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مجموعه علوم ارتباطات اجتماعي

پدید آورنده: گروه مؤلفان



گروه مولفان

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کلیه حقوق مادی و معنوی این اثر متعلق به موسسه آموزش عالی آزاد ماهان میباشد. هرگونه اقتباس و کپیبرداری از این اثر بدون اخذ مجوز پیگرد قانونی دارد.

مقدمه ناشر

آیا آنانکه میدانند با آنانکه نمیدانند برابرند؟ (قرآن کریم)

پس از حمد و سپاس و ستایش به درگاه بی همتای احدیت و درود بر محمد مصطفی، عالی نمونه بشریت که در تاریک دور تاریخ، بنا به فرمان نافذ صمدیت از میان مردمی برخاست که خود بودند در پستترین حد توحش و ضلال و بربریت و آنگاه با قوانین شامل خویش هم ایشان را راهبری نمود و رهانید از بدویت و استعانت جوییم از قرآن کریم، کتابی که هست جاودانه و بینقص تا ابدیت.

کتابی که در دست دارید آخرین ویرایش از مجموعه کتب خودآموز مؤسسه آموزش عالی آزاد ماهان است که برمبنای خلاصه درس و تأکید بر نکات مهم و کلیدی و تنوع پرسشهای چهار گزینهای جمعآوری شده است. در این ویرایش ضمن توجه کامل به آخرین تغییرات در سرفصلهای تعیین شده جهت آزمونهای ارشد تلاش گردیده است که مطالب از منابع مختلف معتبر و مورد تأکید طراحان ارشد با ذکر مثالهای متعدد بصورت پرسشهای چهار گزینهای با کلید و در صورت لزوم تشریح کامل ارائه گردد تا دانشجویان گرامی را از مراجعه به سایر منابع مشابه بی نیاز نماید.

لازم به ذکر است شرکت در آزمونهای آزمایشی ماهان که در جامعه آماری گسترده و در سطح کشور برگزار می گردد می تواند محک جدی برای عزیزان دانشجو باشد تا نقاط ضعف احتمالی خود را بیابند و با مرور مجدد مطالب این کتاب، آنها را برطرف سازند که تجربه سالهای مختلف موکد این مسیر به عنوان مطمئن ترین راه برای موفقیت می باشد.

لازم به ذکر است از پورتال ماهان به آدرس www.mahanportal.ir میتوانید خدمات پشتیبانی را دریافت دارید.

و نیز بر خود میبالیم که همه ساله میزان تطبیق مطالب این کتاب با سؤالات آزمونهای ارشد- که از شاخصههای مهم ارزیابی کیفی این کتابها میباشد- ما را در محضر شما سربلند مینماید.

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Chapter 1

Media

Main Topics

- **♦** Mass Media
- **♦** Broadcasting
- **\$** Blogs
- **Publishing**
- **Mass Wire Media**
- **Uses and Gratification Theory**
- **Postmodernism**
- **Sournalism**
- **Public Relations**
- **❖** ICTs and Poverty Alleviation

Chapter 1

Media

Mass Media

Mass media is a term used to denote a section of the <u>media</u> specifically envisioned and designed to reach a <u>very large audience</u> such as the population of a <u>nation state</u>. It was coined in the 1920s with the advent of nationwide radio networks, mass-circulation <u>newspapers</u> and <u>magazines</u>, although mass media were present centuries before the term became common. The term **public media** has a similar meaning: it is the sum of the public mass distributors of news and entertainment across media such as newspapers, <u>television</u>, <u>radio</u>, <u>broadcasting</u>, which may require union membership in some large markets such as Newspaper Guild, AFTRA, & <u>text publishers</u>. The concept of mass media is complicated in some internet media as now individuals have a means of potential exposure on a scale comparable to what was previously restricted to select group of mass media producers. These internet media can include <u>television</u>, <u>personal web pages</u>, message boards, podcasts and blogs.

The communications audience has been viewed by some commentators as forming a <u>mass</u> <u>society</u> with special characteristics, notably atomization or lack of social connections, which render it especially susceptible to the influence of modern mass-media techniques such as <u>advertising</u> and <u>propaganda</u>. The term "MSM" or "mainstream media" has been widely used in the <u>blogosphere</u> in discussion of the mass media and <u>media bias</u>.

Forms of Media

Electronic media and print media include:

- Broadcasting, in the narrow sense, for radio and television.
- Various types of <u>discs</u> or <u>tapes</u>. In the 20th century, these were mainly used for <u>music</u>. <u>Video</u> and <u>computer</u> uses followed.
- Film, most often used for entertainment, but also for documentaries.
- <u>Internet</u>, which has many uses and presents both opportunities and challenges. <u>Blogs</u> and <u>podcasts</u>, such as <u>news</u>, <u>music</u>, pre-recorded <u>speech</u> and <u>video</u>)
- <u>Publishing</u>, in the narrow sense, meaning on paper, mainly via <u>books</u>, <u>magazines</u>, and newspapers.
- <u>Video games</u>, which have developed into a mass form of media since cutting-edge devices such as the <u>PlayStation 3</u>, <u>XBox 360</u>, and <u>Wii</u> broadened their use.
- Mobile phones, often called the 7th Mass Media, used for rapid breaking news, short clips of entertainment like jokes, horoscopes, alerts, games, music, and advertising



Audio recording and reproduction

<u>Sound recording and reproduction</u> is the <u>electrical</u> or mechanical re-creation and/or amplification of <u>sound</u>, often as <u>music</u>. This involves the use of <u>audio equipment</u> such as microphones, recording devices and loudspeakers. From early beginnings with the invention of the <u>phonograph</u> using purely mechanical techniques, the field has advanced with the invention of electrical recording, the mass production of the <u>78 record</u>, the <u>magnetic wire recorder</u> followed by the <u>tape recorder</u>, the vinyl <u>LP record</u>. The invention of the <u>compact cassette</u> in the 1960s, followed by Sony's <u>Walkman</u>, gave a major boost to the mass distribution of music recordings, and the invention of <u>digital recording</u> and the <u>compact disc</u> in 1983 brought massive improvements in ruggedness and quality. The most recent developments have been in <u>digital</u> audio players.

An album is a collection of related <u>audio</u> tracks, released together to the public, usually commercially.

The term <u>record album</u> originated from the fact that 78 <u>RPM Phonograph disc records</u> were kept together in a book resembling a photo album. The first collection of records to be called an "album" was <u>Tchaikovsky's Nutcracker Suite</u>, release in April 1909 as a four-disc set by <u>Odeon records</u>. It retailed for 16 <u>shillings</u> — about £15 in modern currency.

A <u>music video</u> (also promo) is a <u>short film</u> or <u>video</u> that accompanies a complete piece of music, most commonly a <u>song</u>. Modern music videos were primarily made and used as a marketing device intended to promote the sale of music recordings. Although the origins of music videos go back much further, they came into their own in the 1980s, when <u>Music Television's</u> format was based around them. In the 1980s, the term "rock video" was often used to describe this form of entertainment, although the term has fallen into disuse.

Music videos can accommodate all styles of filmmaking, including <u>animation</u>, <u>live action</u> films, <u>documentaries</u>, and non-narrative, <u>abstract film</u>.

Broadcasting

<u>Broadcasting</u> is the <u>distribution</u> of <u>audio</u> and/or <u>video</u> <u>signals</u> (programs) to a number of recipients ("listeners" or "viewers") that belong to a large group. This group may be the public in general, or a relatively large audience within the public. Thus, an <u>Internet</u> channel may distribute text or music world-wide, while a <u>public address</u> system in (for example) a workplace may broadcast very limited <u>ad hoc</u> <u>soundbites</u> to a small population within its range.

The sequencing of content in a broadcast is called a <u>schedule</u>. With all technological endeavours a number of technical terms and slang are developed please see the <u>list of</u> broadcasting terms for a glossary of terms used.

<u>Television</u> and <u>radio</u> programs are distributed through radio broadcasting over frequency bands that are highly regulated by the <u>Federal Communications Commission</u>. Such regulation includes determination of the width of the bands, range, licencing, types of receivers and transmitters used, and acceptable content.

<u>Cable</u> programs are often broadcast simultaneously with radio and television programs, but have a more limited audience. By coding signals and having <u>decoding</u> equipment in <u>homes</u>, cable also enables <u>subscription</u>-based channels and <u>pay-per-view</u> services.

A broadcasting <u>organisation</u> may broadcast several programs at the same time, through several channels (<u>frequencies</u>), for example <u>BBC One</u> and <u>Two</u>. On the other hand, two or more organisations may share a channel and each use it during a fixed part of the day. <u>Digital radio</u> and <u>digital television</u> may also transmit <u>multiplexed</u> programming, with several channels <u>compressed</u> into one <u>ensemble</u>.

When broadcasting is done via the Internet the term <u>webcasting</u> is often used. In 2004 a new phenomenon occurred when a number of technologies combined to produce <u>podcasting</u>.



Podcasting is an asynchronous broadcast/narrowcast medium, with one of the main proponents being Adam Curry and his associates the Podshow.

Broadcasting forms a very large segment of the mass media. Broadcasting to a very narrow range of audience is called <u>narrowcasting</u>. The term "broadcast" was coined by early radio engineers from the midwestern United States.

Film

Film is a term that encompasses motion pictures as individual projects, as well as the field in general. The origin of the name comes from the fact that <u>photographic film</u> (also called <u>filmstock</u>) has historically been the primary <u>medium</u> for recording and displaying motion pictures. Many other terms exist — *motion pictures* (or just *pictures* and "picture"), *the silver screen*, *photoplays*, *the cinema*, *picture shows*, *flicks* — and commonly *movies*.

Films are produced by <u>recording</u> people and objects with <u>cameras</u>, or by creating them using <u>animation</u> techniques and/or <u>special effects</u>. They comprise a series of individual frames, but when these images are shown rapidly in succession, the illusion of motion is given to the viewer. Flickering between frames is not seen due to an effect known as <u>persistence of vision</u> — whereby the eye retains a visual image for a fraction of a second after the source has been removed. Also of relevance is what causes the perception of motion; a psychological effect identified as beta movement.

Film is considered by many to be an important <u>art</u> form; films entertain, educate, enlighten and inspire audiences. Any film can become a worldwide attraction, especially with the addition of <u>dubbing</u> or <u>subtitles</u> that translate the film message. Films are also artifacts created by specific cultures, which reflect those cultures, and, in turn, affect them.

Radio

Radio is the transmission of signals, by <u>modulation</u> of <u>electromagnetic waves</u> with <u>frequencies</u> below those of visible <u>light</u>. Electromagnetic radiation <u>travels</u> by means of oscillating electromagnetic fields that pass through the air and the vacuum of space. Information is carried by systematically changing (<u>modulating</u>) some property of the radiated waves, such as amplitude, <u>frequency</u>, or <u>phase</u>. When radio waves pass an electrical conductor, the oscillating fields induce an alternating current in the conductor. This can be <u>detected</u> and transformed into sound or other signals that carry information.

<u>James Clerk Maxwell</u>, a Scottish scientist, developed the theoretical basis for explaining electromagnetism. He predicted that electric and magnetic fields can couple together to form electromagnetic waves. <u>Heinrich Hertz</u>, a German scientist, is credited with being the first to produce and detect such waves at radio frequencies, in 1888, using a <u>sparkgap transmitter</u> in the Ultra High Frequency range.

In <u>1893</u>, <u>Nikola Tesla</u>, in America, first demonstrated the feasibility of wireless communications. <u>Guglielmo Marconi</u>, an Italian inventor, was one of the first to develop workable commercial radio communication. It is supposed that he sent and received his first radio signal in Italy in 1895.

Early uses of radio were maritime, for sending telegraphic messages using Morse code between ships and land. The earliest users included the Japanese Navy scouting the Russian fleet during the Battle of Tsushima in 1905. One of the most memorable uses of marine telegraphy was during the sinking of the RMS *Titanic* in 1912, including communications between operators on the sinking ship and nearby vessels, and communications to shore stations listing the survivors.

Radio was used to pass on orders and communications between armies and navies on both sides in <u>World War I</u>; Germany used radio communications for diplomatic messages once its submarine cables were cut by the British. The United States passed on President <u>Woodrow</u>



<u>Wilson's Fourteen Points</u> to Germany via radio during the war. Broadcasting began from <u>San Jose</u> in 1909, and became feasible in the 1920s, with the widespread introduction of radio receivers, particularly in Europe and the United States. Besides broadcasting, point-to-point broadcasting, including telephone messages and relays of radio programs, became widespread in the 1920s and 1930s. Another use of radio in the pre-war years was the development of detection and locating of aircraft and ships by the use of <u>radar</u> (*RA*dio *D*etection *A*nd *R*anging).

Today, radio takes many forms, including <u>wireless networks</u> and <u>mobile communications</u> of all types, as well as radio <u>broadcasting</u>. Before the advent of <u>television</u>, commercial radio broadcasts included not only news and music, but dramas, comedies, variety shows, and many other forms of entertainment. Radio was unique among methods of dramatic presentation in that it used only sound.

Television

Television is a widely used <u>telecommunication</u> medium for <u>broadcasting</u> and receiving live, moving greyscale or color images with sound. The term may also be used to refer specifically to a <u>television set</u>, <u>programming</u> or television <u>transmission</u>. The word is derived from mixed <u>Latin</u> and <u>Greek</u> roots, meaning "far sight": Greek *tele* ($\tau \tilde{\eta} \lambda \epsilon$), far, and Latin *vision*, sight (from *video*, *vis*- to see, or to view in the first person).

<u>Commercially available since the late 1930s</u>, the television set has become a common household communications device in homes and institutions, particularly as a source of entertainment and news. Since the 1970s, <u>video</u> recordings on <u>tape</u> and later, digital playback systems such as <u>DVDs</u>, have enabled the television to be used to view recorded movies and other programs.

A television system may be made up of multiple components, so a screen which lacks an internal <u>tuner</u> to receive the broadcast signals is called a monitor rather than a television. A television may be built to receive different broadcast or video formats, such as <u>high-definition</u> <u>television</u>, commonly referred to as <u>HDTV</u>.

Internet

The <u>Internet</u> (also known simply as "the Net" or "the Web") can be briefly understood as "a network of networks". Specifically, it is the worldwide, publicly accessible network of interconnected <u>computer networks</u> that transmit <u>data</u> by <u>packet switching</u> using the standard <u>Internet Protocol</u> (IP). It consists of millions of smaller domestic, academic, business, and governmental networks, which together carry various <u>information</u> and services, such as <u>electronic mail</u>, <u>online chat</u>, <u>file</u> transfer, and the interlinked <u>Web pages</u> and other documents of the <u>World Wide Web</u>.

Contrary to some common usage, the Internet and the <u>World Wide Web</u> are not synonymous: the Internet is a collection of interconnected *computer networks*, linked by <u>copper</u> wires, <u>fiberoptic</u> cables, <u>wireless</u> connections etc.; the Web is a collection of interconnected *documents*, linked by <u>hyperlinks</u> and <u>URLs</u>. The World Wide Web is accessible via the Internet, along with many other services including <u>e-mail</u>, <u>file sharing</u> and others described below.

Toward the end of the 20th century, the advent of the World Wide Web marked the first era in which any individual could have a means of exposure on a scale comparable to that of mass media. For the first time, anyone with a web site can address a global audience, although serving to high levels of web traffic is still relatively expensive. It is possible that the rise of peer-to-peer technologies may have begun the process of making the cost of bandwidth manageable. Although a vast amount of information, imagery, and commentary (i.e. "content") has been made available, it is often difficult to determine the authenticity and reliability of information contained in web pages (in many cases, self-published). The invention of the Internet has also allowed breaking news stories to reach around the globe within minutes. This rapid growth of instantaneous, decentralized communication is often deemed likely to change mass media and its relationship to society.



"Cross-media" means the idea of distributing the same message through different media channels. A similar idea is expressed in the news industry as "convergence". Many authors understand cross-media publishing to be the ability to publish in both <u>print</u> and on the <u>web</u> without manual conversion effort. An increasing number of <u>wireless</u> devices with mutually incompatible data and screen formats make it even more difficult to achieve the objective "create once, publish many".

The internet is quickly becoming the center of mass media. Everything is becoming accessible via the internet. Instead of picking up a newspaper, or watching the 10 o'clock news, people will log onto the internet to get the news they want, when they want it. Many workers listen to the radio through the internet while sitting at their desk. Games are played through the internet. The Internet and Education: Findings of the Pew Internet & American Life Project Even the <u>education system</u> relies on the internet. Teachers can contact the entire class by sending one e-mail. They have web pages where students can get another copy of the class outline or assignments. Some classes even have class blogs where students must post weekly, and are graded on their contributions. The internet thus far has become an extremely dominant form of media.

Blogs (Web Logs)

Blogging has become a huge form of media, popular through the internet. A blog is a website, usually maintained by an individual, with regular entries of commentary, descriptions of events, or other material such as graphics or video. Entries are commonly displayed in reverse chronological order. Many blogs provide commentary or news on a particular subject; others function as more personal online diaries. A typical blog combines text, images, and links to other blogs, web pages, and other media related to its topic. The ability for readers to leave comments in an interactive format is an important part of many blogs. Most blogs are primarily textual, although some focus on art (artlog), photographs (photoblog), sketchblog, videos (vlog), music (MP3 blog), audio (podcasting) are part of a wider network of social media. Micro-blogging is another type of blogging which consists of blogs with very short posts.

Mobile Phones

Mobile phones were introduced in Japan in 1997 but became a mass media only in 1998 when the first downloadable ringing tones were introduced in Finland. Soon most forms of media content were introduced on mobile phones, and today the total value of media consumed on mobile towers over that of internet content, and was worth over 31 billion dollars in 2007 (source Informa). The mobile media content includes over 8 billion dollars worth of mobile music (ringing tones, ringback tones, truetones, MP3 files, karaoke, music videos, music streaming services etc); over 5 billion dollars worth of mobile gaming; and various news, entertainment and advertising services. In Japan mobile phone books are so popular that five of the ten best-selling printed books were originally released as mobile phone books.

Similar to the internet, mobile is also an interactive media, but has far wider reach, with 3.3 billion mobile phone users at the end of 2007 to 1.3 billion internet users (source ITU). Like email on the internet, the top application on mobile is also a personal messaging service, but SMS text messaging is used by over 2.4 billion people. Practically all internet services and applications exist or have similar cousins on mobile, from search to multiplayer games to virtual worlds to blogs. Mobile has several unique benefits which many mobile media pundits claim make mobile a more powerful media than either TV or the internet, starting with mobile being permanently carried and always connected. Mobile has the best audience accuracy and is the only mass media with a built-in payment channel available to every user without any credit cards or paypal accounts or even an age limit. Mobile is often called the 7th Mass Media and either the fourth screen (if counting cinema, TV and PC screens) or the third screen (counting only TV and PC).



Publishing

<u>Publishing</u> is the industry concerned with the production of <u>literature</u> or <u>information</u> – the activity of making information available for public view. In some cases, authors may be their own publishers.

Traditionally, the term refers to the distribution of printed works such as <u>books</u> and <u>newspapers</u>. With the advent of digital information systems and the <u>Internet</u>, the scope of publishing has expanded to include <u>websites</u>, <u>blogs</u>, and the like.

As a <u>business</u>, publishing includes the development, <u>marketing</u>, <u>production</u>, and <u>distribution</u> of newspapers, magazines, books, <u>literary works</u>, <u>musical works</u>, <u>software</u>, other works dealing with information.

Publication is also important as a <u>legal concept</u>; (1) as the process of giving formal notice to the world of a significant intention, for example, to marry or enter bankruptcy, and; (2) as the essential precondition of being able to claim defamation; that is, the alleged libel must have been published.

Books

A <u>book</u> is a collection of sheets of <u>paper</u>, <u>parchment</u> or other material with a piece of text written on them, bound together along one edge within covers. A book is also a literary work or a main division of such a work. A book produced in electronic format is known as an <u>e-book</u>.

In <u>library and information science</u>, a book is called a <u>monograph</u> to distinguish it from serial <u>publications</u> such as <u>magazines</u>, <u>journals</u> or <u>newspapers</u>.

Publishers may produce low-cost, pre-proof editions known as galleys or 'bound proofs' for promotional purposes, such as generating reviews in advance of publication. Galleys are usually made as cheaply as possible, since they are not intended for sale.

Magazine

A <u>magazine</u> is a periodical <u>publication</u> containing a variety of articles, generally financed by advertising and/or purchase by readers.

Magazines are typically published <u>weekly</u>, <u>biweekly</u>, <u>monthly</u>, <u>bimonthly</u> or <u>quarterly</u>, with a <u>date on the cover</u> that is in advance of the date it is actually published. They are often printed in color on coated paper, and are bound with a <u>soft cover</u>.

Magazines fall into two broad categories: consumer magazines and business magazines. In practice, magazines are a subset of <u>periodicals</u>, distinct from those periodicals produced by scientific, artistic, academic or special interest publishers which are subscription-only, more expensive, narrowly limited in circulation, and often have little or no advertising.

Magazines can be classified as:

- General interest magazines (e.g. Frontline, India Today, The Week, etc)
- Special interest magazines (women's, sports, business, scuba diving, etc)

Newspapers

A <u>newspaper</u> is a <u>publication</u> containing news and information and advertising, usually printed on low-cost paper called newsprint. It may be general or special interest, most often published daily or weekly. The first printed newspaper was published in 1605, and the form has thrived even in the face of competition from technologies such as radio and television. Recent developments on the Internet are posing major threats to its business model, however. Paid circulation is declining in most countries, and advertising revenue, which makes up the bulk of a newspaper's income, is shifting from print to online; some commentators, nevertheless, point out that historically new media such as radio and television did not entirely supplant existing.



Software Publishing

A <u>software publisher</u> is a <u>publishing company</u> in the <u>software industry</u> between the <u>developer</u> and the <u>distributor</u>. In some companies, two or all three of these roles may be combined (and indeed, may reside in a single person, especially in the case of <u>shareware</u>).

Software publishers often license software from developers with specific limitations, such as a time limit or geographical region. The terms of licensing vary enormously, and are typically secret.

Developers may use publishers to reach larger or foreign markets, or to avoid focussing on marketing. Or publishers may use developers to create software to meet a market need that the publisher has identified.

Mass Wire Media

Mass wire media is a new frontier of news reporting in the high-tech age. A few decades ago news reporting was through <u>newspapers</u> and <u>radio</u> and <u>television</u>. The radio broadcasts that were made famous by <u>Franklin D. Roosevelt</u> during <u>World War II</u> changed the way radio was looked at. These fireside chats made the radio news and news radio. Things are different now as we are witnessing a revolution of people-oriented reporting in real time and other times. This element of intimate knowledge of the event or story being reported has dramatically changed the way we all view news stories.

This is called by some the Social Media Revolution. This revolution has intrinsically altered the way news is reported almost the way it happens. The trend of people-oriented reporting is only on the rise as reporting news becomes more personal and more accurate - although also more subjective.

Video Games

A video game is a <u>computer</u>-controlled game where a video display such as a <u>monitor</u> or <u>television</u> is the primary feedback device. The term "computer game" also includes games which display only text (and which can therefore theoretically be played on a <u>teletypewriter</u>) or which use other methods, such as sound or vibration, as their primary feedback device, but there are very few new games in these categories. There always must also be some sort of <u>input device</u>, usually in the form of <u>button/joystick</u> combinations (on arcade games), a <u>keyboard</u> & <u>mouse/trackball</u> combination (computer games), or a <u>controller</u> (<u>console</u> games), or a <u>combination</u> of any of the above. Also, more esoteric devices have been used for input. Usually there are rules and goals, but in more open-ended games the player may be free to do whatever they like within the confines of the virtual universe.

In common usage, a "computer game" or a "PC game" refers to a game that is played on a personal computer. "Console game" refers to one that is played on a device specifically designed for the use of such, while interfacing with a standard television set. "Arcade game" refers to a game designed to be played in an establishment in which patrons pay to play on a per-use basis. "Video game" (or "videogame") has evolved into a catchall phrase that encompasses the aforementioned along with any game made for any other device, including, but not limited to, mobile phones, PDAs, advanced calculators, etc.

Non-mass or "personal" media (point-to-point and person-to-person communication) include:

- Speech
- Gestures
- Telephony
- Postal mail
- Some uses of the Internet
- Some Interactive media
- Arguably, blogs and other first-person, web-based communications are non-mass media.



Communication Studies

Mass communication

Mass communication is the term used to describe the academic study of the various means by which individuals and entities relay information through <u>mass media</u> to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate to <u>newspaper</u> and <u>magazine</u> publishing, <u>radio</u>, <u>television</u> and <u>film</u>, as these are used both for disseminating <u>news</u> and for <u>advertising</u>.

Mass communication research includes media institutions and processes such as diffusion of information, and media effects such as persuasion or manipulation of public opinion. In the United States, for instance, several <u>university journalism</u> departments evolved into schools or colleges of mass communication or "journalism and mass communication". In addition to studying practical skills of journalism, <u>public relations</u> or <u>advertising</u>, they offer programs on "mass communication" or "mass communication research." The latter is often the title given to doctoral studies in such schools, whether the focus of the student's research is journalism practice, history, law or media effects. Departmental structures within such colleges may separate research and instruction in professional or technical aspects of mass communication.

With the increased role of the Internet in delivering news and information, mass communication studies and media organizations tend to focus on the convergence of <u>publishing</u>, broadcasting and digital communication.

The academic mass communication discipline historically differs from <u>media studies</u> and <u>communication studies</u> programs with roots in departments of theatre, film or speech, and with more interest in "<u>qualitative</u>," interpretive theory, critical or cultural approaches to communication study. In contrast, many mass communication programs historically lean toward empirical analysis and quantitative research -- from statistical content analysis of media messages to survey research, public opinion polling, and experimental research.

The terms 'Mass' and 'Communication'

The term 'mass' denotes great volume, range or extent (of people or production) and reception of messages. The important point about 'mass' is not that a given number of individuals receives the products, but rather that the products are available in principle to a plurality of recipients.

The term 'mass' suggests that the recipients of media products constitute a vast sea of passive, undifferentiated individuals. This is an image associated with some earlier critiques of 'mass culture' and Mass society which generally assumed that the development of mass communication has had a largely negative impact on modern social life, creating a kind of bland and homogeneous culture which entertains individuals without challenging them. However, with the advancement in Media Technology, people are no longer receiving gratification without questioning the grounds on which it is based. Instead, people are engaging themselves more with media products such as computers, cell phones and Internet. These have gradually became vital tools for communications in society today.

The aspect of 'communication' refers to the giving and taking of meaning, the transmission and reception of messages. The word 'communication' is really equated with 'transmission', as viewed by the sender, rather than in the fuller meaning, which includes the notions of response, sharing and interaction. Messages are produced by one set of individuals and transmitted to others who are typically situated in settings that are spatially and temporally remote from the original context of production. Therefore, the term 'communication' in this context masks the social and industrial nature of the media, promoting a tendency to think of them as <u>interpersonal communication</u>. Furthermore, it is known that recipients today do have some capacity to intervene in and contribute to the course and content of the communicative process. They are being both active and creative towards the messages that they are conveyed of. With the complement of the cyberspace supported by the Internet, not only that recipients are participants



in a structured process of symbolic transmission, constraints such as time and space are reordered and eliminated.

'Mass communication' can be seen as institutionalized production and generalized diffusion of symbolic goods via the fixation and transmission of information or symbolic content. It is known that the systems of information codification has shifted from analog to digital. This has indeed advanced the communication between individuals. With the existence of Infrared, Bluetooth and Wi-Fi, cell phones are no longer solely a tool for audio transmission. We can transfer photos, music documents or even games and email at any time and anywhere. The development of media technology has indeed advanced the transmission rate and stability of information exchange.

Characteristics of Mass Communication

Five characteristics of mass communication have been identified by <u>Cambridge University's</u> <u>John Thompson</u>. Firstly, it "comprises both technical and institutional methods of production and distribution". This is evident throughout the history of the media, from print to the Internet, each suitable for commercial utility.

Secondly, it involves the "commodification of symbolic forms", as the production of materials relies on its ability to manufacture and sell large quantities of the work. Just as radio stations rely on its time sold to advertisements, newspapers rely for the same reasons on its space.

Mass Communication's third characteristic is the "separate contexts between the production and reception of information", while the fourth is in its "reach to those 'far removed' in time and space, in comparison to the producers".

Finally, Thompson notes a fifth characteristic of mass communication, which involves "information distribution". This is a "one to many" form of communication, whereby products are mass produced and disseminated to a great quantity of audiences.

Media communication theories

What effect does the media have (or can the media have) upon an audience? Can the media change the way the audience thinks or behaves? The following communication theories provide different frameworks for understanding how media texts such as advertisements and films might work on audiences. Theories are simply ideas or understandings—there is no 'right' or 'wrong' theory.

The Frankfurt School and the Bullet or Hypodermic Needle Theory: 1930s to 1950s

The Bullet Theory holds that the mass media are so powerful that they can 'shoot' or 'inject' their messages straight into the viewer's head. The passive viewers (referred to collectively as the 'masses') are immediately influenced by the message. According to this theory, there is only one way for an audience to read a particular media 'text'.

The people who began the Frankfurt School were mainly German academics (many of whom were Jewish) who had fled Nazi Germany prior to World War Two. They had seen how an entire nation had been influenced to become firmly anti-Jewish. The Frankfurt School saw the mass media as a bad influence and believed in the powerlessness of the mass media's audience. They believed modern culture had been taken over by the mass media, which shaped every aspect of their lives.

The Frankfurt School proposed the Bullet (sometimes referred to as the Hypodermic Needle) Theory, the first major communication theory to be developed at a time when the media was becoming a force to be reckoned with. According to this theory, the masses are 'sitting ducks' who passively absorb all the media material 'shot' at them and end up thinking what they have been told. The audience is given virtually no credit for being able to discern truth from fiction. The media is seen as substantially shaping their lives.

With the development of television after World War Two and the very rapid increase in



advertising, concern about the 'power' of the media continued to mount and we find that concern reflected in the popular press. Today, incidents such as the Columbine High School massacre are sometimes blamed on the media. Some people have argued that exposure to violent movies, video games and songs have caused violent acts. For example, in the popular press, Michael Ryan was reported to have gone out and shot people at random in Hungerford (UK) because he had watched Rambo videos.

There are still people who believe that the Bullet Theory is correct, and believe that the ideas that shaped this theory are valid, however these people are certainly in the minority. There is a wealth of research to suggest that audience members actively choose which messages they attend to and how they interpret them.

☐ Is the Bullet Theory useful in explaining the impact of the SunSmart advertisements? Has there been a complete adherence to the SunSmart message? That is, does everyone who sees the ads accept the message and minimise their exposure to ultraviolet radiation? Does everyone who views SunSmart advertisements take out the same message?

Uses and Gratification Theory: 1940s to 1960s

It's what the people do with the media – rather than what the media does to people – that counts. The public uses the media to gratify desires – whether they desire entertainment, relaxation, information, etc.

In the early days of media effect research it became apparent that the Bullet Theory, which saw audiences as passive participants in mass media communication, was not borne out by detailed empirical investigation or testing. Factors such as the influence of group membership and audience interest in the subject appeared to limit the effect of media messages. Unlike the Bullet theorists, the Uses and Gratification school used empirical research for the first time – and found that people only listened to what actually interested them.

Uses and Gratification theorists believe that the media has no power at all over people's attitudes and beliefs. It's what the people do with the media – rather than what the media does to people that counts.

Researchers in the Uses and Gratification school see the audience as active participants in media communication, using it to gratify their own needs and purposes. For example, people may tune into their own TV and radio stations and read newspapers and magazines for a number of reasons: entertainment, escapism, relaxation as well as a source of information. They make further choices about when, how often and how long they will engage with the media. They consume the media because they like what they are getting. In a way, then, the audience determines the media content. With television ratings, the media have to give us what we want or we will switch off and the show will be axed. For example, currently the show Popstars Live is in danger of being axed because the ratings are low. It was reported that the judges were told to be more critical about the performances because 'that is what the viewers want to see.' A Uses and Gratification theorist would see this as an example of the audience controlling the media.

This theory heavily influenced all other communication theories – because it challenged the idea that the masses are passive 'sheep' who all read media texts in the same way. Instead this theory put forth the idea that texts are open to different interpretations – and that the audience does not necessarily buy into the message of the media product. In this way, the theory paved the way for alternative models to be put forward.

Today, the Uses and Gratification Theory, like the Bullet Theory, is not popular among theorists and academics. In spite of this, many people continue to use elements of the theory to argue that government censorship should be relaxed (because, according to the theory, media texts cannot influence the audience).



The most significant problem with the theory relates to advertising. If the media has no power at all over the audience, how can you explain the success of advertising?

What effect would a Uses and Gratification theorist expect the *Tattoo* ad to have?

Joseph Klapper's Reinforcement Theory: 1970s

According to this theory, the media is seen as having little power to shape public opinion. Other factors (referred to as 'socialising influences') play a greater role in shaping people's beliefs and attitudes such as the influence of family and peer groups, religion, social class, education, occupation, etc.

Sociologist Joseph Klapper basically agreed with the Uses and Gratification Theory in that the media is not seen as being all-powerful and that the meanings in texts are open to interpretation by the audience. However, Klapper's theory differs in one important way: Klapper considered a *range* of influences upon audiences, of which the media was only one.

Klapper argued that these socialising influences were responsible for a person's beliefs and behaviour, and that the media can only play a role by 'reinforcing' these beliefs and attitudes. The audience will simply ignore messages that contradict their view of the world. For example, if you held the belief that tanning was unhealthy, the *Tattoo* advertisement would reinforce this belief. However, if you were brought up to believe that tanning was a sign of beauty (as a result of the society we live in; what your friends think; fashion etc) you would simply reject the advertisement's message.

Klapper introduced a new concept to the media communication debate: he argued that the influence of the media can be much greater when the media explores issues that have not been talked about before. In these circumstances, there is no pre-existing value or belief in the audience. Only on these rare occasions can the media slightly influence the public for a short time, until other sources of influence in society become aware of the issue. At that point, Klapper argued, the network of social factors will again become the dominant influence shaping public opinion.

As a result of his research, Klapper generalised that mass communication cannot be considered in isolation but must be seen as an influence working amid other influences. 'New' media messages will eventually be adopted or rejected by more conventional influencing elements (such as peer group and family), which will then become the dominant factors in personal beliefs.

One of the problems of the theory is that it fails to explain why two people with similar socialisation experiences can read the same text in radically different ways.

While not a revolutionary departure from the Uses and Gratification Theory, the Reinforcement Theory certainly set the stage for future direction of media communication theory.

- What do you think? Does the media only reinforce your already existing beliefs? Or have you changed your mind on an issue after seeing a persuasive documentary, or news piece etc?
- What do you feel strongly about? On a piece of paper, write down one of your beliefs for example, 'In my opinion, war is never justified.' Now think about how you formed these beliefs. What or who influenced you? Do you agree with Klapper that the media in general can have no power at all over people's attitudes and beliefs?

Agenda Setting Function Theory: 1970s

The media cannot tell us what to think but it can tell us what to think about.

This theory is defined as the process whereby the mass media determine what we think and talk about. In other words, the media can 'set agendas' or terms of reference of any discussion be it social, political or economical.

How can the media set agendas? The process which the media uses to control our access to news, information and entertainment is known as 'gate keeping.' The media can set the agenda about what is discussed through the process of selection and omission. A producer of a TV news program, for



example, can decide what stories to cover by 'selecting' certain stories over others; they also decide what is omitted by leaving out other stories. The media can also give one side of the story far more prominence (selection) while downplaying or omitting the opposing point of view.

For example, years back a current affair show did a story on a family in which the three adult children were unemployed. The family was portrayed as 'dole bludgers' who made no serious effort to get jobs. The producers selected footage of the children which showed them in a negative light and chose music and images which reinforced the idea that they were lazy nohopers. The producers of the show also omitted the family's side of the story. There was no serious examination of the problems of unemployment and the difficulty of finding work.

One of the major concepts underpinning this theory is that people can read texts in a number of different ways. According to this theory, the majority of the public will accept the **dominant** or **preferred** reading of the text. What this means is that if the media tells the public that a certain fact is the truth or that an issue should be understood in a certain way ('all unemployed people are dole bludgers'), the majority of the population who read/listen/watch will get that intended message and will understand.

The minority of the population will see the text as being untruthful or inaccurate. They have negative or **oppositional** reading to the text. Some people will **negotiate** a meaning from the text. A **negotiated** reading is where people have mixed feelings about the text; they may agree with some of the messages; but not with others. They will decide what parts of the text are relevant and what are not.

- Watch a current affair show like A Current Affair or Today Tonight. Closely analyse one of the stories. How has this story been presented? What information has been selected and what has been omitted? Has the producer taken sides? What is the *dominant* reading of the story?
- Do you think a current affair program or an advertisement would be more effective in setting a sunsmart agenda with the target group? Discuss.

Postmodernism: 1970s to today

'Texts' are always open. Meaning is only introduced to the text by the reader. Therefore, every 'reading' is different. Media has little power – advertising and other media products cannot influence the public. Advertising can, however, influence individuals although the exact extent of the influence cannot be measured.

Developed in France during the 1970s and 1980s, Postmodernism reflected the social values of the 1980s. This was a time when corporate values reigned – it was a competitive environment where people looked after their own interests.

Postmodernism takes very literally the view that every individual has his or her own way of reading a media product – be it a TV program, advertisement, song, article, news report etc.

Postmodernists don't like to group responses together – they believe that everyone's response is unique and not only that but people's responses may change over time. For example, I loved the *Road Runner* cartoon as a kid whereas my brother hated it. My brother loved animals and was distressed to see the coyote hurt. I was older and less sensitive than my brother; I just thought the cartoon was funny. Our interpretations of the *Road Runner* cartoon reflected the different people we were at that stage in our lives, the values we held, our respective ages, etc.

Nowadays, I can't stand watching the *Road Runner*. It bores me rigid and I can't believe that I ever enjoyed it. My response to this text has changed over time – but the text has remained the same!

This is exactly what postmodernists argue:

- There is no single meaning in the text itself (no *one* way to read the *Road Runner* cartoon).
- The meaning of the text resides in the viewer.

There is no such thing as an authority on a particular issue and, because we are all individuals,



everyone's opinion is equally valid. (So my interpretation of the *Road Runner* cartoon was not superior to my brother's after all!)

- We can't talk about a particular media product having a major influence over everybody because everybody will have his or her own unique way of interpreting the product. In other words, there is no such thing as a dominant/preferred reading. Readings are more often negotiated or oppositional audiences make their own meanings.
- Although a media product will not have major influence over everyone, a media product may influence individuals but this cannot be measured. For some of the viewers for some of the time the message they read may overlap with the intended message. So some individuals may watch the *Tattoo* advertisement and see it as warning not to spend too much time in the sun; others will admire the woman's figure and enjoy the music; others may think that the advertisement is saying 'Tattoos are cool.' There are multiple ways to read this advertisement.
- Watch the *Tattoo* ad as a class. After viewing the advertisement, ask each class member to finish the statement:
- 'I interpret the ad in the following way' or 'To me, this ad is about'

Compare your responses.

• Why are there conflicting ways of reading this one advertisement?

Journalism

Journalism is a style of <u>writing</u> or communicating, formally employed by publications and broadcasters, for the benefit of a particular <u>community</u> of people. The writer or journalist is expected to take the help of facts in describing events, ideas, or issues that are relevant to the <u>public</u>. Journalists (also known as news analysts, <u>reporters</u>, and correspondents) gather <u>information</u>, and broadcast it so we remain informed about local, state, national, and international events. They can also present their points of view on current issues and report on the actions of the government, public officials, corporate executives, interest groups, media houses, and those who hold social power or authority.

<u>News</u>-oriented journalism is sometimes described as the "first rough draft of history" (attributed to <u>Phil Graham</u>), because journalists often record important events, producing news articles on short deadlines. While under pressure to be first with their stories, <u>news media</u> organizations usually <u>edit</u> and <u>proofread</u> their reports prior to publication, adhering to each organization's standards of accuracy, quality and style. Many news organizations claim proud traditions of holding government officials and institutions accountable to the public, while media critics have raised questions about holding the press itself accountable.

In journalism, a <u>story</u> refers to a single article, <u>news</u> item or <u>feature</u>. A story is usually relevant to a single <u>event</u>, <u>issue</u>, <u>theme</u>, or <u>profile</u> of a person. Stories are usually inspired through news <u>pegs</u> (the central premise of the story). *Correspondents* report on news occurring in the main, locally, from their own country, or from foreign cities where they are stationed.

Today, most reporters *file* information or write their stories electronically from remote locations. In many cases, *breaking stories* are written by random staff members, through information collected and submitted by other reporters who are out on the field gathering information for an event that has just occurred and needs to be broadcast instantly. Radio and television reporters often compose stories and report "live" from the scene. Some journalists also interpret the news or offer opinions and analysis to readers, viewers, or listeners. In this role, they are called commentators or columnists.



Sports journalism

Sports journalism covers many aspects of human athletic competition, and is an integral part of most journalism products, including newspapers, magazines, and radio and television news broadcasts. While some critics don't consider sports journalism to be true journalism, the prominence of sports in Western culture has justified the attention of journalists to not just the competitive events in sports, but also to athletes and the business of sports.

Sports journalism in the United States has traditionally been written in a looser, more creative and more opinionated tone than traditional journalistic writing; the emphasis on accuracy and underlying fairness is still a part of sports journalism. An emphasis on the accurate description of the statistical performances of athletes is also an important part of sports journalism.

Science journalism

Science journalism is a relatively new branch of journalism, in which journalists' reporting conveys information on science topics to the public. Science journalists must understand and interpret very detailed, technical and sometimes jargon-laden information and render it into interesting reports that are comprehensible to consumers of news media.

Scientific journalists also must choose which developments in science merit news coverage, as well as cover disputes within the scientific community with a balance of fairness to both sides but also with a devotion to the facts.

Many, but not all, journalists covering science have training in the sciences they cover, including several medical journalists who cover medicine.

Investigative journalism

Investigative journalism, in which journalists investigate and expose <u>unethical immoral</u> and <u>illegal</u> behavior by individuals, businesses and government agencies, can be complicated, time-consuming and expensive — requiring teams of journalists, months of research, interviews (sometimes repeated interviews) with numerous people, long-distance travel, computers to analyze public-record databases, or use of the company's legal staff to secure documents under freedom of information laws.

Because of its inherently confrontational nature, this kind of reporting is often the first to suffer from budget cutbacks or interference from outside the news department. Investigative reporting done poorly can also expose journalists and media organizations to negative reaction from the subjects of investigations and the public, and accusations of gotcha journalism. When conducted correctly it can bring the attention of the public and government to problems and conditions that the public deem need to be addressed, and can win awards and recognition to the journalists involved and the media outlet that did the reporting.

New journalism

New Journalism was the name given to a style of 1960s and 1970s news writing and journalism which used literary techniques deemed unconventional at the time. The term was codified with its current meaning by <u>Tom Wolfe</u> in a 1973 collection of journalism articles.

It is typified by using certain devices of literary fiction, such as conversational speech, first-person point of view, recording everyday details and telling the story using scenes. Though it seems undisciplined at first, new journalism maintains elements of reporting including strict adherence to factual accuracy and the writer being the primary source. To get "inside the head" of a character, the journalist asks the subject what they were thinking or how they felt.

Because of its unorthodox style, new journalism is typically employed in feature writing or book-length reporting projects.



Many new journalists are also writers of fiction and prose. In addition to Wolfe, writers whose work has fallen under the title "new journalism" include <u>Norman Mailer</u>, <u>Hunter S. Thompson</u>, <u>Joan Didion</u>, <u>Truman Capote</u>, <u>George Plimpton</u> and <u>Gay Talese</u>.

Gonzo journalism

Gonzo journalism is a type of journalism popularized by the American writer Hunter S. Thompson, author of *Fear and Loathing in Las Vegas*, *Fear and Loathing on the Campaign Trail '72* and *The Kentucky Derby is Decadent and Depraved*, among other stories and books. Gonzo journalism is characterized by its punchy style, rough language, and ostensible disregard for conventional journalistic writing forms and customs. More importantly, the traditional objectivity of the journalist is given up through immersion into the story itself, as in New Journalism, and the reportage is taken from a first-hand, participatory perspective, sometimes using an <u>author surrogate</u> such as Thompson's <u>Raoul Duke</u>. Gonzo journalism attempts to present a multi-disciplinary perspective on a particular story, drawing from popular culture, sports, political, philosophical and literary sources. Gonzo journalism has been styled <u>eclectic</u> or untraditional. It remains a feature of popular magazines such as <u>Rolling Stone</u> magazine. It has a good deal in common with new journalism and on-line journalism (see above).

'Celebrity' or 'people' journalism

Another area of journalism that grew in stature in the 20th Century is 'celebrity' or 'people' journalism, which focuses on the personal lives of people, primarily celebrities, including movie and stage actors, musical artists, models and photographers, other notable people in the entertainment industry, as well as people who seek attention, such as politicians, and people thrust into the attention of the public, such as people who do something newsworthy.

Once the province of newspaper gossip columnists and gossip magazines, celebrity journalism has become the focus of national tabloid newspapers like the <u>National Enquirer</u>, magazines like <u>People</u> and <u>Us Weekly</u>, syndicated television shows like <u>Entertainment Tonight</u>, <u>Inside Edition</u>, <u>The Insider</u>, <u>Access Hollywood</u>, and <u>Extra</u>, cable networks like <u>E!</u>, <u>A&E Network</u> and <u>The Biography Channel</u>, and numerous other television productions and thousands of websites. Most other news media provide some coverage of celebrities and people.

Celebrity journalism differs from feature writing in that it focuses on people who are either already famous or are especially attractive, and in that it often covers celebrities obsessively, to the point of these journalists behaving unethically in order to provide coverage. <u>Paparazzi</u>, photographers who would follow celebrities incessantly to obtain potentially embarrassing photographs, have come to characterize celebrity journalism.

'Convergence journalism'

An emerging form of journalism, which combines different forms of journalism, such as print, photographic and video, into one piece or group of pieces. Convergence journalism can be found in the likes of CNN and many other news sites. *The Washington Post* has a notable amount of this.

Ambush journalism

Ambush journalism refers to aggressive tactics practiced by journalists to suddenly confront with questions people who otherwise do not wish to speak to a journalist. The practice has particularly been applied by television journalists, such as those on the CBS-TV news show <u>60</u> <u>Minutes</u> and by <u>Geraldo Rivera</u>, currently on the <u>Fox News</u> cable channel, and by hundreds of American local television reporters conducting investigations.

The practice has been sharply criticized by journalists and others as being highly <u>unethical</u> and <u>sensational</u>, while others defend it as the only way to attempt to provide those subject to it an



opportunity to comment for a report. Ambush journalism has not been ruled illegal in the United States, although doing it on private property could open a journalist to being charged with trespassing.

Public Relations

<u>Public relations</u> is the art and science of managing communication between an organization and its key publics to build, manage and sustain its positive image. Examples include:

- Corporations use marketing public relations (MPR) to convey information about the products they manufacture or services they provide to potential customers to support their direct sales efforts. Typically, they support sales in the short and long term, establishing and burnishing the corporation's branding for a strong, ongoing market.
- Corporations also use public-relations as a vehicle to reach legislators and other politicians, seeking favorable tax, regulatory, and other treatment, and they may use public relations to portray themselves as enlightened employers, in support of human-resources recruiting programs.
- Non-profit organizations, including schools and universities, hospitals, and human and social service agencies, use public relations in support of awareness programs, fund-raising programs, staff recruiting, and to increase patronage of their services.
- Politicians use public relations to attract votes and raise money, and, when successful at the ballot box, to promote and defend their service in office, with an eye to the next election or, at career's end, to their legacy.

ICTs and Poverty Alleviation

We have forty years of evidence on the utility of broadcast media as a tool for improving incomes. A survey of some of the 21,000 farmers enrolled in radio-backed farm forums in Zambia showed that 90 percent found programs relevant and more than 50 percent credited the programs and forums with increasing their crop yields. Building telephone centers is another significant means for creating income. In the Indian state of Punjab, for example, one study found over 10,000 staffed telecenters had sprung up by 1996—generating close to 9,000 USD in gross revenue per center, much of which went to salaries. In Bangladesh, Grameen Phone gives loans to low-income women entrepreneurs in rural areas to provide payphone services based on cellular technology.

Villagers report that the introduction of the service has allowed rural farmers to check livestock prices and coordinate medical needs, and has challenged the traditional power that wealthy landowners and intermediaries have held over rural economies and politics. Also, the phones themselves have become an important new business sector in the villages, generating jobs and income where none previously existed. The average income per village telephone operator has been estimated at \$700 per annum. Small manufacturers of traditional handicrafts are also discovering how ICTs can assist in the marketing and distribution of their wares to a worldwide client base. In Kenya, the Naushad Trading Company (http://www.ntclimited.com), which sells local woodcarvings, pottery, and baskets, has seen revenue growth from

US\$ 10,000 to over US\$ 2 million in the two years since it went online. Consumers and shopkeepers can access constantly updated color pictures of NTCLimited's product line, place orders, and make inquiries of other types of handicrafts.

The impact of ICTs on the lives of poor people goes far beyond income generation, however. In education, at the primary and secondary levels, radio and television are an increasingly important means of reaching the rural poor. Educational radio has been utilized in:

- Mexico and Mali, for literacy training;
- Thailand, to teach mathematics to school children, and for teacher training and other curricula; and



• The Dominion Republic and Paraguay, in support of primary education.

There are also a number of Internet-based education programs, including ENLACES in Chile and the World Bank's WorldLinks program. Information technology also has a role in improving the quality of health services. A significant percentage of health workers in Uganda (54 percent) and Kenya (20 percent/year) have taken part in radio-backed training courses and there are consistent reports and surveys suggesting that these result in improved knowledge, attitudes and practices. ICTs can also significantly cut the cost of education and health care through the improvement of management systems using networked computers. ICTs also have a role in supporting environmental awareness programs and publicizing the actions of polluters, in preserving and disseminating cultural information and practices, and a range of other development tasks. Finally, ICTs also have a major role in reducing the vulnerability of the poor especially to natural disasters and powerlessness. One of the reasons for this is the part that ICTs can play in amplifying the voices of the poor. ICTs bridge the distance between remote communities and service providers—markets, government departments, and aid agencies. They can allow the opinions of the poor and the needs of the poor to be heard. For example, in India, the women's rights NGO 'Sakashi' had faced difficulties in lobbying for sexual harassment legislation. With help from international women's networks provided over the Internet, Sakashi was able to receive advice and technical assistance on legal issues surrounding sexual harassment. As a result, the group succeeded in convincing the Supreme Court to establish sexual harassment guidelines in the workplace and brought the issue within the purview of human rights violations.



رسانهها

رسانههای جمعی

رسانههای جمعی اصطلاحی است که بر قسمتی از رسانهها دلالت دارد که به طور خاص درنظر گرفته شده و به منظور دسترسی به یک گروه مخاطبان خیلی بزرگ از قبیل جمعیت یک دولت ملت طراحی شدهاند. این واژه در دهه ۱۹۲۰ با ظهور شبکههای رادیوئی ملی، روزنامهها و مجلههای با تیراژ انبوه ایجاد گردید، اگرچه رسانههای جمعی قرنها قبل از اینکه این واژه رواج یابد، وجود داشتند. واژه رسانههای عمومی نیز ازمعنای مشابهی برخوردار است: منظور مجموعهای از توزیع کنندگان انبوه همگانی است که اخبار و سرگرمی را از طریق رسانههایی چون روزنامهها، تلویزیون، رادیو و پخش منتشر میسازند. البته برای این کار آنها ممکن است در بعضی از بازارهای بزرگ از قبیل روزنامه اتحادیه (Newspaper Guild)، افترا (AFTRA)، و تکست پابلیشرز (Text Puplishers) نیازمند اخذ عضویت باشند.

مفهوم رسانه جمعی در بعضی از رسانههای اینترنتی پیچیده شده است همچنان که امروزه افراد در مقایسه با آنچه که مبتلا به انتخاب گروه تولیدکنندگان رسانههای جمعی محدود شده بود، دارای ابزارهای معارضه بالقوه در مقیاس میباشند. این رسانههای اینترنتی میتوانند رسانههایی چون تلویزیون، صفحه - وبهای شخصی، تابلوهای پیام، رادیو اینترنتی و بلاگها را شامل باشند.

از نظر بعضی از مفسران، مخاطبان ارتباطات، جامعهای تودهوار تشکیل میدهند که دارای مشخصات ویژهای، چون اتمیزه شده گی یا فقدان پیوندهای اجتماعی میباشد، ویژگیهایی که باعث می گردد که این جامعه در معرض تاثیرات تکنیکهای رسانههای جمعی مدرن از قبیل آگهیهای بازرگانی و تبلیغات سیاسی آسیبپذیر باشد. از اصطلاح MSM یا رسانههای اصلی به طور وسیعی در فضای بلاگها در بحث از رسانههای جمعی یا سوگیریهای رسانهای استفاده می شود.

شكلهاي رسانه

رسانههای الکترونیکی و رسانههای چاپی شامل موارد زیر است:

- یخش در معنای محدود خود رادیو و تلویزیون را شامل میشود.
- انواع متنوع دیسکها و نوارها، این ابزارها در قرن بیستم به طور عمدهای برای موسیقی مورد استفاده قرار می گرفتند که بعد از آن از ویدئو و کامپیوتر نیز بدین منظور استفاده شد.
 - فیلم اغلب اوقات برای سرگرمی مورد استفاده قرار می گیرد اما همچنین در مستندات نیز از آن استفاده می کنند.
- اینترنت که علاوه بر کاربردهای زیادی که دارد، فرصتها و چالشهایی را معرفی می کند. بلاگها و رادیوهای اینترنتی از
 قبیل اخبار، موسیقی، سخنرانیهای ضبط شده و ویدئو از این جملهاند.
 - انتشارات در معنای محدود آن، به معنی کاغذ است که عمدتاً به صورت کتاب، مجله و روزنامه مطرح میباشد.
- بازیهای ویدئویی که زمانی بهصورت رسانههای ارتباط جمعی مطرح گشتند که ابزارهای بسیار پیشرفتهای مانند پلیاستیشن۳۰ ایکس باکس ۳۶۰ و دبلیو آی.ای دامنه استفاده از این بازیها را گسترش دادند.
- تلفنهای موبایل که اغلب رسانه جمعی هفتم نامیده میشوند برای اخبار فوری، کلیپهای کوتاه سرگرمی مانند جکها، فال، پیامهای هشدار، بازیها، موسیقی و آگهیهای بازرگانی بکار میروند.

ضبط صدا و تكثير

ضبط صدا و تکثیر به معنای بازآفرینی و یا تقویت الکتریکی یا مکانیکی صدا است که در اغلب موارد به صورت موسیقی بکار میرود. این امر تجهیزات صوتی از قبیل میکروفون، وسائل ضبط و بلندگو را دربر میگیرد. از همان اوایل همزمان با اختراع گرامافون که کاملاً با استفاده از تکنیکهای کاملاً مکانیکی کار میکرد، این زمینه با اختراع ضبط الکتریکی، تولید انبوه ضبط مدل ۸۷، ضبط کننده سیمی مغناطیسی و بدنبال آن ضبط صوت و ضبط اِل پی و نیلی پیشرفت کرده است. اختراع کاست فشرده در



دهه سال ۱۹۶۰ و به دنبال آن ظهور واکمن سونی کمک عمدهای به توزیع انبوه ضبط موسیقی کرده و اختراع ضبط دیجیتالی و دیسک فشرده در سال ۱۹۸۳ باعث بهبودهای عظیمی در زمختی و کیفیت شده است. تازهترین پیشرفتها نیز در ضبط صوتهای دیجیتالی روی داده است.

یک آلبوم مجموعهای از قطعههای صوتی مرتبط است که با هم و معمولاً به هدف تجاری برای عموم مردم منتشر می شود. اصطلاح آلبوم ضبط از این واقعیت ریشه گرفته است که دیسکهای ضبط شده گرامافون مدل آرپی ام ۷۸، را با هم در کتابی که شبیه به آلبوم عکس بود نگهداری می کردند. اولین مجموعه این آهنگها که بتوان آن را آلبوم نامید. مربوط به آهنگ گردو شکن چایکونسکی است که در آوریل ۱۹۰۹ در یک مجموعه چهار دیسکی توسط شرکت اُدئون رکوردز منتشر شد. که قیمت آن ۱۶ شیلنگ – معادل ۱۵ پوند امروزی بود.

ویدئو موسیقی (که به آن «پرومو» نیز گفته میشود) یک قطعه فیلم یا ویدیوئی کوتاه است که با یک قطعه کامل موسیقی غالباً یک ترانه همراه است. ویدئو موسیقیهای مدرن عمدتاً به عنوان وسائل بازایابی و به هدف افزایش فروش قطعات موسیقی تولید و به مصرف میرسیدند. اگرچه منشا ویدئو موسیقیها به خیلی قبل تر بر میگردد، اما در دهه ۱۹۸۰ زمانی که شکل تلویزیون موسیقی بر مبنای آنها میچرخید، جایگاه اصلی خود را پیدا کردند. در دهه ۱۹۸۰ اصطلاح «ویدئوی راک» اغلب برای توصیف این شکل از سرگرمی بکار میرفت اگرچه این اصطلاح مورد سوء استفاده نیز قرار گرفت.

ویدئو موسیقیها میتوانند همه سبکهای فیلم سازی شامل انیمشن، فیلمهای اکشن زنده، مستندات و فیلمهای غیرداستانی و انتزاعی را دربر گیرند.

پخش گسترده

پخش یعنی توزیع سیگنالهای صوتی و یا ویدئوئی (برنامهها) برای تعدادی از دریافتکنندگان (شنوندگان یا بینندگان) که به یک گروه بزرگ تعلق دارند. این گروه ممکن است به طور کلی عموم مردم را شامل بشود و یا یک دسته مخاطب نسبتاً بزرگ در میان عامه مردم باشد. بنابراین یک کانال اینترنتی ممکن است به توزیع متن یا موسیقی در مقیاس جهانی بپردازد، در حالیکه برای مثال یک سیستم اعلان عمومی در یک محل کاری ممکن است قطعات صوتی خیلی محدود و خاصی را برای جمعیت کمی در همان حوزه یخش کند.

توالی محتوا در یک برنامه پخش برنامه زمانی نامیده میشود. در کنار تلاشهای فناورانهای که انجام گرفته شماری از اصطلاحات و عبارات فنی نیز به وجود آمدهاند. لطفاً پست اصطلاحات پخش را در واژه نامه اصطلاحات مشاهده کنید.

برنامههای تلویزیونی و رادیوئی از طریق پخش رادیوئی بر روی گروه فرکانسهایی توزیع میگردند که به وسیله کمیسیون ارتباطات فدرال شدیداً منظم گشتهاند. چنین مقرراتی اموری مانند تعیین پهنای باندها، دامنه، مجوزدهی، تعیین نوع گیرندهها و انتقال دهندههای بکار رفته و تعیین محتوای قابل پذیرش را دربر میگیرد.

برنامههای کابلی معمولاً همزمان با برنامههای رادیو و تلویزیون پخش میشوند اما تعداد مخاطبان محدودتری دارند. برنامههای کابل به وسیله کدگذاری سیگنالها و وجود تجهیزات رمزگشاینده در خانهها میتواند کانالهای مبتنی بر اشتراک و خدمات مبتنی بر یرداخت برای هر برنامه را ارائه دهد.

یک سازمان پخش برنامه ممکن است چندین برنامه را به طور همزمان از طریق چندین کانال (فرکانسهای متعدد) پخش کند. بی سی ۱ و بیبی سی ۲ نمونههایی از این دست هستند از طرف دیگر دو یا چند سازمان ممکن است مشترکاً از یک کانال استفاده کرده و هر یک در طول دوره مشخصی از روز از آن استفاده کنند. رادیوی دیجیتالی و تلویزیون دیجیتالی همچنین قادر به ارائه برنامه به صورت چند لایهای و پیچیده هستند به این صورت که چندین کانال را در یک کانال ادغام کنند.

وقتی که امر پخش برنامه بوسیله اینترنت صورت گیرد اغلب اصطلاح پخش وبی را برای آن کار میبرند. در سال ۲۰۰۴ یک پدیده جدید اتفاق افتاد و آن هنگامی بود که تعدادی فن آوری برای تولید podcasting با هم ترکیب شده بودند. پادکستینگ یک رسانه پخش ناهمزمان یا پخش محدود است که یکی از مهمترین طرفداران آن فردی به نام آدام کری و دستیارانش در podshow بودند.



پخش گسترده، بخش بسیار بزرگی از رسانههای جمعی را تشکیل میدهد. پخش برنامه برای طیف خیلی کمی از بینندگان پخش محدود نامیده می شود. اصطلاح «پخش گسترده» توسط مهندسان رادیوئی اهل نیمه غربی ایالات متحده ابداع شده است.

فيلم

فیلم اصطلاحی است که تصاویر متحرک به صورت پروژههای منفرد و یا پروژه میدانی را دربر میگیرد. ریشه این واژه از این واقعیت ناشی میشود که فیلم عکاسی (فیلم خام نیز نامیده میشود) به لحاظ تاریخی اولین وسیله ارتباطی برای ضبط و نمایش تصاویر متحرک بوده است. برای واژه «فیلم» اصطلاحات دیگری مانند تصاویر متحرک، پرده نقرهای، نمایش عکس، سینما، نمایش تصویر، فلیکس و به طور رایج کلمه اصطلاح Movies وجود دارند.

فیلمها از طریق ضبط افراد و اشیاء بوسیله دوربین و یا از طریق خلق آنها با استفاده از تکنیکهای انیمیشن و یا جلوههای ویژه تولید میشوند. آنها شامل یک سری از تک تصویرها هستند اما وقتی که این تصاویر به سرعت و پشت سر هم نشان داده میشوند توهم حرکت به بیننده دست میدهد. وقفه بین تک تصویرها به خاطر تاثیری که به ماندگاری تصویر مشهور است به چشم نمیآید، جائی که چشم یک تصویر بصری را برای بازه یک ثانیهای بعد از اینکه منبع تصویر برداشته می شود، حفظ می کند. همچنین آنچه که باعث درک حرکت از طرف بینندگان می شود به اثری روانشناختی بر می گردد که به حرکت بتا مشهور است.

بسیاری از افراد فیلم را یک شکل هنری مهم به حساب می آورند. فیلمها مخاطبان را سرگرم کرده، آنها را آموزش داده، به روشنگری آنها پرداخته و به آنها الهام می بخشند. هر نوع فیلمی می تواند به یک جاذبه جهانی تبدیل شود، به ویژه با اضافه کردن دوبله به آن و یا زیرنویسهایی که پیام فیلم را ترجمه میکنند. همچنین فیلمها مصنوعاتی هستند که توسط فرهنگهای خاص ساخته میشوند که آن فرهنگها را منعکس میکنند و در عین حال بر آن فرهنگها تاثیرگذار نیز هستند.

راديو

رادیو یعنی انتقال سیگنالها از طریق تعدیل امواج الکترومغناطیسی به فرکانسهای پایینتر از نورهای قابل رویت. اشعه الکترومغناطیس بوسیله میدانهای در حال نوسان الکترو مغناطیس که از هوا و خلا فضا عبور میکنند، به حرکت در میآید. اطلاعات از طریق اعمال تغییرات (تعدیل) منظم در بعضی از اجزای امواج رادیوئی از قبیل دامنه، فرکانس، یا فاز انتقال می یابد. وقتی که امواج رادیوئی از یک هادی الکتریکی عبور میکند، میدانهای نوسانگر یک جریان متناوب را در جسم هادی بوجود ميآورند. اين جريان قابل شناسايي و تبديل به صدا يا ديگر سيگنالهائي است كه اطلاعات را حمل ميكنند.

جمیر کلرک ماکسول، دانشمند اسکاتلندی، اساس نظری برای تبیین الکترو مغناطیس را ارائه کرد. وی پیش بینی کرد که میدانهای الکتریکی و مغناطیسی به منظور تشکیل امواج الکترو مغناطیس میتوانند به هم متصل شوند. هانیریش هرتز، دانشمند آلمانی به این افتخار نائل شد که اولین کسی بود که چنین امواجی را در سال ۱۹۸۸، با استفاده از یک انتقال دهنده شکاف جرقه در دامنههای فرکانس بالا، تولید و کشف کرد.

در سال ۱۸۹۳، نیکولاتسلا، در آمریکا برای نخستین بار عملی بودن ارتباطات بیسیم را اثبات کرد. گاگلیمو مارکونی مخترع ایتالیایی، جز اولین کسانی بود که ارتباطات رادیوئی تجاری کاربردی را توسعه داد. اعتقاد بر این است که او در سال ۱۸۹۵ در ایتالیا اولین سیگنال رادیوئیش را ارسال دریافت کرده است.

کاربردهای اولیه رادیو در دریانوردی برای ارسال پیغامهای تلگرافی با استفاده از کد مورس بین کشتیها و خشکی بود. نیروی دریایی ژاپن جز اولین کاربران این وسیله ارتباطی بود، که در سال ۱۹۵۰ در نبرد تسوشما در جستجوی ناوگانهای روسی بودند. یکی از به یادماندنی ترین کاربردهای تلگراف دریایی در جریان غرق شدن کشتی تایتانیک آر.ا.م اس در سال ۱۹۱۲ بود که ارتباطات بین اپراتورها در کشتی در حال غرق شدن و کشتیهای نزدیک آن و ارتباطات با ایستگاههای ساحلی را شامل میشد که در حال لیستبندی نجات یافتگان بودند.

از رادیو برای ارسال دستورها و ارتباطات بین ارتش و نیروی دریائی هر دو طرف درگیر در جنگ جهانی اول استفاده میگشت. آلمان زمانی که کابلهای زیر دریائیهایش توسط بریتانیا قطع شده بود از ارتباطات رادیوئی برای پیغامهای دیپلماتیک استفاده



می کرد. ایالات متحده در طول در طول جنگ، چهارده اصل وودرو ویلسون رئیس جمهور را به آلمان از طریق رادیو ارسال کرد. پخش گسترده رادیو در سال ۱۹۰۹ از سان جوز دست به کارکرد و در دهه ۱۹۲۰ با معرفی وسیع گیرندههای رادیوئی، بخصوص در اروپا و ایالات متحده، عملی شد. علاوه بر پخش گسترده، پخش نقطه به نقطه شامل پیامهای تلفنی و پیوندهای برنامههای رادیوئی نیز در دهههای ۱۹۳۰ تا ۱۹۳۰ رواج پیدا کرد. کاربرد دیگر رادیو در سالهای قبل از جنگ توسعه شناسائی و مکان یابی هواپیما و کشتیها بوسیله رادار (شناسائی و مسافت یابی رادیوئی) می باشد.

امروزه رادیو شکلهای زیادی از جمله شبکههای بیسیم و ارتباطات تلفن همراه از همه نوع آن، و همچنین پخش رادیوئی را به خود گرفته است. قبل از ورود تلویزیون، برنامههای بازرگانی رادیوئی نه تنها شامل اخبار و موسیقی، بلکه همچنین نمایشنامه، کمدی، شوهای متنوع و شکلهای و یا دیگری از سرگرمی را دربر میگرفت. رادیو در میان روشهای ارائه دراماتیک از این لحاظ منحصر به فرد که فقط از صدا استفاده میکرد.

تلويزيون

تلویزیون یک وسیله ارتباطی با کاربرد وسیع است که برای پخش و دریافت عکسهای زنده، خاکستری یا رنگی متحرک همراه با صدا مورد استفاده قرار می گیرد. همچنین این اصطلاح ممکن است به طور خاص برای اشاره به دستگاه تلویزیون، برنامهریزی یا انتقال تلویزیونی بکار برود. این واژه از ریشه مختلط لاتینی و یونانی به معنی «دید از دور» گرفته شده است. کلمه اول نادی در است و کلمه ویدئو، vision که یک کلمه لاتین است به معنی دید و رویت میباشد (از کلمه ویدئو، vis به معنای دید، و یا رویت کردن در صرف اول شخص گرفته شده است).

از آنجائیکه تلویزیون به لحاظ تجاری از اواخر دهه ۱۹۳۰ موجود میباشد، از همان زمان دستگاه تلویزیون به یک وسیله ارتباطی خانگی عمومی در خانهها و موسسات، به ویژه به عنوان منبع سرگرمی و اخبار تبدیل شده است. از دهه ۱۹۷۰، ضبط ویدئوئی بر روی نوارها و بعدها سیستمهای پخش دیجیتالی از قبیل دی وی دی تلویزیون را قادر ساختهاند تا از برای دیدن فیلمهای ضبط شده و دیگر برنامهها مورد استفاده قرار بگیرد.

یک سیستم تلویزیونی ممکن است از چندین جز ساخته شده باشد، بنابراین صفحهای که فاقد یک تنظیم گر داخلی به منظور دریافت سیگنالهای پخش است به جای اینکه تلویزیون نامیده بشود، به آن مانیتور میگویند.

یک تلویزیون ممکن است به هدف دریافت پخشهای مختلف یا شکلهای ویدئوئی مختلف ساخته شود از قبیل تلویزیون با وضوح تصویر بالا که معمولاً به آن اچ دی تی وی می *گ*ویند.

اينترنت

اینترنت (که به لفظ ساده به «نت» یا «وب» نیز معروف است) را میتوان به طور کوتاه و مختصر به عنوان «شبکهای از شبکهها» درک کرد. اینترنت، به طور خاص، شبکهای جهانی، قابل دسترس برای عموم از شبکههای کامپیوتری به هم متصل است که دادهها را از طریق تبدیل بستهای و با استفاده از پروتکل استاندارد اینترنت (IP) انتقال می دهد. این شبکه از میلیونها شبکه کوچکتر خانگی، آکادمیک، تجاری و حکومتی تشکیل شده است که با همدیگر اطلاعات و خدمات متنوعی را از قبیل پست الکترونیک، محاوره آنلاین، انتقال فایل و صفحات وب به هم متصل و دیگر مستندات شبکه جهانی وب را حمل می کنند.

اینترنت و شبکه جهان گستر علیرغم کاربردهای مشترکی که دارند اما با هم مترادف نیستند؛ اینترنت مجموعهای از شبکههای کامپیوتری به هم متصل است که به وسیله سیمهای مسی، کابلهای فیبر نوری و اتصالات بیسیم و غیره به هم وصل شدهاند، اما شبکه مجموعهای از اسناد به هم متصل است که توسط فرا رابطها یا آدرسها به هم وصل شدهاند. شبکه جهان گستر از طریق اینترنت، در کنار بسیاری از خدمات دیگر از قبیل، پست الکترونیکی، فایل بخشی و مواردی دیگر که در زیر توضیح داده می شود، در دسترس است.

با نزدیک شدن به اواخر قرن بیستم، ظهور شبکه جهان گستر باعث شروع عصری شد که در آن هر شخصی می تواند مقیاسی قابل مقایسه با رسانههای جمعی یک وسیله ابراز و افشاگری داشته باشد. برای اولین بار، هر کسی با داشتن یک وبسایت می تواند مخاطبان جهانی را مورد خطاب قرار دهد، البته این در حالی است که به دلیل سطح بالای ترافیک شبکهای استفاده از این وسیله



هنوز نسبتاً هزینه بردار است. شاید ظهور فنآوریهای مشابه – به – مشابه مدیریت هزینههای پهنای باند را ممکن ساخته است. اگرچه مقدار زیادی از اطلاعات، تصاویر و تفاسیر خبری (یا محتوا) در اینترنت موجود میباشد، اما اغلب تعیین صحت و سقم اطلاعات موجود در صفحات شبکه (که در اکثر موارد شخصی هستند) سخت میباشد. البته اختراع اینترنت باعث شده است تا گزارشهای داغ خبری در عرض چند دقیقه در سراسر دنیا پخش شود. اغلب اعتقاد بر این است که رشد سریع ارتباطات فوری و غیرمتمرکز به احتمال زیاد باعث تغییر در رسانههای جمعی و ارتباط آنها با جامعه شود.

اصطلاح «چند رسانه ای» به ایده پخش یک پیام مشترک از کانالهای رسانهای متفاوت اشاره دارد. مشابه این ایده در صنعت خبری با عنوان «همگرائی» مطرح است. از نظر بسیاری از نویسندگان، انتشار چندرسانهای به معنای توانائی انتشار هم از طریق چاپ و هم در وب بدون احتیاج به تبدیل مطالب از یک فرمت به فرمت دیگر است. شمار رو به افزایش وسائل بیسیم با دادهها و شکلهای نمایش ناهمخوان با یکدیگر دستیابی به هدف «یکبار تولید، چندین بار انتشار» را بسیار مشکل ساخته است.

اینترنت به سرعت در حال تبدیل به کانون رسانههای جمعی است. هر چیزی از طریق اینترنت قابل دسترس خواهد بود. مردم به جای ارجاع به روزنامه یا تماشای اخبار ساعت ۱۰، هر وقت که بخواهند، میتوانند به اینترنت وصل شوند و اخبار دلخواهشان را دریافت کنند. بسیاری از کارکنان در حالیکه پشت میزشان نشستهاند، میتوانند از طریق اینترنت به اخبار رادیو گوش دهند. افراد همچنین میتوانند از طریق اینترنت بازیها را انجام دهند. اینترنت و تحصیل: بر اساس یافتههای پروژه تحقیقاتی اینترنتی پیو و زندگی آمریکائی، حتی سیستم آموزشی متکی بر اینترنت میباشد. در این راستا معلمان میتوانند از طریق ارسال ایمیل با تمام کلاس در تماس باشند. آنها دارای صفحات وب هستند که دانشجویان میتوانند با مراجعه به آن یک کوپی ازطرح کلاس یا تکالیف را دریافت کنند. حتی بعضی از کلاسها دارای وبلاگهای هستند که دانشجویان به صورت هفتگی باید در آن یادداشت بگذارند و بر اساس مطالب گذاشته شده نمره می گیرند. بنابراین تا اینجا اینترنت کاملاً به شکل غالب رسانه تبدیل شده است.

بلاگها (وبلاگها)

بلاگها به شکل فراگیر رسانهای تبدیل گشتهاند که از طریق اینترنت رواج پیدا کرده است. یک بلاگ وب سایتی است که معمولاً توسط یک شخص با ورودیهای منظم و مداومی از قبیل نظرات، توصیف حوادث یا مواد دیگری از قبیل گرافیک یا ویدئو مدیریت می شود. مدخلها به طور رایج به ترتیب زمانی معکوس نمایش داده می شوند. بسیاری از وبلاگها نظرات یا اخبار را درباره موضوع خاصی ارائه می دهند، در حالیکه وبلاگهای دیگر بیشتر به عنوان دفتر خاطرات آنلاین کاربرد دارند. نوعی از وبلاگ متنها، عکسها و لینکها را به دیگر وبلاگها، صفحه وبها و دیگر رسانههای مرتبط با موضوع مرتبط می کند. توانائی خوانندگان در ابراز نظر به شکلی تعاملی بخش مهمی از بسیاری از وبلاگها به حساب می آید. بسیاری از وبلاگها عمدتاً متنی هستند، اما عده دیگری از بلاگها بر هنر (بلاگ هنری) عکس (عکس بلاگ) طراحی، ویدئو (ویلاگ) موسیقی (بلاگ موسیقی فشرده) صوت (پادکستینگ) که بخشی از شبکه وسیعتر رسانههای اجتماعی هستند، تمرکز می کنند. ریز بلاگ نوعی دیگر از وبلاگنویسی است که شامل بلاگهای با مطالب کوتاه می باشد.

تلفن همراه (موبایل)

تلفن همراه برای اولین بار در سال ۱۹۹۷ در ژاپن به بازار معرفی شد اما در سال ۱۹۹۸ یعنی زمانی که اولین آهنگهای زنگ قابل دانلود در فنلاند معرفی شد، به یک رسانه جمعی تبدیل گشت. با گذشت اندک زمانی، بیشترین اشکال محتوای رسانهای بر روی موبایلها معرفی شدند و امروزه ارزش کل مصرف رسانهای در دکلهای موبایل از میزان مصرف محتوای اینترنت پیشی گرفته و ارزش آن در سال ۲۰۰۷ به بیش از ۳۱ میلیارد دلار رسید (منبع اینفورما). محتوای رسانهای موبایل به این صورت است که بیش از ۸ میلیارد دلار آن از موسیقی موبایل (شامل آهنگ رنگ، آهنگ رینگ بک، تروتون، فایلهای ام پی تری، موسیقی کاراوکی، ویدئو موسیقیها و خدمات نشر موسیقی و غیره) بیشتر از ۵ میلیارد دلار ناشی از بازیهای موبایل، و اخبار گوناگون، سرگرمی و خدمات تبلیغاتی حاصل شده است. در ژاپن کتاب موبایل آنقدر رایج است که از ده کتاب چاپ شده پرفروش، پنج کتاب آن در اصل به عنوان کتاب موبایل منتشر شدهاند.