviewing elements of the definition of communication and the rights of communication.


This article compares the historical theories of mass communication formulated by Innis and McLuhan. In the process the author summarizes the main elements of both the theories. Both of them view the media of communication as fundamental determining force shaping the growth and development of western civilization.

The main thesis of Innis is that communication technology principally affects social organization and culture. His approach is institutional. McLuhan's approach focuses attention on perception and thought. The media of communication defines the way a person perceives phenomenon and organizes thoughts. The media not only transmit information but also determine the character of knowledge.

The theory of Innis would suggest that the 'spatial bias' of modern media (print and electronic) leads to a more world-wide culture which is urban, secular, but unstable. McLuhan argues that the western culture based on print media is doomed. The electronic media, particularly television, provides a radically new way of organizing experiences and thoughts. The new media regenerates and integrates the sensual capacities of men, and creates the 'whole man' and a new communal, participatory culture.
"It's a long way to communication" because modern communication technology is not really communication—media's one-way channel capacity does not fulfill Cassirer's conception of communication. Cassirer defines communication not as the dissemination of information or the confrontation of facts and opinions, but as a process involving reciprocity of individuals, social groups, classes, occupations, etc., in which the outcome of the interaction far exceeds the mere interchange of opinions. This definition of communication moves toward creating new mental and material conditions. He acknowledges that the telephone permits two-way communication but considers it only one part of the broad communication interact with one another.

Cassirer cites that communication media fail to live up to their potential unless "they are responsive to the deeper communication needs of society and of the individual, and they contribute to counterbalance and overcome the atomization and alienation characteristics of today's world." He uses the examples of space exploration and mastery of the environment as some areas in which only the appropriate utilization of communication enables the various fields of knowledge to pool resources together to solve problems. Thus, Cassirer discusses the philosophical problem that says a society with open communication possesses the least harmful or frustrating possibilities for peacefully resolving societal conflicts and making changes.

Cassirer suggests that a way to resolve the dilemma between the social nature of communication and the rights of individuals might be by formulating an Article of Declaration which asserts the importance of multilateral communication in society and establishes the right for everyone as individuals or in association with others to participate in such communication. However, he says that a mere affirmation of the principles of communication would not be enough to change its practice.

A challenge is thus presented: how to utilize modern communication media so that they are not only presentations to the people, but reflect their aspirations ... so they may truly constitute communication "for the people, of the people, and by the people."

This article discusses two types of direct broadcasting from satellites: (1) direct broadcasting into homes—which due to the very high cost of equipment the authors feel is not likely for more than 10 years or much more; (2) point-to-point satellite transmission—very likely that regional or national systems will develop because of the cost reduction in community receivers. The two main problems with satellite TV broadcasting are: (1) the management of the frequency and orbital plane; and (2) the problem of program content. Spectrum management involves avoiding interference between direct broadcasting and terrestrial UHF services and preventing interference among direct broadcast systems. The authors discuss the various ways to solve the problem of program content, and conclude that regulation is much easier at the receiving end, especially since community receivers are the most likely development in the future. Some of the methods to do this are elaborated. The final section of this article discusses various institutional arrangements possible to regulate direct broadcasting. Of the three international organizations possible for this job, the UN, ITU, or Intelsat, the authors discuss the pros and cons concerning each. Several policy recommendations are made.

This is a four-country legal study of satellite broadcasting, sponsored by the International Broadcast Institute in 1970. The study was conducted in France, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States with the assistance of four rapporteurs who formulated the questionnaire and comprised the replies to the questions. The general introduction is by Chayes, who reviews to fall 1971 existing satellite systems and broadcast satellites, the present prospects for broadcast-systems—including technical and economic aspects, organizational arrangements, the impact on existing communication systems in developed and developing countries, the management of spectrum and orbit resources, and other developments. The questionnaire asked six large questions, covering the following points: (1) what means of promoting and extending freedom of information does direct satellite broadcasting provide, in particular, for developing countries? (2) what institutional or normative ways may bothersome programs be limited or prevented in direct satellite broadcasting consistent with the principle of freedom both to impart and receive information? (3) protection of individuals from defamation or false statements or invasion of privacy (4) special protections due to authors, performers, producers, etc., for contributions to satellite broadcasts in respect of economic interests and intellectual and artistic integrity (5) question four specifically addressed to developing countries concerning access and reception of direct satellite broadcasts (6) correlation of direct satellite broadcasting with other systems of satellite communications. After the questionnaire are two pages of assumptions basic to the discussion concerning the state of the art.

Each country reply first addresses itself to the assumptions and then answers each question (the authors stress that these statements are the responsibility of each country's rapporteurs, since they consulted with a number of persons to get the legal opinion of their community). Appendix includes three documents: (1) U.N. General Assembly Resolution 2733--xxv: International Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, (2) Intelsat Agreement (1971) Articles I (k)-(n), I1-V and Intelsat Operating Agreement (1971) Articles 13-18, and (3) Declaration by the International Conference of Broadcasting Unions on Communication Satellites, Rome (1972). Bibliography.


Essay considers development of the right to communicate concept into a general principle of international law. In different languages, the word "right" is defined in several ways, it also is defined differently depending upon whether one is concerned with an individual or a group. Law static as a value and as a foundation, while freedom is always a dynamic, voluntary act. So the word "freedom" is also defined differently by a particular country, given that country's expressions and peculiarities. Today, however, Humankind is a legal concept which is above everything else, since it includes the interests and the requirements of all states forming part of the international community.

Is the freedom of communication, in fact, a legal principle in international law? No uniform opinion exists to give freedom of information status as a legal principle of international law. Certain conditions are necessary for such a principle to be considered law which have not been met, yet there are significant steps in that direction as seen by international documents reviewed in the essay.

However, these same documents must be the starting place for clarification of meanings of terms. Such terms "human dimension," "genuine cooperation," and "image of others" which are included in the Dag Hammarskjold 1975 Report for the U.N, for example, need accurate understanding.

Besides the five rights discussed by Henry Hindley at the 1974 IBI Meeting in Mexico City (the right to speak, to be heard, to be replied to, to reply to someone else, and the right to listen to), Cocca stresses two more rights related to the rapid development of television. These are the right to see and the right to be seen. From the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), Article 19, two additional rights can be pinpointed—the right to express oneself in writing or in print and the right to express oneself in the form of art. Finally, a right which involves all those already expounded, the right to be selective, must be analyzed. Cocca also describes the right to communicate as it developed at the 1975 Cologne meeting of the International Broadcast Institute.

A study to determine the extent to which radio broadcasting is available throughout the world as a means of communicating information and to examine ways of overcoming political, economic, and technological obstacles that impede its availability.

Describes broadcasting systems in the various countries: broadcasting between countries, use of the radio spectrum, the sharing of frequencies, the quest for better techniques, and the impact of television on radio broadcasting. Contains a bibliography and an index.


Descriptive data as to the amount and nature of international news coverage in 13 American daily newspapers, including the New York Times (eastern edition), were sought in this project. The underlying questions which guided the study's research and presentation were as follows:

1. How much international news is published by the papers?
2. What parts of the world receive the greatest attention?
3. What news agencies provide the stories for the papers?
4. What subject matter receives the most attention?
5. Do newspapers in some parts of the United States publish significantly more international news than those in other parts of the country?
6. Do newspapers which are close to a certain part of the world print more news about that area than do newspapers which are not so close?

An attempt to answer these questions was made by observing the international news content of the two major dailies in Portland, Denver, Dallas, Milwaukee, Atlanta, and Providence, as well as of the New York Times for purposes of comparison, for 14 days in May, 1963. Each international story, photograph, editorial, editorial cartoon, columnist's comment, and letter to the editor was measured and coded for each issue of each paper according to page location, geographic area of origin, source, subject matter, and length in column inches. The total non-advertising space, exclusive of certain sections like society, sports, and entertainment, was also measured.

The newspapers under study, except for the Times, devoted between 6.0 and 15.4 per cent of their news holes on weekdays to international content, while the New York paper devoted 18.1 per cent, during the two periods. On the two Sundays of these periods, the eight Sunday papers in the six cities devoted between 5.9 and 18.0 per cent of their news holes to international content, while the Times correspondingly ran 26.8 per cent.

Western Europe, the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe got the greatest attention in the 12 papers during the periods studied.

American wire services were providers of most international news stories and photographs to the papers, except for the New York Times, which wrote two-thirds of its international stories; the Associated Press provided more news to most of the papers than did United Press International.

The 12 papers and the Times printed more stories about diplomacy--international relations--than any other subject. Other subjects widely reported were politics, economics and business, crime, human interest, war and national defense, and natural disasters and accidents.

Proportions of news holes devoted to international content did not vary significantly from one region of the country to another, although differences from paper to paper were large within each region.
Finally it was found that the southern papers devoted a considerably larger proportion of their international content to news of Latin America than did the northern and western papers. The western papers devoted a somewhat larger proportion of their total international content to news from the Orient than did northern or southern papers. However, the northern papers devoted almost the identical proportion of their international content to news of Canada as the southern or western papers did.

Three papers were presented at this convention session. Professor Frank W. Peer's "The Historical Perspective," reviewed the government's influence in early broadcasting; conditions that have lead to CBS being a dominant force in Canadian programming; some potential remedies for this situation. Peter S. Grant's "The Legal Perspective: Recent Developments in the Law of Freedom of Expression," reviewed such topics as libel and slander, obscenity, access to governmental information and Canadian broadcast licensing policy. Keith Davey's "Freedom, Responsibility, Prospects for the Future," reviewed political viewpoints on the mass media from his perspective as a Canadian senator.

Report of independent task force examines satellite broadcasting to develop recommendations for a smooth functioning global system.

Report makes proposals to help Intelsat become a comprehensive and integrated system capable of providing a full range of communication services to its member nations. It reviews responsibilities of the international community, including points on assistance to the developing countries and utilization and management of the frequency spectrum.

Background paper by Paul Laskin reviews the institutional framework of international satellite communications, including the establishment of the global system, Comsat, and the International Telecommunication Union. In his section on Problems and Issues, he covers topics such as: the future of Intelsat, the U.S.'s international communications industry, problems of satellite broadcasting, and the developing countries and satellite broadcasting.

"Cross-cultural broadcasting" is defined broadly to mean any broadcasting situation where one cultural group produces the programming and another cultural group receives it. This study divides the effects of broadcasting into four categories--cultural, linguistic, psychological, and political--to examine the empirical findings at present in the literature.

Cultural Effects. Commercial cross-cultural broadcasting is leading the field. Most studies focus on a description of efforts rather than the effects of broadcasting. Many studies are summarized here. Sydney Head's study on African Broadcasting states it is the better educated who listen most, domestic service is more likely to be listened to, and the BBC has the greatest audience and credibility. Don Smith's study states that there is a sizable student audience in the multitude of countries he samples, and that these students also exhaust their local sources for information. While several authors state foreign radio broadcasts can be defined mainly in the "propaganda" sphere, television belongs to the realm of "entertainment." Most TV content is a blend of entertainment, advertising, and commercialism. TV programming generally has been following the U.S.A. pattern and developing nations buy the largest percentage of films from the U.S. due to low cost compared to the high costs of having to produce it themselves. One significant trend is toward some regionalization of TV networks. While there is much information on the technical aspects of satellites, there is very little information on cultural implications. The generalizations for film are similar as for TV.
Linguistic Effects. In countries where the media are fully developed, people spend a significant portion of their lifetimes listening or viewing, and in the process they are exposed to certain languages or language varieties. The number of hours of programming per week intended for other countries as well as the number of languages used has increased in the past decade. Language is a huge constraint on broadcasting, due to the great number of languages. The increased cost of each language broadcast often makes it impossible to add additional languages. Lack of sufficient frequencies for separate day-long service is also a constraint. This expense is compounded when television broadcasting is compared to radio. Advertising in broadcasting is constrained by linguistic anomalies. There is much research on possible extinction of minority languages, languages of wider communication, and propagation of the national language. Broadcasting is a tool for language planning at the national level. It is also an important political problem. Governments want control over their populations and want a large number of languages broadcast in order to reach largest proportion of their multilingual communities, while at the same time the encouragement of a single national can help build national loyalties. Topics of importance for future research are discussed.

Psychological Effects. There is a lack of hard data in this area. A variety of studies on semantic differential examining whether meanings are universal are showing some positive trends. There are some studies of TV viewing on poor, or minority-group members which indicate that TV does not develop a critical consciousness of their own role in their system, but there are also studies with the thesis that a uniform instructional system is helpful in certain stages of national development. Some recent studies of effects of media to a variety of test groups are included.

Political Effects. These effects are the most documented. Governments want control over their broadcast media for a variety of reasons: control, integration of national interests, socialization and instructional tasks. The issue of satellite broadcasting across national boundaries has raised complex problems, including contradictory goals and principles between international proclamations and principles in the UN Charter. The differences between the sovereign rights of states and the 'free flow of communication' value positions are elaborated upon with some possible grounds for their accommodation in the future. Extensive bibliography included.


Although the right to communicate is God-given, what is communicated is man-made. There are some significant differences between communicating for the purposes of life support and communications for other purposes. In reviewing United Nations definitions of this right as it has developed since 1948, the authors stress that different languages can even translate the meaning of one definition somewhat differently. The United Nation's definition does not include certain critical points such as: communication between man and his deities, or between man and animals, etc.

The authors explore other ideas, such as: the problem that the flow of communication has been designed to accommodate the needs of commerce for information and communications, and that different communities or countries define standards differently (according to prevailing community or national norms), to illustrate the complexity of meshing individual, community and cultural integrities in one definition. However, Cowlan and Love stress that any abrogations of the right to communicate on the grounds of cultural integrity—however defined—cannot allow indignities such as torture or other such cruelties, nor the invasion of person's privacy such as allowing personal mail to be inspected, except where there are clear legal procedures and protections.

The right to communicate could best be approached by structuring a system from the bottom up, going back to the level of the individual's needs and definition of the issues and concerns, rather than the opposite way.

Technology has compounded this attempt at definition. The ways in which communications flow has also become a function of technology. If the grievances about international flow of communications can be redressed, there may be a better opportunity to open up communications, on a one-to-one level and at other levels, between nations. For example, in the U.S.A., the broadcasting systems can carry—in prime time—"x" hours of programs produced by other nations, with funding available to help make such access by other nations fair.

Intermedia reports on important aspects of broadcasting frequency allocation and planning in three articles by experts. Included is a brief review of frequency facts, showing ITU broadcasting zones, explanation of the five main groups of frequency bands, explanation of the radio spectrum, some differences in MF broadcasting between Europe, U.S.A., Africa, and Asia.

"ITU Tackles Medium-Wave Chaos," by Abderrazak Berrada. The ITU Regional Administrative Radio Conference for long wave and medium wave broadcasting for Regions 1 and 3 (Europe, Africa, U.S.S.R., and S.E. Asia) held in Geneva in October 1974 was entrusted with defining the technical and operational criteria to be used in the second session in 1975. A critical situation is that the method of channel spacing in the medium wave band between Region 1 and Region 3 is different. Another problem is the need to choose channel frequencies which are integral multiples of the channel spacing. The third issue was the possibility of dividing the medium wave band into blocks characterized by the actual power output in order to permit any country that wished to provide, within one block, a skywave service. A compromise solution was reached which included a schedule for the modification of frequencies which will take into account the specific conditions of the developing countries.

"The Evolution of International Frequency Planning," by Edward Pawley. This article explains how the basic frequency allocations were developed and updated through periodic international conferences and clarifies the different types of frequencies and their uses. Despite each convention planning new allocations, within a short period of time following that convention, many more stations were introduced so serious interferences occurred. Of interest is that in 1966 the computer was first used to assist in calculating each station's frequency assignments, which due to drift, power and location of each station, is very complex.

"Managing the Spectrum as a National Resource," by Marcel Thue. All radiocommunication systems operating all over the world have to share the frequency spectrum in such a way that the operation of one system does not cause significant trouble to the others. Each radio communication needs a frequency band whose required bandwidth depends on both the quantity of information to be transmitted and the technical devices to be used. Due to continued expansion of radiocommunication systems within the developed countries and the urgent need for modern telecommunication networks in developing nations, and since it is no longer possible to expect further substantial improvements in the use of still higher frequencies because of their propagation conditions, the International Telecommunication Convention's statement that the radio frequency spectrum is a "limited natural resource" and that it "must be used efficiently and economically so that all countries may have equitable access" must be supported. The geostationary satellite orbit is also unique and only a limited number of satellites can be spaced on it, so it also is a "limited natural resource."


Three articles on cultural imperialism are presented under this general title. Herbert Schiller's "Electronic Invaders" reviews the changing opinions of some authorities to illustrate that the concept "free flow of information" has not helped developing nation's cultural development and a transitional period toward a new concept that does not promote cultural domination by a few is approaching. "One-Way Traffic" reports results of Finnish research on world television flows. "Visnews Visited," by Michael Symons, reviews the development of Visnews, which is reported to reach 99 per cent of the world's television sets with newfilm, and also operates a public relations business that serves some of the biggest transnational corporations.
Diplomatic correspondents (in Western Europe and the United States the number is estimated at between 50 and 200) write predominately for the most prestigious international press such as the Times of London, Le Monde, Neue Zurich Zeitung, the International Herald-Tribune, the New York Times, and the European editions of Time and Newsweek. These papers stress international news that is complex and the audience for such diplomatic reporting is relatively small, consisting of the foreign affairs community such as diplomats and other international journalists.

As the term is used in this article, a diplomatic correspondent is a journalist who regularly writes about foreign affairs, who often covers international conferences, who is allowed time by his or her editors to do in-depth stories, and whose work is respected by members of the foreign affairs community.

There is a high regard for each other held by the diplomats and foreign correspondents who participate in this network. For the diplomat, the foreign correspondent is often a necessary channel for reaching the public—or even other governments. For the reporters, the diplomat offers inside sources to information essential to their profession. Close acquaintance, or even friendship, with members of the other profession is one precondition for the admission of either diplomats or journalists to the diplomatic reporting network. Some of the network's unwritten rules are:

- A relationship of trust between the diplomat and the foreign correspondent; the journalist must report fairly on what the diplomats tell them or on what they observe; the diplomat is under certain constraints as a result of trust relationship—he does not need to tell the correspondent all he knows, but what he does say must be truthful and not misleading; the diplomat must not make excessive use of the background statement—the information given to reporters on condition that it not be revealed; each participant must be ready to swap information with their sources and possibly do some message-carrying; journalists should not contribute information to government intelligence organizations; journalists must use some information for background only, some information must be withheld for a time until it can be put into context or until it can be revealed without embarrassing its source.

Deciding what information to withhold is one of the heaviest and most difficult responsibilities of international journalists. This is quite different from a journalist who is mainly concerned with spot news. Since there is an inside circle of communication, the network members can gain more from given news stories than those who are outside can. If diplomatic journalists revealed all the information that they had access to, their sources would dry up and the press would be more dependent on one-dimensional official statements and releases.


Davison deals first with the flow and effects of communication, and looks at the international communication network, the impact of communication on the individual and on organizations, and at various aspects of communication in Western states, socialist states, and developing nations. In the second part of the book he looks at ways in which communications are used to advance foreign policy, concentrating on U.S. and Communist policies.
International negotiations are frequently facilitated by publicity and this article discusses some of the positive functions of publicity while distinguishing them from the negative ones. Data based on 48 semi-structured interviews with diplomats and journalists from Washington, New York, and Western Europe in 1973. Diplomats are great consumers of news. They utilize the elite press, their telex service, summaries of radio and TV newscasts on a daily basis to keep up with both their host country's news and developments as well as with the domestic press of their own country. Sometimes diplomatic officials supplement news reports by obtaining information directly from journalists. However the mass media as a source of news had the predominant influence on the diplomat.

In countries where communication is tightly controlled, quality international press information plays an important role to counteract the official structure. In democracies where the press is quite free, it serves as an important source of information for policy-making. Since negotiations in democracies are semi-public, the press provides a basis for direct conversations--news reports play a part in alerting national states to the desirability of getting in touch with other states. The mass media provide a set of facts and opinions available to both sides in a negotiation, since all governments monitor substantially the same news outlets.

The article also reviews some dysfunctions of publicity but concludes that both the positive and negative effects of press coverage as far as negotiation agreements are concerned can be predicted. The overall effect of the press on the success of international negotiations is through accurate, complete, and dispassionate reporting on issues.

This article is one in a special section titled "The Field of International Communication Research" in Public Opinion Quarterly journal. This article describes some of the most important variables in the relationship between national policy and the politically relevant behavioral effects of communications. The author's definition of "international political communication" is the use by national states of communications to influence the politically relevant behavior of people in other national states. Some of the reasons this study has been so difficult to date are: it cuts across the established boundaries of academic disciplines; the communication process is quite complex; the pay-off in communications is its effect, not the various ways it is done; political communication is an auxiliary instrument of policy in diplomatic, economic or military spheres and must be studied in those contexts; and, it is hard to be scientific because of the political or administration conditions imposed on some of the research. National policy is derived in part from the international political situation, and in part from domestic political and cultural factors. Some of these factors affect the activities of international communication specialists both directly and indirectly. Communication policy--decisions as to what we want to achieve through the use of communications--is derived in part from the national policy and the constraints which help shape national policy, but also from other elements in the chain--audience characteristics, the conditions under which the communication is made, and the effects the communicator wants to achieve (the authors present a diagram representing this chain). After the communication policy is structured, it is very important to understand and control the interpretation of this policy.

This book is of historical interest since it deals with the pre-World War II press as it operated on the broad stage of international affairs. It covers press ethics, the news correspondent, the news agencies, obstacles to the flow of news. Separate sections are included with news of the old world, new world, and the Far East. His last section deals with the concept of gate-keeping, how news is controlled or chosen by various intermediaries in the news-gathering cycle. Large bibliography and many illustrations.
This article develops a quantitative theory of international versus internal communications as a means of determining either integration or comparative isolation of either communities, countries, or organizations. The measurements are based on repetitive events, such as communication flows, giving a weighted value such as "big" versus "small" to determine ratios of activities, or totalling the volume of messages over time, in order to determine whether the communications of that entity is mainly concerned with internal activities or more concerned with external activities. Some of the statistics used in this study include: the ratio of U.S. foreign correspondents in the time period of 1946 or 1951; foreign news correspondents in the U.S. in 1951 or 1954; ratios of first class mail between countries in various decades; local to non-local mail; non-local to foreign mail; travel by public carrier or railroad in different time periods; students moving cross national boundaries to travel; national versus international citations in scientific journals.

The author offers some guidelines for analyzing the ratios found, depending upon the size of the organization or country. Tables of the various ratios mentioned above are included, along with regression charts for the postal communications between nations for different time periods. A regression chart for the variation of world communication by mail for the period from 1880 to 1951 is presented.

This is a key contribution to political communication modeling in which the author models how politics actually works. Divided into three sections, Part I is "The Search for Models of Society and Politics." After exploring the general nature of theory and models, classical models, recent social science models and the theory of games of von Neumann and Morgenstern are reviewed. Part II is "Cybernetics: New Models in Communication and Control." A simple cybernetic model is developed. Then the following cybernetic aspects are presented: consciousness and will as patterns of communication flow; political power and social transactions; and autonomy, integrity, and meaning. Part III is "Communication Models and Political Decision Systems." Implications for research are presented. Other topics included are: learning capacity and creativity in politics; the concepts of feedback, goal, and purpose in government; political self-awareness, autonomy, and sovereignty; self-closure of political systems; and the politics of power and of growth. Appendix. Notes.

This essay is a discussion of the concept of the right to communicate and its implications from the standpoint that a "right" is entitlement and "communication" is sharing and interchange. With the rapid development of communication technology and the dominant one-way pattern of the flow of information, there is an urgent need to create a new concept of the right to communicate. This concept not only includes the right to communicate, but the right not to communicate, the right to one's privacy, and the right to an effective remedy for acts violating the fundamental rights granted by the constitution or the law.

Considering this new concept, author discusses problems related to it—objectives of communication, effects (such as globalization and cultural pluralism), duties of communicators, provision of adequate opportunities for this right, and drawing the indicators of a balanced flow of information and how policy might be formulated to reap the maximum benefit from the concept.

The essay draws on the concepts from Buddhism, which is the national religion of Sri Lanka, where author lives. The concept of the right to communicate is in agreement with the Buddhist spirit of free inquiry, which contains the concept of independence of judgment and of mind, of personal discretion and individual liberty. A detailed analysis of the concept needed to convert it into a viable declaration.
The present condition and the future implications of television development, with particular emphasis on its effect on American world leadership, is surveyed in this book. Some of the topics covered are: television's global networks; international TV politics; U.S.A. television markets overseas; Communist television; the Japanese and European experience with ETV; ETV as a tool for developing nations.

In his conclusions, Dizard says, "The tone of our (U.S.A.) commitment to television's development as a positive international force will be set primarily by the commercial television industry and its activities here." However, programming limitations are the main weaknesses in U.S.A. television's capacity in representing the U.S.A. more realistically to viewers abroad. Dizard offers suggestions toward improving television programming and gives seven steps for strengthening the U.S.A. position in international television: (1) There should be closer arrangements between the industry and government to assure unified American policy, whenever practical, in international TV matters; (2) The U.S. should take the lead in forming an Inter-American Broadcasting Union; (3) The American Government and the television industry should establish firm policies regarding TV broadcasting by communications satellites; (4) American educational television should be encouraged to take a more positive role in cooperating with overseas ETV efforts, particularly in developing countries; (5) The U.S. Government should explore more intensively the direct use of television as a tool of modernization in developing countries; (6) The U.S. Government should consider more seriously the potentialities of television as an informational and cultural tool directly supporting its political objectives; (7) The United States should resist attempts to restrict the free flow of news and other information over international television.

Extensive footnotes and a bibliography are provided.

Article briefly reviews considerations of direct-to-home satellite controversy in which Soviet Union's Government stated their opposition to programs from U.S.A., like Sesame Street, eventually being allowed to be directly beamed into the TV-receivers of their citizens. Author described recent UN disagreements over the issue, which is not feasible technologically for many years, but is a subject of international importance due to political implications of international policies concerning flow of information from nation to nation.

Dukowitz examines ITU's record of decision-making on three issues related to satellite communications during the period 1959 to 1971. Technological developments have produced two counter-trends: an increased need for cooperative interaction between nations, and an increased desire for independence in the less developed countries. Satellite broadcasting, in particular, raises cultural imperialism questions. These needs, desires, and fears are reflected in the discussion of the negotiations of ITU's World Administrative Radio Conferences (WARC). Despite the increasing difficulty of reaching decisions in the WARC, the need for cooperation has resulted in decisions based on compromises. How long this kind of decision-making can continue is uncertain since trends indicate difficulties will increase, unless member nations can become less self-interested.

Article reports a study of ATLAS magazine (devoted to articles from non-U.S. international mass media) that tests three hypotheses developed from international communication theory. Considered are Zipf's theory that population and distance are key determinants of information flow, Maclean and Pinna's theory that mere physical distance is the major factor in determining "psychological distance" or interest in another country, and Wolpert's theory that varied factors such as comparative economics, social distance, and change of information in transmission must be taken into account when attempting to determine diffusion patterns.

The articles from issues of ATLAS for the first 95 monthly issues were coded into categories on a continuum from "exclusively about USA," through articles "exclusively about another country." Article presents statistics from simple Spearman rank order correlations between a variety of independent and dependent variables, multiple regression analyses of country variables against each dependent variable, and other rankings. The three hypotheses were generally supported by the study. Comparison of ATLAS articles and AP wire service stories showed about 30 percent of both AP and ATLAS articles concerned U.S.A. or its relations with other nations, and that more than 70 percent of the articles concerned European countries.


The foreword states that this book represents the first attempt "to analyze in some depth the important broadcasting systems in all parts of the world, and to explain their origin, development and present operation." It covers the managerial and regulatory aspects of radio and television, both national and international, as well as the quantitative dimensions of the media and their programming patterns.

Factual but not evaluative (and for some countries outdated--i.e., Yugoslavia), it nonetheless contains material not easily accessible in any other one place--as, for example "pirate" stations. Countries or regions included are the U.S., Mexico, Canada, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxemburg, Denmark, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Finland, France, Italy, Greece, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Spain, the U.S.S.R., Hungary, Yugoslavia, Turkey, Africa (an overview), India, People's Republic of China, Japan, and Australia.

An Appendix gives various broadcasting laws and acts, codes for several nations, membership of the European Broadcasting Union, and information on satellite communications. There is a detailed bibliography and a subject index.


A communication approach to the study of comparative politics is presented in this book. Using a functional model of communication, Fagen describes the components of communication networks, the determinants of communication patterns and use, the flow distribution of political images, the adequacy of communication performance for the functioning of political systems, and the relationship between communication and political change. In the final chapter the author examines some political problems relating to the organization and control of communication systems.

Author treats some public policy issues of freedom of expression as problems in the organization and control of communication.

This paper examines the problems between the press as a whole and the various national telecommunication facilities authorities who have not yet set uniform rates or schedules for the dissemination of news through their various transmission systems. In 1965 the press of the world joined together to form the International Press Telecommunications Council (IPTC) to work for better understanding between the press and the telecommunication authorities.

The author discusses the rapid development of new transmission equipment and states that "the industry knows that it is spending 100-million pounds per annum on transmission, and for so considerable an outlay it can only expect that Telecommunication Authorities should take note of its particular requirements," that being that the news is very "perishable" and needs to be sent out immediately and at the reduced rates that would signify that the Telecommunication Authorities appreciate its great social value.

(P. 8: "Recognizing that a telecommunications service is one of the greatest importance for the economic and social life of every country; it is recommended that the surplus income from the telecommunications service considered as a whole should not be greater than the amount required for the efficient running of these services.")

The report also discusses credit facilities, public services, leased lines, validity of multi-use. Annex includes the six IPTC papers accepted for study by the IVth Plenary Assembly of the C.C.I.T.T. at Mar del Plata, Argentina, in October 1968.


This article is a discussion of the merits of various proposals for international regulation of satellite broadcasting. The author discusses Resolutions 2916 and 2917 which were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly but have been the subject of disagreement by various nations. The author mentions the new drafts submitted by the U.S.A., Canada and Sweden, and the Soviet Union, and states why he feels the Soviet Union’s proposals are the best improvements of the original U.N. Resolutions. He then discusses the draft put forth by Argentina, in which the subject of regulating satellite broadcasting, and not just satellite television, is covered.


Man of the primitive tribal system was personally involved in almost everything that composed his social experience, but man of the 20th century must rely on the experiences of others for considerable and often essential information concerning the guidance of his activities. The "traditional" method of accumulation of knowledge and skills is giving way to qualitatively new processes in many respects due to the means of mass media.

Since the "Right to Communicate" is endowed with the meaning of one of the basic and fundamental rights of man, the communication phenomenon itself needs to be studied. The term "Verkehr" used by Karl Marx meant social interaction. Firsov uses this term as a starting point to explain that due to the different forms of social organization that exist in the world, "the need to say something" has become fully colored with social relations. The mode of social production determines the social consequences of the scientific and technological revolution. The process of technology affects all spheres of life of modern man and at the same time the life of modern man strongly depends upon the socio-economic conditions in which it takes place.
At the same time, the technological revolution complicates the relations between nations, especially between "the Third World" and the developed capitalistic states. The principles of socialistic life are reviewed next to explain how capitalistic and socialistic states use the achievements of the progress of science and technology differently. Firsov states several western authors' beliefs about the use of new technology toward increasing an egalitarian society. However, the danger of technology becoming stronger than its creators and not doing what it was planned to accomplish is inherent in the nature of the social relations in that country.

Unesco statistics on the distribution of various mass media in different countries are reviewed to illustrate that only 21 states have adequate distribution or availability of mass media for their citizens. Most developing nations have just begun their technological communicative development. Almost every country is trying to create a communication structure that will fit in the best way for its own social and political purposes. The author reviews several western models of the stages of mass media growth to point out that mass media growth and use depends upon social relations. There is no "elit" in socialistic nations whose social and property status gives them an advantage of the foremost purchase of a new medium and the possibility of enforcing their tastes on others.

Of great importance is the understanding of the inevitability of increased individualization once mass media development has reached the level of saturation. A qualitative leap will occur when media used today are linked with computers and other advanced communications technology. The development of cultural outlook, the widening of the educational and professionally-technical outlook, etc., will occur by means of scientifically-oriented analysis of information and communication needs of the society.

Footnotes:

This comprehensive book with more than 30 articles covers many aspects of communication, including communication systems and concepts, freedom and restriction of communication, the role of communication in national development, propaganda and political communication, cultural communication, supranational communication, flow of news, and research. Bibliography of bibliographies included.


Desmond Fisher has outlined a philosophical framework for approaching the definition of the right to communicate. He begins by discussing the "descriptive statement" of the right to communicate drafted at the 1975 general meeting of the International Broadcast Institute in Cologne. He takes exception to the statement's equation of societal rights with individual rights, arguing that if society's rights are seen as equal to those of the individual, the individual's rights may become subordinate to the rights of the society. He suggests differentiating the right to communicate between primary and absolute human rights (the right to communicate) and secondary rights (freedom of information, expression, and of opinion). Society has the responsibility of ensuring these freedoms to the individual, unless the exercise of those rights threatens the rights of others. Author postulates "a hierarchy of rights, freedoms, responsibilities and entitlements, starting with the basic right of the individual to communicate, and being developed into a set of freedoms, responsibilities and entitlements, devolving on the individual and on society in different ways, to enable the right to be freely exercised and expanded."
This article is one in a special section titled "The Field of International Communication Research" in Public Opinion Quarterly journal. This article discusses the difficulties of fitting U.S. foreign policy into operation in radio broadcasts beamed abroad and in other communications to foreign nations. The authors stress the difficulties of analyzing the successfulness of their broadcasts and even of deciding the best kind of communication to reach the target audience. They stress the ethnocentrism that is an ever-present danger in any research by Americans on peoples in other countries, and stress the need of establishing foreign training centers and training area specialists to cope with analysis of foreign communication needs.

Nine articles on cultural dependency are included in this symposium: studying multinational domination of Colombian television (article by Elizabeth de Cardona); the effect of dependent status, held over from the colonial past, on the media of the British Commonwealth nations in the Caribbean (John A. Lent); the tourist industry's effects on the economies and cultures of the Caribbean countries (Louis Perez); the ways in which imported technology such as educational television can reflect cultural dependency (Robert Arnow); a university satellite-project in Latin America that failed (Neil P. Hurley); Lebanon's media problems due to dependence upon patronage from foreign and domestic interests (Nabil H. Dajani); multinational film conglomerates and problems such as the homogenization of films (Joseph D. Phillips); American programming in Australia and how that country is attempting to "kick the habit" (Myles P. Breen); how using borrowed concepts and methods in social science research have limited Latin American communication research activity (Luis Ramiro Beltrán).

Study concerns assessment of how news gets defined as "news" as information passes the various newsgatherers and disseminators that select and edit news according to certain standards. It is important to be aware of the various combinations of acceptance standards that exist in any region or nation to understand why some news has not much chance of becoming "news," thus continuing communication discrimination, of a sort, by its absence. In this study of Norwegian newspapers, the factors that are involved in the decision if a story is either "news" or not are: (1) the more similar the frequency of the event is to the frequency of the news medium, the more probable that it will be recorded as news by that news medium; (2) there is a threshold that the event will have to pass before it is recorded at all; (3) an event with a clear interpretation, free from ambiguities in its meaning, is preferred to the highly ambiguous event from which many and inconsistent implications can and will be made; (4) there is some measure of ethnocentrism operative (cultural proximity); (5) mental pre-images cause the newsgatherer or news-receiver to interpret news according to that pre-image more readily than other news; (6) the more unexpected incidents have the highest chances of being included as news, then it will continue to be defined as news for some time even if the amplitude is drastically reduced. Four additional factors were tested and found to be true: (1) the more the event concerns elite nations, the more probable that it will become a news item; (2) the more the event can be seen in personal terms, as due to the action of specific individuals, the more probable that it will become a news item; (3) the more the event concerns elite people, the more probable
that it will become a news item; (4) the more negative the event in its consequences,
the more probable that it will become a news item. Authors offer some explanations
concerning the idea of personification to tie the model together.

The importance of negative news being preferred is also analyzed. Some of those reasons
are: (1) negative news enters the news channels more easily because it satisfies the
frequency criterion better; (2) negative news will more easily be consensual and un-
ambiguous in the sense that there will be agreement about the interpretation of the
event as negative; (3) negative news is said to be more consonant with at least some
dominant pre-images of our time; (4) negative news is more unexpected than positive
news, both in the sense that the events referred to are more rare, and in the sense
that they are less predictable. These factors are used in the analysis of three inter-
ternational crises that did not directly affect Norway and in which the news came
via the international news agencies. Graphs and statistics provided.

Gerbner, George, Cross, Larry P. and William H. Melody, Editors. Communication Tech-
nology and Social Policy: Understanding the New "Cultural Revolution." New York,

Perhaps more than at any other time in our history, information and control over
communications can be directly associated with economic and political power. This
volume discusses the issues and problems of directing the tidal wave of communications
technology toward the achievement of public interest objectives. Since a great price
has had to be paid for the neglect of the social and environmental consequences of
air and water pollution in directing the course of a number of technologies introduces
in the past, this book is an attempt to understand the processes and measurement mech-
nisms of communications technology so that the social and cultural implications of
this media can more adequately be dealt with in the future.

Part I deals with the fundamental characteristics and capabilities of new and de-
veloping technologies, potential new applications of the technologies for providing
new kinds of communication services along with benefits or problems associated with
these applications. Part II analyzes the effects of specific changes in communica-
tions technology on the policy foundations of government regulation and the economic
structure of communications industries, apparent limitations of existing institutional-
arrangements on the formulation of public policy, and opportunities for changing
the structure of communications institutions for greater public benefit. Part III
studies the relevance of our inherited educational institutions for meeting the re-
quirements of a humanistic education in the society of tomorrow, and the opportuni-
ties and limitations of communications technologies for enhancing this educational
function. Part IV studies "Urban Communications," emphasizing the broad-band cable
and its potential to help solve a multitude of serious urban problems as well as pio-
neering developments in the utilization of initial cable systems.

Part V is of vital concern to understanding the less developed nation's communica-
tion planning dilemmas in the light of the awareness of "communication imperialism" that
they feel is coming from the producers of this technology. Katz' article, "Tele-
vision as a Horseless Carriage," says that TV development in other nations is following
its predecessor, radio, and giving more and more hours per day of trivial, imported
movies and entertainment shows, thus being very dysfunctional in the role of nation-
building and the stimulation of indigenous cultural expression and creativity. Norden-
stroem and Varis' article, "The Nonhomogeneity of the Nation State and the Internation-
al Flow of Communication," says that the biggest communication gap is between the
people with power and those without it in any nation, and that the importance of mass
communications is being realized by many segments of a nation, thus opening up con-
sciousness of major societal flaws which heretofore were more easily masked by various
social control methods. He also documents that the media is a large profit-making
segment of any society, regardless of its other roles. In Schiller's article, "Auth-
entic National Development versus the Free Flow of Information and the New Communi-
cations Technology," Schiller's point is that key technological developments do re-
fect the social origins of their place of creation, thus are not transferable to other
countries in toto without damage to the receiving nations. No technology is
is value-free in its development as is shown by radio and television, which clearly
reflect commercial interests. Any national policy that limits imported films, pro-
gramming, books, etc., has to provide far-reaching structural changes in the prevail-
ing domestic economic order in order to succeed. (China is mentioned as example of
this.) This section also includes articles on China's experience with mass communica-
tions and cultural revolution and Chile's experience with socialist revolution and the
mass media. Part VI discusses the need to develop measures to assess the
communications technologies and social and cultural trends. Then policy decisions
that reflect consideration of these trends can be implemented.

Gillmor reviews the widespread interest in the freedom of communication in writings from many American sources, no matter what their political alignment, to show that the right to communicate is an integral part of the process of American democracy. He reviews where the U.S.A. stands today on actual issues such as the debate by U.S. Senators on an Official Secrets Act, or on the use of "fighting words." There are many cases where the Supreme Court has never issued a unanimous decision due to continuing debate. The growing problem is that even though the First Amendment is a protection for the rights of solitary speakers, the development of mass communication technology and the concentration of media ownership make a mockery of this right. Author laments the decreasing opportunity of citizens to utilize constitutionally given right to communicate.


Report covers the symposium by more than 40 editors, broadcasters and other journalistic leaders from five continents, to discuss the status of press freedom around the world, and censorship and other barriers to free expression, to examine the responsibility of the press and chart ways to combat press restrictions and improve the flow of information in, and between, nations. It was also held to further discuss the manifesto on world press freedom that was signed in October 1973 by leading journalistic organizations. Ways that the press around the world can combat restrictions on press freedom are outlined. Participant list is included.


Gosewinckel, Chief Planning Officer of the Overseas Telecommunications Commission (Australia), foresees a continuing rapid growth in world telecommunications, along with the emergence of new services and a decline in costs. Intercontinental transmission will be mainly by satellite or by submarine cable which should be seen as complementary, rather than competing, systems. The achievement of an effective and efficient world communication network will depend on whether the international telecommunications organizations can jointly develop the necessary financing and planning machinery on a global scale. He foresees considerable organizational problems that cannot easily be solved and that will require recognition that financial involvement will be necessary but that the economic benefits of efficient planning may flow to all participating countries.

Information also is given on Intelsat, the British Commonwealth Telecommunications Organisation, and ITU.


This article discusses the legal implications of computer storage of data outside the country where the information originated, and of the new satellite sensing devices which can sense information about a country without its authorities knowledge. It concerns the fundamental but frequently competing values of sovereignty on the one hand and the flow of information and ideas on the other. Recent developments in communications technology have constituted a major new, and often unsettling, factor in these competing values. Some of the statues of the International Telecommunication Convention concerning these problems are discussed. Three activities of significant importance are elaborated upon: (1) transborder transmission of television programs intended for the general public; (2) the communication by satellite of knowledge about man's environment and resources; and, (3) the impact of technology on information which, through the combination of computers and computerized data banks, can remove or transform the locale in which information is kept. International approaches to this problem are suggested.

This article is one of three in a special presentation titled "Cultural Exchange--or Invasion?" The author traces some of the major types of financing for American film-making, including co-production and multinational production, of which American corporations reap the largest profits. As the author says, "With markets in more than 80 countries, the American film occupies more than 50 percent of world screen time and accounts for about half of global film trade." Since this industry is so very heavily dependent on foreign markets, the article examines some of the legislation encouraging this development. Another point is that, according to Jack Valenti, quoted in this article: "Foreign governments earn more income from the showing of American films (through import, admission, and income taxes) than do the producers of those films." A very important point the author develops is that due to heavy American financing in European film-making, Europeans cannot expect to retain autonomy in the cultural or social spheres of their industry.


All of the regularly scheduled newscasts, morning and evening, weekday and weekends, plus all documentaries, news specials, instant specials and special reports broadcast by ABC, CBS, NET and NBC in May 1970 were analyzed for attention to international affairs.

The 82 documentaries and special programs were qualitatively analyzed; the 140 newscasts were analyzed by a new instrument, Tridex, which measures television attention to or play of a story by weighting its points to reflect: (1) position in the newscast; (2) time devoted to a news item; and (3) visual augmentation (slides, silent film, sound film, videotape, satellite transmission). These weights are more indicative of an editor's value of a story, and of the audience's probable perception of that value, than are simple item counts.

Attention to four categories of news was analyzed: (1) international news [I] internal and external affairs of other nations with indirect impact on the U.S.; (2) international/domestic [ID], foreign stories with direct impact on the U.S.; (3) domestic/international [DI], domestic news with direct impact on other nations; and (4) domestic [D] U.S. news with indirect impact abroad.

The results indicate that on the average networks give more than half (51 percent) of their attention to internationally oriented news. Morning and weekend newscasts are substantially more internationally oriented than weekday newscasts on all networks. Documentaries and news specials are somewhat less internationally oriented (40 percent), but a disproportionately high number of documentaries on international issues are broadcast on weekends.

Thesis examines relationship between China's foreign policy objectives and international communication. A single government medium, The New China News Agency, is studied. Content analysis focuses on detection of the order of importance to the People's Republic of China of other world regions. Analysis is made to determine the relative weight China gives different world regions and the results obtained compared to the rank order of foreign policies attributed to Peiping.

The study indicates that possibly China's international communications operation was more concerned with national security than with proclaimed foreign policy objectives outside Asia.


Study was to discern characteristics typifying the flow of international news over the Associated Press' domestic trunk wires down to its Wisconsin State Wire and eventually into 15 small to medium-sized dailies in Wisconsin. Variables studied were points of origin of international news, which nations were primarily concerned, subject matter, and the quantity of such news as measured by item and by column inch; also surveyed attitudes of some newspaper wire editors. Subject matter of foreign news was divided into 19 categories, one special to Wisconsin (Vietnam war casualties). A "developed" nations defined as being U.S.A., Canada, the European nations, Japan, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. All others have been classed as developing. Study ran for 14-day period, excluding Sundays, in June 1969.

AP has different wire services: 'A' wire carries what the news agency's main office in New York judges to be most important international and domestic stories; 'B' wire carries mainly supplemental information; specialized wires such as for sports and business are also used. In Chicago, the Interbureau Wire editors select news from all wires for sending out on a special wire, (IB), to states using this AP service.

During study: 'A' wire transmitted 24.7 percent international news, 'B' wire - 19.7 percent, the Wisconsin State wire - 19.3 percent. News from "developed" nations was 71 percent of international news on 'A' wire, 76.4 percent on 'B' wire, 69 percent on Wisconsin wire during study. Table itemizes percentages of news on each wire from each developed nation. Largest percent of foreign news concerned the United States and its relations with other nations. Table on news from each developing nation on the three wires. News was more dispersed from less-developed nations. News from North and South Vietnam or from Mainland China was predominant in the "less-developed" nations category.

Table on imbalance in foreign news: News concerning war and military-defense activities predominated in items from both developing and developed countries, but a much higher percentage was devoted to this subject category in the news concerning developing countries.

Interviews revealed that "IB" editors seem to share the "A" wire editors' sense of news values, or at least do not see fit to change the foreign news stories very much. Only two men basically determine what news will be selected from the main trunk "day" wire of the AP for transmission on the "IB" wire and then on to the Wisconsin and other state wires. Author describes these gatekeepers as "the most important gatekeepers of AP news in U.S.A."

Approximately 80 to 90 percent of all the international non-pictorial news items appearing in the 15 papers studied had the AP wires for a source. Author describes papers studied as typical of small to medium-sized U.S.A. dailies, with circulations ranging from 43,430 to 5,120. Newspapers studied varied widely in their use of available foreign news from the AP. Average usage of foreign news from the AP was 30.5 percent. International items averaged 8.4 percent of the news space in the 15 papers. Only a relative handful of nations accounted for most of the foreign news appearing in the paper. (Tables present column inches and percentage of column inches of news concerning either developed or developing nations.)
Only a few of the subject-matter categories accounted for most of the foreign news items in the dailies, as on the AP wires. In both developed and developing nations, military-defense subjects received predominant coverage. A table also presents statistics on usage of social and economic development news from developed and developing nations: Percentages were very small.

Perceptions of editors summarized. Editors generally ranked reader interest as being highest in war news, followed by human interest, crime-justice, and foreign relations. Editors perceived, in general, high reader interest in Western European news, Asian news interest mainly due to U.S. military involvement.


This study traces and characterizes the flow of the news via the Associated Press from its Latin American bureaus to its New York headquarters and from there onto the AP U.S. trunk wires and also onto the wires of the agency's world services. Stories written in the bureaus were analyzed for length, subject matter, nationality of gatekeeper handling items and method of transmission to New York during the period from June 28-July 18, 1971. Methods of gathering data included content analysis, personal observation and interviews with gatekeepers. Field research was conducted in New York, Mexico City, Buenos Aires, Santiago and La Paz, Bolivia. An effort was also made to determine gatekeepers' perceptions of the kinds of news their AP superiors expected and the types of news U.S. AP members desired in Latin American news.

The same types of analysis were used on the Latin American news passed on from New York after gatekeepers there had made their selection.

It was found that more than 350,000 words of news were sent from the Latin American bureaus--more than half being transmitted by communications satellite. Heaviest emphasis was placed on sports, foreign relations, domestic government and politics and crime/criminal violence, in descending order.

Little emphasis was given to such areas as Latin American development, economics, education, religion, agriculture, science-medicine or human interest. Generally the gatekeepers in Latin American bureaus edited their wires to New York in a manner congruent with their perceptions of what AP superiors and U.S. members desired in news.

The flow of Latin American news dwindled to only a trickle--about 7 per cent of that sent from the bureaus as New York gatekeepers placed it on the U.S. trunk wires. Not only was volume drastically cut, but fewer subjects were used from Latin America. More than half the volume relayed from New York to U.S. users was concerned with one category--crime/criminal violence. The AP New York gatekeepers edited Latin American news for U.S. trunk wires in a manner highly correlated with perceptions of the types of news U.S. AP members desired from Latin America.

The study indicated that the many mass media users of the AP Latin American report on the trunk wires have only a very curtailed amount of news for their potential use, and that such news may not give a very rounded representation of events in Latin America, although it does report some of the more important "spot" news happenings.
Author reports, according to calculations from 1971 Editor and Publisher Yearbook, nearly half of all the U.S. daily papers use only Associated Press wire services. Approximately 20 percent of the other U.S. dailies use AP along with some other wire service.

Study is of flow of news via the AP from Latin America to the final AP news wire services. Method of study was a combination of on-the-spot observations in four AP Latin American bureaus, interviews with those writing and editing Latin American news in the bureaus, and extensive content analyses of all copy transmitted by the Latin American bureaus (excluding Brazil and the Caribbean) for the period from June 28 to July 18, 1971.

Variables studied in the content analysis were: who initiated story coverage, whether a North American or non-North American handled the story, language of item, AP item number, dateline, nation receiving primary and secondary emphasis in item, subject category, and length of item in words. Questionnaires were administrated to persons having a role in the news transfer.

Author reviews some previous studies in this area, how the AP operates in Latin America. Since 1968, communications satellite transmission of the news has been an integral part of AP Latin American services, linking many Latin America news offices with New York. AP editors estimate that the volume of Latin American transmission to New York has increased five-fold since the introduction of the 24-hour, leased circuits.

Findings. In the four bureaus author studied, only 15 staff members were responsible for flow of international news from Latin America to New York, and these staff members were responsible for 57 percent of the flow of international news to New York. Volume of news from the Latin American bureaus totalled 1,636 items. Table 1. Percentages of total items categorized into 18 subjects. Nearly 72 percent can be attributed to just four subjects -- sports, domestic politics and government, foreign relations (relations between national governments), and crime-criminal violence. Table 2 shows this breakdown into subject percentages by each of the 9 bureaus studied (Bogota, Buenos Aires, Caracas, La Paz, Lima, Mexico, Montevideo, Quito, Santiago).

Three out of four items sent to New York were in Spanish, the rest in English. Approximately four out of five of all items transmitted to New York from the bureaus were written by non-U.S. citizens. Various subject-matter categories were handled in different percentages by either non-U.S. or by U.S. citizens. 66.3 percent of items sent from noon to midnight each 24-hour period. 56 percent of the time, Latin American nations received primary emphasis in items, while U.S. received primary emphasis 44 percent of the time.

Attrition rate of news transmitted from Latin American bureaus and on to specialized AP news wires were very high (7.8 percent of items got on 'A' wire, 3.1 percent of different items got on 'B' wire). There were considerable changes in amounts of space devoted to subject-matter categories in the retransmission of Latin American news from New York. Nearly half of all the items retransmitted on the 'A' wire were in the crime-criminal category, while only 14 percent of the original items moved from the bureaus in Latin America were in this category. However, nearly one in three items on the 'B' wire from Latin America were in that category.

New York AP also shortened the items used. The average-length item from Latin America was 228 words, while items from New York on 'A' wire averaged 202 words, and items from New York on 'B' wire averaged 187 words. The stories transmitted on each wire also had different percentages of stories from different cities. This emphasizes priority of importance since 'A' wire stories are considered more important, while 'B' wire stories are more supplemental.

Analysis of gatekeepers' questionnaires revealed profile, which described. Latin American gatekeepers felt that U.S.-AP. offices most interested in stories directly involving U.S. interests. The five subject areas they felt were most important, in descending order are: 1. stories directly involving U.S. interests; 2. Articles about revolutions and coups; 3. stories about crime-criminal violence; 4. Items about catastrophes and disasters; 5. Domestic government -- politics and foreign relations (tie). Review of New York gatekeeper profile and views reviewed. Both New York and Latin American gatekeepers perceptions of news interest were highly correlated.
This article summarizes a study done on one United States daily and three Israeli daily newspapers to find out if the following factors are influential in affecting reader interest in foreign news and the flow of news between nations: (1) physical distance between countries; (2) nature of news events; and (3) political-economic dominances of certain countries. The authors review these theses and studies done concerning them. Their methodology for the study is included. The results of the study showed that physical distance had little significant association with foreign news content in Israeli and American newspapers studied. There were some general differences between the newspapers studied. Using the New Orleans Times Picayune as representing an American readership on Sunday of 307,000 persons, which is approximately that of the combined readership of the three Israeli newspapers, the study showed that the Israeli papers are more foreign-news-minded than are American papers. They devote a larger proportion of their space to foreign news; they have larger news-gathering staffs abroad; and they depend on their own sources more than they rely on news agencies. This study offers some support for the arguments that international news tends to be more factual and straight-forward than analytical, that it is more concerned with coverage of elites than with common people, that it tends to be concerned with Big Power nations, and that the news flow tends to be one-way from these larger nations to the smaller ones.

This article concerns the reporting of African news in other nations' or international news publications. Although suggestions are specifically for African scene, the implications can be utilized for problems in news gathering and dissemination in any Third World setting where lack of knowledge and data about background of news events cause distortions in the news media.

Author suggests eight factors as possible contributors to deficiencies in understanding, reporting and commenting upon African affairs. Three relate to the work of non-African journalists and to their relationships with home editorial offices. They are: (1) Lack of conceptual tools for analyzing and understanding political events in post-colonial era. Prejudices and Western notions about Africa. (2) Journalists fraternize with expatriates, people in hotels, bars and private homes, and are subjected to all kinds of popular interpretations. (3) Even if journalists understand the above problems, their articles are not understood by editors back home, who are looking for dramatic or appealing events more likely to be considered "news." If the journalist is a free-lance worker, he will look for this kind of "news" since it will more likely be sold.

Other factors relate to "gate-keepers," editors, and commentators in the metropolitan editorial offices of newspapers and news magazines. (1) The definition of "news" varies over time, news gets stale quickly so follow-up articles on news decrease rapidly, even though the later news would make the picture more complete. (2) Lack of specialists on African events or lack of files or archives easily available. (3) Commentators have a tendency to look for "good" or "evil" forces in reviewing conflicts, instead of studying structural conditions of the conflict. (4) The influence of domestic or international political commitments of governments or newspapers or news-services color the news that come from their offices. (5) The existence of racial prejudice in reporting about different tribal groups, or nationalities of persons involved in news.

Solutions to these problems are offered but the author stresses that the power of metropolitan editorial offices of international new media must be reduced by increased emphasis on trained journalists in the field.

Author subdivides the concept of a right to communicate into five sectors: the right to speak, to be heard, to be replied to, to make reply, and to listen. An examination is made of whether any existing restrictions on the right to communicate can be regarded as justifiable, and of the extent to which these considerations are applicable within telecommunications facilities.

Restrictions on the right to speak differ from one society to another. In personal communication--as distinguished from telecommunications--not giving offense to the other party is the only justifiable restriction. Therefore, in mass media where there is a wider audience, the restrictions must be more severe. Enemy propaganda may impart ideas that will arouse alarm and despondency, therefore there must be restrictions on the communication of some ideas. So, there are restrictions not only on the right to freedom of expression but also on the freedom to hold opinions. Everyone should have a right to be heard by those in authority. Any right to speak certainly does not entail a right to be listened to. Therefore a right to communicate depends on mutual agreement between the parties to the communication as to the time and place and subject matter.

If a person has a right to speak, he is not entitled to insist on a reply from anyone who is not under obligation to listen. There should be a right to elicit a reply from those offering services to the public. In some countries, it is a criminal offense to receive foreign broadcasts. The question is asked whether it is justifiable to restrict freedom to receive information and ideas. Author stresses impracticality of definitions that are too widely drawn or are incompatible with differing social, legislative, and political structures as they exist in the world today.


Prepared for the 7th Space Congress in 1970, this paper explores the opportunities for providing new TV broadcast services and a variety of social benefits from broadcasting with satellites and CATV. The relative costs of the various alternatives are outlined, and new regulatory and operational policies are suggested. The paper is intended to ease international concern about the control of satellite broadcasting in order to gain support for permissive frequency allocations. Also, it attempts to stimulate domestic vested interests by outlining novel opportunities available under the suggested new policies.


Information flow in Bangladesh is described by historical, economic and social factors. The population is rather evenly spread throughout Bangladesh, assisting in mass media development. Radio plays the most important role in development since the majority of citizens are illiterate. Statistics on radio use and type of programming are provided. About one-third of total radio time is filled by foreign broadcasting.

Of the three news agencies, one is privately owned. About 70 per cent of the copy disseminated by the national wire service comes from the international news agencies due to inadequacy of communication facilities and staff in the country. There are 23 daily newspapers, of which four are owned by the government due to previous owners abandoning facilities during independence period. Six of the papers are in English with the rest in Bengali. Statistics on average and total daily circulation are given.

There is one television station in Dacca which is managed by the government. Statistics on foreign versus local programming are included. The cost of and license fee for the locally manufactured TV set are given. Some film statistics are included. Measures for improvement of flow of information are suggested.
The 1974 IBI Annual Meeting in Mexico concentrated on four themes: New Technologies, New Rights; A Re-Definition of Access; Communication Policies and Social Goals; and, Changing Technologies Challenge Education Policies. About 30 background papers were submitted to the four committees. Highlights are summarized.

1) New Technologies, New Rights. Since new technology has merged the functions of the telephone, telegraph, and mass communications such as broadcasting, and most forms of transmission and reception can carry on all forms of communication there is the need for revision of legislation and agreements to regulate this situation. The result will be increased freedom for people to communicate, whatever the controls are, due to coaxial cables and satellites, and the costs of control.

2) A Re-Definition of Access. Access to communication programming by citizens is increasingly being demanded from certain parts of the public. Different types of societies affect the attitudes to access. In developing countries access and participation is aimed at involving citizens in national development and in providing alternatives to culturally alien communications technologies, while in highly competitive systems access is more difficult and in socialist countries access is interpreted in a broader social and political context and in the framework of that countries’ history. The committee defined access and participation as a whole spectrum of citizen involvement in mass media efforts achieving at its most advanced stage new social systems of communications. Participation involves the integration of the messages of an individual or group into the existing programme formats of an established communications organization.

3) Communication Policies and Social Goals. People who deal in the new communications technology need to widen their perspectives to cover all its implications, such as pollution, social and economic imperatives, political effects and the implications for national development. There is a need for up-to-date evaluation of experiments in new communications services, and all aspects of new technology.

4) Changing Technologies Challenge Education Policies. The Committee concluded that “the new technologies are no panacea for communications development. It is particularly important for political decision-makers and planners to be aware of the available options among systems and to select the appropriate one for their local circumstances.” Although the underlying concepts and techniques can be transferred successfully, cultural damage could result from the transfer of different cultural values via the media hardware. In developing countries, government ownership of communication systems is preferable to private ownership due to government commitment to national development. In all these committees, proposals for further research in specific topics were developed.
This publication is divided into three main subject areas which were discussed at the 1975 Annual Conference of the IBI held in Cologne. These subject areas were: Communication in Support of Development (four papers); Communications Policy Research and Planning (six papers); and The Right to Communicate (four papers). These papers were selected from the many working papers delivered at the conference.

**Part I: Communication in Support of Development.** Ramanujam Balakrishnan's article, “Training for the Use of Communication in Support of Development,” discusses many of the ramifications of training in communications that to date have been underinvested in by developing nations. James Kangwana's article, “Communication for Development in Kenya,” discusses the different stages of development and how the communications structure in Kenya is trying to keep up with changing conditions. Paul Boyd's article, “Building National Development Support Communication Systems,” discusses the problem of piecemeal projects that give conflicting messages to the listener and stresses the need for unified social and economic planning. Christopher A. Nasimento's article, “Introduction of Development Support Communication in Guyana,” gives a brief description of Guyana's developing Communication Support System and some of the problem areas the government is studying.

**Part II: Communications Policy Research and Planning.** Richmond Postgate's article, "The Coordination of Educational and Communications Development," gives three countries as examples of difficulties in coordinating planning between educators, communications specialists and government planners. Don R. Le Duc's article, "The Ending of Broadcast Regulation and the Beginnings of Telecommunication Policy," discusses the formulation of future telecommunications policy by reference to earlier transportation policy models. Tadao Nomura's article, "Recent Trends of Telecommunications Policy in Japan," discusses major policy trends concerning coaxial cable information systems, multiplex and multiple broadcasting services, broadcasting satellites, and computer-combined communication in Japan. Majid Tehranian's article, "Background to the Future Role of Broadcasting in Iran," discusses the history of radio and television in Iran, and a study called 'Soroush,' a modified Delphi technique, is explained. This Soroush attempted to determine the role of the media in Iranian national development. Monroe Price's article, "Telecommunications Policy Decision-Making," reviews cable broadcasting history as a means to emphasize that research is needed on how relevant public bodies make decisions, what influences their choices, and what vision of telecommunication policy the government officials hold. The Elizabeth de Cardona and Luis Beltran article, "Towards the Development of a Methodology for the Diagnosis of Public Communications Institutions in Venezuela," studied the structure of television and radio institutions in Venezuela to formulate national communication policies.

**Part III: The Right to Communicate.** Gunnar Naesselund's article, "Relations Between and Perspectives within ‘Development Support Communication,’ ‘Communications Policy Research and Planning’ and ‘The Right to Communicate,’" brings together the trend toward increasing importance of communication in UN activities, in national development plans, and in the changing social conditions in the world. Jerry Pomorski's article, "Right to Communicate: National Legislation or International Policy?" discusses the idea of the 'right to communicate' as too idealistic because of six dilemmas existing between individuals in a state, and states rights versus international rights. The L.S. Harms and Jim Richstad article, "Human Rights, Major Communication Issues, Communication Policies and Planning - And the Right to Communicate," reviews the changing viewpoint in communication since Article 19 of the UN Charter, presents an interchange communication model, and specifies issue areas and questions in the study and development of the right to communicate. In Edward Ploman's article, "The Right to Communicate: Present International Legal Framework," reviews international laws to show that laws have developed from different legal frameworks (such as Roman or common law), and some differences in opinion about the present international legal framework are not political problems but legal ones.
This book is part of a series in which each book deals with a particular country as the press of several others perceived it, and how correspondents from these same other countries perceived their country as written about in its press. The other books in the series concern the press of United States, France, West Germany, India. These reports stem from the study of the flow of foreign news that the International Press Institute conducted in 1952-53. This time period was before television news became prevalent. This book is important for its methodology in cross-cultural analysis of how the press of each country perceives another country with whom it is engaged with for many common interests. Even though the U.S.A., Britain and India can communicate in the same language and have some cultural similarities, still many press releases cause inaccurate pictures of the other country. When the language translation is necessary for news to be received in the second country, more error comes in.

As the countries' cultural background and customs differs more, there is less understanding of news as it comes straight off the wire. Editorial selection and shortening of important speeches or news articles as was necessary especially in this post-World War II period when newspaper supplies were limited, caused news from one or another country to be briefer than it should have been to assist understanding of the news in the other country. Certain kinds of news are more popular between Britain and the other countries in this book. "Human interest" articles, articles on the Royal Family and famous people, unusual or tragic news seem to lead in getting presented to another country. Newspapers which depend strictly upon the wire services for their news present the news with less perspective and enlightenment than do newspapers with other sources for their news.

This milestone study was done in 1952 to 1953 and concentrated on daily newspapers in three areas of the world--the United States, Western Europe and India. The purpose of the study was to study the importance of foreign news in the formation of public opinion, and the International Press Institute used the cooperation of newspaper editors, news agency executives and foreign correspondents to study the qualitative aspects of the news, and used its own resources (and the assistance of 10 American schools and departments for the American project) for the quantitative aspects. This study was divided into three projects--a study of the flow of news into and out of the United States, a study of the flow between West Germany and seven other countries of Western Europe, and a study of the flow of news between India and "the West." Some suggestions for improvement in each of these news flow imbalances are offered by experts involved in the study. Some of the broad conclusions of this study are: (1) The news agencies, which for the average newspaper are the paramount source, supply a very large volume of foreign news to their clients; (2) The news agencies' coverage is centered heavily on a few major countries--the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and one or two others--and also on the international organizations in which these are associated. The official acts, attitudes and problems of these countries and organizations form the subject of a majority of agency foreign news stories; (3) The stories flowing from the news agencies are first and foremost "spot news" and "headline news" stories. But the agencies have increasingly recognized the need for explanatory writing, interpretation of the news, and the Institute's study reflected this; (4) The agency materials from which the average press picture is formed are in every way more extensive than the newspaper editor can use. The problem of how the foreign news is edited due to space limitations is severe; (5) The statistics for the average foreign news in U.S.A., India and European papers are given in summary as: In the U.S.A., the average newspaper prints a little more than four columns a day of foreign news. In Europe and India the average paper prints less, although its percentage coverage is higher; and (6) That this amount of foreign news is not enough but due to space limitations much explanation of that news that would make foreign news more understandable to the average reader is left out, and consequently, that the average reader does not read very much of the foreign news in his newspaper and that his level of knowledge about important events abroad is quite low. The Appendices including the statistics for each of the studies cover about 70 pages, and the International Press Institute states that they had to include only the most important statistics due to space limitations.
This is a brief history of the International Press Institute, its founding principles (including: 1. direct action through public protests and by giving publicity to infringements of press freedom; 2. confidential interventions to governments; 3. on-the-spot investigations by IPI observers in areas where press freedom appears to be endangered; and 4. published studies of governmental pressures on newspapers), how it defended press freedoms, its various publications and projects. Appendixes: IPI publications of 1952-1962, and Executive board members.

This article discusses the paucity of news from China (in that time period), and the possible reasons for it. Japan gave the very best coverage to Chinese news, even with the same few number of correspondents stationed in China as had Reuters and the Indian press. The Japanese newspapers surveyed in this IPI study devoted 10-20 times more space proportionally to China than did British, German or Indian papers. Reuters News Agency provides a lot of material from China, but German and British newspapers show a lot of reserve about using it, and frequently use New China News Agency news with a byline identifying the source to inform readers that it is censored news.

One reason given by the article for such poor coverage of Chinese news is the lack of "China experts" in newspaper head offices. Following Japanese newspapers' policies in searching for relevant Chinese news could be a model.

A graph shows the press rates for messages from and to seven major cities in Asia and five major cities in the West.

This study was done by IPI because of the difficulty with understanding the news that came from Russia due to the difference in philosophy of the U.S.S.R. government in regard to using the news for attainment of the government's aims. The book is historically useful to understand the problems of the world's press in attempting to receive information about the U.S.S.R. Some of the topics covered are: the Russian view of the press; censorship and restriction on movement; the reports of Moscow correspondents; other sources (such as peripheral correspondents, refugees, and the Russian press and radio); the value of the composite picture. Suggestions for improvement are offered.

This survey was undertaken to help the flow of news from the Middle East. The authors relied on members of the press for information. The countries included: Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Lebanon, Syria, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, the Sudan, Arabia, Iran and Israel. Problems of coverage are restrictions on newsgathering in the surveyed countries; visa and travel difficulties; access to news. One section discusses agency and newspaper coverage.

Some major problems of coverage are: lack of interpretation; geographical unevenness of coverage; the kinds of news reported; distortion and bias in reporting; the quality of coverage; the problem of foreign language. The book's conclusions suggest ways to improve news coverage. Appendixes include: Coverage of the Middle East by the major western news agencies; Correspondents expelled or put under other forms of pressure in this time period; Cable and telephone rates from these areas to major news agencies of Europe, New Delhi or New York.
The problems of access to the media are given from the viewpoint of a professional newsmen in Japan. The day-to-day problems of political constraints in international news gathering and distribution systems that inhibit the "free flow of information" and in particular, the monopolization of news handling rights by the four major international wire services are related by the author.

The author's personal experiences with the Kyodo News Agency of Japan and with the Unesco Organization of Asian News Agencies (OANA), among others, are reviewed to outline some of the positive and negative aspects of having to deal with the AP, UPI, Reuters, and AFP. Author questions whether any of the wire service editors sending news releases are aware of the presence of the number of translators in the different countries receiving the information. The cultural and language orientations and biases of newsmen in, say, New York, are inevitably transmitted to other countries, and Iwanaga questions the "rightness" of bombarding foreign news and information on a country that has not yet developed its own resources to the extent where they can determine how much, what kind, and in what manner they wish to receive and interchange information.

Although the world stands generally united on the right to communicate, it stands divided when the question of interpretation or application of it in daily life comes up. Rights do not exist in a vacuum. Rights presuppose obligation, responsibility, a behavior-pattern, a process of self-assessment. Communicating and receiving processes are an integral part of this "right." The common objective of world peace and maximum happiness for the ordinary human being require thinking to be channeled toward a common objective and the evolution of a method of understanding at all levels.

Language is fundamental to a discussion of the right to communicate since communication requires a common language or symbol system. But no international lingua franca has been developed. A universal right to communicate requires human beings to be treated as one family, meaning a code of ethics with each person aware of these basic values.

The world-wide debate on the right to communicate reflects a mood of discontentment and despair. Despite technological advances, there is still a lack of communication among nations, regions, races, and from man to man. We have failed to utilize previous opportunities of communicating with our fellow beings and must look within ourselves to find out about these shortcomings in order to correct them sincerely.

The great technological advances in communication have been poorly used. Much of the technological breakthrough has been one-sided--pertaining to the channels of communication alone. The "source" and the "target" have not changed at all. The rationale of the right to communicate depends on the access to electronic instruments to transmit and receive. Yet, at present only about 5 percent of South Asians have a transistor radio. The idea of a global village now remains in the realm of probability.

A change in political and economic factors has necessitated superpowers realizing that cooperation is necessary for mutual survival. The new "cold war" may be termed a "communication warfare." The urge to increase respective spheres of influence has led the superpowers to give communication top priority. Communication must be discussed at ethical, political and technological levels.
Essay begins with the story of Sherif Al-Akhawy, a broadcaster for Radio Lebanon, who started telling the listeners what he thought was happening during the civil war, while he was supposed to be only telling the citizens which streets were safe. The people believed him, and even with severe government pressure, he was allowed to continue broadcasting due to the citizens taking to the streets in large masses to preserve his freedom. His story is a good example of the people's right to know and their actions toward that right.

Kandil reviews the status of broadcasting pressures on Radio Lebanon, and other radio stations that operated during the 1958 revolution in Lebanon, in which each station is or was an organ for a different political organization. Ever since the press started in Lebanon in 1958, every newspaper speaks on behalf of a certain group or sector. The lack of information available through these media has hindered development in the country. The situation through television is different. Two foreign countries now assist in running different channels, and this has caused biased news of other countries.

Professional communicators must "sell" the right of communication in countries where the communication media are dominated by the government as well as in other countries. A problem here is that when there is a contradiction between the people's needs and a state's policy, a professional has to think where his paycheck is coming from or where his future lies.

Essay reviews Middle East examples of improvement in the struggle for human rights which are closely allied to the right to communicate. As international tension in a region reduces, not only does the possibility of communication across borders increase, but also the right improves within a country. A conference of the Ministers of Information in the Gulf States in January 1976 brought together seven Gulf participant states to plan a regional communication policy and establish five major regional communication institutions in the area. The development of a regional communication infrastructure will improve the total communication system within and to and from the region. Some Unesco Gulf projects are discussed which present challenges to the current power structure and increase the possibility of participatory communication.

Kandil stresses that rights differ from one society to another due to the different political system, level of development, etc., and to compare communication systems and environments is fraught with difficulty.

After reviewing statistics illustrating unprecedented growth of mass media, author mentions a study in Federal Republic of Germany in which 180 habitual TV viewers were asked not to watch TV for a full year, for which they were given some form of compensation. No person in that study continued without TV for over five months, exemplifying the dominance of this media in lives of many persons in developed societies. In developing nations with high illiteracy rates, mass media such as radio and television offer illiterates their only source of information about developments in the world and exert a tremendous influence on them.

Information about the three largest U.S. television corporations is provided to stress their interest in high profits and their awareness of the use of the mass media as a key ideological weapon toward continuing their dominance. The problem of "freedom of speech" in the outpouring of television programs from the U.S. to other nations, with other nations being concerned about the content of these programs, is reviewed. Kashley says, "Western journalists usually claim that all this is inevitable under 'democracy' since it is a by-product of the 'information explosion' and the price of 'freedom of speech.' In short, they claim that no one in the West specializes in using information for political or ideological purposes."

The U.S. development of Liberty Radio, United States Information Agency, etc., are highlighted to illustrate that there is a great deal of information about the United States and misinformation about socialist nations given through these activities. Kashley says, "While rejecting the idea of any uncontrolled 'flow of informa-
tion and ideas' as being a badly camouflaged attempt to legalize intervention in the domestic affairs of other nations through the use of bourgeois propaganda instruments, the socialist countries believe that international cooperation in the sphere of information serving the interests of peace and mutual understanding and the cultural development of nations is possible and desirable. Some of the U.S.S.R.'s achievements in book publication and in the showing of Western TV programs is mentioned to support this statement. His conclusion is: "In the exchange of information, as in every other sphere of international relations, there are still considerable potentialities for improving and extending cooperation. Success in this field will largely depend on how consistently all countries are guided by the interests of peace and mutual understanding between nations, recognize the need to respect each other's sovereignty and customs, and base exchange of information on equality and goodwill."


Kato differentiates between "expressing oneself," which is a process of intrapersonal communication, and "communicating with others," which requires personal interaction. Reviewing examples of communication or non-communication between either persons, groups, or nations, he develops four different kinds of rights in communication. The communicator has two alternatives: the right to communicate or the right not to communicate. The communicatee also has two alternatives: the right to be communicated to or the right not to be communicated to.

Four combinations are possible from these different alternatives. But communication can only take place when the combination of the communicator having the right to communicate and the communicatee having the right to be communicated to happen at the same time. Otherwise there is either frustration of expectations or no communication at all.

In many countries in Asia, people are annoyed because the more powerful nations so consistently exercise their right to communicate, for example, by the broadcasting of Voice of America, or messages from the Soviet Union, etc. Many poor Asians listen to these messages and receive conflicting information. Developing nations have the right to resist or reject such imported information because such importation may threaten autonomous nation-building.


The earth is now covered by an "electronic coating"—that of the transistor radio. By the 1950's, the same coverage that was already built up in the developed nations was achieved in the developing nations. In 1967, the first global television broadcasting was conducted with great success, and since then the sense of distance, both psychological and physical, has become weaker. Global communication technology has great potential for better understanding among peoples. But in the field of popular culture, the emergence of 'world popular culture' has negative effects as well as positive ones, especially in developing countries.

Statistics are given concerning the watching of imported programs, especially from the U.S.A. and Japan. On the screen, middle-class values of an affluent, industrialized society are presented, and the impact of programs like these must have a very serious impact on the viewers in developing nations. No hard data on this impact is yet available. The danger is that people of developing nations are developing a sense of consumership long before they have developed a sense of producership that is necessary for their own country's nation-building, and which the U.S.A. and other industrialized nations already have gone through.

There is another potential tragedy, that of the national cultural tradition being lost because of the preponderance of imported materials. The author mentions media-induced changes in the classic sumo wrestling of Japan as an example of a damaged cultural heritage. In developing countries, international heroes are frequently more popular than national ones.
Communication is always the direct or indirect instrument of expressing prestige and power. Kaviya gives an example from a Thai peasant custom demonstrating this power-appeal behavior to illustrate that communication goes from the more powerful or wealthy without considering the responsive effect on the message receiver's side. The Big Powers, with their colossal communicating power, have mostly monopolized these processes, such as: capital mobilization, production, distribution and broadcasting. Many statistics from mass media usage in Thailand are presented to show this dominance.

Media utilization in Thailand depends upon foreign resources and production. Statistics on imported TV and film show that foreign films are predominantly shown in Thailand movie theaters and on television. The causes of this foreign dependence are highlighted. A serious problem in Thailand has been the increasing preference for western cultural items. Statistics from a current study are included. Another problem is the commercial structure and marketing pattern in Thailand. A table is presented which shows that of the top 11 advertising agencies in Thailand, only one of them is a Thai company.

The negative effects on economic, political and cultural areas are summarized. Some of these effects are: the unfavorable commercial balance in the trade of communication commodities; unfavorable commercial balance in general trade; working hours lost during the mass reception of satellite communications (such as an international sporting event); that mass communication is mostly monopolized by interest groups and dominant groups to the disadvantage of the have-nots and the national needs and goals; with the introduction of western or Japanese cultural packages, the younger generation, at present, feel that the Thai ways of life and thought have become old-fashioned.

Solutions at the local level and through international effort are offered.

Essay reviews a Japanese news story of major political importance there that was carried by international news agencies into U.S.A. newspapers as a bizarre news item, and several other studies of imbalance of news presented in U.S.A. and Japanese newspapers about news that occurred in the other nation, to illustrate the necessity of a world news agency that could be based in Japan to more adequately bring Asian news to other areas of the world.

Difficulty of Japanese language cited as major reason why Japan does not have its own world news agency. However, this difficulty could be overcome by translating Japanese news and information into English or other languages, as has occurred in other communications media in Japan.

Kawanaka reviews Japan's communication laws, lack of a national communication policy, and notes that Japanese media are free, with only a few restrictions. The essay reviews the qualifications of two of Japan's largest national news agencies toward becoming a world news agency.

This was a milestone study by UNESCO after the first publication of *World Communications* by UNESCO. This study shows how the daily press in 17 countries either increases or decreases the news disparities in information available to their readers. This comparative analysis of newspaper content is divided into several sections.

The first section described the news events of each day of March 4-10, 1951, and then a typical week's news. The second section has analyses of each of the newspapers, explaining briefly the history of each, some content analysis, and total square inches devoted to economic, social or financial news, cultural news, news on Korea, news on a political conference, and finally, special peculiarities of the paper. The third section of the book is a comparative analysis of how the newspapers reported the 10 most important items of the week.

After the summary and conclusions are various appendixes. One appendix is a study of four influential journals—London Times; Izvestia; New York Times; and Le Monde—and how they reported the news on January 11, 1952. Tables and pictographs appear throughout.


This article reviews some of the current theories and concepts relevant to face-to-face international communication, such as homeostasis, dissonance, perception, absence of a common language, difficulties of translation, influence of the listener on the speaker, game theory, and the style of leadership.


As in other fields, the flow of information in developing Asian nations, including Korea, is heavily influenced by advanced countries. In this context, the author has outlined two aspects of the information problem in Korean newspapers: (1) The relatively high degree of preference for foreign news; (2) An apparent discriminatory pattern in editing foreign news. Different data have been provided in support of these two points. Citing views of a newspaper editor and the survey results of the Korea Press Institute, the author has attributed the "slant towards foreign news" to: (1) The interest of Korean readers, both urban and rural, in imported news; (2) General reluctance of newspapers to play up domestic news; (3) The high sensitivity of Korean people towards international political events.

Paper also deals with how the Korean newspapers heavily rely upon news agencies from western countries for news, and give marginal coverage of events in the Asian region. As a remedy, the need for creating a viable organization insuring inter-flows of information among countries has been stressed. Also effective working of the existing agency, The Organization of Asian News Agencies (OANA), could help in stepping up the flow of news in the region.


The author states that "uncontrolled use of television holds a still greater threat to international co-operation, insofar as TV programmes cut across all language and educational barriers." He discusses subliminal techniques, which he feels are being used by U.S.A. propaganda experts in TV broadcasting. He expresses the need for proposals that direct television broadcasting beamed to foreign states be conducted only with their clearly expressed consent, and other points toward protection of state's rights.
An economist addressing the economics of this emerging "Right" faces a dilemma: whether or not information is just another commodity. If it is, a case for the "Right to Communicate" becomes difficult since there should then be a similar "right" to all other types of commodity. Alternatively, if information is assumed to be not just another commodity, certain onerous responsibilities must be accepted, to wit: awareness of the conflicts and inconsistencies of a conventional economic vision of the world, willingness to define non-communication characteristics of information, and capacity to specify the relationships between information activities and the rest of the economic system.

"Disclaimer" stated as: current development of the economics of information prevents discharge of these responsibilities. Analysis of the allocation of resources to information are based on traditional approaches to economics, and are set forth by the author in two stages: (a) use of existing communication resources and (b) inadequacies of an economics based on given tastes and technology.

Major points of the ensuing analysis are: (a) discussion of the "Perfectly Competitive Economy"; (b) a taxonomy of communication; (c) discussion of the "Right to Communicate" versus information policy.

Author identifies four major research priorities: (a) economics of information with special reference to income distribution; (b) comparative study of national communication systems; (c) property rights in information; and (d) the formation of information policy and policy coordination at national and international levels.

Authors review the technology developments of international satellite broadcasting and the problems that have come before the United Nations and the UN's specialized committees from the major satellite-developing nations. The state of the art is far away from the international arguments over the medium and the authors stress that international broadcasting over many countries is unlikely due to sharp differences of culture, interests, language, and time zones. However, the possibilities of regional systems among countries with similar cultures, language and history are more likely. The three major problems of potential international broadcasting that different nations fear are: (1) political propaganda, (2) cultural penetration, and (3) commercialism. Authors review these.

The major conventions submitted to the UN concerning international satellite broadcasting control are discussed. The original Soviet convention was for very strict control, even within the broadcasting nation itself due to that nation using outer space. Their convention would necessitate elaborate, prior controls between any nation using the satellite medium. A second Soviet convention was later offered to the UN with slightly modified controls. The U.S.A. convention—which was not supported by any other nation—was for no controls on the basis that no nation would deliberately try to offend any other nation. A convention by Canada and Sweden was offered as a partial compromise.

Authors review ITU regulations which attempt to control "spillover" of broadcasting from one nation to another. The main problem with ITU rules is that they were developed for resolution of technical problems of interference and system coordination, and they were not directed at resolving political disputes over the content of satellite broadcasting. Article discusses the principles of free flow of information and ideas, the value of cultural diversity for the world at large, and the importance that every nation attaches to the right to determine for itself, at least in a general way, the scope and character of the television services available to its people. These principles must be taken into account in any attempt to formulate an international regulatory framework for direct-satellite broadcasting.
This paper concerns the professionalization of public opinion and communication research. To become fully professionalized, it must exert itself more to probe and report on the adequacy of the flows of information that enter into policymaking, as well as on the functioning of the policy processes at all stages. The author calls this "the third voice" that can report on how things are going. Modern public opinion and communication research, with the use of the computer for large amounts of repetitive data, has vastly improved over the older election polling and interviewing. The field shall see vastly expanded research into topics heretofore considered "far-out" phenomena. But the future advances in the study of public opinion and communication depend on the development of a sense of professional responsibility as a full-fledged member of the policy sciences.

The clients of policy processes are the intelligence phase of government, law, and politics. Intelligence is the obtaining, processing, and dissemination of factual information, of projections of future developments, and of the costs, gains, and risks of alternative goals and strategies. The author describes how the communication specialists enter into all of these functions of the intelligence process. The examples given in the political power-institution sector of society may be relevant to every other sector in society; for example, the wealth-market sector, the enlightenment sector, the well-being, skill, affection, respect and rectitude sector. Communication researchers have clients throughout society.

The definition of a professional no longer stands as that craft or trade having a distinctive literature, since virtually every craft nowadays has such. The distinction is that the skill is coupled with knowledge of the aggregated process to which the skill is intimately related. Skill and enlightenment in a profession go hand in hand. There must be a common map of the trends, conditions, and projections of the entire process. Also the capacity to invent and evaluate policies for the accomplishment of postulated goals. A communication professional should have a sense of autonomy and should function responsibly. However, to date this professional outlook and identity have appeared rather slowly.

America, and the world society, as well needs the "third voice" of the communication profession as a disinterested voice to supply a competing appraisal of the images spread by the self-serving sources, especially since the development of vast data banks and computer services that the centralized elite structures can use to consolidate their various positions. How to go about guarding against abuses of power, and protecting the interests of pluralistic groups, is not clear now. However, the present use of the "third voice" can contribute to the flow of public communication that we have labeled the "appraisal" component of decision.

Any flow of statements through an information network can be assessed according to "dependability, comprehensiveness, selectivity, creativity, and openness." All processes of the intelligence phase of government, law, and politics can be assessed in order to discover the sources that shape judgments of policy success or failure. The development of more operational models of the decision process will encourage the systematic gathering of trend and distribution data.

This milestone article views communication as a whole in relation to the entire social process. The communication processes of human society, when examined in detail, reveal many equivalencies to the specialization found in the physical organism. The article discusses the specializations in society that carry out the following functions: the surveillance of the environment (diplomats, attaches, and foreign correspondents), the correlation of the parts of society in responding to the environment (editors, journalists, and speakers), and the transmission of the social heritage from one generation to the next (educators in family and school). A further distinction can be made between message-controlling and message-handling centers and social formations. The controllers are manipulators and the message handlers do not modify content of messages. Also covered are needs and values, social conflict and communication, and how the society develops efficient communication. In democratic societies, rational choices depend on enlightenment, which in turn depends upon communication; and especially upon the equivalence of attention among leaders, experts and rank and file.
This article is one in a special section titled "The Field of International Communications Research" in Public Opinion Quarterly. The author reviews the kinds of research done prior to radio, and the trends developing in the 1940's. International communications research made its beginning during the Second World War. This article suggests some of the more profitable types of research that can be done on an international basis; for example, comparative studies between various countries; differences in audience studies in different countries; two-step flows of information; studying the same social phenomena in different cultural contexts; the possibility of studying topics so unique to particular countries that they are not generally available to the social scientist. The author mentions the importance of the area specialist in communication research, and stresses that since evaluation has been the weakest sector of domestic communication research, as international communication research develops, this oversight can be overcome.

The right to communicate may well be a deterrent to violence in modern societies. In most of the democratic countries the modern citizen is constantly exposed to violence, such as when he reads a newspaper, or sees advertising about movies, etc. This permanent assault of violence has changed our cultures. Persons more easily allow themselves to burst into violent reactions to aggressions, sooner or easier than would have happened without this background of violence.

Due to the one-sided aspect of communications, persons are usually passive receivers of messages of violence. There is also no clear awareness by the creators of this propaganda of its cumulative effects on the culture. Leauté uses the Machiavellistic Nazi concept to explain that modern slogans, such as guns, are now symbols of the violence that is present everywhere. Stereotypes and background images of violence appeal to a person's emotive behavior rather than rational processes. The coupling of one-way communication, in which the citizens are receptacles for violence messages, along with the stimulation of aggressive behavior coming from these messages, has helped create a more violent world.

Although there are many causes of violence in industrialized and urbanized countries, this one factor is not completely out of control when we understand when the right to communicate means. Leauté says, "The reciprocity of the sending and of the receiving of the messages has to be granted as a right in order to stop the analogy with the system of psychological intoxication existing presently."
A crucial problem is that the word "information" as in the "right to information" is defined differently by various governments. The author reviews the concept of the right to communicate as adopted by a Committee of the International Broadcast Institute (CIBI) at its annual meeting in 1975, and stresses the importance of researching the right of various national broadcast audiences to receive entertainment programming (a subject treated lightly by communication scholars) as one aspect of "the need for interactive participatory communication and implementation of that right" from the CIBI concept.

A number of questions concerning the basic human need for entertainment are listed which would be asked of broadcast and telecommunication administrators in such a research project. The results of such a study would help governments in determining the entertainment needs of national audiences so as to help the government satisfy these needs within their system's capacity. Other benefits of the suggested research project are reviewed. References. Appendix is "Excerpts from Communication Rights: A Survey of National Legal Definitions, from the International Telecommunication Law Center."


Lee observes that we are moving into a period of communication abundance that will call for changes in our ideas, mentality, psychological make-up, and actions. Beginning with a discussion of communication in society, flow of communication, and the communication and information needs of society, Lee then looks at international communication, including news flow and satellite communication. The following section discusses the importance of research and of the exchange of research findings. The final sections cover communication policies, including the question of participation in policy formation; and various aspects of planning. Conclusion stresses the importance of a planned approach to communication in society and the need for national communication policies, the possible role of a right to communicate, and indicates the likely direction of UNESCO programs up until 1982.


This book was written to examine in detail the international institution primarily responsible for regulating the use of the radio spectrum and the international law establishing rules of conduct that govern that use. The author also recommends specific changes designed to improve that regulatory regime. Approaching the study from the legal, as opposed to the engineering or political standpoint, the book includes the history of the ITU regulatory regime, the powers and procedures and the rights and obligations of this institution. It includes the major conferences and the problems discussed therein, and a section on the structure and relationships of the board. A section is devoted to present needs and future directions of this organization. Appendices include an index to recommendations, the regulatory apparatus of the board, provisions of the convention and radio regulations, a glossary of terms, some technical background and a selected bibliography.


Bibliography is arranged regionally, with each region being further subdivided by country and then by subject. It covers journal and newspaper articles, monographs, theses and dissertations, conference papers symposia proceedings, and unpublished manuscripts. A detailed contents list is used instead of an index. Most of the entries are from the post-World War II period, especially from 1964 to 1974, but some refer to items published, or produced, in the 19th century.
Article reviews many of the studies dealing with the quantity, quality and sources of international news, especially in the printed news. Compares coverage of international news by U.S. papers, and the coverage by other nation's press of their international versus national coverage. Second section reviews Asian newspapers' coverage of the United States and other foreign regions. Articles surveyed show that U.S. newspapers give less international news coverage than many other nation's newspapers give and also consistently underrepresent certain regions of the world in news coverage. Some of the reasons brought forth for these disparities are discussed, such as decreasing size of U.S. press contingent abroad, attitudes of American newspaper editors, foreign correspondents' attributes, attitudes of the public.

Author summarizes Asian newspaper coverage of foreign affairs due to "individual nation's ties with the superpowers—and, thus, reflecting an ideological stance, colonial background, relationships with neighboring countries, economic infrastructure, governmental stability and professionalization of journalists."

Suggestions for needed research offered. Extensive bibliography of earlier international news flow and usage of foreign news listed.
Article describes Press Independence and Critical Ability (PICA) Survey of 1966 which FOI initiated to measure world press freedom. Lowenstein designed the survey and supervised the first year's measurement in which 430 newsmen, broadcasters and journalism educators throughout the world responded to.

Article reviews "press freedom" definitions by Wilbur Schramm and other researchers and puts forth its own definition for either "press freedom" or "controlled" press. Twenty-three criteria were selected for measuring press freedom on the basis of their overall inclusiveness and comparability.

Article reviews characteristics of the study, the questionnaires and the judges, and general findings. Some of these findings are: "Of the 115 independent nations considered, 55 have "free" press systems. This represents some 1.5 billion people. A total of 29 countries have "controlled" press systems, representing 1.3 billion people; this is largely due to the Soviet Union's 230 million people and Communist China's 760 million people falling into this category. Ten countries, representing about 434 million people, are in the "transitional" zone.

Each continent is surveyed in more depth. Tables include: Source of Usable Questionnaires in PICA Survey, 1966 (by continent); Distribution of World's Population on Free-Controlled Scale According to PICA Survey, 1966 (Scales include Free, Transitional, Controlled and Unrated, and by continent); Distribution of Independent Nations into Seven Classifications of Press Freedom According to PICA Survey, 1966 (Listing individual nations by seven control levels or unrated category); Comparison of Native and Non-Native Factor Scores for the United States. Figures include: Diagram of PICA Scale with PICA index Range for Seven Classifications; Graphic View of Distribution of Independent Nations on PICA Scale for Each Region of the World. Footnotes.

International communications has always been controlled by the richest and most powerful nations to the disadvantage of poorer nations who feel that their special requirements are ignored. Maddox takes a close look at the International Telecommunication Union and at Intelsat and notes that among ITU's consultative committee membership are representatives of telecommunications manufacturers. To counteract the influence of the manufacturers from Western Nations, ITU members from the Third World and from Eastern Europe have insisted that elected officials should run the ITU branches. Since each of the approximately 140 member nations has a vote, these two groups can muster enough votes for their purpose. In Maddox's view this tends to keep the ITU "inefficient and fragmented," but this apparently is preferred since a more efficient organization might tend to more efficiently look after the interests of manufacturers from a few nations. Frequency and satellite space allotments are a source of discontent since these are usually made on the basis of need and since the need of the developed countries is greater they have obtained the best allotments.

Maddox is critical of the apparent lack of long-range planning which gives developed countries this advantage. Intelsat, also, has proved disappointing to Third World countries since each member nation is assigned investment quotas on the basis of its international communications traffic. Moreover, only 17% of the quota was reserved, in the 1960's, for all of the countries which were not yet members. Nevertheless there has been some progress, e.g. Intelsat has developed the SPADE system which allows countries with little international telephone traffic to use the satellites on a random basis without advance booking. Many of the telecommunications problems in both developed and developing countries are attributed to lack of a deliberate communications policy.
The American press system and the American government have differences of interest, of objective, and of purpose which cause difficulties in the assignment of responsibilities between the professions of diplomacy and of journalism. Diplomats require secrecy and access to timely publication of information while journalists desire speedy right to disclose information they have access to. Article reviews examples of conflict between journalism and diplomacy in order to show that consideration of freedom of the press is too important a right to be left only to the publishers, editors, broadcasters, and reporters. "What is the cutting line between the ideals of disclosure and truth and the allegiance that the press owes to its society?" is a problem the author discusses.

Some of the characteristics of governmental officials in connection with their relations with the press are reviewed. One characteristic is that "the government's allocation of resources to the public discussion and understanding of foreign affairs within the United States is self-defeatingly low." Author stresses need to urge serious thinking about some sort of plan to bring the functions of government and of communication into closer understanding of each other, without trying to end the essential conflict of interest.

This book contains about 30 papers and reports from a National Symposium on the Study of International Communication held in 1969 in Wisconsin. According to the editor, the symposium "traces the development and growth of international studies from data gathered by three different surveys at intervals over a 15-year period; it attempts to assess theory, philosophy, method, course organization, curriculum content, sources and data collection; it analyzes the problem of integrating international orientations into the professional curriculum; it sees comparative studies as an interdisciplinary field in relation to other disciplines in the university complex ..." Papers are organized into four sections: (1) New Dimensions in the Professional Education of the International Communicator, (2) Internationalizing Professional Communication Curricula, (3) Graduate Studies in International and Comparative Communication, and (4) Research Problems: The Need for Unified Theory, Practical Application.

Book investigates mass communication systems in People's Republic of China and the U.S.S.R. and provides a historical perspective to the style of communicating that prevailed in the 19th century and to some extent, still plays a role in both countries. Each country's press, mass communications, professional policies, and media performance are evaluated. Due to the paucity of information available on communications in Communist countries, especially China, Markham's book can be used for comparison of communication systems with other countries. Bibliography.
Author discusses benefits of the free flow of information on the international level and summarizes some of the current arguments by the proponents of either the free flow of information ideologists or the censored information ideologists. He offers suggestions toward solution of this impasse, including a study-period moratorium on any further development of a direct-broadcast satellite by any country in order to keep the international community from taking the first steps toward the development of this system out of fear of any country's stake in the future structure of the telecommunications industry. During this moratorium, a more realistic view of the subject could be gained, since all countries, including America, can take a broader, more integrative look at the new technologies on both domestic and international levels.

There are many realistic considerations to the broadcast satellite operations that are being overlooked at the present time: (1) such satellites would require a modified receiver, one whose production and importation could be controlled under existing laws by any country which felt threatened by satellite transmissions. Such transmissions would require not only receiver modifications, but also bilateral agreement on the use of frequencies which will be assigned, probably not until later in this decade by ITU; (2) broadcasting satellites are essentially a regional problem. Not only are satellites restricted in coverage to one-third of the earth, but their most efficient use, in most cases, involves more than one country. There is a lack of hard data on use of this technology in developing countries, which moratorium would allow studies to be conducted.

As social systems rely on the ability to communicate when coping with problems, the human condition is best served by propounding an ethic intended to alter ways of thinking about communication. The social effects of new technologies are less a product of properties inherent in the technologies and more a product of unleashing previously unattainable social values. A significant effort must be made to readjust local and world values based on carefully and accurately anticipated outcomes.

An essential concept in the proposed ethic of communication is what we call balance, equipoise or harmony, as a characteristic of the resources—technologies, values, rights—available for problem-solving communication within and between social systems. The communication resources of a social system are near balance when they are not the limiting factor in dealing with the range of problems and opportunities confronting an individual or organization. Many activities can be pursued to bring about balance. Nine procedures are recommended for linking media and those they affect in a balanced relationship. These include the establishment of rights of access, appeal and redress of grievances, mechanisms to achieve public accountability, and arrangements for the evaluation of media services. Other recommendations are concerning the introduction of new media in order to achieve balance.

Three recommendations for moving toward a communication ethic for a more balanced world are made. These are concerned with the dissemination of information about problems facing humankind, universal attention to the quality of messages, and funds that will be necessary for anticipating, evaluating and monitoring the probable consequences of new communication resources and the actual effects of existing resources upon problem-solving potentials.

Article reviews the problem of the United States hegemony over television programming internationally, and the various arguments concerning this imbalance, such as the free-flow-of-information principle and the sovereignty of countries. There is very little research into the problem of how media-receivers receive or react to messages from programs produced in other nations. A report mentioned here by the (U.S.) Surgeon General titled Television and Social Behavior: Reports and Papers documents studies that attempt to show that television does or does not induce violence in children. Other studies show that media alone do not cause social and cultural change but act in reinforcing values. Paul Lazarsfeld's The People's Choice incited to show that the media work in an indirect or two-step manner. So there are widely differing viewpoints about the impact of television or radio even within the U.S.A. Author mentions some new cultural models of media programming going on in other countries to show that the concern for importing programs without full knowledge about the future cultural effects has resulted in revised national media standards in various countries. Some positive policy alternatives for the United States to consider in the resolution of the imbalance of television programming as it now exists are listed.
The historical fact of political imperialism ended only a few decades ago, and the recent awareness of the threat of intellectual domination caused by the worldwide dissemination and domination of mass communication by an oligopoly of producers has coined the term "cultural imperialism."

The reaction to this concept can be either emotive or empirical but the key question regarding cultural imperialism is: What are its specific effects on local populations? International dissemination of mass communication represents either a cultural invasion or cultural exchange, depending upon one's perspective.

McCombs reviews the Syracuse International Communication Project, which is concerned with the empirical explication of international flow of news and information, and found no "cultural imperialism" effect. The project covers three areas: The effects of American TV, available from an airbase, on Icelandic children, using data collected there in the late 1960's; the effects of American TV on a Canadian border community within the range of regular U.S. television broadcasts; an ongoing study where matched communities in Minnesota either view American or Canadian television, but not both.

The idea of an agenda-setting function of the press is used in the third study. It concerns a major influence role of the mass media and their ability to direct attention and structure perceptions of the world using both 'inter-personal' (what the respondents talked about most often when they were with others) or 'intra-personal' (what the respondents personally regarded as most important) agendas to test the cultural imperialism hypothesis.

Paper presents conclusions of these studies, in descriptive and tabular form. McCombs says, "there are distinct limitations on the ability of any mass medium to effect social change. It is not altogether surprising that null findings were the outcome in the analysis on the effects of American television on Icelandic children; or that the personal agendas of Canadians were little influenced by their regular exposure to an American version of the day's news." And his conclusion on newspaper versus television exposure, "One of the principal findings emerging from the research on the agenda-setting function of the mass media is that newspapers exert a greater agenda-setting influence than does television. For international communication and our concern with cultural imperialism, it is perhaps ironic that television, the more easily exported mass communication commodity, plays less of an influence role in public opinion than do newspapers."

This article discusses the importance of studying the entire flow of news from the event, through the various gatekeepers—those editors, rewrite deskmen, news agencies, or radio or television news announcers—to the ultimate receiver of that news. The author states the very great influence on what is considered news and how it is interpreted, by these intermediaries, along with the little research that has been done to date on studying their gatekeeper role. The footnotes list various research done on audience research or the foreign correspondent, and suggests several hypotheses about the distortion of the original news item as it passes through the gatekeepers which need researching.

During World War II, the United States and Britain were allies, but the differences between the cultures and the differences in learned behavior between citizens of either country caused a great deal of misunderstanding and confusion when British and U.S.A. citizens intermingled. Margaret Mead was involved in analyzing the differences in learned behavior and language and this article explained how she would use illustrations of each type of behavior or speech pattern from each culture at meetings or in preparing educative materials to try to reduce this source of tension. Her concluding remark is: "If we are to build a world in which a variety of cultures are orchestrated together so as to produce a viable social order, we need controlled exploration of the types of clarification and types of presentation which will increase understanding between pairs of cultural groups and then among more complicated groupings."
This article is concerned with the problems confronted by the mass communication of ideas or images fashioned professionally by one group of people in order to influence, persuade, or merely inform many times the number of people than were responsible for the original communication. Mead first discusses three primitive societies in which the communication of ideas is fixed by the cultural practices into behaviors that each member of that society can easily understand and order his behavior by. Each of the societies mentioned (the Arapesh, Manus and Bali), had very different communication systems which show the difficulty of communicating across cultural boundaries. But with the addition of modern technological methods, and developments of social science in such fields of study as propaganda and psychological research, the widespread communication of planned campaigns assaults individuals who have less cultural controls than do the members of a primitive society.

The advertising agencies, to mention but one of the widely communicating groups, do not feel any responsibility for manipulation of symbols once holding a different meaning in the society toward the goal of selling their product. Thus the debasement of value symbols is being expanded through the use of the expanding communication media. One possible future due to this debasement is a step backward in the political arena to a demand for more control by central authorities who would see that there were no more haphazard use of important symbols. The alternative is toward an increased system of responsibility by the various communication media, by treating the audiences as whole entities rather than a diffused "they", by professionalizing the fields of advertising, public relations, market research, etc., so that these experts develop self-corrective systems so that they will be held in more respect by the public.


The political imbalance in Asia has been the underlying cause of all other imbalances of a socio-economic nature as well as information imbalances found in mass and print media. The availability of print media compared to the explosion in population is alarming. The author provides statistical tables regarding the production of books, periodicals, and provision for libraries in developed and developing countries to strengthen his point of view.

Some of the factors instrumental for this disparity are: (1) Explosion of student enrollment; (2) Extent of literacy; (3) Low expenditure on the growth of print media; (4) Introduction of local languages as media of instruction without concomitant availability of competent personnel and relevant terminologies; (5) Dependence of elite administrators on imported material for information gap; (6) Poor reading habits; (7) Lack of library facilities; (8) Tremendous rise in paper cost; (9) Absence of overall planning for the development of books; (10) Non-availability of adequate foreign exchange; (11) Excessive urban concentration of the print media; (12) Inadequate distribution and transportation facilities; (13) Lack of cooperation among publishers.

Measures like surveys of reading habits, training of translators, integration of book development into national development programs, book exhibitions and fairs and developing of libraries and reading rooms, have been suggested for removing imbalance. For successful implementation of any regional program for development of the print media, initiative needs to be taken by governments and by people in the region.


This book reviews how the press of different countries performs. The first section of the text briefly reviews the following: world crisis and the press; world press at a glance; current press theories; government pressures on the press; international news flow; world news agencies; and, the early pioneers of foreign papers. The second section first gives an overview to each continent's daily press, then reviews the major press of each important or large country. The Appendixes cover: polyglot glossary of selected press terms; selected front pages; some popular newspaper columns; a bibliography; and three indexes--to persons, to organizations, and to publications.
Although the concept of the right to communicate developed in the European philosophical tradition, the carving of colonial and industrial empires by British and other European powers soon showed that this right flowed one way, from the imperial power to the empire and the colony, and among and within colonies from the rich to the poor.

The concept of "feed-back" is not the same as interaction since feedback does not mean that any further exchange needs to take place. The right to communicate acquires meaning only when it results in active interaction or participation, with both the transmitter and the receiver being on equal terms, and not just when feedback occurs from the receiver to the transmitter.

The right to communicate does not end merely in the right to speak or write or react, but it acquires meaning only when it produces interaction, modification and reaction and both sides know fairly well precisely what produced the interaction, modification or reaction.

Mitra gives an example of an administrator in the Twenty-Point Program of the Prime Minister of India, in which that person was trying to help free bonded agricultural labor, to illustrate that communication between different social or economic groups is extremely difficult.

In most underdeveloped nations, development journalism is given the difficult task of giving information to the readers, boosting up morale, restoring self-confidence, etc. In some nations, it is also given the task of convincing the villager that the government's avowed mission is developing the nation. But in order to have the right meaning, development journalism must in reality be a searching probe into the interaction between the State and regions, and between the community and the poorest members of that community, in order to see who profits or suffers from various material developments. Many other aspects of development journalism still have to be clarified.

A graphic illustration of the interaction between development journalism planning teams and various models is presented.

Due to developmental needs, the contents of information in Malaysia follow different priorities when compared with developed nations. The priorities are to inform, educate and entertain—in that order. Detailed breakdown of the contents balance in radio and TV is given in the appendices. Also, techniques of presentation of programs for urban and rural people vary according to their capacities to understand. It is clear from appendices C and D that the proportion of locally produced programs, both for TV and radio, is greater than the proportion of foreign products. Thus Malaysia's approach to dissemination of information is a planned one and in consonance with its national objectives.

Article reviews a speech by Sir Charles Moses at the IBI Assembly in Cyprus, September 1973. He said: "The content and the form of presentation of broadcast news bulletins can have a beneficial influence or just the reverse ... Generally speaking, the broadcasters of Asia, Africa and the Arab States are not as concerned with sensational news ... and they want more news about their regions that is constructive and emphasizes achievements as well as disasters."

There were some points discussed at the conference that the developing countries were unanimous about: "That the agency services were overloaded with items from and about Europe and North America; that inadequate coverage is given to news emanating from countries of Asia, Africa and South America, where about 90 per cent of the world's population live; that the agencies, when transmitting news stories from Europe and North America, often assume, quite erroneously, that broadcast newsmen in other parts of the world have a similar knowledge of relevant background as their colleagues in the countries originating the stories ..." Moses listed some of the kinds of irrelevant news sent to Asia or Africa, and discussed the problems that international news agencies have with news from regional agencies. Several recommendations for improvement in regional news agencies are reviewed.


This bibliography contains about 1,450 sources basically in the following categories: Theoretical Basis of Communication Systems; Communication Systems (sub-divided into General; Africa; Asia; Latin America; Middle East; United States; East European, Communist Countries, China, and Soviet Union; Western Europe, Canada, Australia and New Zealand); International News Communication; Communication and Foreign Policy; Propaganda and Public Opinion; Cross-Cultural Communication; Communication Development and the Development Processes; Communication and the Space Age; Regulations and Laws in International Communication; International Communicators and Foreign Correspondence; and Bibliographies. Subject and Author index for cross-referencing.


Article reviews growth in interest and study in international communication in United States, giving factors responsible and surveying state of knowledge in the U.S.A. (The data for this study come from the author's publication, *International Communication: A Selected Bibliography,* annotated in this bibliography, which surveyed the period 1850 to 1970, for books, monographs, readers, and journals articles in the field.) More than half of the items included (749 of 1,427) in his bibliography were published in 1960s. Four factors responsible for this trend have been: post-war interest in the developing nations with concern for understanding and promoting modernization; broader acceptance of idea that communication analysis provides a perspective through which one can better understand society; expansion of education and business interests across national boundaries; sharpening of research and investigatory tools and improved means of collecting, storing, retrieving and sharing data. One generalization from the quantitative analysis is that the pattern of growth of the literature in a category does not depend on the number of works previously written in the field. Growth of the literature has some correspondence to the area of communication and national development. Studies of the Communist countries have moved from a position of above the average range to below it in two decades, while Western Europe studies have done the opposite. A review of changes in the areas of emphasis is outlined. Tables of trends are listed. Ideas presented on future in communication studies.
The delegates felt that the concept of free flow of information needed re-thinking. Unesco's program should be to assist Member States to correct the past one-sided nature of the flow and to establish multilateral communication for better mutual understanding and for better exchange of ideas. The communication trunk-road map of the world is out of date. Built by the colonial powers, and expanded by the development of radio and telecommunications systems, "it has yet to take into consideration the doubling over the past 25 years of the number of independent States of the world and their own communication needs. When properly adapted to these needs, weak as they may still be in their manifestations and formulations, the flows of information and communication may become one of the more important factors in creating awareness among individuals in those new Member States of this basic right to share with the peoples of richer countries the wealth of opportunities available today." After much discussion, a draft resolution initiated by the Swedish delegation was offered to the group. The group decided to write into the authorization to the Director-General of Unesco to study ways and means by which active participation in the communication process may become possible, etc., and finally to report to the 19th General Conference on further steps which should be taken.


Article reviews two IPI Assembly sessions--"Interflow of News in Asia" chaired by Osmundo Santos, and "Flow of News Between Asia and the West" chaired by T.C. Bray. Problems discussed were: lack of quality news about Asian nations. Solutions suggested were: Asian news pool as a supplement to the international news agencies, re-definition of news by Asian 'copytasters,' more reporters.

Other suggestions to help achieve more active interflow of news and information in Asia were: in the professional area, by meetings of editors and reporters; projects to create more trained journalists; more frequent exchange of personnel.

Organization of Asian News Agencies, inaugurated in Bangkok in 1961, has been rather inactive, mainly due to political instability. The problem of "frozen attitudes" of journalists who do not see importance of developmental news over disasters reviewed in second IPI Assembly session. Another difficulty that Asian news agencies have is competing with the better presentation of western news.


Article reviews potential benefits of direct satellite broadcasting, with particular emphasis upon education in developing nations, including sections on education and national development, the Rocky Mountain experiment, Indian experiment, Brazilian experiment, Canadian projects, the Soviet project, and a section on cultural exchange and international cooperation.

Part two deals with various legal aspects of direct satellite broadcasting, such as actions by the UN General Assembly, institutional aspects of direct broadcasts, some discussions, and the problem of equal access by States. A brief review of technical developments. Annexes include: Definitions established by the ITU regarding direct satellite broadcasting; Allocation of frequencies for direct broadcasting; List of international instruments submitted to the Working Group on Direct Broadcast Satellites, March 1974. Footnotes.

Contains the analyses of questionnaire responses from 50 countries. Items include: (1) importing of TV programmes by countries; (2) composition of programmes (entertainment, sports, information); (3) global patterns of the flow of TV programmes.

Consequently, there are two indisputable trends to be discovered in the international flow: (1) 'a one-way traffic from the big exporting countries to the rest of the world, and (2) dominancy of entertainment material in the flow. See main entry for full report of study.


This report is divided into two parts: first, an inventory of television programme structure and the flow of TV programmes between nations; and secondly, six papers contributed to the Symposium on the International Flow of Television Programmes held at Tampere, Finland, May 21-23, 1973, with summary and discussion by the authors, and a Statement of Conclusions and Recommendations issued by the Symposium.

Part 1. The authors define the scope and methods of the study. An initial questionnaire was sent to 80 countries asking for hard-data on percentages of imported vs. domestic television programmes, the types of programs having been categorized into 13 categories—such as daily news, current affairs, documentaries, educational, sports series, long films, entertainment shows, drama, folk tradition, children's and teenagers programmes, religious, and pure music. Initial response to the questionnaire was small, but with the data received, the researchers expanded the survey and extended the coverage period from 1970 to 1972. Tables for the data received include: Television Receivers and TV Audiences in the World; Percentages of Imported and Domestic TV Hours, Total Yearly Output of Stations Studied, and Estimated Total Output of all Stations in Various Countries; Structure of Programmes: North America, Latin America, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Asia and the Pacific, Near East. Figures include: General Structure of TV Programmes; Distribution Patterns of the Major Programme Exporting Countries in the Early 1970's; and Number of News Items Offered by Eurovision and Intervision to Each Other and Received from Each Other. The general conclusions to all these tables and figures are that the U.S.A. has led the market in international television programme production by exporting more than twice as many programmes as all other countries combined. In the beginning of the 1970's, this hegemony seems to be declining. Available data tend to show that the foreign distribution of British, West German, and French programmes increased their share of the world market. Mexico, Lebanon and the Arab Republic of Egypt are also major-producing countries for regional distribution for their respective common-language areas. Programmes produced in Socialistic countries usually exchange with other socialistic nations, with some notable exceptions. Most television programmes in international distribution are produced to satisfy audience tastes in the U.S.A., Canada, Australia, Japan and Western Europe (notably Great Britain). The two trends proven by this study are: A one-way traffic from the big exporting countries to the rest of the world, and dominancy of entertainment material in the flow.

Part 2. Contributions to the Symposium on the International Flow of Television Programmes. Urho Kekkonen, President of Finland. Kekkonen reviews the history of the press in Finland as a way to show that international problems are similar to national ones, in that wealthy countries have more advantage in pursuing freedom of speech or communication than have poorer countries, as have richer organizations or persons compared to poorer ones. He states, "More and more it can be seen that a mere liberalistic freedom of communication is not in everyday reality a neutral ideal, but a way in which an enterprise with many resources at its disposal has greater opportunities than weaker brethren to make its own hegemony accepted."

Hamdy Kandil reviews the programming considerations in the Arab Regions. Elihu Katz suggests studying what is happening in the countries that have very restrictive policies against importing programmes. He suggests ways to change the present broadcasting structure of just filling-time with imported series. Herbert Schiller discusses the necessity of nations elaborating cultural values for assessing their television programming policies. Dallas W. Smythe discusses television programming as a commodity exchange in which the advertiser makes the decision about content of programming and suggests international research on TV content categories. Klaus Vieweg discusses discrimination of socialistic countries by the communication media of capitalistic countries.

Article reviews the significance of the domination of mass communications technology by hardware producing nations in the policy planning of developing nations. The rise of multinational corporations involved in the media have further complicated this picture. These multinational corporations have efficient control of information about markets and distribution mechanisms, have the ability to control the high cost of equipment and sophistication of the technologies, can control pricing, have set technical standards constraints, and most importantly, have developed effective marketing mechanisms for their domination of the field. In Latin America, there is also the purchase of all or part interest in local networks, which permits the possibility of greater control. There is a brief review of the types of flows of programs, which are mostly entertainment, to the detriment of national development plans. Four major questions are asked about these information flows in order to assess policy changes. The final statement concerns development of national broadcasting policies.


Radio Nepal is a government-owned organization, organized in 1951, and broadcasts to most of the country. Its transmissions can be heard in other Asian countries. However, the exposure of Nepalese people to foreign broadcasting is also great. Nepalese like Radio Sri Lanka because of the music offered and the programs in Hindi which can be understood by Nepalese speakers.

There are a number of small newspapers with headquarters in Kathmandu Valley where the capital is located. Nepalese receive quite a few Indian newspapers or periodicals. The Government puts out a larger-sized newspaper than most other papers printed. There is almost no film industry in Nepal. The Royal Nepal Film Corporation has been in existence four years and has produced only one feature film. Also about six other feature films have been produced in Nepal by other organizations. Almost all films shown are from India. Eighteen of the 60-plus nations with whom Nepal has diplomatic relations have embassies in Kathmandu. Eight of these embassies have opened reading rooms and also show some films from their own country as part of their services in Nepal.

The author reviews some statistics on newspapers in Nepal and information on radio programming.


Contains five background papers (Cultural Communication, Elaboration of Principles for Satellite Broadcasting, Problem in Composition of TV Programs, Must a Developing Nation Reject Foreign Influences, and The Right of Man to Communicate); one report of the meeting and two working papers by project proposals committee on priority projects and principles guiding IBI's work in communication research.


This folder contains the papers presented at the IBI meeting. Highlights of the meeting include papers on the flow of television programs and audio-visual materials; the rise of communications policy research; research proposals and summary of the recommendations of the working committees.

Article reviews the increasing speed of disseminating information due to improving technology in such fields as scientific works, number of scientific workers, etc. Therefore, all the factors that favorably influence the field of communication activity are increasing. Author stresses a problem in current communications: That current mass communication media do not prepare the potential customer for such tasks as unlimited communication choices using telecommunication "combines." Quite the contrary, the superficiality of their communications, the dissipating picture of the world and the one-sided flow of encyclopedic information inclines the recipient more to passivity and "he takes his revenge by a lowered ability to independent, logical thinking."

After stating some of the current realities in poverty, author concludes with, "The scientific and technological revolution brings not only the chance to improve social communications, but also puts new problems and tasks before them. Among the most important of these tasks is the need to overcome the dialectical contradictions between the growth and scope of channels and the differences in the intellectual level of the recipients, between the growing specialization of individual social groups and the necessity to integrate activities, between the growing selectivity of choice and the need to generalize socially necessary contents, between existing qualifications of specialists and the growth of needs in the field of highly qualified specialists, between the speed and completeness of information, between the global character of communications and the class interests and the riches of national cultures.


The concept of the right to communicate has emerged from discussions on the freedom of information which has changed the problem from a legal-language dressing into the area of behavioral sciences. Two elements of the right to communicate which distinguish it from the older concept need to be examined. They are: communication instead of information; "needs" which must be satisfied instead of certain natural human rights which require legal protection.

"When we turn from the idea of information to communication, we enlarge the scope of possible legal intervention from the media system to the whole sphere of human interactions," Pomorski says, which means that what is meant by needs and then what needs are satisfied by communication involvement must be studied. Use of communication instead of information therefore focuses attention on a two-way exchange of contents instead of a one-way flow.

Several kinds of "needs" are reviewed. Basic needs are a physiological product of human individuals, while growth needs are the effects of society's influence through the educational system and other aspects of interhuman influence. Pomorski reviews what some scholars say about these needs. The next "need" reviewed is that of social needs which is more difficult to clearly define, but includes the division of needs necessary for individuals from those necessary for social equilibrium. Due to cultural pluralism in the societies of the world, the ideas of needs inherent within the right to communicate concept introduces new aims for scientific definition.

The relationship of the media to the right to communicate is closely examined, with special emphasis on the present state of the international legal system, in order that laws with potential negative effects not come into existence. Some of the dilemmas, dealing with legal, historical, psychological, institutional, economic, and sociological aspects of the right to communicate, are reviewed. Based on these dilemmas, Pomorski offers suggestions for policy-makers.

Another set of problems reviewed here are related to communication as the factor of modernization in the developing world. Some of the problems that have arisen due to media using "western" messages rather than educational information are discussed. Footnotes.

Pool discusses the benefits of a new International Technology Transfer Institute which would be based in the U.S.A., and could provide technically-advanced information resources more inexpensively to both developing and developed nations than they could provide for themselves. He states, "For the developing countries it means that they need not each try to build their own Library of Congress, National Bureau of Standards, or National Medical Library in order to get access to the advanced technical information that they need." Since most information will be stored in computer-based information systems in the future, the developing countries can go on line to receive the necessary information they require via the telephone. He states the necessity of testing this in experimental communication centers in various nations, and the many problems such as copyright, standardization, political agreement among sovereign states, training of personnel, etc., to be solved.


Pool bases his paper on the premise that television broadcasts from satellites to countries which do not want them is less of a real concern than a psychological one. He believes that both technical and economic factors will prevent countries from transmitting unwanted broadcasts to another country, and that these factors will still exist 20 years from now. He observes that there are many ways in which an uncooperative country can render futile the attempts of the transmitting country, e.g., it can refuse to build or sell equipment capable of receiving the direct broadcasts; it can prohibit the use of dish antennas; it can broadcast a strong signal to jam the would-be incoming broadcast. While the possibility exists of putting a power source for broadcasts on a satellite, the cost would be immense, and even in this case, the money could be spent in vain since the possibility of jamming would still remain. Pool also examines the attitudes of the United Nations, UNESCO, and ITU on subject.


Author discusses the variety of terms, such as rights and freedoms, which are sometimes used interchangeably but in fact can be clearly defined. A freedom is a constraint on others against interference by them, while a right is a claim on others. This distinction is particularly important when there is scarcity of resources. The basic freedom of speech and of the press given in the U.S. Constitution assumed that the necessary resources to communicate were generally abundant, and did not foresee that today few people would have access to newspaper editorial space or to television time.

Only since the 19th century has a goal of society been the elimination of want or poverty. As compared to other technological developments, the increase of communication services has continued with a decreasing cost associated with unit prices. Also the wide variety of potentially participatory communication technologies such as CATV, broadband, coaxial cables, etc., now present opportunities for policy planning to make them equitably available. However, every institution and every policy has its advantages and disadvantages which cannot be ignored.

The legal definitions of rights and freedoms are further elaborated upon Wesley Hohfeld's thesis. There is a correlation between two people (or more) who interact—in which either have a right, or no-right; liberty, or duty; power, or disability; immunity or liability. These distinctions are important when considering four standard freedoms: trial by jury, free speech, democratic self-government, or free love. Under Hohfeld's classification we see that trial by jury is a right, free speech is a liberty, self-government is a power, and free love is an immunity. Author simplifies Hohfeld's thesis and merges powers with rights, and immunities with liberties. Thus he deals with the common distinction between positive and negative freedom. In this way, positive freedom is the right to things which others must bestow. The argument between U.S.S.R. and U.S.A. points of view on "freedom of the press" are arguments between liberties and rights depending on the point of view from which it is observed rather than upon the act itself.
The right to work is reviewed historically to show that the debates concerning it have gone on, under different terminologies, for more than a hundred years. The right to work argument touches upon concepts as right to a job, relief and social insurance, which have undergone consensus change.

From the above discussion, the "right to communicate" imposes an obligation on some specific operator of communication facilities, be that a private owner of a medium, or a special government-funded medium. Pool argues for the latter, a special government-funded medium, and gives examples of such.


A basic bibliography of written communication up to 1959. Containing 3,147 titles of books, magazines, newspapers dealing with history, biography, anthologies, freedom and ethics of the press, public opinion and propaganda. (See also annotation of supplement to this volume by Price and his associate, Pickett.)


This annotative work is a supplementary volume to The Literature of Journalism, edited by Warren C. Price in 1959. It includes almost 2,300 listings dealing mostly with mass media titles of the 1960's.

The Index cross-references alphabetically by major topics or by author or publication or organization. Major headings covered include: Advertising; American journalists; Bibliographies and directories; Cartoons, cartooning, and comics; Censorship; Civil rights and the press; Communication and communication research; Culture and the mass media; Foreign and war correspondence; Law of communication; Magazines; Newspapers; Biographies; Photography and photojournalism; Political campaigns, elections, and the press; Political writing and reporting; Propaganda; Public opinion; Public relations and publicity; Reporters and reporting; Technology of the mass media; Television and radio; Textbooks and techniques; Typography and graphic arts.


This article reviews the seminar of Third World Journalists, held at the UN 29 August-12 September 1975, on the occasion of the 7th Special Session of the General Assembly, in which they appealed for a fair deal from the dominating world communication and information sectors. The consensus statement of the journalists included such points as: protection from distortion of their cultures and way of life implicit in the present communications dependence, the monopolistic conditions imposed by the transnational media need restructuring, communication patterns should be liberated from market-oriented sensationalism. The journalists endorse suggestion six of the 1975 Dag Hammarskjold Report on Development and International Cooperation, which stresses that full participation of citizens in decision-making necessitates new philosophies in global relations and organizations. Other points in the journalists statements encourage national and collective self-reliance and the true reflection of the interdependence of nations.

Following the article by Raghavan are extracts from the 1975 Dag Hammarskjold Report on Development and International Cooperation. This report stresses the need to support Third World news centers as a development away from dependence upon the present news oligopoly as well as the necessity of Third World nations to build up their interdependence between one another in communications instead of continuing to support the one-way flow.
Information imbalance is at the root of the question concerning fair communication policy and the right to communicate. The haves and have-nots in information, as in consumer goods, production capabilities, etc., are searching for the need for compromise and working solutions.

A number of major assumptions concerning information imbalance that were developed at an international conference dealing with the subject are: (1) the concept of free flow of information has not solely worked for the benefit of the industrially more advanced nations. There is a great deal of news and feature materials now emanating from the developing countries. Also the parties involved in the uneven flow may be concerned with the international publicity of this imbalance and are considering what might be done to change it. The reasons behind developing nations accepting foreign materials are quite complex and need to be studied to find out on what basis and at what levels in the communication hierarchies decisions of this sort are made. (2) There are almost no basic data collected that provide an accurate picture, either quantitatively or qualitatively, that allow reviewing of the issues practically and realistically. (3) The issue requires discussion from several separate but related points of view and at greater depth than has been done previously. (4) The problem of the mass communication practitioner and his role in the selection or decision-making process that could change this situation need to be studied.

(5) Data on the imbalances of informational and entertainment material must be compiled to show trends over time. (6) If the ratios of foreign over indigenous materials remain high, ways to separate the "good" from the "bad" material must be devised by developing nation. (7) Decision-makers in government and the media can get together to discuss the issues and the potential solutions to these problems. (8) Detailed discussions on these questions might lead to more coordinated and concerted efforts at research on the social and psychological impact of media exposure on the various receivers.

Rao reviewed briefly the concerns raised at the Conference on Information Imbalances held in Sri Lanka in 1975. Participants agreed that, due to the disadvantages of the Asian nations being on the receiving end of the "free flow of information" structure, it is important to take deliberate steps to regulate the flow of information in such a manner that will assist the development of information systems in Asian countries. To this end Rao says, "Communication policy and planning must be developed primarily at the national level, with national objectives and goals in mind."

The United Nations Conference on freedom of information in 1948 called freedom of information "one of the basic freedoms," and through U.N. authorization, UNESCO established agreements to facilitate the free flow of information around the world. Despite these efforts, the agency today finds it necessary to examine again the premises underlying this freedom in the context of communication rights. The author proposes eight general assumptions for study by communication practitioners, and raises pertinent questions to assist their discussions.

First assumption is that the concept of free flow of information has worked generally to the advantage of the more industrially advanced nations. Is this so? Are the exporting countries also not somewhat concerned about their image? Not all exporting countries are satisfied with the types of entertainment programs which attract the greatest popularity and therefore the greatest demand from developing countries. Secondly, no basic facts have been collected which provide an accurate picture of information flow. The third assumption suggest that the question should be discussed in terms of socio-cultural, economic and political aspects.
(1) That the concept of free flow of information has generally worked to the advantage of the more industrially advanced countries of the world. Is this in fact so? Are the exporting countries also not somewhat concerned about their image? Not all exporting countries are satisfied with the types of entertainment programs which attract the greatest popularity and therefore the greatest demand from developing countries; (2) No basic facts have been collected which provide an accurate picture of information flow; (3) The question should be discussed in terms of socio-cultural, economic and political aspects; (4) The mass communicator is aware of the material available from existing sources and the material demanded by his audience. Is it possible for the professional to improve his products to a point where the quantity of imported products is affected in direct inverse proportion to the quality of local material? (5) If figures were collected, the proportions of indigenous versus imported materials may not, in fact, be as awesome as generally thought. (6) If the proportions are in fact significant, there may be many reasons why governments and media networks permit such imbalances to exist. Could this be because they see some advantages to importing materials? Last two assumptions suggest that a discussion of the issues involved might lead to concerted efforts on the part of all those concerned with information production, processing and dissemination.


The relatively one-way flow of information from the developed nations news and communication media to the developing nations is affecting not only the receiver nation but also the sender. (The author limits his discussion mainly to the printed media.) The leaders of the developing nations are mainly concerned with the printed media since it is not under their control, as is the electronic media. The leaders are not only wary of "imported" news, information, and entertainment; there are also economic, social, and cultural considerations. Only recently has it been realized that although direct propaganda is obviously aimed at influencing others, the indirect propaganda contained in all communication coming into their countries can seriously affect social, cultural, and economic thinking and actions as well. Out of this fear, leaders in some developing nations may try a form of informational isolation. The speed with which communication can take place has made it possible for any active propaganda to have some effects in large parts of the world. The media carry three types of persuasive content: (1) advertisement; (2) intentional advocacy--editorials and interpretive articles intended to cause the reader to reach a conclusion; (3) content which is intended primarily as entertainment or information but of which persuasion may be a by-product. Since informational content is very influential on public opinion, the advanced techniques of propaganda may encourage the "planting" of propaganda in seemingly informational items in magazines and newspapers, hence leaders are getting very wary of incoming communications. The leadership of developing nations not only are concerned that the information may be biased but that the entertainment content and the triviality may have an effect on their societies which may not be in consonance with the kinds of change desired in the social, economic, cultural or political spheres. The dilemma that leadership faces is that in order to develop, the communication facilities have to be vastly expanded, yet once done, communication from these facilities has a momentum of its own. Another problem with the newspapers in most of the ex-colonial areas is that their staffs are deeply influenced by the ex-colonial's style of business. The newspapers are published in the same manner and for the same reading audience as before, hence not only are many papers conforming to style from London or U.S.A. papers, but their appeal is toward a small elite group, rather than the country's general reading public. The lack of a large news agency also limits newspapers to subscribing to one of the international agencies for their inflow of world news.

The author develops the point of the sameness of papers in industrially advanced nations, and that the ever-expanding channels of communication has brought this commonness and uniformity to the attention of not only the elites, but all the viewers or readers of this communication. These tastes, values and beliefs, will soon be percolating down and affecting the majority of people, but due to the leadership's pressing problem of political stability, it cannot afford the luxury of clash of ideas or interests when it is dealing with the more fundamental problems of food and shelter.
In studying the "right to communicate" concept, generally two approaches are evident. One approach essentially attempts to look into ways of better implementation of Article 19 of the U.N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the other approach aims at a new definition for Article 19 to allow more emphasis on the use of resources, to provide skills and allow for fairer access and participation.

No longer are freedom of speech and of the press adequate in themselves. But the means to acquire these freedoms are just as important now. After reviewing what Unesco defines the scope of the "right to communicate" to be, the authors survey the status of this right in Asia as a region, in individual countries, and among Asian citizens.

As a region, in summary, the essential relationship to consider is not that between the state and its citizens, it is rather the relationship between the exporting and the importing countries of the information industry. Some of the solutions to the "information imbalance" question as suggested in several recent conferences in Asia are reviewed.

Considering the components of communication that are specifically referred to in the U.N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Articles 12, 18 and 19, twenty Asian nations' constitutions are reviewed to find out if fundamental rights that are directly related to communication at the media level and at the non-media level (such as: freedom of privacy, thought and opinion, expression, speech) are granted to their citizens. At the non-media opinion, all the countries studied guarantee some form of freedom in personal communication, with two nations having no provisions for basically intra-personal freedoms. At the media level, there is a significant decrease in the guarantee of these freedoms or they fail to be mentioned in the constitution at all.

The authors review Raymond Gastil's study "Comparative Survey of Freedom" which was published by the Freedom House in the U.S.A. He defined freedom in terms of both civil and political rights. Only two out of twenty-four Asian nations score closer to the "free" side of a continuum Castil used which ranges from "most free" -(1) to "least free" -(7). Therefore, constitutionally, freedom of communication is very much guaranteed in the Asian region, but these are practiced with a lot of "constraints."

Studying the "equal access" question that is so important in the "communication era" approaching, the authors also surveyed the same nation's constitutions for the variables: freedom of access to information; to the means of communication. Only two countries mentioned the issue of "access" in their constitutions. Most Asian nations seem to either take the question of "access" for granted or not consider it important at all, or feel that the question of access would not arise from their citizens.

In order to better serve the people and to provide opportunities for better participation based on the people's needs, the attempt at definition of the "right to communicate" must both include the concept's definition and how it is implemented. Flexibility must be built into any model from the start. Bibliography.

Paper outlines the chronology of developments in the Right to Communicate during the latter part of the 1960s and into the 1970s, citing original documents, conference notes, correspondence, etc. Three overlapping and developmental stages were evident: Pioneer efforts—when only a few pieces of work were evident and were largely in isolation from one another; Organizing activities—when professionals and scholars working on the concept began to be in regular contact with one another and to include the Right to Communicate as a conference topic; most recently, when projects and programs began to be devoted entirely to the concept.

Five separate Right to Communicate efforts are described: Jean d'Arcy's "Direct Satellite Broadcasting and the Right to Communicate" article in 1969, Canada's Telecommission studies, the Speech-Communication Association activities, the International Broadcasting Institute 1973 meeting, and the University of Hawaii Right to Communicate seminars.

Organizing activities in 1974-1975 started with E. Lloyd Sommerlad’s meeting in Honolulu with Harms and Richstad, and resulted in involvement with other persons and institutions. Activities that came later include a UNESCO resolution, working papers, and a conference on the imbalances in the flow of news and information. The first draft on the justification for the Right to Communicate is presented, along with reviews of the IBI Working Group in Mexico City, a UNESCO study, the Asian Mass Communication and Information Center (AMIC) conference in Sri Lanka, and the IBI Working Committee in Cologne.

Finally, the Projects, Programs and Prospects in 1975 are reviewed. These include the original essay project in which persons who are actively involved in the development of the Right to Communicate were invited to present their ideas on the concept, the Policy Dialog Project in Hawaii, and other projects.

There is some similarity in style of political leaders from the Pacific Islands. Political leadership is far more directly controlled by local opinion than is the case in a metropolitan democracy where large media systems operate. Before a decision is made most Pacific Islanders engage in long discussions which might appear to outside observers as schism or in-fighting.


Although the general concept of the right to communicate and the existence of traditional societies' authority and status systems might seem to be in sharp conflict, Ritchie uses Pacific Island societies to exemplify the error of stereotyping behavior in small, face-to-face societies.

The various Pacific Island societies have a wide variety of cultural trends, kinship patterns, economic or social behaviors, yet they are not necessarily authoritarian. Actually, the untrammelled power of authoritarian or totalitarian political regimes is quite anathema to the requirement of communication in small-scale traditional society. Control measures rest on diffuse direct action such as trial by gossip, judgment by mass opinion, and sentence to some suitable degree of withdrawal of support that actually prevents arbitrary continuance of power.
The right to communicate must be relative to the communication style and social organization of a society. Ritchie illustrates this by reviewing the news coverage of the Maori minority in New Zealand recently. The media focused on the division of opinion within the land movement decision-making process, rather than the Maori's final decision that they wanted to be publicized. Publicity at the earlier stage left the Maori people vulnerable and resentful and made their spokesman look partial and their unity appear illusory.

The right to communicate is not a threat to traditional authority but is the establishment of dialogue about the society, between its elements, and with its neighbors.

154 Rohrl-Wedge, V.J. and Bryant Wedge. "The Role of Perception in International Politics."

Article discusses the role of perception by national actors in their relations with other national actors. Authors state, "A major contributor to national state miscalculation was a considerable gap between their perceptions of other states and the realities of their intentions, capacities, and responses." Since the power-oriented theories have not led to decreased tensions on the international level, other theories about relations between nations are needed. Article briefly reviews some of the most important theories, coming from psychological studies, such as cognitive dissonance, stereotypes, transactional psychology, linkage of culture and perception, linkage of perception with cognition, and intergroup misperception such as nationalism concepts. There is a large bibliography.


Article lists examples of various national governments putting pressure on other nation's media, book publishers, film or advertising interests, to give them good publicity, or to not publish anything that might give them poor publicity around the world. He lists several examples where this pressure was successful; for example, the West German foreign radio broadcasting service 'Deutsche Welle' stopped beaming its local-language news bulletins to Ethiopia after threats were made on the lives of German citizens living in Addis Ababa, according to the West German Government. It discusses China's intervention in the Japanese press, and other both successful or unsuccessful attempts at such censorship influences.


Article reviews study of perception of foreign news by readers of three Norwegian newspapers, based on what they remembered from the paper published the day before or from any radio or television news broadcasts they remembered from the day before. Sample sizes varied from 16 to 95 persons, with interviews conducted for a 15-day period. Using the model developed by Galtung and Ruge in the study titled "The Structure of Foreign News" (see Galtung annotation), this study first reviews the news situation for that time period. There were four ongoing crises (Congo situation, the British economic policy changes, plane or tanker accidents, and the UN situation) along with 90 news "items" identified from Norwegian Broadcasting Corporation news programs (a news item is a separate news story). According to how many news items or news about one of the major crises occurred each day, the authors titled these daily news stories news "units," with a total of 208 news units possible for the total study period.
Article briefly reviewed the Galtung model, but found that for this study only six news "factors" (properties of an event that increases its chance of becoming "news") were appropriate for the study. These factors are: Elite nation news; negativity of news; personification news (Sande's definition of personification, which differs from that of Galtung, means events that in some way disrupt normal social roles and force someone into the news; for example, in accidents or tragedies); continuity of a news event for several days in the mass media; composition (how the news event fits into the news environment—that group of news occurring simultaneously); news about elite persons.

There are five general hypotheses concerning the news factors: (1) selection hypothesis—the more the event satisfies the criteria mentioned, the more likely that it will be registered as news; (2) distortion hypothesis—once a news item has been selected, what makes it newsworthy will be accentuated; (3) replication hypothesis—both the process of selection and the process of distortion will take place at all times in the chain from the event to the reader; (4) additivity hypothesis—the more news factors an event satisfies, the higher the probability that it will become news, and even make headlines; (5) complementarity hypothesis—if an event is low on one factor, then it will have to be high on some other factor to make news at all.

Study results confirmed Galtung and Ruge model. Tables are presented which pair two of the six news factors together to test the complementarity hypotheses.


Article is based on a paper presented in 1975 to the Colombian Institute for Social Development's Workshop on National Communications Policies.

Schiller sees domination through mass media as another element in the capitalist-socialist struggle, and he disagrees with Ithiel de Sola Pool's contention that ideology has no place in policy research. He notes the American (and thus capitalist) domination in communication is due to superior technology, and states that many countries, including Canada, are drawing up plans for a national communications policy with emphasis on national culture rather than foreign influence. Domination is achieved through control of production and transmission. One question asked by the Canadians was: "What can be done to ensure that Canadian communications systems are and remain effectively in Canadian ownership or under Canadian control?" The problem for developing countries in this regard is obvious.

Author is also concerned with ideological information presented within countries. He stresses that people (and especially groups which have suffered from domination and/or discrimination) need facts, and that at present the media provides facts which are not impartial but which convey ideological overtones which are detrimental to these groups. Schiller sees present communications research, planning, and policymaking as ways of promoting a more efficient status quo. He suggests that, in addition, there should be system-questioning and consideration of alternative social models.


Author reviews the development of U.S. business and communications industry which has led to American dominance in international messages. Then he catalogs some of the economic and social disparities that exist in poor nations, and suggests that the international economy must channel its expertise and resources into attempts at solutions. At present, the view that a society may select positive elements from the technology transfers and communications systems being sent abroad by the industrialized giants and reject the elements that it does not want to have imported into its culture is popular. Author develops the argument that the technology bears the marks of the social system which produced it, and that the wholesale encouragement of adopting information-communication flows as a means for developing nations to overcome many of their problems is highly dubious.

In the developed nations, industrialization and mass literacy were generally achieved before the advent of radio. There is no proof that the methods and social arrangements of the few technically advanced societies are applicable to and desirable for the still developing states.
Author reviews post World-War II developments in international organization, which American goodwill and support largely created, and which espoused multilateral international behavior, free trade, free movement of capital and the free flow of information. Aspirations of United States and many international organizations are similar. The free-flow of information has become the dominant cultural-communication theme in the postwar period... it provided justification for the swelling of commercial-recreational communications from the U.S. mainland after 1945. The first public challenge to this doctrine at UNESCO in 1969 questioned the one-way flow rather than exchange of information, and stressed the need for cultural privacy. The author uses Canada as an example of a country overrun with American communications to stress the vulnerability of other developed market economies to U.S. style communications. It is very difficult for an individual nation, organized around the market, to restrict the inflow of commercial/informational/cultural products from other countries also organized around the marketplace.


Article is one of three in a special presentation titled "Cultural Exchange--or Invasion?" Article develops history of the concept "free flow of information" which has been followed by the U.S. and many highly developed nations for almost 50 years but which has increasingly been criticized by developing nations, by the United Nations, etc., as a concept that is harmful to weaker or poorer nations, that is damaging to the concept of "cultural privacy." Action must be taken to equalize these flows. Author quotes President Kekkonen and UNESCO statements which sum up this feeling. The opposing viewpoint, as given by Frank Stanton, formerly vice chairman of the Columbia Broadcasting System, and Robert Sarnoff, chairman and chief executive officer of the Radio Corporation of America, are also quoted. Author points out that Stanton's argument for protection of "American rights" confuses property rights (the owners of these monopolies) with personal rights (those guaranteed to American citizens by the U.S. Constitution). Schiller states: "The extension of this system beyond national frontiers is facilitated by the concept of 'the free flow of information.' When the output of the communication industry is substituted for the creative outputs of individuals in the 'free flow' tenet, international commerce in ideas is falsely put on an individualized basis and associated with maximizing human personal benefits by increased contacts. Nations which do not accept this blending of individual and corporate activity are regarded as offenders against the liberty of the mind." Article discusses the issue of cultural autonomy of nations threatened by this one-way flow of communication, and the increasing resistance to this concept by developing nations.

Schiller notes the comment made in 1967 by Radio Corporation of America President, Robert Sarnoff, that information will become a basic commodity, similar to energy, which will function as a form of currency in world trade. Others have given "economic opportunity" and "competition" as reasons for expanding American communications media. This, in turn, leads to an expansion of American commerce and the exporting of American values, and for these reasons Schiller is critical of the concept of the "free flow of information." Multinational corporations are seen as a new form of colonialism, and one which would be ineffective without communication media.

He notes the choice facing many developing countries of accepting foreign commercial broadcasts or of not having television at all. If accepted, the broadcasts foster increasing consumerism but since the consumer demand cannot be met the result is increasing frustration. Sometimes, also, harmful products may be advertised since commercial interests are often indifferent to the public interest. The foreign programs, themselves, may also form and reinforce a taste for mediocre programming.

Schiller recommends responsible international regulation of programming so that the "market forces in the West" will not gain too much influence, especially in the developing countries. He devotes a chapter to satellite communication, pointing out that the technical advantages of the developed countries have enabled them to gain disproportionate power. In the late 1960s many countries, dissatisfied with Intelsat, began to plan their own satellite systems. Schiller attributes this to the emphasis on American national interest in the then existing organizations concerned with satellite communication.

Finally, he advocates a government-financed noncommercial system of broadcasting providing a better quality of program than most of those provided by the privately owned commercial system. He argues that American broadcasting should provide an example of "meaningful programming" which would assist developing countries in formulating their own internal communication systems. At present there is a tendency for the commercialism of the United States to be imitated.


National development in countries with capitalistic market economies are greatly influenced by multinational corporations (MNC's). Transnational media comprise the ideologically supportive informational infrastructure for the multinational corporations. Three vital informational service activities directly assist the MNC's specific sales operations: market survey services, opinion polling services, public relations firms. The MNC's own informational activities along with those of the informational services constitute the core of the MNC message producing and processing system. Additionally, the channels that messages flow through, such as radio, television, tourism, etc., all assist in promoting the interests of the powerful MNC's.

Schiller reviews comments made by top management in a large MNC to illustrate the corporation's marketing policy. He then reviews the value of American corporate enterprise to stress the pressure it generates to obtain access to and domination of media in other countries. Due to the successful efforts of the MNC's, commercialization of the mass media has become almost universally practiced.

Some of the less-publicized results due to public relations and market survey activities are reviewed to stress the increasing social control and manipulation that has occurred due to the combination of activities that are geared to assist the MNC's. Examples of direct intervention in local media by MNC's and/or the U.S. Government are reviewed to show how powerful some of the MNC's can be. Schiller also reviews the influence the MNC's can have on elites in less powerful nations.

With the development of computer technology, Schiller stresses that the ultimate control of information will be in the hands of the MNC's as well.


We know more about international than about intercultural communication. There is considerable data on the flow of information and rudimentary information on the content of the flow that reaches a given place or society but very little known about how a culture communicates meanings, understands, and gets itself understood by another culture. Culture is mostly oriented toward the past, rather than the future, in providing goals that have grown out of experience that will give members of a given culture clearcut ways of relating to each other. Schramm notes Edward Hall's The Silent Language to illustrate that different cultures do not know the silent languages of other cultures which makes intercultural communication more difficult.

There is a growing sense of interdependence which is observable on the international scene. More bridges for communication are available and there is more flow over them. The mass media, however, are the chief users of the bridges. Schramm reviews statistics of various communication flows between nations to illustrate the great inequalities in the use of the communication bridges. These inequalities have invited political nationalism and cultural sensitiveness into the growing controversy. The problem of the market orientation and the near monopoly of international channels have also contributed to the controversy which came to a climax over the "direct satellite broadcasting" issue. This issue of "free flow" has been coming to an end with Unesco looking for something beyond mere protectionism to replace it.

The chief barriers to international communication are the barriers of nationalism and the threats and irritations of unequal access to the media, according to Schramm. The chief barrier to intercultural communication—meaning human communication between cultures—can be solved fundamentally only through an emphasis in education at all levels on respect for other cultures.

Fourteen prestige "National" newspapers have been chosen to sample what each of these newspapers printed on November 2, 1956, a day on which two conflicts of international significance were occurring--Hungary was being overrun by Soviet armies and the Suez crisis was in full swing. Since a country can only act upon what it knows, each of these papers mirrors, and at the same time influences, the leadership and the culture of its country. Since the newspaper has been the most successful medium to which educated members of these nations look for their daily news, it is intimately involved in the events and developments that it presents to its readers. Each of these newspapers are different and must be studied considering the following guidelines: who controls what the papers says, and for what purpose is the paper used? How is the paper supported, what are the resources behind it, and what kind of mass communication system does it belong to? Who reads it? What is its focus of attention? What picture of events does it give? An analysis of each newspaper in the terms of the questions above is given for each newspaper. The newspapers surveyed include the major national daily for Nov. 2, 1956 from Moscow, Paris, Warsaw, Frankfurt, Prague, Stockholm, Belgrade, Cairo, Peking, Tokyo, Buenos Aires, Bombay and Delhi, London and New York.


The concept of the "Right to Communicate" is not totally accepted throughout the world, but is now presently evolving. The national priorities of both developed and developing nations have frequently been toward prestige items rather than improved communication structures, such as televison, radio, and efficient postal, telegraphic and telephone services. Developing countries seeking national unity and developed countries having pluralistic societies have different communication needs to be served by the mass media of their countries. In pluralistic, developed societies, the problem of fair access to the media by all claimants has yet to be solved. The Right to Communicate cannot be used as a vehicle by the technologically developed countries to swamp their less privileged neighbors with media materials. Each community has the right to protect its identity against physical and moral dangers from other areas. Shaw discusses the increasing level of communication possible through television and radio services which bypass elite censorship but stresses that that people must have references from their own culture in order to understand new information. Present cross-territorial communication between professionals in many fields are the forerunners of better international understanding.


Author reviews the present level of the right to know as expressed in Article 19 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights within the various developing countries with emphasis on the Middle East. Some of the tenets of the Islamic religion are highlighted to show that, traditionally, more legal rights to communicate existed than are available today due to cultural or political realities. Most Third World nation's constitutions declare that their citizens have the various freedoms that are stated in the United Nations Declaration, but these rights are not taken seriously. The main reasons for this include that the majority of Third World citizens are unaware of such rights due to illiteracy, media not available to them, and cultural reasons. These three major causes are reviewed. A basic need of the Third World toward developing the right to communicate is to speed up the eradication of illiteracy and expand the development of all the mass media throughout each country. Shummo stresses the necessity of professional communicators and scientists to study the rights of individuals in all countries to see whether they are honored or neglected. Then the communicators should act as custodians to protect human rights.
Article discusses the need for universal protection of intellectual materials (literary, musical, and graphic) used in satellite transmission and broadcast. Author specifies that this paper will not focus on the legal problems of the satellite transmission of common carrier signals. The chief question is what program materials can be used on a world-wide basis, and how are the proprietors of those program materials to be protected in their ownership, and how are they to be compensated for such world-wide use. He lists the traditional methods of protection and discusses the 10 international organizations concerned with this problem—the U.N., I.T.U., Intelsat, International Copyright Union, Universal Copyright Convention, European Agreement on the Protection of Television Broadcasts, United International Bureau for the Protection of Intellectual Property, World Intellectual Property Organization, International Confederation of Societies of Authors and Composers, and International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations. The five basic unresolved problems are: (1) Determination of the appropriate international organization to establish ground rules for the protection of intellectual property broadcast on a regional or world-wide basis; (2) Special dispensations for distribution of programs to underdeveloped countries; (3) Determination of what legally constitutes a "broadcast;" (4) Agreement among nations on some of the major provisions of domestic copyright laws and regulations; and (5) Establishment of minimum international standards for negotiated contracts between broadcasters and copyright proprietors. Author gives recommendations. Bibliography.
Concerning the programming goals of this foundation Smith writes: "It could concentrate on what has been called "festive" television, that is, programmes which have been planned over a long period and built up to with surrounding publicity, rather than segmented slots pumped out for half an hour a week. Since it need have no regular fixed schedules, and no news bulletins at fixed times to cut up its evening, it could do programmes which require consecutive viewing, even over several evenings in a row. It could encourage groups to mount programmes for special audiences at special times. It could make far greater use of European television programmes of which we see very little in Britain; in the field of public affairs, a great and healthy influence could be exerted by borrowing the news values of societies other than our own..."

Other benefits of a fourth channel are reviewed, stressing the development of a new public right, the right to broadcast. The author concludes, "There is no point in having an open society in which the right to communicate is totally free except in the medium which happens most to dominate the eyes and ears of the public."


Authors state that this book covers international communications writings included in the period of 1943-1955, and that this book will augment the book by Warren Price (also listed in this bibliography). Covering approximately 2,600 entries, and cross-indexed by subject and author, the six major section headings are: (1) Theoretical and General Writings Relevant to International Communication and Censorship; (2) Political Persuasion and Propaganda Activities; (3) Specialists in Political Persuasion; (4) Channels of International Communication; (5) Audience Characteristics; and (6) Methods of Research and Intelligence. Each of these major sections is subdivided into General, United States, West Europe, U.S.S.R. and Europe, and Others.


Paper presents brief history of the free flow of information as it developed during the United Nation's formation, and how major international dissatisfaction with that model, due to unequal flow of information, news or entertainment from the technologically dominant nations to lesser-endowed nations, has called for more balanced communication. The Right to Communicate, a new concept designed to account for new communication technology, participatory and interactive communication and traditional rights of expression, is noted in relation to international communication.

Sommerlad says, "it takes two to communicate and the essential new ingredient in the 'right' [to communicate] is the idea of dialogue, interaction, exchange, response, sharing, a two-way flow with mutual respect. While the central idea in free flow is the dissemination of information, the essence of communication is interchange."

Communication policies have largely been of national dimensions, expressed in laws, decrees and regulations, or in general social attitudes. They differ greatly from state to state and are deeply rooted in the political and economic system and reflect both historical influences and cultural values. Under this framework, can a "world communication policy" be a realistic aim? Sommerlad writes that "the problem can well be approached within the framework of studies on the right to communicate ... (by finding) ... some agreement on what should be the goal and purpose of communication in the world and on the structure of international communication systems that will establish "balance" and remove "dependency.""
The present study was concerned primarily with four major questions: (1) Who are the foreign correspondents currently stationed in the U.S.; (2) Where do they stand in terms of professional orientation, job satisfaction, and professional attitudes; (3) What do they believe on matters of both professional and general significance; and (4) How do their socio-economic and other characteristics relate to the level of professional orientation?

Out of a total foreign correspondent population of 870 in the U.S., 300 were selected as the sample for the study through stratified random sampling. A mail questionnaire was the basic data-gathering tool, along with scores of personal inquiry letters and an intensive search of relevant literature.

1. Biographically, the foreign correspondents currently stationed in the U.S. are well qualified for the job of interpreting the U.S. to the world. In terms of age and marital status, they are relatively mature; they are well prepared in both academic and practical terms; they are fairly secure in terms of employment and salary; and, finally, their foreign language ability and professional activities provide necessary tools for their jobs.

2. So far as their reporting is concerned, these correspondents are, to large extent, their own superiors. They feel very little control from their home offices. Most of their news is written on their own initiative and they are quite satisfied with the amount of play their news receives from their home offices. Most importantly, they themselves indicate independence and initiative as the first and second most positive aspects of their jobs.

3. In their daily work, these correspondents rely heavily upon U.S. news media for information about this country. On the average, they spend nearly six hours a day with U.S. media, and of their five "most depended upon news sources" the first, third, and fourth are U.S. media of information.

4. These correspondents as a group seem to be professionally seasoned and reliable. They indicate high degrees of both professional orientation and job satisfaction.

5. Of the ten socio-economic and other characteristics, three variables--income, major subject studied, and type of employment (to a less extent)--seem to indicate a direction in which they are related to professional orientation. The remaining seven--age, sex, educational level, professional affiliation, years in journalism, mass media use, and the level of communication development--do not seem to be related to professional orientation.

6. These correspondents seem to be generally in favor of professional development. They indicate strong support for specialized journalism education, professional associations, ethical codes, autonomy, protection of news sources, journalistic specialization, and a sense of responsibility.

7. They conceive of their jobs as interesting, useful, and reliable professions. Even though they feel their socio-economic status is low, relative to comparable occupations, they seem to see themselves as persons of importance.

8. The traditional image of foreign correspondents is no longer applicable to the foreign correspondents currently stationed in the U.S. Today's correspondents in this country, as depicted in this study, are much more mature, serious, and dedicated. The author can see no single reason why their reporting and interpretations about the U.S. could not be both objective and responsible.

The solutions for better international communications cannot be found in a formal approach and analysis alone. Cultural background and imbalance in technology and knowledge are a few of the factors that hamper the realization of desired fair international communications. By discussing the fields of transference of knowledge in science and technology, cultural and information exchange, paper seeks to find the causes of imbalanced information which in the end leads to unfair international communications. If more deeply studied the basic causes of such imbalances are in the end the human factors.

The new technologies in communication, thought to improve world understanding and cooperation, have brought new problems to inter-state relationships. Paper reviews contradictions in various international conventions regarding the use of space. In Indonesia's case, friendly international relations between neighboring countries has not allowed the "spillover" from broadcasting to endanger such relations. Susanto says, "One can say that spillover becomes a problem when relations between countries are not too friendly or for political reasons a government fears over-exposure of foreign influence to its citizens."

The benefits of educational programming via new Indonesian communication satellite to her diverse cultural groups, scattered widely by ocean barriers, are highlighted. The decision for the need for this satellite was made on national considerations.

International communication in the field of science and technology is very successful. However, problems exist in the transborder transference of technology. There are conflicting interests between the producing and the receiving nations. Receiving nations generally desire soft technologies, which are inexpensive, labor intensive, flexible and adaptable to local materials which are generally non-standardized, can easily be installed, repaired and maintained by people of modest technologies.

Satellite technology, coming from the business world, is "firm specific," meaning that for the receiving country, the introduced technology is expensive, capital-intensive, complex, and not always adaptable to materials other than those of the supplying country. Thus, despite harmonious bi-lateral relations between producing and receiving countries, national interests play a decisive role in the exchange. Some of the problems, as seen by receiving nation's viewpoint, are mentioned.

Exchanges of culture and tourism can also be mechanisms of increasing understanding and cooperation between nations. The seminar on Ramayana, held in East Java in 1971, is highlighted to show attempts of some Southeast Asian nations to find similarities in each other's culture.

Susanto's conclusions: "(1) Fair international communications although determined by elites of the communicating countries, have to take the interests of the masses at heart, in order to avoid exploitation of the less favored by the better situated country. (2) The interests of the receiving countries are usually geared at realizing the needs of the masses, and therefore the elites have to be close to the masses, at least know what their needs are and try to get them realized if necessary through international relations and understanding of the approached country (especially its elite). (3) An increased opportunity for the masses of the developing countries to raise themselves will help in bringing the countries closer to each other, above all the industrial and the developing countries. If not only the elites but also the masses are closer to each other (in financial and social terms) than the possibility for a fair communication between nations is easier to be realized. (4) Summing up: Effective fair international communications between industrial and developing countries above all is only possible if the economic and social differences have decreased, especially for the masses. No matter what kind of technology a country will use for its international communications, as long as those differences are still too big, envy and suspicion is close at hand, which again are the first barriers for a harmonious communication at international level, lacking sincerity, goodwill and good intention."
"The extent that the right to communicate is actually enjoyed in a country is not determined by official statements and documents alone. Rather, it is more the spirit of the government of the day and often the political, social and cultural stability of the country which allows the extensive or limited use of this right ... The use of the right to communicate very much depends on the education, social background and perhaps also the social status of the individual. Thus, within the boundaries of existing laws and regulations of the country the interpretation of how far such right has been used very much depends on the political situation of the country itself, its history and experience with these liberties as well as the background of the interpreter. The more a government is inclined to leave the considered misuse of the right to communicate to the courts, the more freedom of speech is guaranteed for its citizens."

Essay reviews some of the historical and legal documents giving rights to Indonesian citizens, and stresses the importance of two-way interaction between citizens and their local or village government, and the national government. The Second Five-Year Development Plan was developed through the assistance of college students doing surveys of how rural people are involved in these plans, and through the participation of other professionals. In this way the Indonesian Government sought to get more useful facts to help national development planning. The student's surveys gave peasants a chance to communicate back to the national government and created an improved communication pattern.

A problem in Indonesia is the demand for freedom of speech by (college) student governments. A politically active student has less effective political communication from parliament than through seminars and panel discussions. Academic freedom is guaranteed within the campus walls, however public law dominates outside. Of great interest is the increased use of indigenous media by the government's communication development programs. Author surveys many of the traditional communication forms and explains how they are being adjusted to the new technology available. Regional newspapers are sponsored by the government to facilitate participatory communication from villages and citizens in these regions, and to provide needed information to these regions. Community Information Centers that are provided with public television, audio-visual aids, etc., also work for the same goal.

Author points out that during this last decade almost 70 per cent of the world population still lack adequate (up to Unesco minimums) communication facilities. They state "In 1962-1963 less than 0.5 per cent of the loans made by the World Bank were for the purpose of developing communications." Communications must receive higher priority in developmental investments. There is an elaboration of the two-way communication possibilities using equipment now available, including instant phone connections anywhere in the world using satellites and switching exchanges, or even instant plebiscites of entire populations participating in democratic government.

This work is a major venture in cross-national comparative social research studying the daily activities of urban and suburban populations in their respective countries. Fifteen different surveys, along with 30,000 interviews, were required to gain primary information. Part I develops the Time Budget Project, organization, methods and approaches. Part II includes studies of time, with 18 different articles. Topics include: The Impact of Television on Mass Media Usages: A Cross-National Comparison. Part III is a statistical Appendix, including eight sections of tables of data for the various kinds of uses of time by region and time of day. A country-by-country bibliography is included. Some conclusions from the many chapters of data are: (1) The residents of the U.S.A. watch the largest amount of TV of any country, but when you add up the other types of mass-media usage in other countries, this large difference diminishes greatly. (2) In general, the "industrial condition" produces an array of similarities in the face of enormous differences in cultural, economic and political systems.


Authors present their 'knowledge-gap' hypothesis--increasing the flow of news on a topic leads to greater acquisition of knowledge about that topic among the more highly educated segments of society. They state: "as the infusion of mass media information into a social system increases, segments of the population with higher socioeconomic status tend to acquire this information at a faster rate than the lower status segments, so that the gap in knowledge between these segments tend to increase rather than decrease." Other assumptions of this model are: that growth of human knowledge may be characterized by either linear or curvilinear trends, but that such growth is irreversible within the timespan under study; that, for a given topic being studied, a point of diminishing returns from the mass media infusion has not been reached, or, if it has been reached, it is possible that it occurs at different levels for different socioeconomic groups; that this hypothesis applies primarily to public affairs and science news having more or less general appeal. Underlying this view is the general findings that education is a powerful correlate of acquisition of knowledge about public affairs and science from mass media. Authors present several studies that indicate that the mass media apparently fails to reach the very persons they plan to reach, and instead mostly reach the persons least in need of the information.

In developing areas, this knowledge-gap expansion is contributed to by: (1) better communication skills of persons with better education; (2) amount of stored information or existing knowledge due to prior exposure to the topic; (3) relevant social contact of better educated persons; (4) the selective exposure, acceptance, and retention of information which is closely related to education; and (5) the nature of the mass media itself, in which science and public affairs news is stressed, and which is utilized by better educated persons.


Study covers the international regulation of radio from its development in 1903 to 1938. It covers all the international conferences concerning regulations for radio traffic and operations and the technical regulations necessary because of the character of radio emissions. Some of the specialized chapters deal with the problem of international interference; allocation of frequencies; regulation of broadcasting; regional and bilateral agreements; legislative, administrative, and judicial machinery; and the influence of private companies and international organizations.

Author notes that from the time Marconi took out his first patent until the first international convention took place, only 10 years elapsed. This may be a record for international action because of the particular importance of radio emissions transcending national boundaries, with need for international cooperation. Appendices, bibliography.

This is a cross-referenced bibliography of documents prepared for meetings, papers prepared by UNESCO for participation in meetings, etc., reports by UNESCO expert missions, and extracts from periodicals and publications in the field of space communication.

UNESCO. Broadcasting from Space. Reports and papers on mass communication No. 60. Paris, 1970. 65 pages.

Includes report of governmental experts on international arrangements in the space communication field (Unesco House, Paris, 2-9 December 1969). This conference reviewed concept and practices of free flow of information; action toward satellite television transmission (legal protection against uses not authorized by the originating body); assessment of the requirements of education, science and culture in the future allocation of frequencies for space communication. Conclusions of this conference include preparation of a draft declaration on the principles for the use of space communication for the free flow of information, the spread of education and greater cultural exchanges, and Unesco's role in the space communications field.


Article reviews basic purpose of Unesco's communication programs, with a brief history of the statutes and mandates of Unesco. After the publication in 1957 of the report on the world's "Information Famine," the General Assembly requested the Economic and Social Council to formulate a program of concrete action and international measures for the development of information media in underdeveloped countries. This took three years. Some of the programs and projects that have occurred since 1960 are summarized. The definition of communication as three interacting components, interpersonal behavior, infrastructures and systems (using technologies), is developed. The objectives of the program are outlined with respect to policy-making, communicators, media, the information-flow, and normative actions.


This book is the result of a meeting of experts held in December 1965 to assess the broad range of fields involved in the development of space communication. The 22 contributions are segmented into nine sections: Social implications of the space age (papers by Wilbur Schramm, Arthur C. Clarke); The flow of the news (Lord Francis-Williams, Ivor Ray); Education by Satellites (Henri Dieuzeide); Cultural opportunities (Aldo A. Cocca, Harry C. Campbell); New dimensions for radio and television broadcasting (George C. Straschnov, J. Treeby Dickinson, V. Feldstein); Perspectives for the developing countries (M.M. Khatib, D.A. Lasode, V.K. Narayana Menon); The state of the art: Technical capabilities (Leonard Jaffe, N.I. Tchistiakov, Jean Persin); Building an international framework (the U.N., Hilding Eek, Fernand Terron); a section on suggestions for Unesco's program in space communication.

Document dated 15 November 1972, this document proclaims eleven articles for the structuring of acceptable international principles for the use of satellite broadcasting for the free flow of information, the spread of education and greater cultural exchange. These articles are listed below:

Article I

The use of Outer Space being governed by international law, the development of satellite broadcasting shall be guided by the principles and rules of international law, in particular the Charter of the United Nations and the Outer Space Treaty.

Article II

1. Satellite broadcasting shall respect the sovereignty and equality of all States.
2. Satellite broadcasting shall be apolitical and conducted with due regard for the rights of individual persons and non-governmental entities, as recognized by States and international law.

Article III

1. The benefits of satellite broadcasting should be available to all countries without discrimination and regardless of their degree of development.
2. The use of satellites for broadcasting should be based on international cooperation, world-wide and regional, intergovernmental and professional.

Article IV

1. Satellite broadcasting provides a new means of disseminating knowledge and promoting better understanding among peoples.
2. The fulfillment of these potentialities requires that account be taken of the needs and rights of audiences, as well as the objectives of peace, friendship and cooperation between peoples, and of economic, social and cultural progress.

Article V

1. The objective of satellite broadcasting for the free flow of information is to ensure the widest possible dissemination, among the peoples of the world, of news of all the countries, developed and developing alike.
2. Satellite broadcasting, making possible instantaneous world-wide dissemination of news, requires that every effort be made to ensure the factual accuracy of the information reaching the public. News broadcasts shall identify the body which assumes responsibility for the news programme as a whole, attributing where appropriate particular news items to their source.

Article VI

1. The objectives of satellite broadcasting for the spread of education are to accelerate the expansion of education, extend educational opportunities, improve the content of school curricula, further the training of educators, assist in the struggle against illiteracy, and help ensure life-long education.
2. Each country has the right to decide on the content of the educational programmes broadcast by satellite to its people and, in cases where such programmes are produced in co-operation with other countries, to take part in their planning and production, on a free and equal footing.
Article VII

1. The objective of satellite broadcasting for the promotion of cultural exchange is to foster greater contact and mutual understanding between peoples by permitting audiences to enjoy, on an unprecedented scale, programmes on each other's social and cultural life including artistic performances and sporting and other events.

2. Cultural programmes, while promoting the enrichment of all cultures, should respect the distinctive character, the value and the dignity of each, and the right of all countries and peoples to preserve their cultures as part of the common heritage of mankind.

Article VIII

Broadcasters and their national, regional and international associations should be encouraged to co-operate in the production and exchange of programmes and in all other aspects of satellite broadcasting including the training of technical and programme personnel.

Article IX

1. In order to further the objectives set out in the preceding articles, it is necessary that States, taking into account the principle of freedom of information, reach or promote prior agreements concerning direct satellite broadcasting to the population of countries other than the country of origin of the transmission.

2. With respect to commercial advertising, its transmission shall be subject to specific agreement between the originating and receiving countries.

Article X

In the preparation of programmes for direct broadcasting to other countries, account shall be taken of differences in the national laws of the countries of reception.

Article XI

The principles of this Declaration shall be applied with due regard for human rights and fundamental freedoms.


Experts from regional broadcasting unions and news agencies, and other agencies, met to discuss international professional arrangements required to promote the use of space communication. Meeting reviewed obstacles to the free flow of information, development of regional news exchanges for which there were no written rules for program exchange but certain basic criteria had evolved over the years: The picture and background sound should be as "international" as possible; there should not be a special national brand on the programme, e.g. national commentators in vision; technical facilities should be available to facilitate commentaries in other languages—particularly for sport and important events; the program must not have a direct commercial aim; in news, the only major guideline is newsworthiness as determined by each individual member, with an emphasis on the reporting of "hard" news without any editorializing.

In reviewing the use of space communication for news transmission, participants discussed a working document. Due to benefit from facsimile recordings which allow visual presentation of information, world's press is facing a fundamental change in its production technology. As satellite communication develops, news agencies will become more and more a service organization for both broadcasters and newspapers. Satellites can provide opportunities for more extensive, faster and more efficient news flow but existing high tariffs for space transmission facilities place a serious restriction on their use. Establishment of information and retrieval centers by national and international news agencies will be a development promoting media cooperation.
Meeting reviewed "draft declaration on the guiding principles for the use of space communication for the free flow of information, the spread of education and greater cultural exchange" so their suggestions for its abridgement could be used. Meeting reviewed new ITU Radio Conference radio regulations.

A round-table discussion of "The Present and Future Role of Mass Communication in Society" was initially held. Keynote speakers were: Professor Jean Meynaud (France); Professor Ayo Ogunsheye (Nigeria); Mr. Alfred E. Davidson (U.S.A.).

Conclusions of the round-table discussion are summarized. The relevance and importance of mass communication to society have not as yet been as widely recognized as would seem to be necessary. The discipline of mass communication has not yet succeeded in building sufficiently developed theories of its own. The field has lacked research at vital points in the production and decision-making processes, or has been concerned with action-oriented research and techniques at the expense of the theory-building process. In view of the growing recognition and use of mass communication in vital areas of social and economic development, as well as the growing concern regarding the role of the mass media in social problems, the base of support for mass communication research is gradually widening.

Smaller groups next considered different topics. Technological developments in the media and the need for research into new areas. It is necessary for mass communication researchers to pioneer into new areas such as: role of the media in transitional societies; national and international communication in the development and resolution of world conflicts, etc. Both qualitative and quantitative research, including research of an interdisciplinary nature, needed in many areas such as: gaps between students and teachers in educational system where media habits of youth call into question the whole content of school programs; role of mass media in conveying information and in helping to form attitudes about other people and other countries; study of value systems of journalists and other communicators and their perceptions of their role in society; sources of biases in news transmission; news values of media practitioners; goal research for mass communications systems.

Specific needs of the developing countries in regard to the new technology and in regard to research and training. Primary concern of the researcher for some time to come will be to relate communication to nation-building; studying the promotion of national unity, role of communication in developmental campaigns relating to agriculture, health, education, family planning, adult literacy, etc. Research also needed to broaden the motivational base necessary for wider public participation in nation-building. In developing countries, the total communication environment remains dominated by foreign-produced media content that is introducing values that are alien to their traditional cultures. This affects the role of the media in promoting international understanding. Not only is the image of the developing nations often a false and distorted one, but that very image is reflected back to the developing countries themselves. Mass communication research is needed into the perceptual patterns peculiar to cultural and ethnic groups so that international exchange of materials is not to give rise to misunderstandings. Efforts are needed to increase the facilities for training, both nationally and regionally.

Cooperation at the national and international levels. There is a lack of comprehensive knowledge of the social consequences that have accompanied the world-wide growth of technological improvements in the transmission of mass communication both in developed and developing nations. A better understanding of the many social pressures that are in motion and the role of mass communication in those changing patterns could do much to help societies cope with the problems that such changes entail. Research both within specific institutions and elsewhere needed. Long-term financial support to research necessary. Along with academic research, professional training in the field needed. Not only national and international research necessary, but regional consequences of mass communications need expanded study.

The purpose of this meeting was to assist in developing international cooperation and exchange of educational, scientific and cultural programs among producers and distributors of films and television organizations. In particular, it sought to aid television organizations in their efforts to obtain films and film footage from film and television organizations in other countries; to aid film producers and distributors by clarifying the conditions under which they may provide films to television organizations elsewhere; and to stimulate the development of television as a medium for the promotion of international understanding. Two working groups discussed program content and techniques of production and adaptation, and distribution and legal and administrative obstacles. Resolutions are detailed in Annex.


Book brings together eight different studies on the problem of communication from different points of view. The articles are: How true is television's image, by Larry Gross; Latin America: Our image or theirs?, by Antonio Pasquali; Information flow from advanced to developing countries, by Y.V. Lakshmana Rao; The mass communication of knowledge, by Elihu Katz; The 'structured communication' of events, by Stuart Hall; Communication and national identity in Africa, by Alfred E. Opobor; Arab linguistic diversity and mass communication, by Antoinette C. Mattar; Communication between individuals and between nations, by T. Adeoye Lambo. Articles stress topics that are of current interest in international gatherings, that being the effects of TV--predominantly programming from the U.S.A.--on other nations, information flow around the world, and the linguistic filter which sets obstacles in the desire for unrestricted communication.


Publication brings together 15 papers covering five topics--the history of UNESCO (one paper), international intellectual communication and cooperation (four papers on education, science and culture), UNESCO's contribution to development (five papers on different continents), normative action of the Organization and Peace (four papers on human rights, protection and development of mankind's cultural heritage, and UNESCO and peace), and a paper by Rene Maheu titled "Serving the mind as a force in history."


This study was undertaken by UNESCO in 1947 and completed in 1951. It is an exhaustive compilation of the existing technical facilities of communication, and elaborates on the role of telegraphic news agencies in informing public opinion. Contents include: a historical review of telegraphic news agencies; legal organization of news agencies; telegraphic news agencies; telecommunication and the transmission of news; international regulation of press messages; news agencies and radio broadcasting; how the general public in each country receives its news. Book includes extensive charts, graphs and statistical tables. Appendix includes: Extracts from the International Telegraph Regulations concerning press telegrams; graphs and maps showing news exchange between agencies; Main international telegraph communication routes - 1952; Main international telegraphic communication routes (Europe) - 1952; Distribution of population and services of world telegraphic news agencies - 1952; Groups of countries and territories and services of news agencies - 1952; Distribution of population and zones of influence of news agencies - 1952; Groups of countries and territories according to zones of influence of news agencies; Map of world distribution of news agency services - 1952.

This document is the brief history of the protocols of the U.N. on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials, including the Beirut and the Florence Agreements, with reasons for expanding agreements to include audio-visual materials. Appendixes include preliminary draft protocol and text of the agreement.


Study examines problems of transmitting press messages, including that of the disparities and anomalies in press rates, with the object of formulating and helping promote remedial measures which might be submitted for consideration at the next International Telephone and Telegraph Conference. Part III lists the conclusions and recommendations of the Director-General of Unesco. Appendix I. Unesco proposals for the International Telegraph and Telephone Conference. Appendix 2. World maps illustrating press telegraph rates to and from UN headquarters at (a) New York (b) Geneva. Appendix 3. Rates and services (of telegraph, telephone and telex). Also summary of data on services and procedures for press messages.


Report examines functions of communication in society in relation to economic, social and cultural development. One section deals with the relationship between communication and development: National policies and communication strategies. Another deals with the mass media and man's view of society. Discusses kinds of communication research needed in both areas, and submits a proposal for practical action by national governments. Annex lists basic data for mass communication research.


Meeting held to analyze initial draft of declaration of the principles of the role of the mass media in strengthening peace and international understanding and in combating war propaganda, racism and apartheid, which was prepared by a consultant, Professor Hilding Eek of Sweden, along with another document with comments on the text as studied by two consultants. All participants acted in personal capacity. Although final draft was approved, respective governments are not committed. United States expert said that, in his judgment, the draft declaration would be unacceptable to U.S. Government.

Goal of meeting to achieve consensus on a draft reflecting the universal desire that the mass media should serve to promote the progress and enrichment of mankind. There is enormous difficulty in striking an appropriate balance between, on the one hand, the concept of freedom of information and, on the other, the need for a sense of responsibility to prevent abuses of this freedom.

Freedom of information is a necessary condition for the exercise of all other freedoms. The mass media is assuming vast and growing importance in ensuring the preservation of peace and mutual understanding between peoples. Speakers from developing countries stressed during the meeting the problem of promoting a more balanced flow of information and opinion, so that the cultural integrity of their countries would not be submerged or dominated by foreign sources. Another concern is the enormous influence of the mass media on youth.
Another cause for concern among a number of the speakers was that the bulk of information flow coming into the developing countries stemmed from large media organizations that were privately owned, often monopolistic in nature, and like other multinational enterprises, beyond the jurisdiction of any one State. It was with some of the above points that some speakers expressed hope that a Unesco declaration could be most important and useful in stressing to media organizations their responsibilities that they should assume in contribution to peace and understanding.

The final draft of declaration's 11 articles are briefly listed next. The mass media should take all possible measures to disseminate information and opinion which is compatible with the mutual respect of the rights and dignity of states and people, and in accord with the principles set out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. States should exert their influence to encourage their mass media to act in conformity with this principle. The right to seek, receive and transmit information should be assured in order to enable the public to ascertain facts and appraise events. The widest possible facilities should be afforded for access by the public to news sources. Media should have right to diffuse reports of national events beyond their borders to encourage two-way flow of news.

Mass media should help promote the broadening of international co-operation, understanding and mutual respect, the reduction of tensions and the settlement of differences and disputes between States by peaceful means, by ensuring that the aims, aspirations, needs and culture of their country are reported to other nations, and conversely that those of other nations are made known to their own people. Mass media should promote greater knowledge in the world on the evils of war, violence, apartheid and other forms of national, racial or religious hatred. Mass media have a special responsibility to youth to develop the human personality and strengthen respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. A right of correction should be accorded in cases where States contend that erroneous news reports have seriously injured their relations with other states or their national prestige or dignity. Professional organizations in the field need strengthening. (Listing not inclusive.)


Purpose of meeting was to examine measures to promote the development of existing news agencies, the establishment of agencies in countries not yet possessing them, and the flow of news within the region as well as with other regions of the world. Some of the topics reported on in this paper are circulation of news within countries, exchange of news within the region, exchange of feature articles, exchange of photo services, exchanges between Africa and other regions, communication services, cost of news agency subscriptions, financing, national and international assistance, professional training, and establishment of a regional organization. Annex 1. Establishment of the Union of African News Agencies. Annex 2. List of participants.


Report of meeting to define the principles and main lines of a long-term program to promote use of space communication for the free flow of information, the rapid spread of education and greater cultural exchange. In roundtable fashion, the following subjects were discussed and are summarized: technical capabilities and economic aspects, social implications, transmission of news, radio and television broadcasting, education, and cultural exchange. The experts drew up recommendations for Unesco's program in the use of space communication. These recommendations are for international cooperation and actual program. Annex: List of participants.

Purpose of meeting to ascertain and take into account the views of international and regional broadcasting unions, as well as other interested bodies, in the formulation of its program for the promotion of international arrangements in the space communication field. Meeting reviewed use of space communication for broadcasting. Technical progress is outpacing national and international arrangements for exploiting such applied space technology as communication satellite systems. Space communication is possible only with the cooperation or at least tolerance between nations. The radio frequency spectrum is a limited natural resource and thus must be shared between all users, requiring international agreements. Use of satellite systems for international communication and regional or national development purposes have far-reaching social applications.

Meeting reviewed aspects of point-to-point satellite systems, distribution satellite systems, and direct broadcast systems. Experts made recommendations toward developing international convention on space communications.


Report on the occasion of the 1963 Space Communications Conference. Assessment of the prospects offered by space communication for enhancing the range and scope of the press, radio broadcasting and television. Chapter 1 includes: Evolution of telecommunication; uses for information and education, developing countries emphasis; promotion of international understanding. Chapter 2 concerns physical facilities; frequencies; operational problems; international cooperation; technical assistance; future actions. Chapter 3 reviews the applications through press, radio broadcasting and television. References.


Report of meeting to discuss cooperation among TV organizations for the production of programs in the service of international understanding, and the collaboration between TV organizations and the United Nations family. Nine recommendations to facilitate this cooperation were developed by the Directors of television programs who participated. Annex 1. List of participants. Annex 2. Current practices and problems—Digest of reports in answer to Unesco questionnaire.


Manual reviews structure of television (the spread of television, the structure and revenue of television organizations, problems in starting and operating a television service, international cooperation, and the television program) as it existed in the first quarter of 1953. The information on each country with television service includes a brief history, structure (legal position, revenue source, advertising policy, etc.), technical facilities, programming, reception, production of equipment, professional training for television, and a section on "pay as you view" if applicable. Forty-five nations and a section on the United Nations are covered.


Book contains bibliographic information on the press in 40 countries for period 1900 to 1952. For the period to 1945, only major works are included, and since then a more comprehensive list is provided. A selected list is provided for U.S.A. No journal articles are included except for the Indian section.

This edition covers 91 states and territories in the period of 1954. Includes history of efforts toward elimination of various barriers in educational, scientific or cultural materials. A section tabulates all regulations according to item and lists the countries of partial or full application. Appendix includes agreements texts.


This fifth edition of World Communications by Unesco is a thorough update of previous editions. Edition describes media of press, radio, television, and film in the various countries; indicating, with statistical support, the general structure, facilities, output, distribution and coverage of each individual local and national contexts. The chapter structure of earlier editions has been maintained, although technical, economic and organizational developments are beginning to make this categorization arbitrary in certain respects. Two new categories are "Space communications" and "Professional training and associations." The information for the book was collected by questionnaires to U.N. member states--official reports and publications, technical journals and other references are also used. Data considered valid for 1971-72 unless otherwise indicated. The introduction discusses trends and contrasts, communication satellites, television by cable, and other topics.


Report covers group discussion on: (1) the type of approach necessary to the concept of economics of communication; (2) communication planning; (3) limitations of economics and the problems of implementation and decision-making; (4) the development of projects; (5) indicators. The group decided that Unesco's most useful activity would be to concentrate on practical problems of communication planning in developing countries and publication of a handbook for communication planners, that the necessary studies should be field-based, and that the theory should grow out of practice. Ideas for the types of studies were presented. William Melody agreed to a major research project on the topic. A. Selvanathan agreed to provide data required and cooperation if the case study were to be done in Malaysia.


Report by Rapporteur, Barbara Ringer, of meeting of the World Intellectual Property Organization and Unesco, held to analyze and revise the Draft Convention Relating to the Distribution of Program-Carrying Signals Transmitted by Satellite. This conference prepared a final draft of an international instrument dealing with satellite broadcasting signals, examining related questions of the free flow of information, copyright and neighboring rights. Report includes a discussion of the convention covering its scope, definition of terms, application and proposals on the content of broadcasting programs. Conference participants listed, with background on issues.
Issue devoted to reviewing activities by the United Nations, its specialized agencies and other international and national bodies, in the applications of space technology. Articles include "International Cooperation in Outer Space" (by H.E. Peter Jankowitsch) which explains the activities of the UN in this field since the 1959 creation of a committee to investigate the peaceful uses of outer space; "The United Nations Programme for the Promotion of Space Applications for the Benefit of the Developing Countries" (by H.G.S. Murphy) reviews the history of programs with emphasis on developing nations; short articles on Telesat, Intelsat and Intersputnik; "Direct Broadcast Satellites" (by H.E. Olof Rydbeck) differentiates between direct broadcast and other kinds of communication satellite services; section describing major treaties, declarations and conventions; section reviewing specialized agencies activities in outer space; "The Third World and Space Technology" (by Prof. Ferdinand Cap, a second article by Trevor L. Boothe) discusses relevance of outer space science and technology to the developmental process, the sectors in space technology and their value to developing nations; "Communication Satellites: A New Hazard for World Cultures" (by Dr. Carroll V. Newsom) mentions problems due to technological developments; section of UN and other reference material on subject.

Two volumes contain official material concerning freedom of information that was requested from governments by the U.N. for 1948 conference in Geneva. Thirty-three governments responded. The conference on Freedom of Information concerned combating the diffusion of false or distorted reports likely to injure friendly relations between States. Volume II includes relevant articles of constitutions, legislative enactments and regulations, judicial decisions, codes of honor and other material.

This report contains the summary of the conference. Of historical interest, this pamphlet contains the following draft conventions: I. Draft convention on the Gathering and International Transmission of News; II. Draft convention concerning the institution of an international right of correction; III. Draft convention on Freedom of Information. Annex B is: Articles for draft declaration and draft covenant on human rights. Annex C contains such resolutions as: general principles; measures to facilitate the gathering and international transmission of information; measures concerning the free publication and reception of information; continuing machinery to promote the free flow of information, etc.

The news media have a vital role to play in continuing the transition from cold war to detente and peaceful coexistence. Journalists, either explicitly or implicitly, act in the process of either social progress towards strengthening coexistence or in opposition to it. In reviewing the concept of "free flow of information," author uses a Russian author's statement to clarify that viewpoint: "In theory, as well as in practice, free flow of information means the right to export information of news monopolies defending the interests of state-monopolist capitalism to any country. Free flow of information is, properly speaking, nothing but a sweet-sounding term for imperialism of communication whose purpose it is to force by means of the mass media of the Western countries an alien ideology, alien views, habits, and customs, and an alien culture on the people of other countries."

Article reviews some statistics on radio broadcasts in Europe which show preponderance of news coming from three nations--U.S.A., Britain, West Germany. In a UNESCO conference in 1974, the Director-General summed up the argument for protection of state's sovereignty within the international flow of information by stressing that attention should be given to the content of as well as to the promotion of a reciprocal flow of information in order to guarantee that the world is not divided into producers of information on the one hand and consumers of information on the other.

Mass media influence the mood, consciousness, and opinion of millions of people. Success of the policy of detente will depend to a significant degree on the positions of newspapers, radio, and television. Social responsibility of the press within each political bloc of the world can do much toward maintaining detente. Article reviews examples of social irresponsibility in pre-World War II by prestige magazines in U.S.A. to illustrate that press irresponsibility can exist in any system.

Article reviews some statistics gathered by the author on exchanges between U.S.A. and Soviet Union: (1) During the last two years (1973-1974) not a single Soviet movie was shown to Americans in the United States, while 20 to 25 American movies are shown continually in Soviet cinemas; (2) In the theatrical season of 1972/1973 Soviet theaters produced about 40 plays by American authors, while in the United States during the same period there were only four Russian pre-revolutionary plays and not a single Soviet play; (3) Since 1917 in the Soviet Union, 6,305 books written by American authors have been translated and published ... In the United States during the same period only about 500 books, mostly written by pre-revolutionary Russian authors, were translated and published.

Author's remark: "In the era of detente, social responsibility means using mass media for the welfare of mankind. It means preventing dissemination of racism, militarism, violence, cruelty, pornography. It means preserving cultural and moral values and society. And, as I see it, truly international cultural exchange should be not only non-damaging to the social system, cultural, and moral traditions of the recipient country, but should also be conducted in equal amounts in both directions." Four suggestions towards better press coverage are offered.
Paper analyzes the relations between the flow of information, communication and cultural cooperation on the one hand and peace and security on the other. An earlier view of peace was that it occurred when there was absence of open war; however, a modern understanding emphasizes that a state of peace occurs when there is active cooperation between various societies and different social systems. The Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, held in Helsinki in 1975, emphasized the beginning of a new era in international relations in which political leaders from Europe and North America began to formulate the general principles in which coexistence and future cooperation between different social systems should be based on. A brief overview of the conference is presented.

Varis reviews some of the political problems occurring in Europe during the 1900s in saying that the "free flow of information" concept does not solve the problems of international relations. Changes in the international situation are due to increasing power of socialist and developing nations and more active foreign policies and peace policies in the developing and non-aligned countries. Statements from documents from international conferences are presented to support the point.

The differences in analysis of how to obtain peace and the freer flow of information, etc., between many Western and Socialistic countries are summarized. Varis says Western diplomacy stresses open borders for information flow of all kinds, and dissemination of ideologies as would guarantee peaceful development and security, leaving out the role of the military in the analysis. Socialistic countries support the idea that first one has to guarantee peace and security through general international agreements and then automatically this will be followed by progress in the flow of information, people and ideas across the national borders.

The special concerns of the developing world and the North-South relations should be considered as important as European problems when thinking of world peace and security. Varis reviews the Helsinki Agreements on flow of information and readjustment of imbalance in this flow, and what the 1974 General Conference of Unesco suggests toward a more balanced flow of information.


The aim of this work is to give a comparative description of television program structure in various countries and to study the proportions and flow of foreign material from the producer to the television screen. Earlier report presented at Bled, Yugoslavia in 1971. With Unesco assistance, he enlarged his field from fewer than 20 to more than 50 countries, and also includes an analysis of the network structures through which television material is exchanged between countries. Author reviews previous studies and lists four major questions for each nation's study: (1) What is the television program structure in various countries? (2) What is the ratio between foreign and domestic productions in various countries in toto and in each program category? (3) What are the main sources (countries of origin) of imported programs? (4) What are the mechanisms and channels of the international sale and exchange of TV programs? Author carefully describes his sources, methods, and data. Book lists results of the four questions for each nation studied. The final section gives summaries of program exports for different regions or countries, exchanges through broadcasting unions, the process of program purchases, and global patterns of the flow of TV programs. There are extensive conclusions and many references. Some conclusions: The U.S.A. is still the biggest TV program exporter and in most countries of the world American TV constitutes a major part of all imported programs; American motion picture companies have an effective systems of distribution through sales representatives throughout the world; American companies export mainly entertainment programs, but documentaries and other informational program exported are still notable. Another major exporter is the United Kingdom, which is also an important source of newsfilm material. Most television stations in the world use British Visnews newfilm material, and another major newsfilm agency, UPIFN, is half British and half American. The third major newfilm agency of the world is the U.S. CBS-News. Recently, DPA-ETES of the Federal Republic of Germany has become an international newfilm agency. France and the Federal Republic of Germany export a large number of programs to the developing countries. When studied by region, other nations lead in export distribution to their neighboring states.
Study of foreign news in four newspapers, the elite newspapers of both India and U.S.A. (New York Times and Times of India) and highly respected newspapers (Philadelphia's Inquirer and Malayala Manorama from Kerala State in India). Purpose was to compare whether Indian newspapers give more prominence to foreign news than U.S. newspapers. Study period was the first several weeks in 1965 and in 1970, totaling 14 issues of each newspaper.

Definition of "foreign" news was news from abroad, rather than news about foreign areas, thus excluding news analyses. In the case of U.S.A., news about Vietnam was not included in the foreign news totals due to its unbalancing effect, since when separately totaled, it equaled 70 percent of all foreign news. Countries grouped into following categories: Asia; Middle East and Africa; W. Europe, E. Europe; America other than U.S.A. (including U.N.). Foreign news categories were also broken down into sources, whether by news agencies or correspondents.

Study indicated New York Times and Inquirer devoted about 20 percent and 16 percent of their total space for news. The Times of India devoted 25 percent for news, the Malayala Manorama 39 percent. Differences in percentages between 1965 and 1970 occurred in all newspapers. The Inquirer gave 50 percent of its foreign news area for Asian news, but Vietnam news alone occupied 70 percent of the Asian news. About 30 percent of foreign news in both periods in the New York Times came from Western Europe, with Great Britain receiving the most. The New York Times news from Asia and South and Central America in 1970 was 10 percent; in 1965 it was 24.5 percent.

Article discusses opinion-forming function of newspapers in U.S.A. and necessity of policies of foreign news coverage to be re-examined. Tables.

Writer studied some 55 constitutions of independent nations and chose four areas of communication freedoms—Interpersonal communication activities (including freedom of expression and freedom of correspondence); Informational communication activities (including freedom of the press, censorship, federal power over information services, and access to education, culture and sources of learning); Participatory communication activities (freedom of assembly, association and public manifestations, freedom to petition, right to elect officials, cooperation between states with respect to communication); Self-communication activities (including right to develop personality, right to work, freedom to pursue artistic and scientific activities). These types of freedoms are illustrated by a sampling of the statements from various constitutions. Author states, "An analysis and study of those laws restricting these communication related rights as well as the extent and severity of their enforcement seems to be indicated if a fruitful pursuit of common meaning is to result."


This book contains fourteen articles from various authors on the subjects of mass media operations, Third-world systems, and transnational networks that exist or could potentially serve mass communication. The final three articles focus on international effects of mass media and broadcasting.


Paper introduces Singapore by description and statistics and then reviews a study done in early 1975 on all communication media in Singapore: Newspapers, Radio and Television, Film, Books. Tables of statistics for each media are included. Information gives the percentages of domestic or other Asian input or Western input for each media.

Over-all conclusions for Singapore are that certain media are over-represented by dominance from one area of influence, but that the situation is not so serious as to merit undue concern. In the print media, there is a dominant inflow of books from outside Asian region, while in the film media, there is a dominant flow of films from Asia.

Authors stress that due to time limitations they have not been able to qualitatively analyze the statistics from the 1975 study. They also note that since Singapore is very small and the government has the ability to maximize the use of the media for its own communications, most government campaigns have been successful.


In a lighter vein, this article reviews the early history of international news agencies, the problems of discrimination and censorship, various barriers to the distribution of printed media in historical perspective, and how the flow of motion pictures from nation to nation has changed over time.

This article, reprinted of still relevant 1946 study, argues for the availability of better information between nations that is not filled with distortions. They divide information in mass communication into three forms: raw material (dispatches, news pictures, radio news broadcasts), semifinished goods (regular syndicated dispatches), and finished product (books, magazines, motion pictures, government-prepared foreign broadcasts). Authors review development of national and international newsgathers as a mixed blessing—the organizations increasing the flow of information but have control over content. Barriers in transmission include the problem of access at the source, censorship, barriers in distribution, problems in moving printed matter. Motion picture exports and international broadcasts are highlighted.


This book traces the history of the telecommunications systems up to its copyright date. In countries already industrialized, only with the invention of the telegraph in 1837 did newspapers in those countries develop mass readership. Today countries with high rates of illiteracy are those poorest in telecommunication facilities. Since telecommunications must of their nature transcend frontiers in order to be effective, the international machinery for such activity was one of the earliest successful international collaboration. The history of that organization, the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), is presented, along with that of the world news agencies, the national news agencies, leased wire services, multiple address newscasts, facsimile and telephoto services. Author states that the major obstacle to expanded news coverage in and from less developed nations is the disparities in press rates set up by national transmission authorities. He presents illustrations and statistics on identical two-way routes from and to points both within continental regions and to and from major European press centers. Other illustrations include: a map of the major ocean cable system; point-to-point radio channels; multiple address transmission; and national news agencies.


Article is critique of the theory of "controlled communication" developed by John Burton in 1967. Burton's theory is based on psychological and sociological methods of increasing tolerance and empathy for the other person in an arbitration situation with the help of a trained mediator. Author reviews some of the theories of international conflict and suggests that behavioral modification techniques that may be effective in resolving interpersonal and intergroup conflict within the state are not necessarily so at the international level, where the variable factors are more numerous and complex. Author suggests Burton presented very little evidence for his theory.


Study analyzed use of international news in Korean daily newspapers.

Dailies examined on international news content and the role of news agencies. A brief history of foreign news in Korea was presented and current methods of handling foreign news were reviewed.

A content analysis was undertaken for the purpose of determining the volume, nature, origin, type, and source of international news flow into Korean dailies. Comparing findings of this study with studies in other countries made possible a cross-cultural comparison.
This study analyzed fourteen weekdays of international news content published in January and March, 1967, in eight Korean dailies. The views and attitudes of Korean journalists toward international news were made clear by analyzing the results from a questionnaire which was sent to Seoul newspapers in April, 1967.

Korean dailies devoted an average of 16 per cent of available news space to international news. The daily average is 122.5 column inches, or 8.6 columns.

Straight news averaged 51 per cent of total international news while opinion stories and interpretations comprised 15 per cent of total foreign news space. Politics, Human Interest, and Foreign Relations were the three most extensive international news categories.

The four major news services--AP, AFP, UPI, and Reuters—supplied 60 per cent of the foreign news space used in the Korean papers. The countries covered most were the U.S., People's Republic of China, South Vietnam, Japan, United Kingdom, and U.S.S.R.


More than two-thirds of all imported TV programs in Asia are from the United States and Britain. The flow of programs among Asian countries as well as their export to other regions is extremely limited. The difficulty in the flow of programs lies in the diversity of Asian countries—diversity in language, culture and level of technical development. The experience of the Asian Broadcasting Union (ABU) since its founding in 1939 has been analyzed and examined in detail to illustrate the problem of diversity. Unlike the West European countries which are connected by land lines, many Asian countries are separated from one another by seas; therefore the role of broadcasting satellites in the flow of TV programs in the region will be of great help in the future.

Paper describes the present state of satellite use in Asia. The major obstacle which has prevented its progress is the high rate of tariff of satellite TV internationally. Secondly, Asian countries differ greatly from each other in culture, religion, life-style, and the dissemination of TV, and so the number of programs they can jointly use is very limited. Despite these problems, there has been considerable progress during the past ten years. The setting up of organizations like AMIC and the Japan Prize Circulation Library may further aid in developing the flow of information among Asian countries.


Japan Broadcasting Corporation, NHK, operates nationwide, two networks of television, two networks of mediumwave, and one FM radio network. There are also 105 commercial broadcasters, who belong to the National Association of Commercial Broadcasters in Japan, transmitting both radio and television programs. No restrictions whatsoever regulate the use of programs imported from abroad. According to the survey conducted by the University of Tampere, 4 per cent of the programs broadcasted by NHK TV General Service and 1 per cent of those broadcasted by its TV Educational Service are imported. The rate of imported programs broadcasted commercially, on the other hand, accounts for 10 per cent of all commercial programs. Statistics show that in 1974, there were 44 satellite relay broadcasts by NHK; NHK TV expedition teams were dispatched overseas seven times, and three programs were co-produced with FAO, UNICEF, and AEI. In the same year, NHK international distributed 555 films to 56 countries. The U.S.-Japan TV Program Festival of Educational and Cultural programs, which was established in 1973, is aimed at minimizing the communication gap between the U.S. and Japan, and of connecting the imbalance in the flow of programs from the U.S. One chart indicates that the number of theatrical films imported for television use from the other countries is far greater than the number of films produced in Japan. However, the large number of entertainment TV films produced at the TV studios of various broadcasting organizations in Japan is said to compensate for their limited production of theatrical TV films.
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CLASSIFICATION OF ENTRIES BY AUTHOR

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