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Mapping Communication and Media Research in the U.S.

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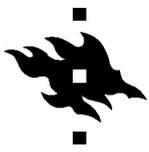
Abstract:

The purpose of the project Mapping Communication and Media Research in the U.S. has been to produce an overview of current issues as well as main trends and future challenges to media industries and related communication research in the United States.

The report is based on various data sources, but relies mainly on interviews conducted throughout U.S. communication academia and industry. In all, 40 scholars and other experts were interviewed for the report. In addition, a small-scale questionnaire was conducted with the division heads of ICA (the International Communication Association) and NCA (the National Communication Association), and a similar questionnaire was presented to a small group of media industry professionals. Additional data include content and citation analyses of influential journals in communication, an analysis of frequencies and relationships of several key communication concepts in communication journals, and various secondary sources. One key finding is that basic data on media landscape are hard to gather, owing to the lack of any centralised, accessible, non-commercial source.

The report is arranged in five major sections:

The first section (Chapter 1) starts with a discussion of the historical development of the U.S. media, followed by accounts on media markets, policies and regulation, contents, and reception and consumption. The second section (2) discusses research institutions and organisations within the U.S. starting with universities and polytechnic schools, followed by commercially-focused media research organisations and other non-academic research organisations. The section ends with an overview of research funding in the U.S.



The third section (3) begins with a discussion of what is meant by communication research in the U.S., including a brief look at historical developments in the field. The main approaches – here grouped as a mass communication and media studies approach, an organisational communication approach, and a technological approach to communication studies – are then examined according to historical development, current research topics, and views from academia.

The fourth section (4) discusses the future of communication and media research in the U.S. Specifically, it concentrates on the challenges and concerns as identified by various leading scholars. The concluding chapter (5) provides a brief “look from the outside” into U.S. communication and media research. Key issues and discussions are illustrated with examples and cases throughout the report.

Central issues vis-à-vis the U.S. media landscape are the following: (1) The media is very much commercially driven and the market is dominated by the “Big Eight” corporations; (2) Two contrary tendencies prevail: on the one hand, a tendency towards conglomeration and mergers has been evident, yet on the other hand, an opposite force of micro-level production by social networks and user-generated content is emerging; (3) Newspapers face financial difficulties, whereas previously slower Internet development (e.g., broadband penetration) has speeded up in the past years; and (4) Media policy is currently a battlefield of conflicting issues brought about by numerous civic advocacy organisations, which are pursuing questions of access, ownership, fair representation and the like.

U.S. research organisations can be generally categorised in five groups: (1) University-based organisations, including communication departments and independent institutes that conduct a highly applied and interdisciplinary research; (2) Market research companies that provide various data for media companies’ decision-making; (3) Media companies’ own research departments; (4) Government agencies; and (5) Other non-profit organisations and lobbyist groups. Overall, communication research seems to be flourishing in the U.S. Academically, communication is among the most popular majors. There has also been an increase in the number of doctoral programmes in recent years. Also, within industry, the role of communication research is growing due to developments in technology and increasing diversity in the American society.

The main future challenges emerging from the overview are as follows: (1) Grasping the new and constantly changing media environment; (2) Increasing the applicability of high quality scholarly work; and (3) Moving away from U.S.-centred foci. Crucial research issues pertain, e.g., to the identity of communication and media research as a discipline, and emerging topics include, among other things, cultural diversity, immigration and migration, new approaches in globalisation studies, and media policy and regulations-related issues.

From the Finnish perspective, the vast U.S. media environment and the research it spawns seem incredibly diverse and rich, yet at the same time, surprisingly polarised. By contrast with Finland, juxtapositions emerge in the U.S. in developments in the media environment (convergence and fragmentation); in research organisations and education (academic vs. commercial, applied research; research vs. professional training); and in the approaches and foci of research (quantitative, social science-orientated vs. qualitative, humanistically-oriented research).

Keywords: Communication research, mass media, media industry, the United States

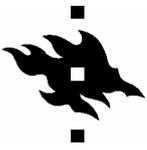
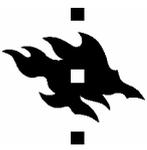


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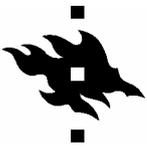
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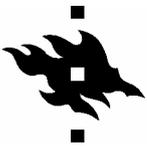
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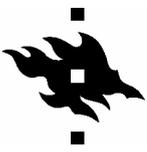
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Introduction

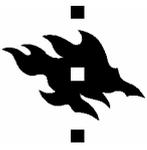
“Mapping Communication and Media Research” is an international project based in the Communication Research Centre (CRC, University of Helsinki) that examines the contents and trends of current research in communication and media in seven countries. These countries include Finland, the United States, Germany, France, Japan, Estonia, and Australia. The project is funded by the Helsingin Sanomat Foundation, which has funded a similar project on communication and media research in South Korea.

The objective of the project is to provide a general overview of communication and media research in the aforementioned countries. The project maps the main institutions and organisations as well as the approaches and national characteristics of the communication and media research in each country. The focus of the project is on the years 2005 and 2006, but some parts of the project have sample data from a longer period. Data gathering and analysis were carried out during the autumn of 2006 and spring of 2007. The source materials include secondary data from previous studies and existing statistics and the primary data drawn from interviews with key persons in communication and media research universities and organisations. There are also specific case studies describing the special challenges of each respective country in every subproject.

The project’s main research questions are:

- What kind of communication and media research is carried out in a specific country?
- How do different approaches relate to each other?
- What is the relationship between communication research and communication industries and what kind of applications does the research have?
- On what is communication and media research focused in each country and what is the direction of such for the future?

Each country provides a unique context for communication and media research. Thus, research has been organised in different ways in each of the countries examined. In addition, the definitions and conceptualisations of communication and media research vary among contexts and countries. Therefore, meaningful comparisons of research among different countries prove to be a difficult

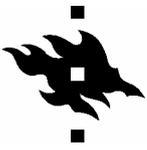


task. For example, the national media statistics of the countries studied are often based on incompatible data and methods. Therefore, this report will not provide statistically comparable data on the communication and media research of the target countries. Because of these kinds of difficulties in comparability, every subreport provides country-specific explanations for the concepts used and for its samples and methods.

To enhance meaningful comparability among the subreports, the research questions, research principles, and the structures are the same for each. The same organisation, themes, and questions have also been used in the interviews. Each report starts with an introductory chapter. This chapter will briefly describe the target country and its media landscape – i.e., communication and media systems and markets.

The purpose of the U.S. subproject is to produce an overview of current issues and main trends and to identify future challenges to media industries and related communication research in the United States. The project's main focus is on mass communication research, but it also takes into account studies in speech communication, organisational communication, public relations, research and development of communication technology, and the economics of communication insofar as these topics are related to mass communication research. The project not only maps academic communication and media research, but also research made by governmental institutions and private research agencies, as well as – insofar as possible – private media companies' research activities.

The U.S. report is based on various data sources. The most important part of the project is the interviews conducted with recognised researchers throughout U.S. communication academia and industry, conducted mainly during the spring of 2007. The selection of interviewees was based on earlier contacts and networks. However, the aim has been to include scholars working in different kinds of institutions (universities both large and small, research institutions, etc.), a geographically diverse mix, a mix in backgrounds and positions (both younger and more established scholars), and most important, a mix in the research topics and approaches of the interviewees themselves. The interviews produce primary data not only about the facts of communication and media research but also about the estimations and visions of the state of the discipline and its future. In all, 40 scholars were interviewed, with several additional consultative discussions.



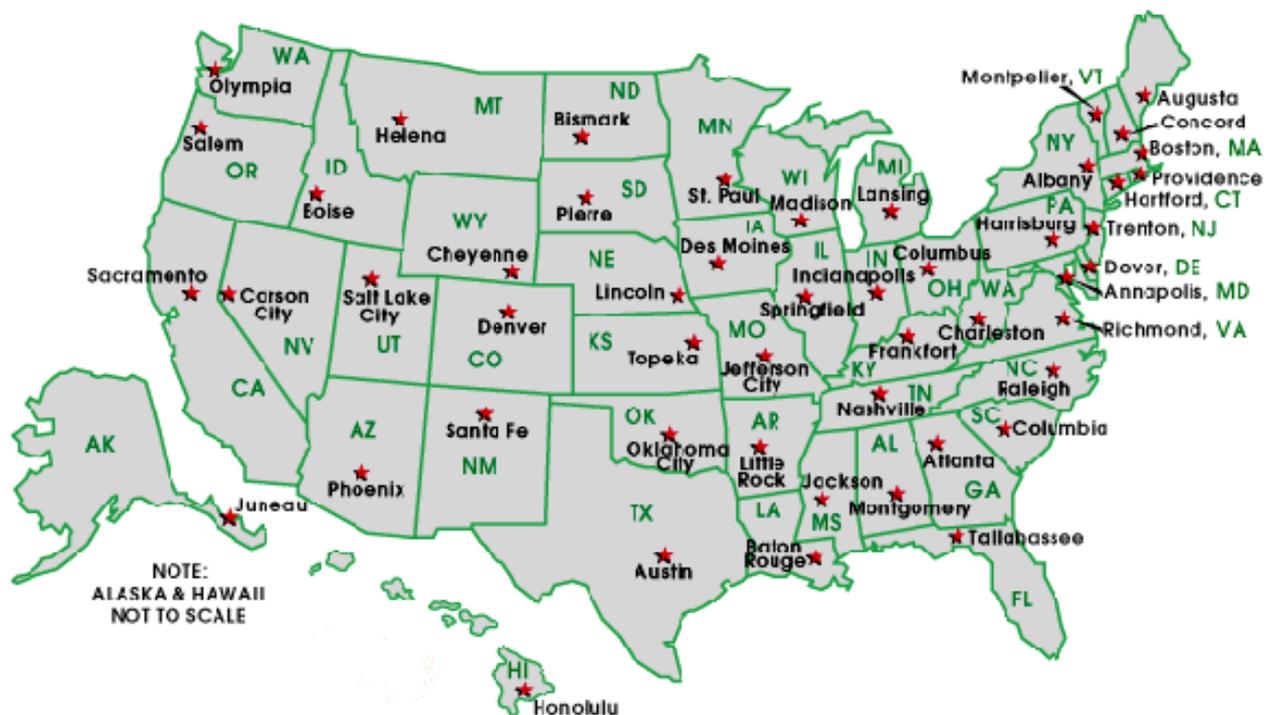
Besides interviews, a small-scale questionnaire was conducted with the division heads of ICA (the International Communication Association) and NCA (the National Communication Association), and a similar questionnaire was presented to a small group of media industry professionals. Additional data include content and citation analyses of influential journals in communication, an analysis of frequencies and relationships between several key communication concepts in communication journals, and various secondary sources.

The report is divided in five major sections: (1) the U.S. media landscape, (2) research institutions and organisations, (3) main approaches in communication and media research, (4) issues of importance regarding the future of research in the field, and, as a conclusion, (5) a discussion of the U.S. communication research field and its national characteristics as seen from the Finnish perspective. The U.S. report could be characterise as a look from the “outside” and influenced more or less explicitly by the Finnish/Nordic communication research tradition. Yet we hope that the report serves as a basic document for more thorough considerations and further analyses.

1. The Media Landscape in the United States

The United States, with its area of 9.6 million km² and a population of 300 million people, is a nation comprising remarkable ethnic diversity¹ as well as geographical and regional diversity².

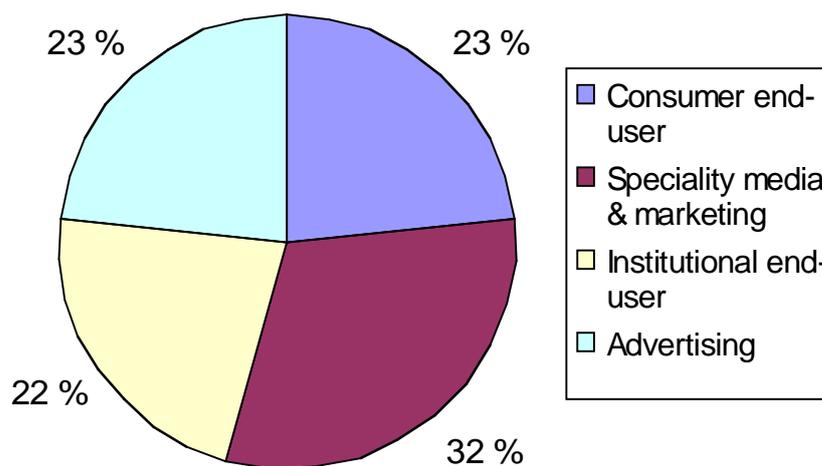
Figure 1.1 *The Map of the United States*³



The United States has the highest level of output in the world, with Gross Domestic Product valued at 13.2 billion U.S. dollars in 2006.⁴ The country is also unquestionably the leader of the world in media industries. From Hollywood to television fiction series (from *Lassie* to the *Sopranos*) to new media companies and innovations such as Google/YouTube, Apple/iPod/Podcasting, Wikipedia, and Yahoo!, the U.S. has dominated media production for over a century with the emphasis falling on entertainment media. While some scholars have documented a “reverse” flow of media products (such as reality programming) and the emergence of significant entertainment industries elsewhere, for example, in Bollywood and Nollywood (e.g., Lennis 2007), the key role of the U.S. media companies and their products in domestic and local markets has not changed. In 2005, eight out of the world’s 20 largest media companies as counted by revenue were U.S.-based (the others being German, French, British, Japanese, Australian and Italian; *Joukkoviestimet* 2007, 333)

Some other basic figures and comparisons to Europe illustrate the magnitude of the scale of the U.S. media and media industries⁵. Figure 1.2 depicts how the total U.S. media spending in 2005, 857 billion U.S. dollars, was divided among different sectors.⁶ The group that accounts for one third of all media spending, "specialty media and marketing", includes PR, direct mail, consumer promotion, marketing services, branded entertainment, telemarketing, catalogues, and custom publishing. Consumer end-users (cable and satellite TV, books, records, Internet access and content, newspapers and magazines, home video and box office) spend as much on media as do institutional end-users and advertisers.

Figure 1.2. U.S. Media Spending by Sector, 2005



By 2006, total annual media spending had grown to 900 billion U.S. dollars, the consumer media spending being 200 billion of those dollars.⁷ The share of media advertising of the Gross National Product of the United States in 2004 was 1.20%. Compared to Europe, only Portugal ranks higher (1.52%) whereas, e.g., the share in the U.K. is 1.09% and in Finland 0.82% (*Joukkoviestimet* 2007, 334).

At the turn of the millennium, the average American spent about eight hours a day with print and electronic media, including four hours watching television, three hours listening to radio, a half hour listening to recorded music, and another half hour reading the newspaper.⁸ Although on-line and

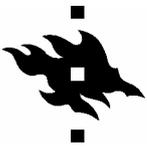


mobile media have become increasingly important, the above statistics illustrate the crucial role of television as a medium in the U.S. In 2006, there were almost 3,000 television channels in the U.S., and practically every household had one or more televisions. The big difference from Europe is the public service broadcasting that in the U.S. has never been either state-governed (although it is partly funded by taxpayers) or reached mass audiences. For example, while in 2004 the share of the PBS (Public Broadcasting Service) television was as high as 45% in Finland, and around 30% - 40% in most European countries, in the U.S. it amounted to only 2% of the market. (*Joukkoviestimet* 2007)⁹.

Just as with television, radio is still a significant medium in the U.S. In 2006, the number of full service FM stations amounted to over 9,000, and licensed AM stations to almost 5,000. There are almost 38,000 movie screens in the U.S. Americans go to the movies far more often than Europeans (the average being over 5 times a year, while in Finland, for example, the average is 1.3 times).

Access to the Internet in the U.S. seems to be equivalent to the European average. U.S. Census data on Internet use in 2003 states that 55% of American households have a web-connected personal computer at home¹⁰; another study noted that 78% of Americans over 12 years old used the Internet in 2006.¹¹ In 2004 the European average for households with Internet access was 52%, Finland faring above average with 65% (*Joukkoviestimet* 2007, 345). Although some worries arose in the first years of the millenium that Americans would be "laggards" in broadband development compared to many other developed countries (at that time, less than one tenth of Americans having broadband access; e.g., Rainie & Horrigan 2005, 69), the situation now seems different. According to the PEW Internet and American Life project's Home Broadband Adoption report (Horrigan 2006), in 2006, 42% of adult Americans had broadband access at home – and the figure had grown from 30% in 2005, equaling a growth of 40% in one year. As for cell phones, in 2006 there were 235 million subscribers and even 4.3 million mobile phone TV subscribers. The circulation of dailies in United States, however, is notably lower than in many European countries – 250 readers per 1000 persons; in Finland, for instance, the figure is more than twice as high. Still, there are approximately 2,400 daily and Sunday newspapers in the country. (*Joukkoviestimet* 2007, 335).¹²

Unsurprisingly, a large nation and its vast media landscape also face several challenges in 2007. Two broad – and, in a way, "antithetical" – tendencies emerge: one could be labelled conglomeration and concentration of media industries; the other could be called the dispersion of media outlets and



fragmentation of audiences; the latter becoming producers of "user-generated contents" themselves. Various specific issues such as the direction of U.S. media policies, the future of the news media, and the consequences for social networks in the public sphere seem to stem from, or be related to, these two trends.¹³

The first section of the report, on the U.S. media landscape, depicts some key facts in the following order: First, the context is portrayed with a brief account of the historical development of the U.S. (mass) media. Then media markets and related policy-making are discussed. Finally, summaries of key content issues as well as trends in media consumption are provided.

1.1 Historical Development of the U.S. Media

Understanding a media landscape requires some insight into its development. The U.S. Department of State, in its "Portrait of America"¹⁴, begins its description of the American media by stating that the core philosophy of the national media is grounded in the Constitution, which guarantees freedom of speech and of the press. The publication highlights the following historical milestones regarding conventional mass media:

Development by Medium

Newspapers

The first American newspapers were founded in colonial times in the 18th century. One hundred years later, by the 1820s, 25 dailies and over 400 weeklies were being published. The most influential paper of those times, *the New York Tribune*, was established in 1841. Two media giants, Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst, began building their newspaper empires after the American Civil War, and partly due to their competition, the rise of "tabloid" or "penny press" took place in the U.S. (see e.g., Gabler 1998). Another key development was the adoption of "objectivity" as the core philosophy in journalism in the early 20th century. The approach that is sometimes called "professionalisation of journalism", as opposed to the European party or otherwise affiliated press (see a comparative account in Hallin & Mancini 2004), was to attract as large an audience as possible. Another dominant feature of early 20th-century journalism was the creation of newspaper chains operating under the same ownership, a development led by a group owned by Hearst. This



trend accelerated after the Second World War. Most recently, the largest U.S. newspapers have been losing circulation, a trend that can be attributed to the increasing availability of news from television and especially the Internet and other new sources (see also the State of the News Media 2007).

Magazines

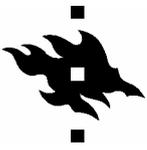
"Portrait of America" reports that in 1893, the first mass-circulation magazines were introduced, but that the first American magazines took longer to attain a wide audience. In 1923, *Time*, the first weekly news magazine, was launched. The arrival of television cut into the advertising, and some weekly magazines eventually folded. Magazine publishers responded by trying to appeal more to specifically defined audience segments. The specialisation by topic brought an upswing in the number of magazines published in the United States, from 6,960 in 1970 to 13,878 in 2001. In 1993, *Time* became the first magazine to offer an on-line edition.

Radio

Commercial radio broadcasts began in 1920. After the Second World War, radio programming began to change, thanks to television: the former could not compete with television's visual genre mix, so many radio stations switched to a format of recorded music mixed with news and features. Technological division also influenced content. The expansion of FM radio, which has better sound quality but a more limited signal range than AM, led to a split in radio programming in the 1970s and 1980s. FM came to dominate the music side of programming, while AM shifted mainly to all-news and talk formats. Besides the 10,000 commercial radio stations, the United States has approximately 700 public radio stations. Most of these are run by universities and other public institutions for educational purposes and are financed by public funds and private donations. The major public radio network is National Public Radio (NPR).

Television

Since Second World War, television has developed into the most popular medium in the United States. Three privately-owned networks that offered free programming financed by commercials – NBC, CBS, and ABC – controlled 90 % of the TV market from the 1950s to the 1970s. In the 1980s the rapid spread of pay cable TV transmitted by satellite undermined that privileged position (by September 2006 there were 65.6 million basic cable subscribers and 31 million digital cable subscribers).¹⁵ Among the first new cable channels were 24-hour movie channels, a 24-hour news



channel Cable News Network, and MTV. In the meantime, a fourth major commercial network, Fox, came into being and challenged the big three networks; several local TV stations have switched their affiliation from one of the big three to the newcomer. Two more national networks – WB and UPN – have also come along, and the number of cable television channels continues to expand. The public television stations are independent but united by such national entities as the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS).

Internet

While the "Portrait of America" does not address the Internet as a part of U.S. media history, the net has already existed for over a decade in the life of Americans. The report section "Internet: The Mainstreaming of Online Life" of the PEW Internet & American Life project (Rainie & Horrigan 2005) points out that October 1996 marked the dawn of the popular Internet, as Netscape's Mosaic browser was then made available for free in on company's website. The report further states that in ten years, the Internet had fundamentally changed the ways Americans inform, amuse, care for, and educate themselves, as well as how they work, shop, bank, pray, and stay in touch (57). The same observation is echoed by recent research by the Center for the Digital Future in USC-Annenberg (2007). In ten years, the percentage of Americans using the Internet had grown from less than 10% in 1995 to over 60% in 2004 (59).

Media Structures and Policies

In addition to the media-specific account depicted above, the development of the U.S. media landscape can be viewed from the angle of media economy, policies, and structures.¹⁶ One recent account of the emergence of the "commercial mass-media platform for the public sphere" in America (Benkler 2006, 185-196) documents how in the 20th century, in the U.S. (and later elsewhere in the world) the commercial, advertising-supported mass media dominated broadcasting and the press. This overview traces the roots of the American development in the small-circulation, mostly local, competitive commercial press in the 18th and 19th centuries that carried highly political news and that was supported by a high literacy rate, high government tolerance and postal subsidies.

The press became characterised by factors such as high cost, professionalism, advertising support, and dependency on relatively few news agencies. With the introduction of competition from radio and television, "these effects tended to lead to greater concentration, with a majority of papers



facing no local competition, and an ever-increasing number of papers coming under the joint ownership of a very small number of news publishing houses" (188). In addition, the trend towards concentration could be seen in other media as well.¹⁷ An often-cited example is the extremely high market dominance of the three nation-wide television networks in the 1980s, resulting in analyses such as Postman's (1985) famous *Amusing Ourselves to Death* and Putnam's (2000) account of the decline of American civic life with the metaphor of *Bowling Alone* (see Benkler, 2006, 186). The emergence of radio chains in the past decade had counter-effects as well: as Klinenberg (2007, 48) notes, National Public Radio became a success story due to its radio format. Between 1996 and 2006 NPR's audience of unique listeners (at least once a week) increased from 12.5 million to 25 million.

Media policies, then, were not opposing the trend in any significant way. The Federal Communication Commission (FCC), was established in 1934, to deal with federal communications policies and with the core goal of promoting diversity, localism and competition, public service programs and services, e.g., news without commercial sponsors (e.g., Klinenberg 2007). In his historical overview of American media policies, Lloyd (2006, 224) goes as far as to argue that the "the U.S. lived philosophy of communications", pertaining to all communication industries, has followed four principles. First, taxpayers have always been required to invest in new technologies (in one form or another). Second, the federal government has abandoned control over technology to industries. Third, there has existed a continuing subsidy of private industries, as well as, last, a tolerance of private monopoly.

Indeed, media mergers and acquisitions resulting in high concentration and cross-media ownership have characterised the two past decades. As Albarran and Mierzejewska (2004) summarise the situation, in the 1980s the major media mergers included Time Inc. and Warner Communications, General Electric and RCA, Viacom and Paramount, and Capital Cities and ABC. In the 1990s, the trend escalated with Walt Disney Company's acquisition of Capital Cities/ABC, AT&T's acquisition of Tele-communications Inc., Viacom's acquisition of CBS, Clear Channel Communication's acquisition of AMFM Inc, and the merger of AOL and Time Warner. The developments were fuelled in part by the FCC's decision to relax ownership rules notably by the Telecommunications Act of 1996 (1-2).



Public Debates Regarding the Media

Apart from the challenge of concentration, there are several other issues that have emerged, and re-emerged, during the development of the U.S. media. One critical debate has been about the quality of journalism. As Barnett *et al.* (2001) observe, public outrage about sensational journalism is a periodic ritual. They point out that the reactions to the penny press of the 1830s, the "yellow journalism" at the end of the nineteenth century, and the findings of the Hutchins Commission after the Second World War strongly resemble the damning tone of public discourse about sensationalism in journalism at the beginning of the 2000s. In addition, numerous authors, both academic scholars and journalism practitioners have more recently addressed the dumbing down of American television and more generally, the decline of news quality, especially foreign reporting, in relation to the "war on terrorism".¹⁸

Another example of prominent media-related debate involves concerns about violence and indecency, an issue that has also been widely researched among social scientists in American academia and which has been prominent on the agenda in connection with television (Lowery & deFleur 1995).¹⁹ The media section in "Portrait of America" illustrates the consequences of the debates by noting, for instance, that in 1996, the commercial and cable television networks established a rating system based on the amount of violence, sexual content, and/or profane language in the programme. The analysis of that overview is that "[s]uch voluntary measures seem preferable to government regulation of programming content, which would probably violate the First Amendment". Another example of a solution that put the emphasis on the media consumer was suggested in the late 1990s in the form of the "V-chip", a device that would enable parents to block out certain programmes.

Case-in-point: Old Issues Revisited

Even in the "new media era" of blogging, social networking, and podcasting, basic concerns regarding the media landscape still remain. A prime example is the question of postal monopoly and press subsidies. In May 2007, the U.S. Post Office began implementing a radical reformulation of its rates for magazines, with smaller periodicals facing a much larger increase than the largest magazines. As indicated earlier, the postal subsidy policy was put in place by James Madison and Thomas Jefferson over 200 years ago to create a self-governing press system. Now the policy is to

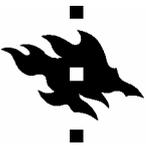


be amended on July 15, 2007; according to several media advocacy organisations that have publicly opposed the plan (e.g., the World Association for Christian Communication), it seems that the changes have been advocated by Time Warner, the largest magazine publisher in the U.S.

1.2 Media Markets

Traditionally, U.S. media markets have been characterised by regionalism. It is illustrative that commercial rating systems for TV and radio both include well over 200 markets within the U.S. Still, as noted in the historical overview, already in the relatively early stage of development of the press, consolidation of ownership took place. Today, big media companies are “chained” both vertically and horizontally. The biggest 25 media companies by revenue in 2005 (*Advertising Age* 2006, 25)²⁰ illustrate the dominance of media conglomerates. The ten biggest companies, in ranking order²¹, were Time Warner, Viacom, Comcast Corp., Walt Disney Co., NBC Universal (General Electric), News Corp., DirecTV Group, Cox Enterprises, EchoStar, and Clear Channel Communications. Additionally, and consequently, “traditional” media companies were often linked to “entertainment industries” (most obviously, Disney) and/or operated in distribution in the U.S. and elsewhere (DirecTV, EchoStar). Many were and are active globally, or at least internationally. In addition, most of the big U.S. media companies operate in a multitude of media-related fields and form major chains (e.g., Clear Channel, which owns and operates more than 1,200 radio stations in the U.S.).

At the same time, another trend is seen in the top 25 ranking list. Interestingly, two new media companies which have existed only a few years can be found among the older media companies: Yahoo! ranks 21st and Google 23rd. In 2005, the top three Internet companies indeed included the two, Time Warner still made it to the number one Internet company, notably by bigger revenues (*Advertising Age* 2006, 33), but Google continues to grow successfully and to attract online advertisers (its first quarter profits of 2007, for instance, grew by 70% in advertising revenues). The new media companies also seem to be trying new strategies; the most discussed has been Google’s acquisition of the originally alternative user-generated site YouTube; in the spring of 2007, it began bidding for DoubleClick (the web’s largest independent broker between online publishers and advertisers in the market for “branded” or “display” advertisements).²² Thanks to the purchase of YouTube, “old media” companies are growing wary, as their contents have been sampled on the



site. For instance, as of spring 2007, Viacom has a lawsuit pending lawsuit against Google regarding copyrights.

Characteristics of the Market: The Domination of the Big Eight

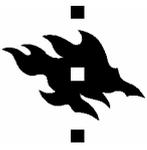
In discussions about the U.S. media market, the notion of The "Big Five" (e.g., *The Nation* 2006) or the "Big Eight" is used to describe those companies that dominate the market and that are distinct from the other big companies by their revenue. They are all cross-media owners, including programming and production (and owning other miscellaneous industries). The following account of the revenues and operations of the Big Eight, based on the compilation of data by the Free Press and the Columbia Journalism Review's *Who Owns What* monitoring illustrates the situation.²³

General Electric

General Electric, with its revenues of \$157.2 billion (2005), when its media as well as other operations are included exceeds all the other Big Eight corporations. Its media-related holdings include the television networks NBC Universal and Telemundo, Universal Pictures, Focus Features, plus 38 television stations in the U.S. and cable networks such as MSNBC, Bravo and the Sci Fi Channel. It also owns production and distribution companies (NBC Universal Television Studio, NBC Universal Television Distribution) as well as several international channels in France, Germany, Spain, the U.K., Italy, the Latin American Universal Channel, CNBC Asia, and CNBC Europe. Its programming activities range from the NBC Network News, The Today Show, and Dateline NBC, to programming in A&E [part], The History Channel [part], and The Sundance Channel [part]. NBC Universal (of which GE has 80% ownership) production includes Universal Pictures, Focus Features, and Rogue Pictures as well as several production agreements. GE also owns magazines (most online), military production industries, theme parks, and consumer products (NBC Stores, ShopNBC). GE also operates, among other things, in engineering, financing, industrial systems, energy, health care, and insurance.

Time Warner

Time Warner is the largest media conglomerate in the world, with its 2005 revenues amounting to \$43.7 billion, and with holdings that include The WB Television Network²⁴, CNN, HBO, Cinemax, Cartoon Network, TBS, TNT, and numerous local cable channels. Its programming includes shows such as American Morning, CNN Live Today, Your World Today, Live From The Situation Room,



Lou Dobbs Tonight, Paula Zahn Now, Larry King Live, and Anderson Cooper 360. The company also offers on demand services. Its America Online operations entail such "brands" as the MapQuest, Moviefone, and Netscape as well as numerous others, some of them abroad. AOL High Speed is a partnership with BellSouth, Time Warner Cable, Verizon, and other DSL providers to offer broadband Internet access.²⁵

Warner Bros. Entertainment Group owns, among other things, Warner Bros. Pictures as well as Castle Rock, and its subsidiary New Line owns New Line Cinema and Fine Line Features. Time Inc., in turn controls Time Warner Book Group, Time 4Media (which publishes 17 magazines worldwide), Grupo Editorial Expansion (which publishes 15 magazines in Mexico), as well as over 150 magazines such as *Time*, *Cooking Light*, *Marie Claire* and *People*. Time Warner services 17.9% of all cable subscribers, gaining 3.5 million subscribers from its joint acquisition of Adelphia with Comcast. Time Warner now has 14.4 million cable customers (plus 1.5 million held in partnership with Comcast).

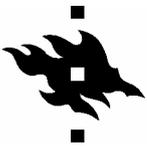
Other ownerships range from the Atlanta Braves baseball team to Digital Phone (an Internet protocol-based voice service), marketing businesses, game developer, and licensing and merchandising. Time Warner's areas of "enhanced concentration" include southern California (Los Angeles), Maine, western New York, North Carolina, Ohio (Cincinnati, Cleveland and Columbus), South Carolina, and Texas (Dallas).

The Walt Disney Company

The Walt Disney Company reported 2005 revenues of \$31.9 billion. It owns the ABC Television Network, numerous cable networks including ESPN, The Disney Channel, SOAPnet, A&E and Lifetime, 72 radio and 10 television stations, music and book publishing companies, production companies such as Touchstone, Miramax and Walt Disney Pictures, numerous Internet activities, and six theme parks around the world. Disney has also paired with Sprint Nextel Corp to launch the cellular service Disney Mobile. They also own Mobile ESPN.

Vivendi

Vivendi (2005 revenues: \$25.1 billion) owns cable stations in Europe (Canal + channels) and 50 U.S. and international record companies such as Geffen Records, Universal Records, and Def Jam. It



also operates in other music-related fields and gaming and is a telecommunications operator in Morocco. In addition, it owns 20% of NBC Universal.

News Corporation (News Corp.)

News Corporation, one of the largest media conglomerates in the world, with revenues amounting to \$23.9 billion in 2005, owns The Fox Broadcasting Company, television and cable networks such as Fox, National Geographic and FX, and 37 television stations in 29 U.S. markets plus 13 magazines. It is active in newspaper business in Australia and Asia (with over 110 titles together), and the U.K. Its U.S. activities include *The New York Post*. Its other print media business includes 13 magazines (TVGuide in the), and the book publisher HarperCollins. The film production companies 20th Century Fox, Fox Searchlight Pictures, and Blue Sky Studios are also part of News Corp. Its programming such as Fox News and The O'Reilly Factor has been credited with catering to conservative views. In addition to its share of DIRECTV Group (34%) in the U.S., it owns satellite television channels (or shares of) in Europe (Sky channels), Latin America, Australia and Asia. Also radio (Sky radio) and several channels in the Netherlands and one in Germany are part of the company's media mix.

Fox Interactive Media, a newly-formed unit of News Corp., manages Fox's online holdings. In 2005 alone, this division spent \$1.4 *billion* on young Internet companies. Its holdings include MySpace.com, ign.com (Internet gaming), and various Fox.com sites. Fox is also now offering a mobile entertainment package called Mobizzo on Cingular and T-Mobile phones. Other activities entail several international media companies, outdoor advertising, and the National Rugby League.

CBS Corporation

CBS Corporation, with its revenue of \$14.5 billion in 2005, owns the CBS Television Network, programming that includes The Early Show, 60 Minutes, 48 Hours; and UPN and Showtime. It has 41 television stations in 27 U.S. markets. It also owns, among other things, the book publisher Simon & Schuster, Infinity (now CBS) Radio, Inc., and theme parks such as Paramount's Kings Dominion. CBS Digital Media Group is also a part of its operations.



Viacom

Before splitting off from CBS Corporation in 2006, Viacom (2005 revenues: \$9.8 billion) was one of the largest media companies in the world. The new Viacom is also large, with holdings that include Music Television, Nickelodeon, VH1, BET, Comedy Central, Paramount Pictures, Paramount Home Entertainment, and the publishing company Famous Music.

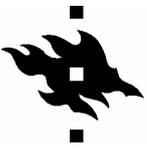
Consolidation is often the mode of operation, even of companies that operate on a somewhat smaller scale. For example, The New York Times Company (19th among U.S. media companies and the 7th largest in the newspaper business) consists of *The New York Times*, the *International Herald Tribune*, and several local newspapers, radio stations, 4 network-affiliated local TV channels, other TV channels (e.g., the Discovery Times Channel), about.com, and other assets. The ownership structures of alternative media are also changing. For example, alternative newspapers are forming chains; a major milestone of the development was the *Village Voice* (NYC) which was acquired by the publishing conglomerate New Times Media in 2005.

Case-in-Point: Countertrends in Ownership

Besides concentration of ownership, other developments such as the split of Viacom from CBS are emerging. Also the radio giant Clear Channel began to divest and became smaller (State of the News Media 2007).

Yet another case is the *Los Angeles Times*. It is the largest metropolitan newspaper in the country²⁶ and the fourth most widely distributed daily newspaper in the U.S. after *USA Today*, *Wall Street Journal*, and *The New York Times*. Daily circulation of the *Los Angeles Times* reaches 815,723 readers (for the period ended April 1, 2007), and the editorial head count, on estimate, is about 900 people. The LA Times, founded in 1881, was one of the most prominent family-owned newspapers in the U.S. until March 2000, when the Times Mirror Company merged with the Chicago Tribune Company (Tribune being the surviving entity) in a deal of over \$8 billion. The deal was an effort by the principal owner of the Times Mirror, the Chandler family, to get their capital out of the company.

The merger made the LA Times a member of a large American multimedia corporation with a reach of about 80 % of American households, about 20,000 employees, and operating revenues around



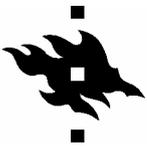
\$5.5 billion (as of 2006). Tribune is the second largest newspaper publisher in the U.S. with 11 metro dailies (a total of 16 papers) and over 4,500 journalists worldwide. In broadcasting, Tribune operates in 19 of the U.S.'s biggest markets with 23 stations. In addition, the company operates various websites and owns a professional baseball team the Chicago Cubs (Tribune announced that it will sell the Cubs after the 2007 season).

The latest turn in the LA Times ownership is, in fact, quite contrary to a merger. In April 2007, the Tribune Co. announced that it had agreed to be acquired by property billionaire Sam Zell in a \$8.4 billion takeover. The deal is a further effort by the Chandler family to get their capital out of the company. Reportedly, Zell intends to turn the company private. As a businessman, he is known for getting in a business, learning the business, making it profitable, and then selling it. He has said that he will not stay in the newspaper business longer than 10 years. (Sources: The Chicago Tribune Company and the LA Times web pages and interviews)²⁷

Media Markets and News Journalism

Another means of analysing media markets in the United States is to look at the financial picture for journalism. In its yearly report, the State of the News Media, the Project for Excellence in Journalism (a Washington, D.C.-based "fact tank" and a part of the PEW Research Center) provides a snapshot of a wide variety of media with emphasis on news coverage. One aspect of the report is an economic outlook, both overall and by medium. The situation in 2006 (State of the News Media 2007)²⁸ can be summarized as follows:

In 2006, newspaper revenues were flat and earnings fell — for the first time in memory in a non-recessionary year. Nor did the other major print sector, magazines, show positive developments. After a disappointing year in 2005, the industry anticipated a recovery in 2006 that didn't materialise. The number of advertisement pages in magazines in 2006 was flat industry-wide, and news magazines fared about the same. The one print sector that seemed to break the trend continued to be the ethnic press, especially the Hispanic press. For the latest year available, 2005, advertising dollars spent on Hispanic publications grew 4.6%.

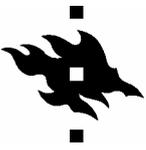


Television, then, managed to fare better than print media. In local TV news, projections for 2006 have advertising revenues increasing 10%. TV is still able to increase revenues by adding more news programming during the day, and the number of hours of local news programming has reached record highs. In network news, according to the latest full-year figures (2005), all three networks saw revenues grow for both morning and evening news. The projections for 2006 also look positive.

Regarding the online media, in contrast to “old media” the advertising market appeared headed for another record-setting year, up more than a third, past \$16 billion, in 2006. Still, there are growing doubts about how much of that increase will accrue to news, and the projections are that the growth rate in online advertising will begin to slow next year and could drop to single digits before the decade ends.

The conclusion of the economic state of journalism media of the report is that structural changes are still ongoing. Advertisers are reluctant to spend money without a clearer sense of its effect. Online alternatives such as Craigslist are replacing classified ads, while Wikipedia, My Space, and YouTube are capturing audience and attention. The technology for measuring audiences has in the spring of 2007, leaped forward with Nielsen’s “Anytime Anywhere Media Measurement” that will track viewership of TV commercials as well as TV and Internet viewing, including methods for showing whether TV viewers are skipping the ads.²⁹ The hope that Internet advertising will someday match what print and television now bring in appears to be vanishing. Former enemies, namely newspapers and classified job Web sites, are now creating partnerships in part to fend off the effects of free listings from Craigslist. The entire business model of journalism may be in flux in a few years.

The report observes that to the progression from local owner to chain and from chain to publicly traded company was fuelled by growth and notes that going public and getting bigger allowed media companies’ economies of scale, and giving them cash to invest — in more reporters, more presses, more papers, more TV stations. Later, when companies like Tribune, Times Mirror, the Washington Post and others went public, that model was to shield them from market pressures. The report further notes that “even as the business fundamentals changed in the last decade, media companies were able to manage the decline. Critics complained that the companies did not invest enough into the future. Now, there has been a new turn in the debates over ownership. Starting in 2005 and accelerating in 2006, there have begun to be questions not only from journalists but now from



corporate managers and investors about whether the dominant model of media ownership, the public corporation, is still preferred.” In other words, the report concludes, “the industry has learned to manage decline, to a point. But it has also shown it can over-manage, cutting costs without innovating.”

Case-in-Point: Newspaper Next and the New Business Model

As the case of the *Los Angeles Times* illustrates, the newspaper business is trying out new strategies, for instance, regarding ownership that would address changes in the field. The State of the News Media report (2007) depicts a much discussed project “Newspaper Next” that developed new business models for newspapers in the midst of structural and financial changes. This yearlong, \$2 million project of the American Press Institute was based on work by the Harvard Business School. The project resulted in recommendations that the print edition, existing online sites, niche publications and acquisitions may not be enough to counter the new situation. Instead, newspapers should:

- Be much more committed to a systematic approach to innovation, scoping out unmet “jobs to be done” for consumers and advertisers in their communities.
- Settle for projects that can be started quickly on a modest scale and be readjusted if the initial plan is flawed, as it likely will be.
- Consider a broad cooperative industry-wide effort to sell and place national online advertising.

There were six pilot projects that tested new approaches, those by *The Boston Globe* and the *Richmond Times-Dispatch* which focused on marketing and on using search engine marketing (SEM) programmes for their respective Web sites in order to guarantee advertisers with small budgets a certain number of clicks from high-potential customers. Another pilot paper, *The Oregonian*, sought to tap into the “non-consuming” youth population of Portland and learned that its potential audience primarily demands local and entertainment information. *The Oregonian* is developing a product to meet those needs.



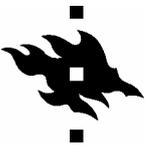
1.3 Media Policies and Regulation

Regulation of the media in the U.S. is based on industrial, not cultural, policies; it is also, typically, media specific (Napoli 2007a). As noted earlier, the role of the First Amendment is crucial, and content regulation is limited. As also recounted previously, the 1990s witnessed the deregulation of markets. In recent years, though, media policy issues have become a crucial site of political struggle. As the account on the concentration of ownership might lead one to expect, the issues of the diversity of ownership especially and of access are some of the key questions. Another crucial matter is that of net neutrality, which refers to the need to prevent Internet providers from discriminating against or prioritising certain sites or users. Consequently, not only various lobbyist groups for industry and civic advocacy organisations, but also the academic community are increasingly interested in and are researching issues pertaining to media policy-making.³⁰

The field of media policy-making includes several different players.³¹ The Federal Communications Commission (FCC) is an independent U.S. government agency directly responsible to Congress, consisting of five members (commissioners), three from the President's party, two from the minority party. The FCC issues and enforces regulations and enforces laws enacted by Congress. The FCC's main duty is to manage the public airwaves. Its regulations affect all varieties of broadcasting, telephone, cable, cell phone, and satellite companies. The FCC is to ensure that broadcasters who use the airwaves, free of charge, are serving the "public interest" in return.

The U.S. Congress, then, proposes and enacts legislation that affects the FCC, and the former can also overrule the decisions of the latter. The President's role is to appoint commissioners; and the President also has veto power over media-related legislation, sets broader policy goals for the FCC, and proposes media-related budgets. The courts too play a central role: Those who disagree with FCC decisions — citizens and corporations alike — can sue the agency to have regulations changed. The courts also judge the constitutionality of media laws passed by Congress. They weigh in on the First Amendment rights of broadcasters, cable companies, and the public, as well as on the competing rights of artists, corporations, innovators and consumers in the world of copyright.

Although decisions about media are made primarily at the national level, local authorities are also involved. In concrete terms, they give permissions for setting up distribution infrastructures and can



require cable companies to perform additional services relating to public access and the like. As cable becomes the dominant provider for television (and broadband Internet access), this local authority becomes even more important. Local governments are also able to register disapproval of FCC regulations or laws that have been passed.

Today, industry lobbies and civic advocacy groups alike try to influence the policy-making process. The National Association of Broadcasters is an umbrella organisation for the broadcasting industry, but the individual principal broadcasters as well as the telecommunications sector, Internet services, cable services, newspaper publishers, advertisers, and others all possess their own lobbying organisations. Public interest groups, obviously with considerably fewer resources, work on their part to have an effect on policy decisions, with many organisations concentrating specifically on a particular issue (e.g., gender, ethnicity, digital media, journalism monitoring, or media literacy).

Case-in-Point: The Media Reform Movement

Despite, and because, of the traditionally commercially-driven media landscape and the dominance of big media companies, an independent media sector also exists in the U.S. Some define independent media as operating independently of the traditional corporate sponsors and as producing media products “made for a wide range of purposes beyond purely commercial considerations” (Blau 2004, 1). Some independent, or alternative, media outlets and projects, however, are specifically geared to counter the mainstream media and media contents. One of the most well-known case in point is the net-based, globally operating Independent Media Center (www.indymedia.org), a network of collectively-run media outlets “for the creation of radical, accurate, and passionate tellings of the truth.” The Center was originally established by various independent and alternative media organisations and activists in 1999 for the purpose of providing grassroots coverage of the World Trade Organisation protests in Seattle.

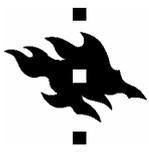
Yet the so-called Media Reform Movement is expanding from alternative and independent media to different kinds of activism through a great variety of organisations and alliances. To be sure, “Media reform” initiatives in the U.S. and elsewhere do not as such form a unified movement, historically or currently. A recent thorough account on the literature addressing the vast civic advocacy activities around media policy-making (Napoli 2007b) notes that “the movement has operated under many guises, and with [a] wide array of labels”, all different groups are concerned



with the role of the media in society (ibid. 8-9), whether the focus is on the structure or the contents of the media, and whether the scope is global or national. Recent research on democratic media activism in the U.S., Canada, and the U.K. (Hackett & Carroll 2006) has identified different core approaches that frame the activities: 1) the frame of freedom of expression emphasises the First Amendment values; 2) the media democratisation frame stresses informed citizenry; 3) the right to communicate frame links communication and other human rights; 4) the cultural environment frame emphasises harmful media contents; and 5) the media justice frame draws from civil right issues and is concerned with such things as minority representation (see also Napoli 2007b, 12-13). More concretely, the main themes of critique that have inspired citizen activism around the media can be summarised as follows (Hackett & Carroll 2006, 1-18):

- The media's increasing failure to help constitute a democratic public sphere;
- The reinforcement of gender, race, and class inequality resulting from commoditisation of information, the dependence of advertising revenue, and other econ/ideological mechanisms;
- The relative homogenisation of potential diversity of publicly articulated discourses;
- The media's subversion of a healthy political culture and a sense of community, at local, national and global levels, through such imperatives as fragmentation, technocentrism, and consumerism;
- The erosion of privacy and free expression rights since 9/11.
- The transformation of the public commons of knowledge into a private enclosure of corporate-controlled commodities, notably through the expansion of "intellectual property rights";
- The centralisation of political, civic, and symbolic power inherent in the political economy of commercial media industries, in the era of convergence; and
- The elitist and often secretive process of communication policy-making.

The recent media reform activities (henceforth referred to as the media reform movement) in the United States embrace all these issues, some more, some less explicitly. The Media Reform Action Guide by one of the core organisations dealing with media reform questions, the Free Press, lists specific questions of media ownership, public and non-commercial media, marketing to children, cable rates, Internet freedom (net neutrality), campaign coverage, community radio, minority ownership, media workers' issues, and copyright matters (65-67). The Free Press, founded by Professor McChesney (the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign) and journalist John Nichols in 2002, is an umbrella organisation of 165 diverse civic groups concerned with media issues and



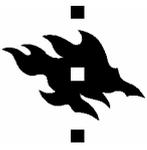
policies.³³ In addition to the ongoing dissemination of information dissemination, the Free Press organises national Media Reform conferences. The last one, in January 2007, brought together 6,000 activists, and included a research pre-conference to discuss the research needs and the roles of the academic community vis-à-vis the issues.

Research matters for a movement that has grown rapidly in recent years and that has already had a very concrete impact on U.S. policymaking. In 2003 the FCC decided (by vote) to lift restrictions on broadcasting ownership and permit a single company to own stations reaching 45% or more of the national audience. Nearly three million people opposed the decision by contacting the FCC and the Congress, but Congress decided on a compromise solution. Sued by the grassroots Prometheus Radio Project in Philadelphia, in conjunction with a broad mix of public interest groups (the Media Alliance, the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S., Fairness and Accuracy in Reporting, the Center for Digital Democracy, Consumers Union and the Consumer Federation of America), the FCC was brought to court to defend its case. One of the core issues was the research used by the FCC to back up its decision: it that was proven methodologically faulty.

In 2004 the Third Circuit Court of Appeals in Philadelphia handed a major victory to public interest groups when it ruled against the media ownership rules loosened by the FCC. The ruling sent the changed rules back to the FCC and stated that public interest ownership limits should be kept in place unless sufficient evidence could be shown to warrant their removal – the burden of proof thus being with the FCC.³⁴ Nevertheless, the media reform movement is, among other things, currently concerned with similar attempts to relax the ownership regulations. One attempt concerns elimination of the broadcasting-newspaper ownership rule that prevents companies owning radio or television channels in the same area; another suggestion is to abandon a local ownership cap that currently limits a company from owning more than one television station in most markets.

1.4 Media Content

The content question, especially in a vast mediascape such as the United States, is a highly complex matter. Consequently, this section highlights just a few aspects that are characteristic of and pertain to several media in the U.S. Some current characteristics of the content and their related discussions are partly inherited from earlier decades. For instance, as noted earlier, the coverage of 9/11 and of



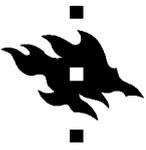
the Iraq war have raised yet again issues of “dumbing down” and of narrowing the news content. The narrowing down or recycling also pertains to format radios and “recycled” or repeated content in the multiplicity of television channels. Often the consolidated ownership is held responsible for these developments resulting in fewer resources for producing programmes. At the same time, new issues emerge not only in the context of new media (such as blogs or new media contents by old media firms), but within the principles of journalism as well. This is also reflected in the ways journalists relate to content issues and to their work in general.

From Arguments to Answers

The State of the News Media report (2007) depicts a tendency in journalistic contents that indicates a shift from the so-called “objective”, “professional” or “Argument Culture” of journalism to something called the “Answer Culture”. Many-sided debates, sometimes criticised for the mandatory polarised positions, have now given way to more one-sided journalistic contents. “A growing pattern has news outlets, programmes and journalists offering up solutions, crusades, certainty and the impression of putting all the blur of information in clear order for people. The tone may be just as extreme as before, but now the other side is not given equal play. In a sense, the debate in many venues is settled — at least for the host. This is something that was once more confined to talk radio, but it is spreading as it draws an audience elsewhere and in more nuanced ways.”

The New Phase of Blogging

“Social media” and “user-generated content” are major points of interest for both the industry and media advocacy groups (for detailed discussion, see Chapter 4, Future Challenges). One specific issue raised by the State of the News Media report is how the content of blogs is in transition. It summarises the situation on blogging as being “on the brink of a new phase that will probably include scandal, profitability for some, and a splintering into elites and non-elites over standards and ethics”. The report further notes that “[t]he use of blogs by political campaigns in the mid-term elections of 2006 is already intensifying in the approach to the presidential election of 2008. Corporate public-relations efforts are beginning to use blogs as well, often covertly. What gives blogging its authenticity and momentum — its open access — also makes it vulnerable to being used and manipulated. At the same time, some of the most popular bloggers are already becoming



businesses or being assimilated by establishment media. All this is likely to cause blogging to lose some of its patina as citizen media. To protect themselves, some of the best-known bloggers are already forming associations, with ethics codes, standards of conduct and more.”

Digital Journalism and the “Established Media”

Many argue that although the Internet is “undoubtedly a medium unlike no other in terms of the amount of diverse content it makes available to users, sources closely tied to traditional media and organizations of content remain the most easily accessible even in the new environment” (Hargittai 2006, 360). “Established” or “old” media have indeed embraced digital platforms in the U.S. Recent research addressing the digital strategies of established media companies (Dennis *et al.* 2006) reveals that although no single prominent strategy emerges, there are three distinct ways in which those companies see the role of the new media in their operations. One is “operational convergence”, involving an upgrading of infrastructures to digital standards. Second is an enabling of companies to engage in “cross-platform marketing”, meaning the promotion of their contents and/or services in different platforms. The third is for delivering on-demand content, with the sensitivity to the unique characteristics of each medium at their disposal. The last can be seen as an ongoing trend in journalism.

The State of the News Media report has in its 2007 edition looked specifically at journalistic websites, i.e., “digital journalism”. It studied closely 38 different news websites in September 2006 and again in February 2007. The sites were chosen from a mix of root-based media (e.g., newspapers, radio, and cable), including a variety of online-only outlets. The sites were examined according to more than 60 different measurable features or capabilities from six different areas, such as the level of customizability, participatory possibilities, and different media formats. The research shows that even though the news industry faced a tough financial year in 2006, it nevertheless moved actively towards digital journalism. An earlier State of the Media study revealed that traditional media were still hesitating over this direction two years ago. In addition to the more obvious fears about a drain on resources and the culture clash over new technology, journalists worried that the medium was by nature so immediate and demanding that it tended to threaten two of the qualities the best news people covet – taking the time to verify the news accurately and to understand and report on a subject in depth.



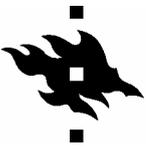
As of 2006, the findings of the study depict another kind of situation. First, websites have developed beyond their “root media”, e.g., a newspaper. In character, many news sites now cut across medium, history, audience size, and editorial structure. For example, the CBS News site is notably different from ABC’s. Some citizen media sites have distinct editorial processes and standards. Second, news sites seem to be exploiting two areas in particular: they apply editorial branding, and they offer the opportunity to customize information, particularly through mobile delivery.

However, most studied sites have done the least to tap the Web’s potential for depth — to enrich coverage by offering links to original documents, background material, additional coverage, and more. That suggests that putting things into context, or making sense of the information available, is an area Web journalists still need to work on. Another issue is that digital journalism has not fully exploited the potential for users to participate by commenting and adding their own voice to the information. Last, only a few sites excel at multiple areas of the Web’s potential.

Case-in-Point: the NYT Goes Digital

Although The New York Times Co. mainly focuses on the newspaper business, it is 19th in the ranking order of the biggest American media companies. It leads newspaper-ranking in its advertising revenue; in circulation it is in third place after *USA Today* and *Wall Street Journal* (Advertising Age Fact Pack, 25; 34). *The New York Times* launched its website in 1996. The Time Select, a subscriber-based service, was introduced in 2005. The main site was redesigned in 2006 to include more customized options. While the daily news stories in the main site are free of cost, Time Select offers, among other things, news and op-ed columns as well as feature articles. Today, nytimes.com is the world’s largest newspaper website. It is also number one in audience engagement – if assessed by the pages read and the time spent, overshadowing other newspaper websites nationally and globally.³⁵ The research by Dennis *et al.* (2006) indicates, in fact, that the executives of the top U.S. “old media” companies regard the *New York Times’* online operations very highly. The State of the News Media report’s (2007) analysis of the *New York Times’* site concludes that³⁶:

“The look of the newspaper is still there (...). The work of the correspondents, their bylines and their reporting, still form the core attraction. But while retaining the feel of print, the Web site of the New York Times, redesigned in 2006, is more subtly a customizable, participatory news outlet that covers



the news as it happens. Indeed, to a degree greater than for most newspaper Web sites, this really is the newspaper and more; it is the New York Times....online. (...)

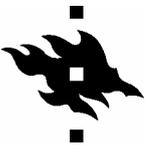
"[T]he sense that this is the newspaper's identity and brand in an online form is also reflected in the numbers from our content analysis. In our site inventory, the New York Times earns its highest mark for promoting and emphasizing its own brand and editorial control. Most of the content here, more than 75%, is from the Times staff. It promotes the bylines of its writers prominently.

"Yet this is now more than a given morning's newspaper. A visitor is also struck by the frequency with which the page is updated. Times correspondents are filing the news as it breaks, and then filling in more as the day goes on. There is a sense of the news breaking, the day evolving, the page changing; small red text indicates when a story first appears on the page. The site gives the impression of being in the Times newsroom and seeing as reporters come back and start filing. Even breaking stories on the site are usually written by the staff. Wire copy does appear in this lead story area, but it is usually replaced quickly by a staff byline.

"Interestingly, the site has also found a way to use blogs to rely on wire copy less, at least ostensibly. (...) NYtimes.com also scored well for the degree to which it allows users to customize the content. It offers multiple RSS feeds and allows visitors to create their own homepage layout to greet them on each visit. It has yet to offer, though, the newer delivery mode — mobile.

"The site also makes some effort to allow participation. Visitors can e-mail authors now, and even add their own comments to stories and to blogs. The site scored, over all, high mid-range marks here. NYtimes.com ranked in the bottom tier, however, for multimedia use. (...) [E]ven though the page incorporates some video and a bit of audio and graphic work, this is still by and large a text-heavy destination. The site also scored somewhat lower, in the third tier, for depth, or the extent to which stories also linked to other material, original documents, background pieces, archival material and more. That, too, reflects its character; stories written by Times correspondents are what this site is about.

When it comes to revenue streams, not surprisingly, the Times also scored highly. It features, in effect, everything that a Web site today could. It has a lot of ads — 13 on the days we examined —



many of them small and unobtrusive. And it adds revenues from fees it charges for premium content. Nytimes.com is leading example of a franchise that has decided not to create a new identity online, but to transfer the old one, enriched and modernized.”

Journalists and Contents

A recent survey of U.S. journalists, conducted among 547 national and local reporters, editors and executives by the Pew Research Center for the People and the Press in collaboration with the Project for Excellence in Journalism and the Committee of Concerned Journalists (and reported in the State of the News Media 2007), reveals that journalists are unhappy with their profession. Many give poor grades to the coverage offered by the types of media that serve most Americans: daily newspapers, local TV, network TV news, and cable news outlets. Despite recent scandals at the *New York Times* and *USA Today*, only national newspapers – and the websites of national news organisations – receive good performance grades from the journalistic ranks. Significant majorities of journalists have come to believe that increased bottom-line pressure, including cuts in the workforce, also allows too few resources for in-depth researching, results in compromises and “too timid” reporting due to the fight for audiences. All this is hurting the quality of news coverage. This is the view of 66% of national news people and 57% of the local journalists questioned in this survey.

When asked about what is going well in journalism these days, print and broadcast journalists have different views. TV and radio journalists mention the speed of coverage – the ability to respond quickly to breaking news stories – while print journalists emphasise the quality of coverage and the watchdog role the press plays as the profession’s best features. The survey shows, however, that most journalists continue to have a positive opinion of the Internet’s impact on journalism.



1.5 Media Reception and Consumption

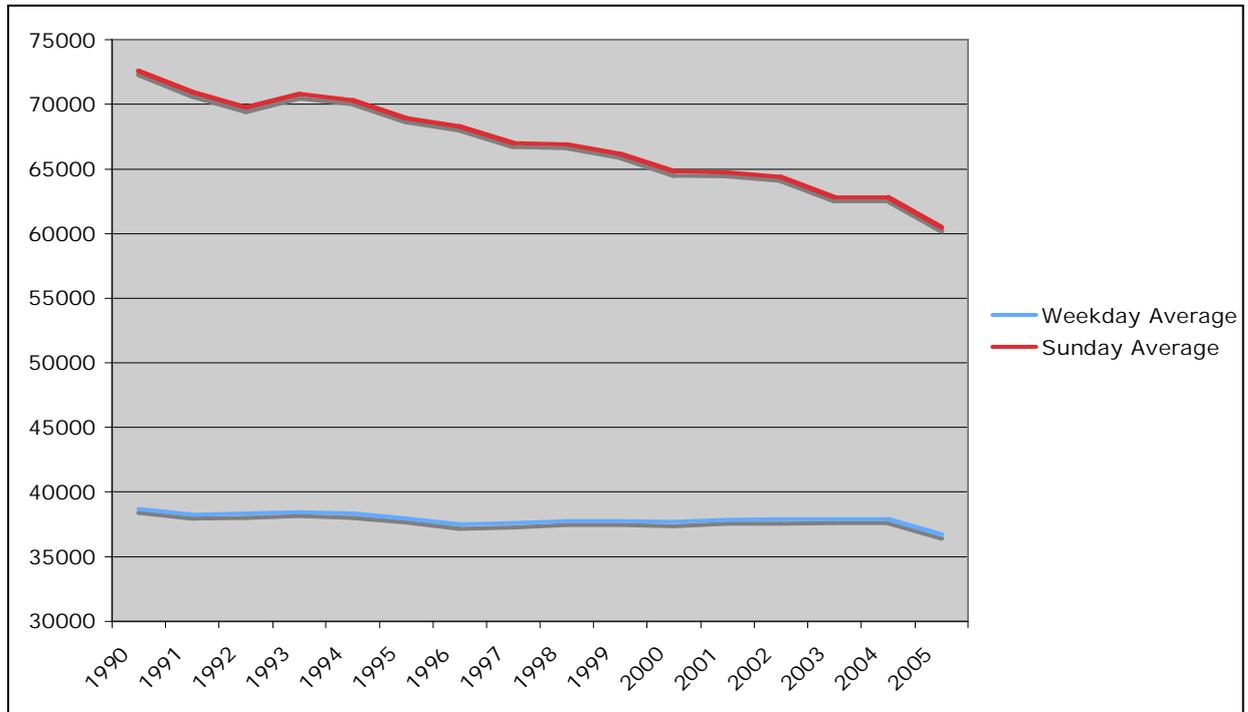
Americans consume media services extensively, spending close to 30 % of their day engaged in some activity involving media. Television viewing is the dominant activity. For the September 2004 – September 2005 television season, the average household tuned into television for 8 hours, 11 minutes a day. Within the same period, the average person watched 4 hours, 32 minutes each day (a record high) (FCC 2006). Given this major role of the media in the everyday lives of Americans, ways to measure audiences for old and for new media is a major issue (e.g., the aforementioned new rating systems). The State of the News Media report (2007) documents developments regarding audiences by media as follows:³⁷

Newspapers

On the surface, the newspaper industry looks grim. Circulation is declining: Daily circulation dropped 3% and Sunday circulation dropped 4%, from 2005 to 2006. A look at a longer-term development reveals (see Figure 1.3) that whereas in 1998 58.6% adults read newspapers daily, the share had declined by almost ten percentage points by 2006 (49.9%)³⁸. According to a survey by the Pew Research Center for the People and the Press (2006), the most often mentioned reason for not reading the paper is lack of time (23%), followed by assessments that the activity is inconvenient (10%) or that the information is biased or opinionated (8%). The main reason people turn to the newspaper seems to be for local news: Almost one half of respondents to the survey wanted to read news about local government. Other types of news that interested readers were culture and arts (29%), crime (23%) and business (22%). International, political, entertainment, sport, or weather did not fare nearly as well. (Ibid.)

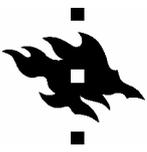
Given the declining readership, it is no wonder that advertising is flat. However, online editions of newspapers are adding readers and revenues at a healthy pace. In most markets newspaper sites are the best-trafficked websites. The combined print and online readership is higher than ever (an 8% increase from 2005). Yet the future of print is in question.. As the previous account of the media contents indicates, the Internet is an opportunity and a threat to newspapers. Few people get news exclusively from the Internet; instead, they tend to regularly mix four or five different media.

Figure 1.3 Average Circulation of U.S. Daily Newspapers; Weekday and Sunday editions, 1990 to 2005
 (Source: Editor and Publisher Yearbook data. Based on 2006 E&P estimates; From the State of the News Media 2007 reports)



1.6 Information and communication technologies

It seems that there is a great variation in the kinds of information and communication technologies Americans use, what kinds of activities they engage in, and how they view ICT in their lives. In a recent survey by the Pew Internet & American Life Project (Horrigan 2007)³⁹, users in the U.S. were categorised into ten distinct groups. According to the survey, some 30% are “Elite Tech Users”, a group consisting of four subcategories. “Omnivores” are the enthusiasts who have the most gadgets and use the most services; “Connectors” enjoy the ability to connect with people and pursue hobbies using ICTs; “Lackluster Veterans” concentrate on the Internet, and less on mobile communications; and “Productivity Enhancers” enjoy the impact of ITCs on their professional lives, learning, and social connections. The “Middle of the Road” users (20% of respondents to the survey) are either “Mobile Centrics” or “Connected but Hassled”. The former group takes full advantage of the functionality of mobile phones; the latter group uses a variety of different ICTs but is sometimes burdened by the intrusiveness of connectivity and the amount of information. Almost 50% of the respondents then are those with “Few Tech Assets”. Some are inexperienced but



experimenting; some are satisfied with light use of ICTs; some are indifferent to ICTs; but 15% of all the respondents are “Off the Network” – without either cell phones or Internet connectivity. The last group tends to be older adults.

As noted earlier, online media consumption is clearly a crucial point of interest for industry and academic researchers alike. Some tendencies in online media consumption include the key issue of the Internet being a “platform” (e.g., of news distribution), not a “medium” as such. Another tendency is that of the “We Media”, the blurring boundary between producers and consumers (see Future Challenges). It has also been argued that online modes of communication are quite diverse: Blogs, for instance, are not just a form of writing/speaking, but, through links, dialogue and ongoing debate, a form of listening. A central challenge for online content providers is the need for mechanisms for developing trust online (Adler 2007).

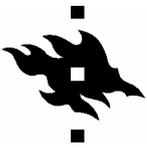
The approaches and methods as well as research data used for mapping online use (and consequently, the results) differ, but, for example, the following compilation of aspects of Internet use by the Center for Digital Future⁴⁰ (at the Annenberg School for Communication at USC) illustrates the above-mentioned trends. Americans spend, on average, two hours online per day; the Internet is widely used as an important content source. Yet only a little more than half the users believe that most information is reliable (although established sites received a much higher rate of trust). The “we media” aspect and the “communal aspect” of online media (reflected, in part, in the different modes of communication online) are highlighted by the fact that people value the online communities, one sixth of Americans even have their own website. The impact of the Internet on work is also widely recognised.



Table 1.1 *Aspects of Internet Use in the U.S.* (Source: Digital Future Report)

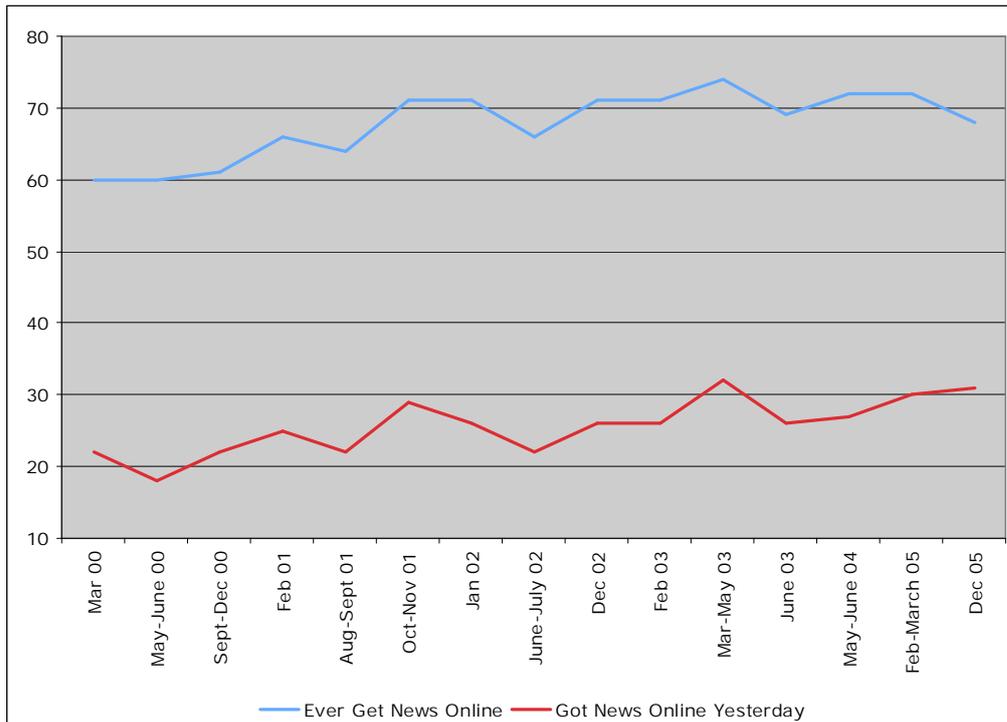
Aspects of Internet Use	2001	2003	2005	2006
Users over 12				77.6%
Weekly hours online	9.8	12.5	13.3	14.0
Internet a very important, or extremely important, source of information and entertainment			56.3	65.8
Believe most or all of information online reliable and accurate	58.0		48.8	55.2
Information on established media web sites is reliable and accurate			78	
Information posted by individuals is reliable and accurate			11.5	
Going online without specific destination				Sometimes 44.1 Often 29.9
Broadband				48.3
Using Internet at work makes me more productive				69.7
Posted photos online			15.7	23.6
Have a blog		3.2		7.4
Maintain own website		8.5		12.5
Participating in online communities important				Very 35.7 Extremely 31.5
Feel as strongly about their online communities as about their real-world communities				43%

The online news audience has reached a plateau after a decade of growth (in 2006, 27% went online every day for news, compared to 34% in 2005). Although the number of broadband users is increasing (33% increase in 2005), online news is not. Newspaper websites are growing, however. There is some evidence that people are spending more time online than in previous years, but the amount of time spent consuming news is not increasing (see Figure 1.4). The consumption rates are difficult to determine, however, because of alternative news from blogs and other non-traditional news sites, RSS feeds, podcasts, and other media. Are these media chipping away at other sources of news? Some argue that the web may increase the reach of older media. There is much use occurring simultaneously. Americans appreciate the Internet's ease of use. The web has become part of the working day, thanks to broadband in the workplace. Workers are online all day and are multi-tasking more. They come across news from time to time throughout the day rather than one hour in the morning or evening. Yet echoing the issue of traditional media contents and organisations being



clearly present in new media platforms as well as the dominance of a few new media companies, research shows that online users in fact concentrate to the fewest sources (Hindman 2006, 337-340).

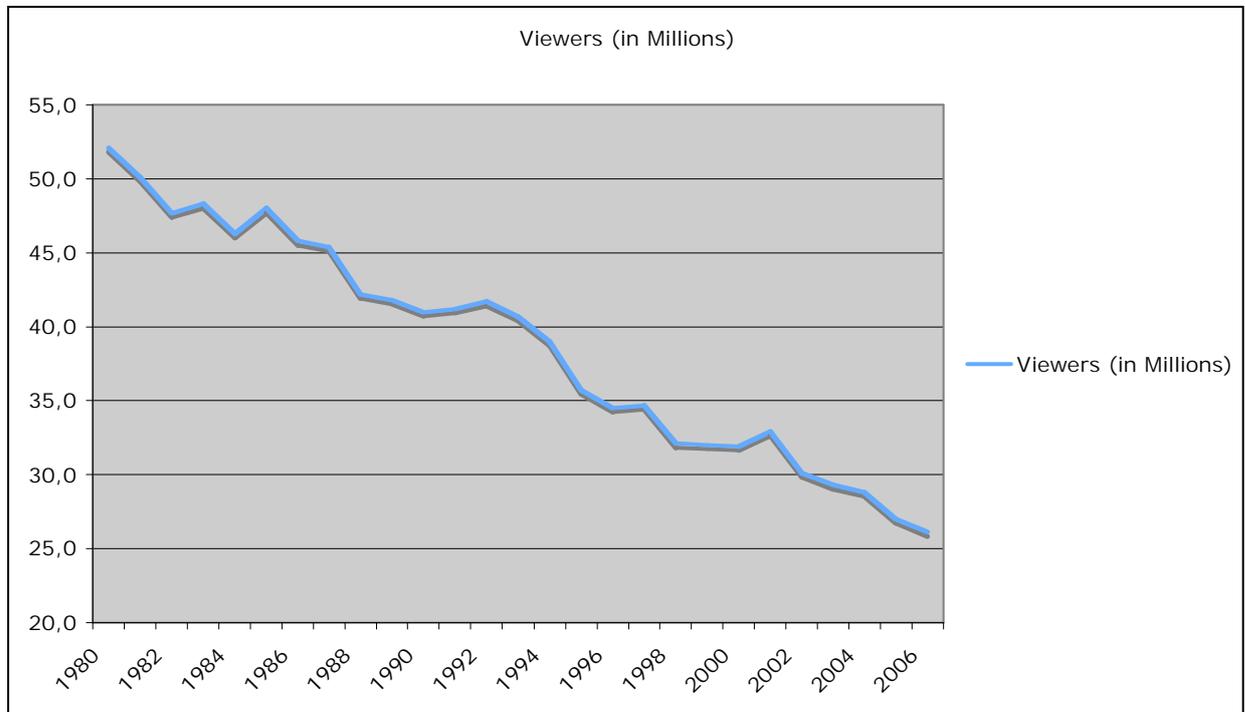
Figure 1.4 *Percent of Internet Users Who Access News Online, 2000 to 2006* (Source: Pew Internet & American Life Project tracking surveys; From the State of the News Media 2007 reports)



Network TV

In 2006 network TV news went through many changes, particularly in style and among its anchors. Given all the attention to make these changes, the audience for network news could have grown. However, the audience dropped in 2006 just as it had dropped for years. Currently, the total evening network news audience stands at around 26 million, down about one million from the year before. As Figure 1.5 shows, audiences have dropped by about one million per year for the last 25 years. Attitudes toward network news show that Americans have a high level of trust towards network TV news. The viewers are also heavy news consumers and quite a bit older than consumers of other media.

Figure 1.5 Network TV Audience: Evening News Viewership, All Networks, Nov. 1980 to Nov. 2006
 (Source: Nielsen Media Research; From the State of the News Media 2007 reports)

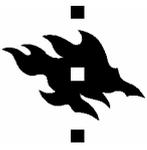


Cable TV

For the first time ever, in 2006 the cable news audience stopped growing and is was fact in decline (the mean audience dropped 12% in prime time and 11% in day time). The sector was still financially successful, however. The average cable news viewer was male, aged 48, with a college education. Cable was losing on-demand news market to the Internet. Cable channels are trying to promote their websites but news aggregators like Yahoo! News and Google News allow for one-stop-shopping news from a wide variety of news outlets. Yahoo! and Google are also familiar brands. It is also unclear if cable news viewers will use the associated cable news websites and vice versa. Crisis coverage is an area in which cable news thrives, however. All the cable news channels are moving towards personalities and individual shows to drive audiences. These personalities have strong opinions.

Local TV

Local TV news is the most popular way for Americans to receive news, irrespective of age or income. However, local TV news is changing as well,. In 2006, audiences dropped for all newscast



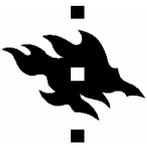
time periods. Local television stations are experimenting with changing air times and adding new programmes. The number of hours of programming local news is higher than it has ever been. Local TV news has long rejected the Internet, but there are signs that some stations are beginning to embrace the web. Websites can be a tool for retaining audiences, but they may not be an additional revenue stream, as many in the industry expected.

Case-in-Point: Entertaining Themselves

Television in the United States differs dramatically from the Nordic television culture in that nationwide broadcasting is clearly more geared towards entertainment content. The local aspect of the media of that vast country is well illustrated in the importance of local television news, whereas the most watched programming of network and cable channels tells another story. The top 10 TV Network Primetime programmes in the 2006 - 2007 season (through April 8, 2007), were dominated by international reality formats, American Idol being number one and several episodes of Dancing with the Stars making it onto the list as well. In addition, the domestic fiction series CSI, Grey's Anatomy and Desperate Housewives were on the list; the tenth most-watched programme was Sunday Night Football. Compared, for instance, to top rankings in Finland, the significant difference is that some news casts (YLE, MTV3, often in connection with traditional national or major news events) gather audiences to make it to the top of the lists year after year (e.g., Joukkoviestimet 2007). As for U.S. cable viewing, children's channels fare well, but also the Discover Channel's Planet Earth, and USA with entertainment programming and a movie were in the top 10 in the 2006-07 period.

Magazines

Weekly magazines have significant problems in competing against new print competitors, in creating new innovative advertisements and in maintaining circulation numbers. Yet these problems are all overshadowed by the challenge of producing a weekly publication in the world of 24-hour news cable television. *Time Magazine*, the largest of the newsweeklies made significant changes in 2006. It began publishing on Fridays instead of Mondays, giving a review of the week's news rather than trying to break new stories. It also redesigned its website to include more web-exclusive content and to try to break new stories. *Newsweek*, the second largest weekly publication, is waiting to see what happens with Time. With this change to emphasise its website, *Time* is looking to measure its audience through readership rather than through circulation. Meanwhile, alternative weekly print



news magazines such as *The Economist* and *The New Yorker* are increasing in circulation. The audience for news magazines is an elite one. Its members are wealthier than the population at large and younger, especially compared to the television news audience. In public attitudes, the majority of news magazine readers are consumers of other sources of news, and the magazine is an additional or secondary source.

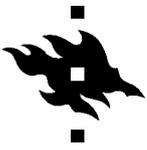
Radio

The use of portable digital devices such as MP3 players, portable podcasting, satellite signals, High Definition radio, Internet streaming, and mobile phones with music players has a significant impact on traditional radio. Traditional radio is still quite popular; nearly all Americans (93.7%) still listen to the standard AM/FM radio at some point during the course of a week. However, the current trend indicates that radio listening is declining, albeit somewhat slowly (see Table 1.2). Radio is changing rapidly and it is unsure what forms it will take as the 21st century continues. Radio has been slow to incorporate new listening formats. Some in the radio industry believe that online listening and podcasting are direct competition to over-the-air radio. A counterexample does exist with print newspapers, which often have online components that do not compete with print versions. There are signs that radio programme directors are beginning to embrace online options. Audiences are becoming more accustomed to the ease and choice offered by portable digital devices. Traditional radio will likely need to offer similar options to customers in order to compete.

Table 1.2 *Time Spent Listening to Radio, 2002 to 2005* (Source: the State of the News Media 2007)

Year	Minutes per Day
2002	20,25
2003	20,00
2004	19,75
2005	19,50

To generalise, American audiences divide their time among various media. Despite changes in structures, economy, and technologies in the past decade, overall transformations in media consumption are not so drastic. For instance, as illustrated by the data from Pew Research Center for the People & the Press (in the State of the News Media 2007), time spent with the news has declined overall from 74 minutes in 1994 to 67 minutes in 2006, but the variation during the decade indicates that the decline is not necessarily a clear trend. What does seem clear is the tendency that



TV news especially takes less time now than it did over decade ago in the lives of Americans (30 min. in 2006 as opposed to almost 40 min. in 1994). Also, today, getting news online is indeed widespread and involves, on average, some six minutes of time spent with news.

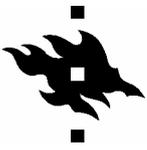
Ethnic Audiences

Because of the multi-ethnic nature of the United States, the ethnic media are highly important – and continue to grow in importance. While many mainstream media outlets are declining in audience and revenue, ethnic media are not. For example, Hispanic daily newspaper circulation has been somewhat steady after a monumental growth coming into the 21st century (see Table 1.3). The reasons for this include the number of foreign-language speakers in the United States has grown; ethnic communities are branching out beyond traditional living areas; and more publications are having their circulations audited. Public attitudes toward ethnic media seem to show that emerging ethnic populations are probably more reliant on and interested in ethnic outlets than ethnic populations in established communities. Those emerging communities are probably not served as well as they could be. The best way to reach emergent populations may be TV, particularly cable TV, and the Internet. With the Internet, however, it is difficult to track users. The web to some extent is borderless. Newspapers and radio require denser populations. In particular, Hispanics tend to rely more on native language media overall, especially in emerging communities. Asians tend to rely more on English-language media in emerging communities than they do in established ones. Ethnic media consumption is thus difficult to measure.

Table 1.3 *Hispanic U.S. Daily Newspaper Circulation, Select years 1970 – 2005* (Source: Kirk Whisler & Latino Print Network, Carlsbad, CA; From the State of the News Media 2007).

Year	Daily Newspaper Circulation
1970	135
1990	440
2000	1413
2001	1555
2002	1700
2003	1808
2004	1609
2005	1614

Figures are 1000s.



In sum, the diversity and abundance of the U.S. media, coupled with the concentration of ownership and narrowing of content, seem to be one of the main characteristics of the Media landscape in the U.S. As one of the interviewees for this report summarised the context:

“I actually think the media landscape is teetering under the weight of fragmentation. That is, the technological capacity for fragmentation across all different media so far outstrips the underlying economics of media to keep pace, that it’s causing far more harm economically than good. You could talk to anybody at any sector of the industry and they would love an environment where anything beyond a hundred channels is not productive to anybody. I think that’s probably safe to say. And so, it’s interesting, if we have so much essentially extraneous channel capacity—whether it’s in radio, or online, or television, or magazines, for that matter—can we then though make...and that’s what leads to all that recycling [of content] (...) So economically, it becomes very difficult for the current models to work anyway. I think that, to me, is the defining characteristic.”



2. Research Institutions and Organisations

The purpose of this section is to discuss the communication research scene in the U.S. from an institutional point of view. The discussion begins with an examination of academic research institutions with an introduction to communication education in the U.S. in general in order to illustrate the scope of and ideology behind the system. The main focus of the academic portion of the chapter is on Ph.D. education, which plays a significant role in U.S. communication research. That is, graduate students are often closely involved in their departments' and individual professors' research projects, and it is usual that they also publish their work in academic journals and books prior to graduation. The assessment of communication programmes is also discussed, even though the issue is highly debated and inflammable within the U.S. academia. In particular, two perspectives are presented, a study of National Communication Association (NCA) that assesses U.S. doctoral programmes in communication and a recent ranking study that is based on faculty productivity. The results of both studies should be examined critically, yet they illustrate that, depending on the perspective, there are dozens of high quality research institutions from which the researchers and future researchers can seek positions and admission. In addition to academic institutions, other research agencies and companies are discussed. In particular, attention is paid to the growing industry of market research, media companies' research, government agencies, nonprofit organisations and lobbyist groups. Also, issues relating to research funding are discussed briefly. Finally, the chapter concludes with a comparison of seven different communication or media-related research institutions to illustrate the variability of institutional research approaches in the U.S. (see Table 2.4).

2.1 Universities and Polytechnics

Communication Education in the U.S.

Primary and Secondary Education

Primary and secondary education in the United States is provided mainly by the government, with control and funding coming from three levels: federal, state, and local. Curricula, funding, teaching, and other policies are set through locally-elected school boards who have jurisdiction over school



districts. Educational standards and standardised testing decisions are usually made by state governments. Generally, students opt for a liberal arts education with no particular focus area.

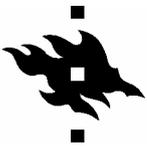
People are required to attend school until the age of 16 to 18, depending on the state. Students may attend public, private, or home schools. In most public and private schools, education is divided into three levels: elementary school, junior high school (grades 7–8) or middle schools (grades 6–9), and senior high school.

In 2002, 76.6 million students were enrolled in K-16 (kindergarten through age 16) study. Of these, 72% aged 12 to 17 were judged academically “on track” for their age (enrolled in school at or above grade level). Of those enrolled in compulsory education, 5.2 million (10.4%) were attending private schools. Among adult population of the United States, over 85% have completed high school and 27% have received a bachelor's degree or higher.

Post-Secondary Education

Post-secondary education in the United States is known as college or university and usually consists of four years of study at an institution of higher learning. Students traditionally apply to receive admission into university, with varying difficulties of entrance. Schools differ in their competitiveness and reputation. Admissions criteria involve the rigour and grades earned in high school, courses taken, grade point average, class ranking, and standardised test scores. Most universities also consider more subjective factors such as a commitment to extracurricular activities, a personal essay, and an interview.

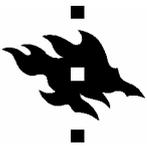
Once admitted, students engage in undergraduate study, which consists of satisfying university and class requirements to achieve a bachelor's degree in a field of concentration known as a major. Students often take a wide variety of courses during their first year and choose a major from these courses. The university encourages this and often requires students to take at least one course in a number of fields before declaring a major. The most common course of study consists of four years leading to a Bachelor of Arts or a Bachelor of Science. Some students choose to attend a community college for two years in order to graduate with a technical degree or to transfer for further study to a four-year college or university. Community colleges may award an associate's degree after two years.



Graduate study, conducted after obtaining an initial degree and sometimes after several years of professional work, leads to a more advanced degree such as a master's degree, which could be a Master of Arts, Master of Science, Master of Business Administration, or other less common master's degrees such as Master of Education and Master of Fine Arts. After additional years of study and sometimes in conjunction with the completion of a master's degree, students may earn a Doctor of Philosophy or other doctoral degree, such as Doctor of Arts, Doctor of Education, Doctor of Theology, Doctor of Medicine, Doctor of Pharmacy, Doctor of Physical Therapy, or Doctor of Jurisprudence. Some programmes, such as medicine, have formal apprenticeship procedures with post-graduation-like residency and internship, which must be completed after graduation and before one is considered to be fully trained. Entrance into graduate programmes usually depends upon a student's undergraduate academic performance or professional experience as well as scores on a standardised entrance exam. Only 8.9% of students ever receive a postgraduate degree; and most, after obtaining their bachelor's degree, proceed directly into the workforce.

The vast majority of students (up to 70%) lack the financial resources to pay tuition and must rely on student loans and scholarships from their university, the federal government, or a private lender. All but a few charity institutions charge all students tuition, although scholarships (both merit-based and need-based) are widely available. Generally, private universities charge much higher tuition than their public counterparts, which rely on state funds to make up the cost difference. Because each state supports its own university system with state taxes, most public universities charge much higher rates for out-of-state students. Annual undergraduate tuition varies widely from state to state, and many additional fees apply. A typical year's tuition at a public university (for residents of the state) is \$5,000. Tuition for public school students from outside the state is generally comparable to private school prices, although students can generally get state residency after their first year. Private schools are typically much higher, although prices vary widely. Depending upon the type of school and programme, annual graduate programme tuition can vary from \$15,000 to as high as \$40,000. Note that these prices do not include living expenses or additional fees that schools add on such as "activities fees" or health insurance. These fees, especially room and board, can range from \$6,000 to \$12,000 per academic year.

During the 2004–05 academic year, 4,216 accredited institutions offered degrees at the associate's degree level or above. These included 2,533 four-year colleges and universities, and 1,683 two-year



colleges. Institutions awarding various degrees in 2003–04 numbered 2,636 for associate's degrees, 2,121 for bachelor's degrees, 1,580 for master's degrees, and 568 for doctor's degrees.

Case-in-Point: the California Post-Secondary System

California illustrates the ideology behind the U.S. post-secondary system: (1) some form of higher education ought to be available to everyone regardless of their economic means and that only a person's academic proficiency should determine how far they can go; and (2) differentiation of function so that each of the three systems would strive for excellence in different areas so as to not waste public resources on duplicate efforts.

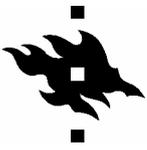
The California Master Plan for Higher Education of 1960 sets up a coherent system for post-secondary education, which defined specific roles for the already-existing University of California (UC), California State University (CSU), and the California Community Colleges system (CCC).

The Plan specified that the top eighth of graduating high school students would be guaranteed a place at one of the University of California campuses; the top third would be able to enter California State University; and community colleges would accept all applications. The percentages are enforced by sliding scales equating grade point average and scores on standardised exams, which are recalculated every year.

Communication Study in Universities

Scope and Popularity

Communication is one of the most popular areas of study for students in the U.S. According to the U.S. Department of Education's Center on Educational Statistics, in 2002–03 the communication discipline in higher education showed approximately 69,792 communication majors pursuing four-year undergraduate degrees and 6,893 seeking graduate degrees in communication (2006). Using the profiles of more than 1,400 schools listed in *America's Best Colleges 2005* (published by U.S. News & World Report), the NCA identified over 300 colleges where communication was among the five most frequently selected undergraduate majors for the class of 2004. At 25 of these colleges, communication was the single most popular major. In all, the NCA lists about 400 U.S. colleges or universities with communication major for undergraduates.



Research vs. Professional Schools

The U.S. communication education landscape is characterised by two main branches: schools of communication studies that examine the various aspects of communication from a research-perspective and journalism/mass communication schools that aim at preparing students for professional careers in the industry. In most cases, the two branches operate separately, even when located in the same university. The divide can be traced back to the origins of the discipline. As Delia (1987) pointed out, past the initial consolidation of the field, “no process has been more important to the development of the field than its integration into journalism schools and speech departments” (73).

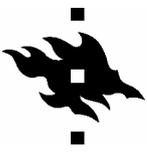
Professional Schools

The Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass Communication (ASJMC) has approximately 190 member schools and departments of journalism and mass communication, most of which are located in the United States. ACEJMC accredits 109 programmes in journalism and mass communications at colleges and universities in the United States. The list includes bachelor's and professional master's degree programmes and does not accredit programmes leading to the Ph.D. (a non-professional) degree.

Case-in-Point: Media Management Education

Despite the size and significance of media as a business in the U.S., media/communication management is a relatively small and new branch of study. According to one of the interviewees for this review, “U.S. graduate programmes in media management, in particular, at the undergraduate level are poor, and there are very few. At the graduate level there are some programmes, but they need more practitioners and most universities are not comfortable with this.” On the graduate level, the interviewee noted, there are only a few major institutions that offer high quality media management education, such as the University of Southern California, UCLA, New York University, Columbia University, the University of Florida, Stanford, and the University of Pennsylvania.

One of the reasons behind the ignorance of media management education in communication schools is the argument that a degree in business is more useful than a degree in communication in preparing students for management positions in media companies. According to a current



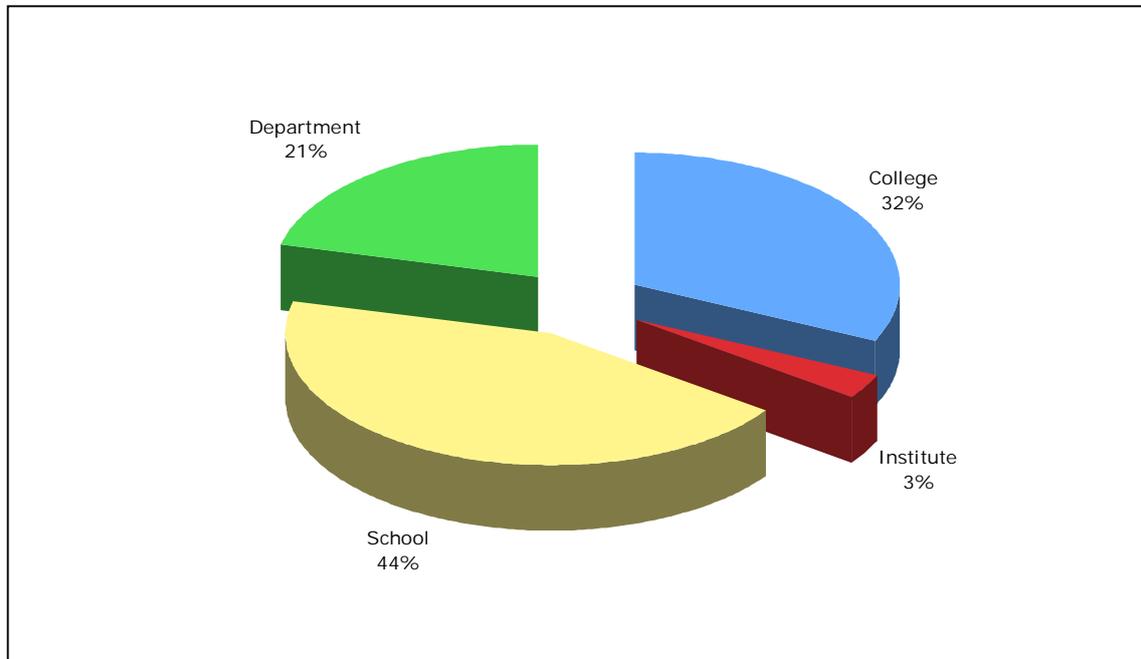
communication scholar and a previous media industry professional, communication management education is useful and interesting, but not an essential part of education. This scholar recommended an MBA over an MA in communication management for people who want to become media managers. Yet according to a current educator of media professionals, business schools are not producing enough MBAs for entertainment and media companies.

Status within Academia

Traditionally, communication has not enjoyed the same prestige as some of the more traditional areas of study (e.g., natural sciences). This is apparent when examining some of the most prestigious research universities, including such Ivy League schools as Harvard, Yale, and Princeton (Columbia and Cornell as exceptions) that do not offer degrees in communication. Yet recently, even the elite are realising the importance of communication, and especially journalism, and are integrating scholarship into their curricula. Yet, as one of the interviewees noted, instead of founding a separate department or school for journalism, “they are coming in the side doors. Elite institutes are realizing that journalism is quite an important thing in society, we need to get involved in that.” For example, Harvard is actively involved in some state-of-the-art communication projects, such as the Carnegie-Knight Initiative on the Future of Journalism Education, in which the Shorenstein Center on the Press, Politics and Public Policy is one of the major players together with four major university graduate schools of journalism.

Accordingly, an examination of Ph.D. programmes suggested that “[o]rganisationally, most of the programmes reside in a college or school within their university, suggesting relative prominence for the programme within the academic community” (Shaver *et al.* 2005, 24; see also Figure 2.1 below; “college “being the largest entity, followed by “school,” “department,” and “institute”).

Figure 2.1 *Organisational Status of Mass Communication Ph.D. Programmes, 2004* (Source: Shaver et al., 2005)



Content

A recent examination of course offerings in four-year colleges and universities in the U.S. (Wardrobe 1999) revealed that Interpersonal Communication is the most commonly offered course within U.S. communication departments (NCA Directory 1997). More than a half the departments examined also offered a course in Group Discussion, Communication Theory, Organisational Communication, Public Speaking, Persuasion, Argumentation and Debate, and Multicultural Communication. Communication and New Technology was the most commonly identified special topic course followed by Conflict Management, Communication and Gender, and Health Communication. Family communication was indicated as the course most desired by the department heads, followed by courses Political Communication, Health Communication and Research Methods.

Communication Research and Ph.D. Education

Scope and Size

In the past several years, there has been an increase in the number of doctoral programmes in Communication. In all, there are 93 Ph.D. programmes in American universities (104 if joint



programmes are included).⁴¹ Yet the exact number of programs is not uncertain. According to NCA’s web page, there are 74 schools with 132 doctoral programs in Communication.

In general, the Ph.D. programmes in communication are small in size. Most of them are “niche” or “boutique” programmes (as characterised by an interviewee) that concentrate on few areas of communication. For example, in Texas A&M University, the Communication Department is located within the College of Liberal Arts and specializes in four major areas: Rhetoric & Public Affairs, Organisational Communication, Telecommunication & Media Studies, and Health Communication (see <http://comm.tamu.edu/graduate/areasofstudy.html> – healthcomm Appendix I for a more detailed description).

However, there are about a dozen schools that offer a wide variety of concentration areas. For example, the University of Texas at Austin has a separate College of Communication that offers majors in more or less all the areas of communication <http://journalism.utexas.edu/hdiscipline> (i.e., Advertising, Communication Sciences and Disorders, Communication Studies, Public Relations, Radio-Television-Film, and a School of Journalism).

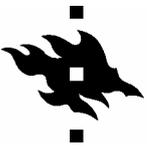
The general magnitude of the programmes can be illustrated by looking at mass communication Ph.D. programmes that had on average 30 Ph.D. students and 22 graduate faculty members (of a total of 33 faculty members) in 2004. Also, there were no major differences between regions (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 *Regional Differences among U.S. Ph.D. Programmes, 2004* (Source: Shaver *et al.*, 2005)

	Midwest	West	Northeast	South
Programme Age	47	27	17	21
Students	33	26	31	29
Total Faculty	37	26	26	41
Grad. Faculty	22	19	17	29
Faculty/Student Ratio	.67	.73	.55	1.0

Course Offerings

Within mass communication, most of the Ph.D. programmes can be characterised as generalised; 85% of the programmes offer more than four potential areas of specialisation. The most widely



offered area of specialisation is Communications Effects/Theory, followed closely by Political Communication, Cultural Studies and Communication Technology/New Media (Ibid.).

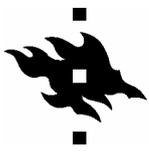
Health/Science/Environmental Communication, Media Studies and Visual communication are the least frequently offered specialisations within Mass communication programmes. Communications Technology/New Media, International Communications and Public Relations were expected to attract increased student interest in the next five years, while interest levels in most other disciplines were expected to remain relatively flat.

Interdisciplinarity

The roots of communication research are highly disciplinary. "In fact, across the century communication has been fractured into myriad conceptual fragments and research practices" (Delia 1987, 22). The early scholars applied theoretical and methodological approaches from sociology, political science, and psychology, and the spectrum has continually broadened. In addition to absorption of various theoretical and methodological stances, interdisciplinarity is manifested in many other ways.

First, a large proportion of the faculty in the US communication departments comes from outside the discipline. For example, several interviewees detained their doctorate degrees from outside the communication discipline. The same scholars also tended to value interdisciplinarity for the future, for example, in hiring practices. In fact, one interviewee, involved in hiring new faculty, noted that he would not hire people in his department who were not "truly interdisciplinary."

Second, both communication departments and scholars are widely involved in interdisciplinary research projects. A lot of this research is conducted in research institutions and centres at universities that are not concerned with the conventional boundaries of discipline. A representative of such an institution noted that, "[w]e do not have to think about the issues of discipline when designing research projects," but "just appropriate ways to conduct a study". One interviewee stressed that true interdisciplinary research goes beyond the disciplines of the social sciences. According to him, communication scholars should collaborate boldly with scholars from the hard sciences, for example, neuroscientists. As a result, new research ideas and questions arise that may provide a fresh view of existing theories and empirical evidence in the field of communication.



Views from Academia

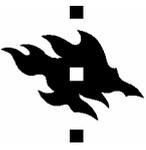
According to several scholars, Ph.D. level communication education in the U.S. is flourishing. Scholars agree that Ph.D. programmes generally give students broad knowledge and solid skills in theory and methodology. One of the interviewees called the Ph.D. education system a “well-oiled machine” that efficiently produces scholars that fit the system and prepares students for successful careers. One indicator is the fact pointed out by several scholars that students are publishing more than before.

Yet there were also opposing views. According to one interviewee, the field of communication is not on the same level as some other social sciences: “The standards of research are still not as high as they are in other areas of academia. A lot of the work that would be considered acceptable in other social sciences would think of it as pretty superficial.”

In addition, some scholars expressed their concern about the narrowness of focus in Ph.D. programmes. That is, the academic system tends to encourage specialisation and training in a particular theoretical perspective or methodology. One interviewee noted, “You could have two students who got a Ph.D. in communication and they never took a course in common. I cannot think of another discipline that is this way.”

Some scholars attributed the problem to the design of the whole system. That is, the system is largely based on and measured by counting the number of journal article publications, which, in many cases, leads to repetition of quantitative studies that do not contribute to the field as whole. One of the interviewees attributed this to a need to demonstrate “academic machismo”, that is, a focus on quantity to raise the status of an otherwise small and young discipline. As one of the interviewees put it, “It is a system like our factories that reward us as economic individuals, not as members of the intellectual community.”

Also, some scholars noted that communication research has traditionally focused too much on an individual level of examination. According to them, communication research and education concentrates extensively on psychological-level analysis and outcomes, instead of on the bigger picture. “Not that the individual level is not important, but it would be useful to put individuals in the context of social and cultural units.”



U.S. communication programmes were noted to be especially strong in interpersonal, organisational, and technology areas of communication as well as in understanding communication as a process. Weaknesses were found in intercultural and international approaches as well as public relations studies.

2.2 Assessment of Communication Programmes

First and foremost, there are no official rankings of American universities. There are, however, several unofficial rankings available on the Internet and some commercial publications (e.g., *US News and World Report*). So far, communication has been generally ignored in those evaluations.

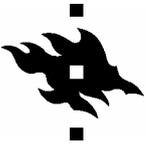
Also, both individual scholars and institutions have measured communication programmes with varying criteria (e.g., Bunz 2005; Hickson, Bodon, & Turner 2004; Neuendorf *et al.* 2007; Musambira 2000). In this report, results presented include a somewhat recent reputational study by NCA and a recent ranking that is based on faculty productivity. As noted above, the studies presented here should not be considered objective measures of programme quality, but instead, subjective views from two particular points of view and methods.

Doctoral Reputational Study

About the Study

The 2004 NCA Doctoral Reputational Study assesses the reputation of U.S. doctoral programmes in communication. The study was received with mixed emotions across the field and was criticised from many angles.⁴²

In general, as one interviewee pointed out, because the study was conducted by the NCA, by the Association that is relatively "humanistically" oriented, "people rooted in a more social science perspective tended not to think that the study had a bearing on who they were and what they were doing." One interviewee noted that reputation is a rough equivalent to the social network of the faculty rather than a fair measure of the quality of the programme. In addition, according to Bunz (2005), departmental reputations "are often formed based on their graduates' or employees' success and visibility in the discipline (Edwards & Barker 1983), and this success and visibility are often



measured by the number of publications in a limited set of journals, as is the case in NCA's evaluation of doctoral programmes' reputations" (706).

In sum, the study should not be considered a valid measure of the quality of the programmes; however, it works well as a starting point from which to examine the programmes more thoroughly. Nevertheless, some scholars admitted that the top programmes of each specialty area represent quite well the top quality in those areas.

The study is used in this report to illustrate some of the quality programmes within each specialty area. Three programmes of each area are listed (See Appendix I for programme descriptions).

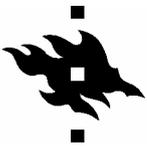
Only the areas that were reportedly offered by at least 15 participating programmes were selected for the study. The rationale for drawing the line at 15 was that "it was believed that areas offered by 15 or more programmes reflected disciplinary rather than more local emphases" (Hollihan 2004, 2). Thus, the nine areas also can be argued to give a general overview of the U.S. communication research scene. Nine specialty areas were included in the study: Communication and Technology, Critical/Cultural Studies of Communication/Media, Health Communication, Intercultural/International Communication, Interpersonal/Small Group Communication, Mass Communication Research, Organizational Communication, Political Communication, and Rhetorical Studies. Several other areas were also mentioned, but fell short of the required 15 programme threshold (such as Advertising, Applied Communication Studies, Communications Policy Studies, Media History, Media Law, and Public Relations).

Communication and Technology

1. University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication
2. Michigan State University, College of Communication Arts and Sciences
3. University of Illinois - Urbana-Champaign, Department of Speech Communication

Critical and Cultural

1. University of North Carolina, Department of Communication Studies
2. University of Colorado, Department of Communication
3. University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication



Health

1. University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication
2. Pennsylvania State University, Department of Communication Arts and Sciences
3. Michigan State University, College of Communication Arts & Sciences

Intercultural – International

1. University of California - Santa Barbara, Department of Communication
2. University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication
3. University of New Mexico, Department of Communication and Journalism

Interpersonal – Small group

1. University of California - Santa Barbara, Department of Communication
2. University of Illinois - Urbana-Champaign, Department of Speech Communication
3. Pennsylvania State University, Department of Communication Arts and Sciences

Mass Communication

1. University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication
2. Stanford University, Department of Communication
3. Michigan State University, College of Communication Arts and Sciences

Organisational

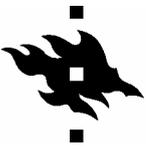
1. Texas A&M University, Department of Communication
2. University of California - Santa Barbara, Department of Communication
3. University of Colorado, Department of Communication

Political

1. University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication
2. Stanford University, Department of Communication
3. University of Texas – Austin, Communication Studies Department

Rhetorical

1. University of Georgia, Department of Speech Communication
2. University of Texas – Austin, Communication Studies Department
3. Pennsylvania State University, Department of Communication, Arts and Sciences



Chronicle of Higher Education Rankings

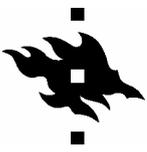
Productivity as a Measure

Productivity has been widely used as a major factor in evaluating universities and particular programmes within a variety of disciplines. Productivity is also a major factor when assessing the performance of junior as well as senior faculty. Yet as noted by a few interviewees, productivity does not necessarily illustrate the true quality of institutional or departmental quality. As Bunz (2005) notes, "Different communication programmes across the nation place different emphases on research and publication. In some departments, book publications, excellent teaching, or engaged service may 'count' more than research articles when a job candidate's record is evaluated and that employee is considered for tenure or promotion" (718–719).

The 2005 Faculty Scholarly Productivity Index by Academic Analytics is a comprehensive ranking that quantitatively measures the overall productivity of faculty by measuring the number of publications, the amount of grant moies awarded, and honors and awards received from 2001 to 2005. The index compiles overall institutional rankings of 166 large research universities, which include 15 or more Ph.D. programmes, as well as 61 smaller research universities, which contain between one and 14 Ph.D. programmes. Here, two top ten listings are presented: Communication and Mass Communication/Media Studies (both fall under the "humanities" category).⁴³

Communication

1. University of Arizona
2. University of California at Santa Barbara
3. University of Pennsylvania
4. Michigan State University
5. Cornell University
6. University of Colorado at Boulder
7. University of Maryland at College Park
8. Columbia University
9. University of Missouri at Columbia
10. University of Michigan at Ann Arbor



Communication/Media Studies

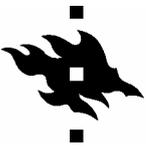
1. Pennsylvania State University at University Park
2. Michigan State University
3. Ohio State University
4. University of Wisconsin at Madison
5. New York University
6. University of Alabama at Tuscaloosa
7. Northwestern University
8. Louisiana State University
9. University of Iowa
10. Temple University

Summary of the rankings

Examination of the above two top ten lists further illustrates the variety and scope of the U.S. academic communication research. In all, 13 programmes were included in the rankings that examined productivity compared to the reputational study. In all, 27 programmes appeared in the lists of the above two rankings (47 slots overall). In addition to the scope and breadth of U.S. communication research, the rankings also illustrate the fragmentation of the research in the field. Only a handful of programmes appeared in the top three in both reputation and productivity lists (i.e. the University of California Santa Barbara, the University of Pennsylvania, Michigan State University, and Penn State University). Yet the lists do not include institutions and programmes that often appeared in the interview discussions of top U.S. communication programmes, such as MIT and Carnegie-Mellon University. Thus, one should be very cautious when examining the rankings.

Criteria of the National Research Council

Communication is in the process of being included in the National Research Council's (NRC) assessment of the quality of research-doctorate programmes and their faculties. Communication discipline is likely to be included in late 2008. NRC does not put programmes in numerical order, but in quartiles. Also, programmes will be evaluated as a whole, that is, sub areas will not be examined separately.



NRC's evaluation will be the most neutral and comprehensive study of communication Ph.D. programmes so far.⁴⁴ The study will place programmes in tiers rather than in numerical order based on a diverse set of quantitative and qualitative data. The data include factors such as faculty, library resources, health care insurance, assistantships, and awards given to graduate students, departmental mission statements, the number of doctoral students and their qualifications, faculty's roles in supervising doctoral students, a reputational assessment of other programmes in the field, the number of journal publications, federal grants, national awards and fellowships, and published books over the past five-year period.

Views from Academia: Elements of Success

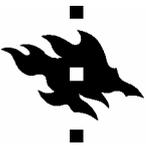
U.S. communication programmes, despite the broad criticism against the two constructs, are often evaluated according to their reputation and productivity. In fact, the same constructs are also used in this report. However, interviewed scholars raised several alternative constructs and perspectives when asked about the evaluation of communication programmes. Below, several of the criteria that emerged in the discussions are presented.

Resources and Funding

Overall, scholars noted that funding and resources have a great impact on the quality of work that is done at research organisations. Multilevel analyses, interdisciplinary efforts, longitudinal projects, and the like require people and money and are thus not a reality for some smaller, less well-funded departments. The well-off programmes also have seed money for research projects which in turn can be used for competitive applications for additional funding. In addition to extensive research efforts, good resources attribute to the quality of the programme by giving scholarships to students and offering competitive salaries.

Size of the Programme

The size of the programmes is more or less directly connected to funding, yet the size is not necessarily a measure of a programme's quality. Due to the vastness of the discipline, practically all programmes are bound to focus on certain specialty areas of communication. One interviewee noted that a quality programme is "not too big but big enough for diversity."



Organisational Structures of a University

As noted earlier in this chapter, communication departments are in general in a somewhat strong position within their universities, yet there is variance. One interviewee noted that to be able to function effectively and well, a communication programme needs “a combination of independence and support” from its university.

Leadership and People

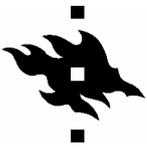
Apart from adequate material resources, above all, a successful programme needs to have good people. First, leadership is essential in that it plays a big role in determining the profile of the programme. Second, the programme needs to have a good mix of people, of theoretical as well as applied work, social science and humanities, and with good scholars. Third, the mix is achieved through careful hiring. One interviewee noted that “[w]e don’t hire directly from graduate school even when we hire younger faculty. We wait until they’ve been around for a couple of years so we can see the direction they pursue.” Fourth, the hiring includes also the “hiring” of students; a careful admissions process resulting in solid graduate students: “[t]he way I look at it, what make a school really, really great is its graduate students. The way you train them and what they do when they leave. And its faculty and the quality of research.” Finally, the people and the leadership result in a working environment that ideally would be characterised by mutual respect among the faculty, despite their different approaches to research.

Clear Focus

Scholars also emphasised the importance of “not doing too much,” that is, having a clear focus as a research institution. One scholar noted that “[w]hen there’s turnover with the faculty we think whether there’s something we should add or replace or just sit back, but we don’t try to have one person who does everything that the field does.”

Interdisciplinarity

The current trends in the communication field suggest that some of the most cutting-edge research is done outside the conventional boundaries of the communication discipline. Thus, some scholars argued that the degree of interdisciplinarity of a research institution should be integrated into the



evaluation criteria. Criteria could include such factors as the number of interdisciplinary projects, funds invested in interdisciplinary projects, and articles published in other disciplines' journals.

Impact on Society

Some of the non-conventional research centres base their research and activity on making an impact on their environment. They argue that academic journals do not serve their purpose; thus, they prefer to publish their work in non-academic venues such as newspapers, television, DVDs, online, road shows, and even art works.

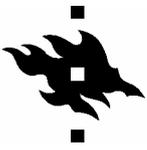
Intellectuality

Some scholars expressed their concern about the current emphasis on evaluating programmes and scholars based on productivity. According to them, counting the number of journal articles does not necessarily tell anything about the quality and intellectuality of the work. They wanted to see a system that would evaluate the articles, put less emphasis on efficiency and individual achievement, and reward people who are curious about others' work, people who collaborate with other scholars, and people who take time to cultivate themselves as members of intellectual community.

2.3 Research Agencies and Companies Conducting Research

Commercially-focused communication research consists of scientific collection of marketing and advertising data, which first started to emerge at the turn of the century, some 100 years ago. Magazines were the first vehicles for large-scale advertising. "As magazines with their own advertising departments and other large agencies grew, intense competition emerged. One result of this competition was the birth of research within advertising agencies and the progressive incorporation of 'scientific' advertising" (Delia 1987, 47). The development was accelerated by the commercialisation of radio and broadcasting following the First World War.

Media has become a huge business in the U.S., a phenomenon is also reflected in media-related research. Such research is conducted in various non-academic research organisations that can be generally divided into four groups: market research companies, media companies' own units, government agencies, and other nonprofit organisations/lobbyist groups.



Compared to academic research, huge differences exist. Media research within industry is interested merely in consumers' interests: how to make more money, who is going to buy, how much, and what part psychological attitudes play. However, similarities exist as well. Adoption/diffusion of new technology, for example, is of interest both to academics and to business researchers.

Market Research

The U.S.-based commercial marketing/advertising/public opinion research industry has grown steadily in recent years. "Specifically, over the 17-year period from 1988 to 2004, the industry's annual revenue growth rate was 5.2%, adjusted for inflation" (Honomichl 2006, H3). As can be seen from the table below (see Table 2.2), the field experienced phenomenal growth in the late 1990s, but has since grown at a more moderate rate (apart from the boom of 2004).

Table 2.2 *Growth in Research Spending within the U.S., 1995 – 2005* (Source: Honomichl 50 Report; Marketing News 2006)

Year	Revenue growth (%)	After adjustment for inflation (%)
1995	9.2	6.4
1996	5.7	2.7
1997	12.6	10.6
1998	11.6	10.0
1999	10.1	7.9
2000	9.0	5.6
2001	4.0	1.2
2002	3.5	1.9
2003	5.6	3.3
2004	9.9	7.2
2005	5.5	2.1

Market research is conducted by specialised companies as well as by large consulting companies. According to the Honomichl Report (Marketing News 2006), there are 193 U.S.-based market research companies. Their combined revenues for 2005 were \$7.5 billion within the U.S. In addition, more than half of the companies' revenues came from outside the U.S. (see Table 2.3 for examples of the top 10 companies' U.S. and non-U.S. revenues). The market research industry is very



fragmented. In 2005, market leader VNU/The Nielsen Company had a 16% share. The combined share of the top five companies was 66%, the remaining 34% being divided among the remaining 188 companies. Similarly, there are only a few big market research companies that deal with media. Most of the companies are small organisations that are concentrated on niche areas of the market.

Table 2.3 *Top 10 U.S. Market Research Companies by Revenue, 2005* (Source: Honomichl 50 Report; Marketing News 2006)

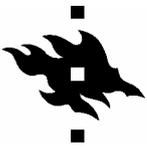
TOP 10 companies	U.S. research revenue (\$, in millions)	Percent non-U.S. revenues
1. VNU NV	1,864.0	47.3 %
2. IMS Health Inc.	634.3	63.9
3. The Kantar Group	439.2	64.5
4. Westat Inc.	420.4	—
5. Information Resources Inc.	409.0	34.6
6. TNS U.S.	379.5	79.1
7. GfK AG USA	316.3	76.8
8. Arbitron Inc.	297.6	4.0
9. Ipsos	226.2	74.6
10. Synovate	216.5	64.0

From Art to Science

Industrial media research has become more sophisticated; companies are hiring people from outside entertainment/media and are adopting research methods from other business areas. The pressures to produce sophisticated data have grown, partly due to media companies' increasing reliance on research data in their decision-making in the competitive entertainment market. As one interviewee noted, whereas in the past market research used to be more of an art, nowadays, it is becoming more and more scientific.

Media Companies' Research

Many media companies have their own research units, mostly dealing with audience data. Media companies rely heavily on research data in their decision-making, yet their own research units are generally very small, often consisting of only three to four people. Thus, media companies do not

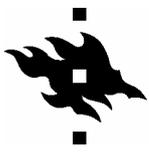


have the resources to do all the research they need and are bound to buy most of their research data from outside. The same trend seems to be continuing, as media companies are not willing to invest more money and resources in internal research units. Also, media companies rely on the experience and judgement of research companies.

Topics of Interest

In addition to the current sales issues, media companies are investing a lot of money and effort to secure their competitiveness in the future markets. Many of the efforts are funnelled to the following topics:

- DVD players are the fastest growing home entertainment technology ever and will also be an important factor in the near future. Lieberman, for example, conducted over 200 studies for home video practice in 2005.
- Stores such as Wal-Mart, Best Buy, Target and Circuit City are still the most important sales venues. For example, only 20% of DVD sales are online. However, E-commerce is of peak interest to media companies, because online buyers are generally under 35 years old, which means that the percentage will grow in the future.
- Piracy is still a big problem for media companies. Research companies have conducted research projects and designed advertising campaigns to prevent piracy.
- Multicultural and international research is flourishing as never before. Media companies have for example started to conduct research in China, whose media and communications have not previously been studied.
- Attitudes and segment studies ask about technology adaptation overtime.
- Media companies are interested in technical innovations such as portability, HD/Blue-ray, E-commerce, downloading, video games, VOD, and PPV. These innovations provide media companies opportunities for synergy within the company.
- Technological innovations are also important in designing release windows that can utilise the item (e.g., movies) more effectively.



Government Agencies

FCC

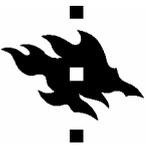
The U.S. government's research efforts have been scattered among the various agencies, the most relevant to communication being the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), which states its role as follows:

"[A]n independent United States government agency, directly responsible to Congress. The FCC was established by the Communications Act of 1934 and is charged with regulating interstate and international communications by radio, television, wire, satellite and cable. The FCC's jurisdiction covers the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and U.S. possessions".⁴⁵

The FCC's research efforts include projects such as the Media Bureau Staff Research Paper Series, which consists of "reports and papers prepared by the professional staff of the Media Bureau, often in collaboration with staff in other organisational units within the Commission or external academic researchers, on topics in media economics, media policy, and media industry developments and performance" and Research Studies on Media Ownership, in which the Commission will be conducting ten economic peer reviewed studies "as part of its review of its media ownership rules"⁴⁶. Yet, as noted in Chapter 1, "Case-in-Point: The Media Reform Movement," research related to policy making has become an important and contested process.

Other

Communication-related research is also conducted in other government agencies, such as the Department of Commerce's National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA). NTIA has been tracking the use, effects, and penetration of information technology on U.S. Americans since 1995. The data is based on the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey (CPS), and the project is currently called "A Nation Online" (it began as "Falling Through the Net"). The latest report, released in 2004 and labelled "A Nation Online: Entering the Broadband Age", examined "the use of computers, the Internet, and other information technology tools by the American people". The data was based on CPS of 57,000 households containing 134,000 persons and "provides broad-based and statistically reliable information on the ways that information technologies in general, and broadband more specifically, are transforming the way we live, work, and learn." Also, the Department of Defense has a massive project on soldiers in Iraq



and Afghanistan. The study examines how the Internet and mobile communication affects soldiers and their lives in war zones.

Nonprofit Research Organisations/Lobbyist Groups

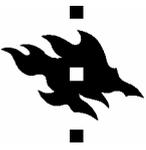
Due to the media policy issues and debates, various lobbyist groups (also called as interest groups, advocacy groups, pressure groups) conduct and commission applied research to address specific legislation matters (e.g., abortion, gun control, the disabled, immigration, media ownership, political parties, religion, think tanks). The results may sometimes be contradictory, as the purpose of the studies is to influence political processes, either encouraging or preventing changes in public policy (see also Chapter 1: "The media Reform Movement").

For example, the National Association of Broadcasters has its research unit that publishes its findings on its website, awards prizes for "significant lifetime contributions to the design, use or understanding of broadcast audience research," and funds research "on economic, business, social, and policy issues important to station managers and other decision-makers in the U.S. commercial broadcast industry."⁴⁷ Such groups play a significant role in the U.S. political system, and research is an important tool in endorsing their cause. As one interviewee pointed out, advocacy research by civic advocacy organisations used to be *ad hoc* and relatively rare, but now many groups dealing with the media are realising the importance of internal research capacity. Several groups have *bona fide* quality researchers working within them, and although resources are limited, this is a change from years past. Similarly, advocacy groups also have some resources available to allocate for commissioned studies. This kind of support had been rare in years past, but now it is more common, primarily because of efforts and funding by such organisations as the Ford Foundation to strengthen the linkage between research and advocacy.

2.4 Research Funding

Towards Privatisation

In general, universities in the U.S., being tuition-based to some extent, even in state schools, are relatively well-resourced compared to Finnish universities. The trend, however, is towards privatisation. "[T]hroughout the country, public universities are absorbing a larger percentage of the



cost of higher education, a trend that is escalating pressure on colleges, departments and individual faculty members to both increase revenue and reduce costs...in most research-intensive universities, faculty members are being 'encouraged' to seek external funding for their scholarly work" (Salmon *et al.* 2006, 4).

External Sources

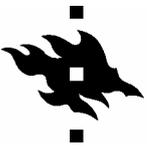
Universities' external funding comes from three sources:

- Government agencies (the biggest being the Department of Education, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the National Institutes of Health, and the National Science Foundation)
- "Philanthropist" foundations (such as the Ford Foundation which is geared towards development, and grass roots activism; the Pew Charitable Trust devoted to informing the public, and advancing policy solutions, supporting civic life; the Knight Foundation; and the Carnegie Foundation)
- The media industry, either through commissioned studies or sponsorship (e.g., MIT Media Lab sponsorship for intellectual property rights on research conducted).

Cry for Money

Compared to other social sciences, communication has traditionally received less funding. Kamhawi and Weaver (2003) noted that "overall funding for mass communication remains low; there has been a steady decline in proportions of funded research from the early 1980s to the late 1990s...While mass communication has been growing in terms of more and new media channels, a larger labour force, and more colleges offering mass communication education, there has been no corresponding increase in the proportion of funded research" (20). Similarly, only one-fourth of studies reported in *Journalism Quarterly* and *Public Opinion Quarterly* from 1954 to 1978 acknowledged funding, while in psychology, sociology, and political science journals the average rate was more than half (Kamhawi & Weaver 2003). The same trend has been observed also in more recent reviews of mass communication literature (Zhu & Swiencicki 1995)

Kamhawi and Weaver attribute the lack of funding in mass communication to the failure of government agencies to recognise mass communication as an academic discipline. According to



various interviewees, the same trends apply to the communication discipline as a whole. In particular, as one interviewee noted, “there is almost no funding for humanities, critical and cultural scholarship.”

A Piece of the Puzzle

In many cases, communication is just a piece of the larger research effort. Some interviewees stressed the importance of collaborating with other disciplines when designing research projects and applying for grants. Such collaboration seems to be in the interests of the sponsors. As a representative of a health funding organisation noted, “We see the application of communication and marketing as being a very multidisciplinary activity that is actually informed by many, many disciplines, including everything in communication from interpersonal to mass to visual, in marketing everything from branding to market research to campaigns, journalism, and PR, and psychology, social psychology, sociology, and economics, all of those things, we think, come together, to allow for effective applied health communication and marketing.”

Rare Exceptions

Of all the areas in communication, health communication seems to be one of the rare areas that are doing well in funding. Practically all interviewees mentioned health communication when asked about areas that are receiving research funding. According to sponsors, communication-related research is still very marginal compared to the overall funds for health research, but the interest in the area has been growing and will continue to grow in the future:

“Our organization believes strongly that we need to increase the science and evidence based health communication, marketing and media work. These fields are growing and expanding, there is much more attention and recognition that this work is very important, but we do not have as strong, organized, and synthesized evidence base for the work we do.”

In addition to health communication, interviewees mentioned such areas as media, new technology, and virtual environments that are receiving above -average funding from different groups.

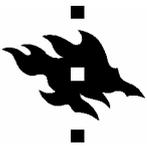


2.5 Research Organisations Illustrated: Six Examples

As the above discussion illustrates, a multitude of research organisations are conducting communication and media-related research in the U.S. To highlight the array of such institutions, the following matrix and descriptions depict some examples of widely differing natures. The goal here is not to categorise the institutional organisation of communication and media research comprehensively; rather, it is to depict a variety of examples of scale, affiliation, and mission. Also, the concrete examples given do not represent value judgements about the mission or outcome of the organisations, but derive from the interviews and contacts utilised in this study.

Table 2.4 *Matrix of Different Communication and Media Research Organisations in the U.S.*

Type	Affiliation	Focus	Mission	Resources	Example
Communication Department or School of Communication	Part of a University	Scholarly research; undergraduate and Ph.D. education (also in some cases applied research); often a broad array of research topics, "interdisciplinary"	Mainly academic, production and dissemination of such research; most often through conventional academic means: conferences, publishing	Funding from the university; sometimes special designated funds; additional funding for research from public and non-commercial (or commercial) sources	Annenberg School for Communication
Research institute within a department	Part of a university, but often with more autonomy re: activities, budget, etc.	Scholarly and/or applied research; specific focus	Concentrate on a specific field of communication and media research, either academically or to serve the industry	Funding from the university; often additional funding for research from public and non-commercial (or commercial) sources	Norman Lear Center
Independent research organisation with specific focus	Independent, but with academic affiliations	Scholarly, academic work connected with specific issues	Scholarly research connected to, and used by, in the work of professionals; "Expert Tank"	Funding from private non-commercial and public sources (may also further distribute funding)	Social Science Research Council
"Fact Tank"	Independent, basic research	Most often applied research on certain topic(s)	Monitor and inform parties concerned with a specific issue	Funding from non-commercial private sources	PEW Project for Excellence in Journalism
Advocacy organisation	Independent civic advocacy	Most often applied research; also	Monitor and inform parties	Non-commercial or	Consumer Federation of



Type	Affiliation	Focus	Mission	Resources	Example
	or an industry-affiliated organisation	may commission research from others	concerned with a specific issue; a particular stand-point	commercial, depending on the affiliation	America
Commercial research organisation	Research business; most often little connection to academic research	May focus on specific media or aspect (e.g., online) or be broader, but most often concentrates on media consumers	Most often applied research for specific industry needs	Revenues	Lieberman Research International

Annenberg School for Communication at the University of Pennsylvania is among the most well known communication departments in the U.S. Founded in 1959, it draws from both social sciences and humanities in theories and methods used.⁴⁸ Although the department states that “any significant research question is fair game (...) if it concerns communication behaviour, its social or institutional dimensions, its modalities (...) or media”, the school lists as its special emphasis the following areas:

- Children and Media
- Culture, Society and Communication
- Global Communication
- Health Communication
- Media Institutions
- New Media and Information Technologies
- Political Communication
- Visual Communication

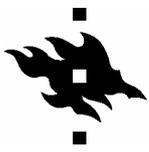
It hosts numerous centres and projects. The faculty includes over 20 professors and assistant professors, several “secondary faculty” members, “researchers” and “visiting scholars” from abroad. The school also includes numerous adjunct professors and faculty associates on its staff. The basic funding for the school originates from the private Annenberg funds (Foundation), originally designated to established the school, by the late diplomat Walter Annenberg.⁴⁹



The Norman Lear Center, based at the University of Southern California, is a multidisciplinary research and public policy centre that was founded in 2000.⁵⁰ Its mission is to explore the “implications of the convergence of entertainment, commerce, and society.” The Lear Center is located at the USC Annenberg School for Communication and “builds bridges between eleven schools whose faculty study aspects of entertainment, media, and culture. Beyond campus, it bridges the gap between the entertainment industry and academia, and between them and the public.” The Lear Center considers itself as somewhat non-conventional academic institution⁵¹, which to make an impact on society, in addition to the traditional academic publication venues utilises various means such as popular print media, film and video, roadshows, and artworks. Currently, the centre is involved in 13 different projects (according to the centre’s Internet page), such as the Grand Avenue Intervention, a public engagement campaign with the *Los Angeles Times*; Hollywood Health & Society, funded by the Centers for Disease Control & Prevention; and Reliable Resources, which administers the Walter Cronkite Award for Excellence in Broadcast Political Coverage.

The Social Science Research Council, based in New York City, is an independent research organisation founded in 1923.⁵² Being non-profit, its mission is to mobilise “researchers, policy-makers, professionals, activists and other experts from the private and public sectors to develop innovative approaches to issues of critical social importance”. The core idea is that social science can be done for the “public good” and contribute to “necessary knowledge” that citizens and policy-makers need to contribute to a democratic society. The organisation’s basic commitments include “fostering innovation”; investing in the future (e.g., supporting young scholars by different means); working internationally (currently, approximately 60% of SSRC’s activities are outside the U.S.) and democratically; combining urgency and patience (a combination of urgent issues and long-term goals); and “keeping standards high” (i.e., engaging in important public questions with high-standards of scholarly work and critical analyses).

The media is only one part of the SSRC’s activities. The broad programme areas are Global Security and Cooperation, Migration, Knowledge Institutions, and The Public Sphere. “The Necessary Knowledge for a Democratic Public Sphere” subprogramme supported by the Ford Foundation concentrates on media regulation and ownership issues. “[We] will seek ways to have the thinking of those developing theoretical and research agendas directly informed by the kinds of concerns driving practical action and arguments before courts and regulatory bodies. The point is not to determine



the results in advance of scientific work, but to make sure there is a constituency for the results of scientific work” (Calhoun N.d., 16). A key role of the SSRC in these specific media-related questions, is to act as an intermediary by fostering research, data access and links among academics, advocates and activists, media practitioners, and decision-makers in regulatory bodies and corporations.

The SSRC has been and is funded by numerous private and public sources, such as the Rockefeller and Ford Foundations, several foreign ministries, and the agencies of the United Nations. It disseminates research not only through exchange programmes, conferences and the like, but by active publication activities (books, online forums and essays, and a quarterly that is also available online).

The Project for Excellence in Journalism (PEJ) was originally an initiative affiliated with the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism, with a double mission to evaluate the press and to help journalists clarify their principles.⁵³ The latter task was the responsibility of a group of professionals, the Committee for Concerned Journalists. Since 2006, the organisation has belonged to an independent, non-profit “Fact Tank” called the PEW Research Center (funded by the PEW Charitable Trust). While the PEW Center hosts a number of projects, some of which bear great relevance to communication and the media (e.g., PEW Research Center for People and the Press; the PEW Internet and American Life project), the PEJ is now more data-driven rather than producing commentary on the press.

The flagship of the PEJ, the State of the News Media report (heavily used in the context section of this study), is one of the main efforts of the project, for which it consults academic scholars. In addition, the PEJ conducts “opportunistic” studies on current issues (e.g., elections, or gender and sourcing), and publishes on its website a Daily Briefing on news issues. The scope of research activities is expanding to include more analyses on industry trends and content studies of the news agenda. Also, the PEJ is increasingly looking into international dimensions for its studies. Currently, the organisation employs over 10 staff members, including researchers and methodologists, plus numerous coders for content analyses.

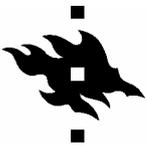


The Consumer Federation of America is an “advocacy, research, education and service organization” working to advance a “pro-consumer policy” before Congress, the White House, federal and state regulatory agencies, state legislatures, and the courts, issues ranging from air travel to savings and wealth.⁵⁴ The Federation consists of some 300 non-profit organisations that together fund its operations. Its research activities centre on investigating consumer issues, behaviours, and attitudes using surveys, polling, focus groups, and literature reviews. It disseminates information through its website, newsletter, publications, resource centres and events. As indicated in connection to the U.S. media reform movement (see Chapter 1), the media-related activities of the CFA have centred around media concentration. A recent example of the work of the CFA on this issue is the book *The Case Against Media Consolidation* (Cooper 2006)⁵⁵, a compilation of research articles on media concentration.

Lieberman Research International is a privately held company with annual revenues in excess of \$90 million.⁵⁶ According to the Honomichl Report (Honomichl 2006), LRI is among the top 20 global market research companies. LRI has over 300 full-time employees of which about 40 work for the entertainment/media section of the company headquarters in Los Angeles (LRI reports operating in 11 other industries as well).

LRI’s media efforts include various subareas, such as broadcast TV, cable/satellite TV, Home video/DVD/video-on-demand/Pay-per-view, new technologies, publishing, consumer products/retail stores, and theme parks. The organisation uses multiple methods in analysis, including latent class analysis, perceptual mapping, price testing and product optimisation, regression analysis, cluster analysis, and demand forecasting and modelling.

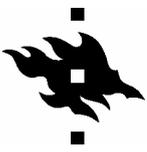
Media has become an increasingly important research area to LRI as well as many other market research companies, mainly due to the recent growth in the entertainment market, especially with the explosion of DVD sales and the internationalisation of the industry. At LRI, the workload of the media research section doubled in the beginning of the 2000’s due to increasing DVD sales. Recently, however, the growth of the media/entertainment department has been attributed to growth in international research. In effect, LRI is a fully staffed International Group with an 80-country affiliate network spanning the globe. At least in Los Angeles, LRI’s media division’s share is the largest of the various research departments in the company (out of a total of \$90 million/year).



Case-in-Point: The Gannet Center 1984-1996 – A Media Think Tank

The so-called think tanks – organisations that develop, package, and market ideas to policy makers -- flourish in the United States. Since the beginning of the 20th century, think tanks have developed from policy research and government contract research institutes to include political advocacy and political candidate-based organisations. It is estimated that currently, there are some 1,600 think tanks operating in the country; hence, think tanks have been said to form their own field of industry (Abelson 2004, 215-217). Despite the range of different kinds of communication and media research organisations in the U.S., at present there is no organisation that could specifically be labelled as a media think tank. From the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s, however, the Gannet Center for Media studies (subsequently named the Freedom Forum Media Studies Center) “operated a unique media ‘think tank’ billed as ‘the nation’s first institute for the advanced study of media and technological change’” (Dennis & Stebenne 2003, 11). As a joint venture of Columbia University and the Gannet Foundation, the centre brought together the academy and industry. The purpose was to address the rapid and fundamental growth of the media and media power that began in the 1980s.

One of the keys to the highly productive outcome of the centre was their Fellowship Programme, which enabled participants to work on their projects full time; also, the fellows included younger, midcareer and senior academics and professionals to ensure diversity. About 94 books were published on fellows’ work at the centre between 1985–1996; over 10 books have appeared since. The themes include media history, questions pertaining to media industries, media influence, media law and ethics, and media technology as well as biographies of prominent practitioners. Among other things, the centre also published a quarterly and a newsletter. Apart from written outcomes and events, the centre fostered such concrete innovations as software for journalists and an ethical audit system. The centre also engaged vigorously in international consultancy and collaboration. (Dennis & Stebenne 2003, 13–28). In 1996, “the same factors that brought about the centre’s creation eventually led to its demise”: the need of such a unique programme was no longer there, as the same issues were studied elsewhere in academia. Also, the cost of the programme was high. Eventually, the Foundation distanced itself from research and academia. (30).



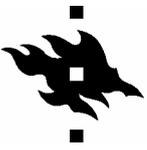
3. Main Approaches in Communication and Media Research

3.1 What Is Communication Research?⁵⁷

As the review in the previous chapter of academic (and other) institutions conducting research indicates, the field is by no means uniform or clearly defined. Its diversity could be understood as the divisions among mass communication, interpersonal and organisational communication, and technological aspects as objects of study. In addition, even the approaches to mass communication seemed to be separated into quite divisive disciplines, crudely defined as quantitative social scientific research, and qualitative humanities / cultural studies-oriented “critical” approaches, although some interviewees of this review used three typologies of social science, humanities, and political economy-oriented research. The diversity in the field is reflected in the departments and research institutes, in that it is not uncommon that the faculty includes members with degrees other than communication studies (see also Chapter 2). Yet another question is the professional education, e.g., in journalism, provided by U.S. universities; and as noted by several interviewees, the best journalism schools do not necessarily engage in vigorous research efforts but concentrate on excelling in professional training.

The U.S. Department of Education Classification of Instructional Programmes (CIP), for example, uses four major categories: (1) Communication, journalism, and related programmes; (2) Speech communication and rhetoric; (3) Radio and television broadcasting; and (4) Mass communication and media studies. Two meta-analyses of “communication research” in the U.S. further illustrate the complexity of defining the field:

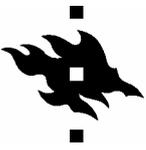
“The boundaries of the field of communications have been unclear from the beginnings. Somewhere between the liberal arts/humanities and the social sciences, communications exists in a contested space where advocates of different methods and positions have attempted to define the field and police intruders and trespassers. Despite several decades of attempts to define and institutionalize the field of communications, there seems to be no general agreement concerning its subject-matter, method, or institutional home. In different universities, communications is sometimes placed in humanities departments, sometimes in the social sciences, and generally in schools of communications. But the



boundaries of the various departments within schools of communications are drawn differently, with the study of mass-mediated communications and culture, sometimes housed in Departments of Communication, Radio/Television/Film, Speech Communication, Theatre Arts, or Journalism departments. Many of these departments combine study of mass-mediated communication and culture with courses in production, thus further bifurcating the field between academic study and professional training, between theory and practice" (Kellner 1995).

"Communication, as a social science, refers to the schools of scientific research of human communication. This perspective follows the logical positivist tradition of inquiry; most modern communication science falls into a tradition of post-positivism. Thus, communication scientists believe that there is an objective and independent reality that can be accessed through the method of scientific enquiry. Research conducted under this tradition is empirically based but can be either quantitative or qualitative. As objectivists, communication scientists favor the following empirical methods: experimental design, quasi-experimental designs, surveys, focus groups, and interviews. The goals of science are to explain, predict, control, and describe. Communication lacks an established disciplinary core of classic theories and research exemplars. The field comprises diverse academic traditions (such as sociology, psychology, linguistics, etc.) each having produced or appropriated its own, more or less coherent intellectual resources that have converged institutionally under the symbolic banner of communication. Communication, from a critical/cultural perspective, focuses on social, political, and cultural practices from the standpoint of communication. Scholars promote critical reflection on the requirements of a more democratic culture by giving attention to subjects such as, but not limited to, class, race, ethnicity, gender, ability, sexuality, polity, public sphere, nation, environment, and globalization. Methodologically, scholars use ethnography, analysis of historical texts, discourse analysis, content analysis, among others" (Craig 2003).

Sub-disciplines or areas of interest within communication scholarship are more explicitly represented by the divisions of the major communication associations.⁵⁸



For instance, the International Communication Association includes 18 divisions:⁵⁹ Information Systems, Interpersonal Communication, Mass Communication, Organisational Communication, Intercultural/Development Communication, Political Communication, Instructional/Developmental Communication, Health Communication, Philosophy of Communication, Communication and Technology, Popular Communication, Public Relations, Feminist Scholarship, Communication Law and Policy, Language and Social Interaction, Visual Studies, Journalism Studies, and four Interest Groups.

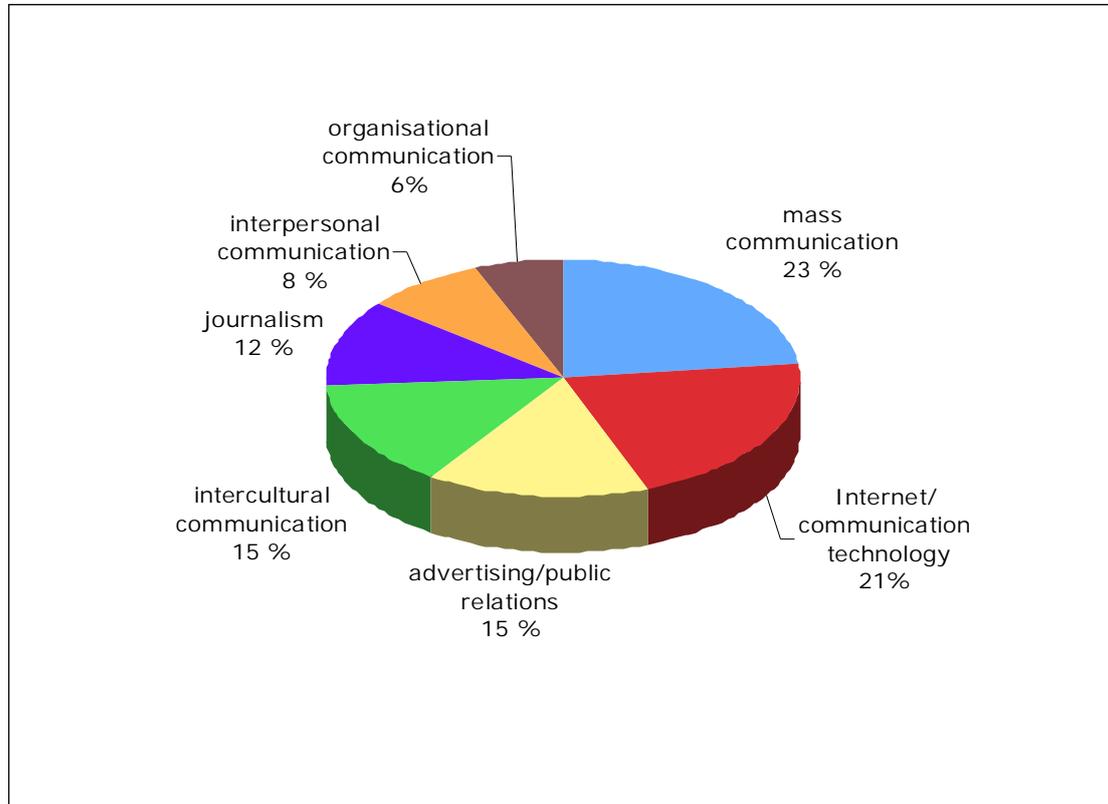
The National Communication Association has even more distinctively defined thematic divisions (44 in total), including (in addition to divisions that basically correspond to those of the ICA), African-American Communication and Culture Division, Asian/Pacific American Communication Studies Division, Communication and Aging Division, Communication and the Future Division, Communication Assessment Division, Elementary and Secondary Education Section, Environmental Communication Division, Family Communication Division, Freedom of Expression Division, Gay/Lesbian/Bisexual/Transgender Communication Studies Division, Latino/Latina Communication Studies Division, Nonverbal Communication Division, Peace and Conflict Communication Division, Spiritual Communication Division, and Theatre Division.⁶⁰

Despite the diversity, as described above, many interviewees noted that given the current transitional state of the media's role in the U.S. (and globally), various fields of communication research are becoming more acknowledged and more highly recognised.

Mass Communication Dominates

Overall, mass communication still dominates the field. A recent analysis of books on communication (Chung et al. 2005) found that most volumes published in the U.S. between 2002 and 2004 were mainly related to the area of mass communication (see Figure 3.1 below) followed by Internet/communication technology, advertising/public relations, intercultural communication, journalism, interpersonal communication, and organisational communication.

Figure 3.1 *Communication Books Published in the U.S. by Area, 2002 to 2004* (Source: Chung et al. 2005)



Further, an analysis of the major mass communication journals over the past 20 years indicated that a vast majority of the articles (42%) dealt with broadcasting, followed by print (29%) (Kamhawi & Weaver 2003).

Case-in-Point: Health Communication Research

As indicated in the NCA report (2002), Health Communication Research (although conducted in Finland and elsewhere in Europe) is an especially well-established and highly regarded discipline within U.S. communication research. The ICA Health Communication Division is “concerned with the role of communication theory, research and practice in health promotion and health care”; along the same lines, the NCA states that its Health Communication Division “works to advance theory, research, teaching, and practical applications of human and mediated communication to health care and health promotion”. Specific health communication graduate programmes can be found in 43 universities in the eastern part of the U.S. and in 18 universities in the western part.⁶¹



Searches in two prominent databases for scholarly articles indicate that currently, health seems to be one of the key topics of study. The research body has grown fast. The keyword "Health" became more common in the late 1970s and early 1980s, with a surge of new research in the 1990s and 2000s. The concepts in connection to "Health" include "Care", "Inform", "TV", "HIV", "Social", and "Knowledge". To illustrate, a review of ten years (321 articles) of the *Journal of Health Communications* (Freimuth *et al.* 2006)⁶² profiles the typical article as follows: most likely written by a U.S. academic; likely to report a quantitative empirical study (survey); and thus not driven by theory, is more likely to address mass communication than interpersonal communication, and it probably focuses on smoking, HIV/AIDS, or cancer. Recent issues of the *Journal* (2006) include articles with topics like "Understanding Consumers' Health Information Preferences Development and Validation of a Brief Screening Instrument" (Maibach *et al.* 2006); "Going Beyond Exposure to Local News Media: An Information-Processing Examination of Public Perceptions of Food Safety" (Fleming *et al.* 2006); "The Portrayal of HIV/AIDS in Two Popular African American Magazines" (Clarke *et al.*, 2006), and "Pictures Worth a Thousand Words: Noncommercial Tobacco Content in the Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual Press" (Smith *et al.*, 2006).

Diversity in Theories

Among the interviewees, a common notion about theory was that scholars should try to find a common ground on which to build their research. Currently, the field is so fragmented and the theoretical bases so distant from each other that the field itself is not benefiting from the growing body of research. One of the interviewees called for a systems-analytical approach to communication that would guide and structure future research and lead to a better understanding of human communication behaviour.

In fact, an analysis of the major mass communication journals over the past 20 years indicated that only 39% of the articles referred to a theory. Information processing theory was the most frequently employed framework (16%), followed by uses and gratifications (12%), media construction of social reality (10%), and the Hegemony theory or Media as maintainer of the status quo (10%) (Kamhawi & Weaver 2003).



Diversity in Methodologies

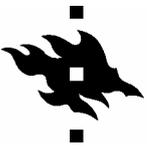
Practically all interviewees stressed that they employ a wide variety of methodologies in conducting their research. Several also emphasised the importance and usefulness of a variety of methodologies when examining a single phenomenon. Yet they noted that multiple methods of research might not be possible in all cases because of the high cost of the approach.

U.S. communication research is dominated by quantitative research, and the U.S. is among the top nations in the quality of quantitative research. According to an interviewee, the U.S. has taken big leaps methodologically, especially within the last decade. The field of communication has closed the methodological gap to related disciplines (e.g., psychology) to a great extent. However, it was noted that communication programmes pay less attention to methodological training than, for example, to psychology programmes. Generally, however, many scholars noted that Ph.D. programmes and scholars in communication are strong in methodology.

Reviews of the last contents of journals from the few decades' reveal that quantitative studies dominated, especially within the mass communication. An analysis of the major mass communication journals over the past 20 years indicated that over 70% of the articles used quantitative methodology, whereas only one fourth could be classified as qualitative (Kamhawi & Weaver 2003).

Table 3.1 *Qualitative and Quantitative Research in the 1980s and 1990s* (Source: Kamhawi and Weaver 2003)

Methodology	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	Total
Qualitative	24.0%	24.70	26.1	28.3	25.6%
Quantitative	74.0	72.4	70.7	69.4	71.9%
Combination of Qualitative and Quantitative	1.4	2.9	3.2	2.2	2.5%
Total %	100%	100	100	100	100%
Total N	221	239	249	180	889



Case-in-Point: State-of-the art methodologies: fMRI

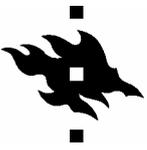
Dr. René Weber (UCSB) is pioneering the application of a method called functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) in communication/media research. Weber uses fMRI “to understand how humans and their brains process media messages.” Essentially, fMRI is used by Weber to test media- and communication-related theories. Currently, in the spring of 2007 Weber is involved in five studies that employed fMRI methodology.

In brief, “fMRI is a technique for determining which parts of the brain are activated by different types of physical sensation or activity, such as sight, sound or the movement of a subject's fingers. This ‘brain mapping’ is achieved by setting up an advanced MRI scanner in a special way so that the increased blood flow to the activated areas of the brain shows up on functional MRI scans.”⁶³

Weber started using fMRI for the first time five years ago and was the first communication scholar to apply the technique to study phenomena in the field of communication and media research. “We see patterns and results that are in line with current media theories, yet, others are in contrast with them.”

For example, in a recent fMRI study (the case adopted from the MSU webpage)⁶⁴, Weber's research group found that playing violent video games led to a brain activity pattern that might be characteristic of aggressive thoughts. In the study, 13 male research participants were observed playing a latest-generation violent video game. Each participant's game play was recorded and content analysed on a frame-by-frame basis. “There is a causal link between playing the first-person shooting game in our experiment and brain-activity patterns that are considered characteristic for aggressive cognitions and affects.” In the study, 11 of the 13 subjects showed large observed effects that can be considered to be caused by the virtual violence.

According to Weber, communication scholars have responded to the new approach with different opinions: “Some welcome the new approach, since it has the potential to bridge the gap between social science and natural science. Then there are scholars who say ‘terrible!’ How can we reduce a human being to an analysis of how the brain responds to stimuli? This is reductionism. I honor this viewpoint and I think a lot about it. But I have to admit that I see the new approach more as a



complement to current empirical research than reduction. And then, probably the vast majority is just not interested in this new approach.”⁶⁵

Main Approaches for This Report

Below, three specific, yet broad, approaches to communication research are discussed: Mass Communication Research/Media Studies, an Organisational approach, and a Technological approach. The selection is not intended to represent the main areas of the U.S. communication scholarship in general, but, instead, to indicate the specialty areas selected for the overall project. In addition to the general overview of communication research in the U.S., the project has a special emphasis on media and, further, on new media and media technologies, which is also weighted in the discussion of the organisational and technological approaches.

3.2 Mass Communication Research / Media Studies

Notwithstanding the basic theoretical and methodological differences as well as the variety in the thematic fields, within communication studies in the U.S., a crude and basic way to understand media-oriented research is to look at different approaches within mass communication / media studies, that is, research that involves contents, production and/or audiences of what could be considered the mass media. This encompasses not only social and political science as well as work inspired by cultural studies, but also within those traditions, studies on journalism and audiences as well (albeit with different starting points and methods). Film studies too are important in the U.S. context, inspiring cultural studies and relating to radio and television studies' scholarship.

Historical Development

The above-described divisions in the U.S. are not ahistorical. The American media research tradition was in its first half-century, dominated since 1940s by “effects orientation”. Key research questions pertained to such issues as the agenda-setting function of the press, television and behaviour (including violence and pro-social as well as cognitive/affective aspects of behaviour, health, family, and social beliefs) (Lowery & deFleur 1995).



The first "iconic" study in this tradition of "North American functionalist theory" was Lazarsfeld's People Choice Study prior to the 1940 elections. Carried out for six months, it included a poll of 3,000 people and a panel of 600 and was conducted in Erie County, Ohio (a place that deviated least from the national average voting patterns of the 20th century). This research effort was a major contributor not only to new concepts, but also to new multivariate methodologies. The iconic scholar of this strand of research, empirical sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld, first worked in the Radio Project of Princeton University in the late 1930s and then led the Columbia University Bureau of Applied Social Research in the 1940s. In the late 1940s, when the linear schematic model of a communications system by Claude Shannon appeared, the first Ph.D. degrees were also awarded in Mass Communication. The Second World War brought about the intellectual flowering of news research, while the 1970s and 1980s focused on indirect media effects. A famous example is that by Max McCombs and Donald Shaw on agenda setting and the 1968 U.S. presidential elections. The scope of that approach has since widened to explore not only how the media's agenda is set, but also how the public agenda influences policy agendas (Lowery & deFleur 1995).

In short, the first half of the 20th century witnessed the cognitive paradigm; in other words, how sensory input shapes perception, beliefs, attitudes, values, thinking, and action. Since the 1970s, the so-called meaning paradigm has emerged, concerned with people's competencies whose meanings are derived from participation in various kinds of communication processes (Lowery & deFleur 1995, 425-456).

At the same time, Theodore Adorno of the Frankfurt School, with his critical views to the culture industries arrived in the U.S., and worked with Lazarsfeld in the Radio Project. But "[t]he transformation from 'American Mass Communication Research' to 'critical media studies'" that "demanded a radical critique of society and of positivist philosophy on functional, neobehavioral social theory" (Nguyet 2001, 190) occurred on a larger scale later on. The transformation came to the U.S. in the form of cultural studies approaches in the 1970s and 1980s via the U.K. (inspired by the work done in the Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies in Birmingham) and via France (inspired by the work of philosophers such as Barthes and Foucault, among others). Some key scholars coming from abroad, but working in the U.S., engaged in themes like polysemy, intertextuality, textual pleasure and resistance; and the Foucauldian ideas of discursive power were embraced (Miller 2001). As one interviewee recounts:



“In the humanities, in the 1950s and 60s there was very little communication research. It was beneath the dignity of historians or literary scholars to study mass media. But in the 1970s academic humanists wanted to study mass media. And that’s when they rediscovered Adorno and Althusser and then you had the re-emergence of the division in sociology, mainly, but then you had a new tradition coming out of psychology, looking at media effects primarily, and then you had this new cultural studies trend and the trick was, could they cohabitate in some way.”

The critical cultural studies of the 1990s have further expanded into difference, identity and performance, and cultural studies borders more and more on political economy (Nguyet 2001, 187-213). Cultural studies research foci and practices, such as, feminist research, questions of race, queer theory, and ethnographic fieldwork, have now established their presence in universities. Cultural policy studies too have emerged (Miller 2001).

In sum, as depicted above, audiences and journalism have been addressed quite differently (e.g., effects vs. pleasure; agenda-setting vs. news as storytelling) in accordance with the two main traditions. The political economy approach seems to stand in-between, not as dominant as the empirical social scientific approach and not as popular an alternative as the humanities-based field of cultural studies, but recently relevant e.g., in analyses of the development of the U.S. media and media policies.

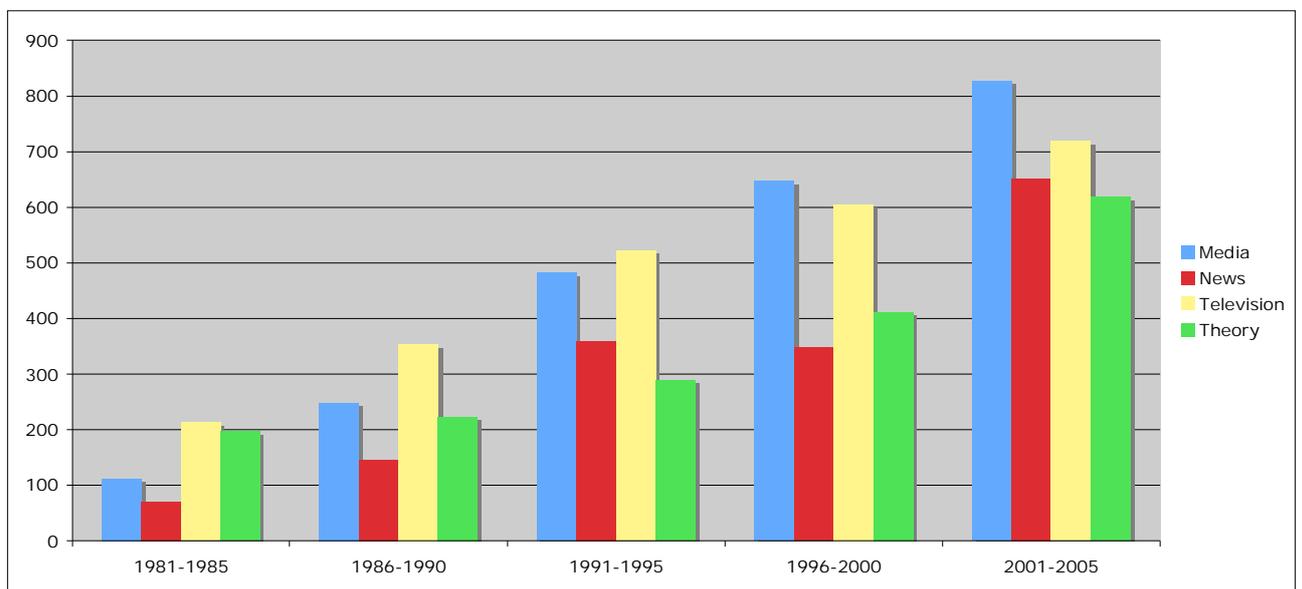
Current Research Topics

A more specific outlook on recent research topics in communication research further illustrates the interests of this divided field and highlights the fact that media issues, in particular, such as electronic broadcasting, news, and new technologies seem to be flourishing in the current U.S. research. Thirty-seven words were chosen for two database analyses.⁶⁶ The first analysis was conducted with a communication concept explorer to illustrate how often two concepts occur together in communication journals, which concept pairs have recently received attention in the literature, when a pair of words was first observed in the literature, and the year of the most recent observation. The second analysis was a frequency analysis of the same 37 words using ComAbstracts database of CIOS. The particular journals featured in the include several non-U.S.

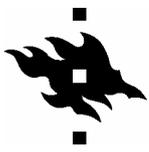
journals.⁶⁷ However, as the vast majority of the journals are U.S.-based (either published by a U.S. organisation or the editorial board consisting of mainly U.S. scholars), they give crude indicators of the kinds of kinds of issues are popular among U.S. communication scholars today.

It is clear, for example, from the top ten keywords of the CIOS – Concept network database that mass communication and media studies topics are prevalent. In the period of 2000-05, by far the most often occurring keyword was, unsurprisingly, the term “media”, followed closely by “television” and “news”; interestingly, “theory” fared high on the list too. “Internet”, “children” and “history” were also high on the agenda, followed by “identity”, “health” and “journalism” as the last on the top list. All of the concepts in the top ten list could easily be included in the realm of mass communication. Figure 3.2 depicts the frequencies of the most common keywords. While the number of articles has also grown exponentially over time, the figure illustrates the continuing prominence of these topics.

Figure 3.2 *Keyword Frequencies in ComAbstracts, 1981 to 2005*



While key words alone do not indicate a theoretical position taken, a closer examination of the key concepts in the articles coupled with the other database search (ComAbstracts, see Appendix II) – at least suggests that most communication research is indeed conducted in the area of mass communication and media studies.

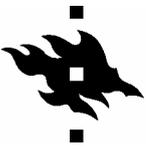


To start with, the most common keyword “media” is most often associated with the term “news”, and the two appeared together as early as in 1968. The key word “media” is equally associated with the term “politics”, as well as “culture”. Globalisation seems to be a topic that has gained momentum only in the 21st century; it was associated with the media the first time only in 1990. Media as a term has been widely discussed for the last two decades; however, a giant leap in its popularity occurred in the 1990s.

“News” as one of the main keywords proves that overall, news is widely studied to date; especially in the late 1980s and 2000s, research on news increased. TV is by far the most studied news subject, but studies in news and the press have lost momentum. “Framing” is a rather young topic associated with news, but it is among the most popular terms. “Television” as a topic has expanded since the early 1970s and has grown steadily and fast. Apart from being associated with news, television (as the historical account noted) has been very much considered from the effects viewpoint, thus accounting for its high frequency as a keyword coupled with “children”. Regarding recent journal articles addressing “theory”, specifically media theorisation is among the most discussed subtopics.

It is to be expected that the rise of studies on the “Internet” has occurred only in the past decade, but the expansion has been remarkable. “Children”, then, is a traditional topic of mass communication that still thrives today, especially in connection with television. In fact, ComAbstracts database shows a leap in communication-related studies on children in the 2000s. “History” (like theory) has traditionally been associated with “rhetorics”, but its frequency as a keyword has grown constantly; it is also widely used in the context of the keyword “media”.

“Identity” in turn is a keyword most often linked with a humanistic or cultural studies approach, and the fact that the term makes it to the top ten list of most used keywords surely suggests something about the development and focus of cultural studies. Its occurrence has increased exponentially in the last 25 years, especially during the last decade. Identity seems to be examined widely nowadays and it is most often coupled with not only the keyword “culture”, but also terms like “social”, “construct”, and “nation”. “Gender” too is of interest to contemporary scholars, as are such keywords as “discourse”, “communal”, “ethnic”, “narrative”, and “negotiated” – all pointing to the CS tradition.



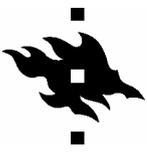
Lastly, "journalism", although still a common topic, is, according to the databases, not currently among the foci of vast and growing interest to the communication research community. Journalism studies exploded in the 1990s, the peak being in the latter part of the decade, but dropped by almost half in the first part of the 2000s. "History" has been the most commonly associated topic with journalism. However, "history" is also associated with such keywords as "public", "ethics", and "newspapers". (For "health communication", see page 75).

In addition to the top ten journal keywords, some other selected keywords suggest broad tendencies in mass communication research and humanistic media studies. For instance, "popular" or "entertainment" (often associated with cultural studies, but not synonymous) as keywords are not very frequent. Studies addressing entertainment have become much more common in the 2000s. "Film" (or "cinema"), addressed in communication studies journals and coupled with "television", "culture", "women", "gender", "media", and "history" seems to be of growing interest, digital being one of the newest concepts associated with it.

Several keywords that could be expected to be linked to more social or political scientific research also indicate certain tendencies. For instance, "democracy" has been a growing topic, especially in the 2000s. Not only is it coupled with "media" and "politics", but also with keywords such as "public", "deliberative" and "rhetoric". Furthermore, "participation" is another term appearing in connection with this key word. Yet another conventionally social scientific key word, "economics", has grown over time, especially during the last decade. "Press" is the most frequently occurring concept, followed by "politics" and "television" (For additional and more detailed accounts of the key words and their frequencies in the databases, see Appendix I).

Views from Academia

As noted in the previous chapter, many communication departments in the U.S. are "interdisciplinary" by nature, and although it has been claimed that the U.S. academy "has become a clearing house for varied intellectual tendencies" and for "centrifugal and centrifugal academic desires" (Stam & Shobat 2005, 495), divisions live long. This sentiment was echoed in all interviews conducted for this study. Attributes like "fragmented", "departmentalised", or even "balkanised" were brought up. One interviewee expressed the situation (in connection with his specific research topic) as follows:

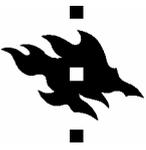


“I see the U.S. scene, that’s how I would begin to divide it up; you have a kind of a traditional (...) group that mostly meets each other in the ICA and has certain journals that they refer to, and then you have the political economy school, which to some degree is almost merged now, with that one, you know, there’s a lot of overlap that you tend to see it expressed still somewhat in the English journals as well as some other ones like, say, Television & New Media. And there’s now then this (...) humanistically-based [approach]. (...) I see kind of an encouraging trend toward dialogue, but still, there are very different bases in terms of theory of methodology that sometimes get in the way of people, and sometimes I think people feel that they need to be more pure about their original intellectual formation and that they [express] caution about reaching across these kinds of paradigm differences.”

The division was natural, reflected in the commentaries on important and useful methodologies. As an example, one respondent of the survey to the ICA and NCA division heads assessed social scientific or quantitative methodologies as crucial because “finding underlying laws in an apparent chaotic communication situation can help explain and predict human communication behaviour”, while interpretive approaches were useful since “the researcher-depicted world may inspire the discovery of laws and rules”. The “critical approach” received more criticism:

“The reason for having this methodology is NOT because it is well developed. Instead, because too often a critical approach is used to promote researchers' personal or national ideology and value systems. The critical scholars should carefully examine how to reduce subjective values and try to stand in the ‘subject’s’ shoes to understand the world. With the development of high technology, chances are so-called ‘civilized’ countries imperialize other countries, which in their eyes, SHOULD be more like them. But, each country has its own history and unique status. No universal rules apply to every country.”

In contrast, another respondent noted that the method-driven approach “misses the point of research”. The issue is rather to begin with a question and select the appropriate method, but the quantitative emphasis tends to be preferred. The interviewee’s comment reflects the reasons for appreciation of more humanistically-oriented approaches:



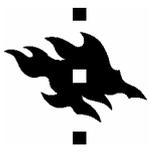
“Critical scholarship seeks to explain WHY things happen rather than simply describe. (...) Critical and rhetorical methodologies are more sophisticated and draw upon human nature, language, and theory, rather than simply counting, etc. (...) We should be methodological generalists rather than the endless crop of empiricists who can do nothing but count things and run statistical tests. Most things are not best studied with surveys, but quantitative methods are the easiest and the most common in many parts of the field.”

Certain broad research foci in relation to mass media were brought up in many interviews. It was noted that in the effects tradition, issues such as violence and the media still bear importance. Regarding political communication, the traditional focus on political campaigns and advertising and the media’s role in political activism was widely studied, but numerous studies were also mentioned that bring new media platforms into the spotlight. In the cultural studies’ tradition, questions of the media regarding gender and race, or broadly, identity politics, remain crucial.

In addition, especially in discussions of cultural studies, the clearly important, and trendy, topic of globalisation was frequently brought up; yet many interviews expressed their dissatisfaction with the approaches taken:

“One of the conceptual problems I have with the term “globalisation”, is it seems so singular and so unitary that I sometimes have problems with it as a...you know, as giving too much weight to globalism and globalisation as a frame, assuming that, that maybe too many things are at a kind of unitary, truly global level.”

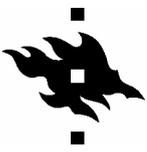
“[T]here was this obsession about globalisation, which is clearly a fact because of technological change, changes in politics, the way the world is governed and speed and information politics (...) suddenly [in cultural studies] it was all about globalisation and there might be something specific [about developments around mass media] that has nothing to do with globalisation. I’m just saying that there are other ways of looking at the phenomenon, too. But globalisation became more theory than evidence.”



In other words, because of the obvious global changes, the issue quickly became much discussed since the 1990s, but the concept has also been used as a catchword, and its many dimensions and alternative approaches have not been very broadly discussed. Several interviewees brought up a specific need for studies in this area, expressed by one scholar as follows: "Globalisation studies need to link globalization as it occurs in people's every day lives with the macro forces of globalisation." Another related point of dissatisfaction was the emphasis on identity in cultural studies', which overshadows the traditional questions of power and dominance in issues like class, race and gender.

Unsurprisingly, another partly related and widely discussed research focus mentioned in the interviews addressing mass communication and media studies was the Internet and new media in general. Technological approaches aside (see below), one issue is the very concept of what constitutes a medium. As one interviewee noted, "[t]he problem is, people treat the Internet as a medium when it is a complicated set of resources". Yet another concern among media scholars addressing the new media is the speed of change: How to document and analyse numerous very rapid transformations? "If we don't pay attention now, we'll have insufficient knowledge in the future". Mobile communication technologies especially and their uses were frequently mentioned as a key point of interest. Some interviewees also noted the centrality of theorising and studying issues related to "digital democracy", "social networking", and "community building".

The new media have profound impact in many fields within mass communication / media studies. For example, one issue as well as an emerging opportunity, was mentioned in regards to how humanities could intersect with science studies in understanding new media, one example being screen studies (film and TV) combined with more technology-oriented analyses of mobile phones. Another widely discussed matter in the interviews was the two-way trend in journalism: While economic factors may narrow down the models of conventional journalism, new media-related, "user-generated" phenomena such as blogging are in turn changing and broadening the definition of what journalism can be. As one interviewee expressed it: "I think that among the most important research topics are, well, this question of the breakdown of older models of journalistic professionalism and those in turn are connected with a certain view of the role of the news media specifically in the social system."



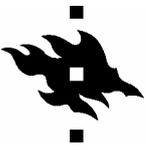
Another research focus showing the need for revision was approaches to media audiences. The need to understanding audiences and their relationships to old and new forms of media was reiterated frequently. As noted before, “audience studies” and a social scientific approach to media effects on audiences are sometimes considered separate fields, given that effects research, broadly understood, has addressed the effects on political agendas and the like. With this in mind, the traditional social scientific mass communication research into effects was not always thought to correspond to the crucial questions that arise from today’s media environment; as one interviewer summarised it, “I think that there is a lot that we know about effects; I think that we need to know who is affected and why.”

Cultural studies’ approaches, too, while very much concerned with audiences, were considered too limited in their approaches by some interviewees; in the emphasis on active audiences and multiple identities, and in the cost of questions of power. However, the research questions and methodologies of the effects traditions were equally re-thought. While the latter tradition critiques the lack of systematic work within cultural studies regarding questions of identity and the like, it does not respond adequately in its own empirical work. Again, new media poses a challenge here, theoretically and methodologically:

“I don’t think we do enough proper audience analysis. [I think] audiences are constructed, and I don’t mean to say that they buy everything that’s offered but the way the rating system works, the way the industry works (...) so that’s what made me a bit cynical about cultural studies. But I’m not really fond of the social science analyses (...) [T]he problem is that their data is kind of skewed. When they do experiments some use students as the subjects (...) And often they do surveys and generalise, and even how they formulate fundamental questions, for example, how they define ‘participation’.”

“The Internet, even though a lot of people are researching the Internet, but it is inadequate because people don’t have the backing and funding to get good samples. College sophomores aren’t good for this.”

One key approach that was given importance and that several scholars mentioned as producing interesting work was historical scholarship. This was linked to understanding of what was often



labeled as the current state of transition of the U.S. media landscape and the ever-growing importance of academic media policy analysis, as well as scholarly involvement in addressing the currently relevant issues. As one key scholar of this approach noted, historical analyses and comparative histories are important since “to know history is to combat the ‘inevitable’ developments”. Consequently, the political economy approach, more broadly understood as the study of media systems that takes into account the historical development and contexts, was mentioned as an area of increasing importance.

3.3 Organisational Communication Approach

Historical Development

The modern study of organisational communication dates from the late 1930s and early 1940s. According to Tompkins (1967), a top-down management focus dominated the early research. In particular, Tompkins divided the major empirical research studies into (1) formal and informal channels of communication and (2) superior-subordinate relations (Tompkins & Wanca-Thibault 2001). Similarly, Jablin (1978) noted that during the first few decades, “scholars tended to explore many similar research topics and issues: characteristics of superior-subordinate communication, emergent communication networks and channels, and components and correlates of communication climates” (Tompkins & Wanca-Thibault 2001, xx). Many of the same issues remained the major foci of organisational communication scholars during the 1980s and 1990s (Ibid.).

Redding and Tompkins (1988) divided the period from 1900 to 1970 into three approaches: (1) the formulative-prescriptive relied primarily on the development of sets of rules or common-sense prescriptions (based on traditional rhetorical theory) for effective business communication; (2) the empirical-prescriptive relied on anecdotal or case study data to offer prescriptions; and (3) the applied scientific represented the traditional forms of scientific measurement used to explore organisational issues “objectively” (Tompkins & Wanca-Thibault 2001, xxiii).

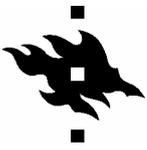


Table 3.2 *Past Priorities in Organisational Communication Research: 1940s-1970s* (Source: Tompkins and Wanca-Thiebault, 2001; originally adapted from Jablin, 1978)

Era	Predominant Research Questions
1940s	What effects do downward directed mass media communications have on employees? Is an informed employee a productive employee?
1950s	How do small-group communication networks affect organisational performance and member attitudes and behaviours? How can emergent communication networks in organisations be measured? What are the relationships between organisational members' attitudes and perceptions of their communication behaviour (primarily upward and downward) and their on-the-job performance? What is the relationship between the attitudes and performance of workers and the feedback they receive? Is a well-informed employee a satisfied employee?
1960s	What do organisational members perceive to be the communication correlates of "good" supervision? To what degree is superior-subordinate semantic-information distance a problem in organisations? What is the relationship between subordinates' job-related attitudes and productivity and the extent to which they perceive they participate in decision-making? In what ways do the actual and perceived communication behaviours of liaison and nonliaison roles within organisational communication networks differ?
1970s	What are the components and correlates of superior-subordinate, work group, and overall organisational communication climates? What are the characteristics of work-group and organisational communication networks (and in particular, the distribution of "key" communication roles)?

Redding and Tompkins (1988) divided the period after 1970 into modernistic, naturalistic, and critical. Wert-Gray et al. (1991) found that five topics accounted for over 65% of the articles published in 15 communication journals from 1979 to 1989: (1) climate and culture, (2) superior-subordinate communication; (3) power, conflict, and politics, (4) information flow; and (5) public organisational communication (Tompkins & Wanca-Thiebault 2001, xxv). Methodologically, "57.8% of the articles were modernistic (or positivistic) in orientation, 26% used a naturalistic approach, and only 2.1% manifested a critical approach" (ibid., xxv).

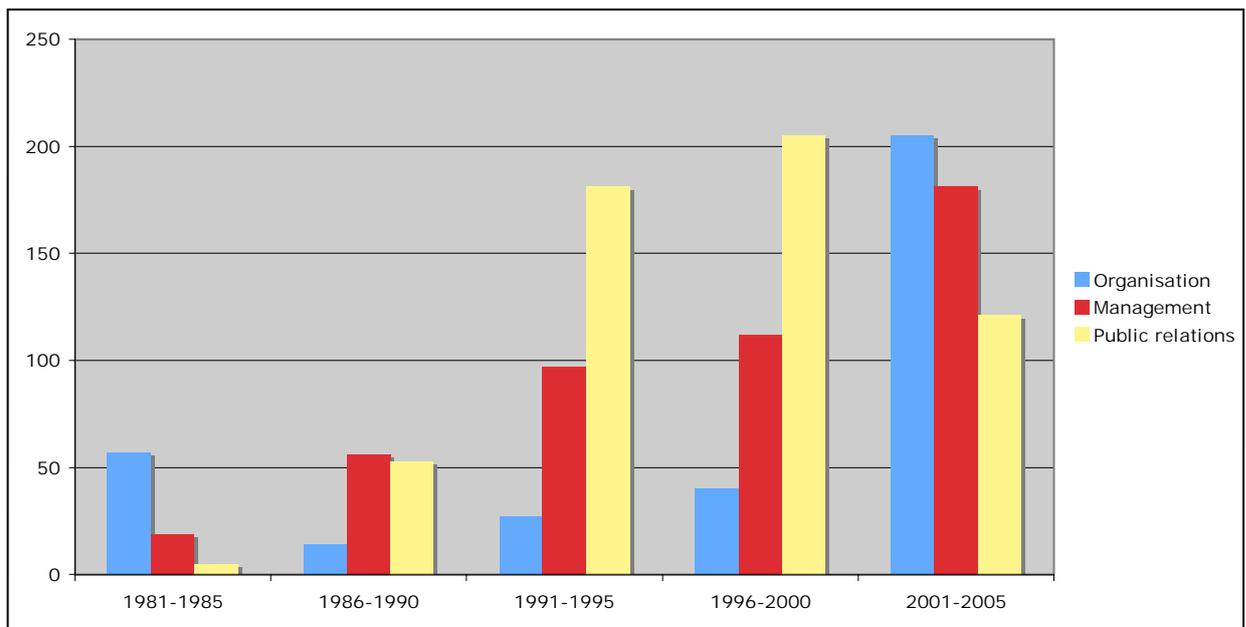
A more recent review of the field (Putnam et al., 1996), which categorized organisational communication research in metaphor clusters, found that "the conduit and the lens metaphors are the primary ways that organizational scholars treat communication" (396). However, a follow-up study (Putnam & Boys 2006) revealed that there has been a significant paradigm shift from a linear communication view to "the way that social interaction, discursive processes and symbolic meanings constitute organizations" (541). In their extensive review of organisational communication research of the last decade, Putnam and Boys (2006) noted that "Interpretive, critical and postmodern studies



have become widely prevalent in organizational communication research within the last decade” (565).

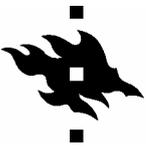
The change and interest in organisational communication can also be seen in the sheer volume of organisational communication literature. Putnam and Boys found “well over 200 articles” published in communication and management journals and books during the past ten years. The same trend can also be seen from our own analysis. The progress has been extraordinary, especially coming into the 2000’s, as the Figure 3.3 depicts. Issues of management and organisation are being examined over wide range and the volume of research is now bigger than ever.

Figure 3.3 *Keyword Frequencies in ComAbstracts, 1981 to 2005*



Case-in-Point: Business Communication

As within many other approaches to communication, organisational communication is no longer examined only within communication departments. For example, business schools offer various courses and concentrations that can be argued to fall within the area of organisational communication. However, there is a deep divide between the traditional human communication approach and business communication. According to one organisational communication scholar, these two branches have their own conferences and publications, and there is generally no



interaction between scholars in the two branches, despite the high similarity and apparent overlap of the two approaches.

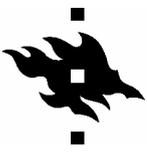
As Zorn (2002) noted in his article on the disciplinary fragmentation in business communication, organisational communication, and public relations, "To overcome this problem, we should work toward structural realignments in our universities to encourage cross-disciplinary work; design majors around competencies, not departments; encourage co-teaching to focus different perspectives on one case or example; encourage interdepartmental 'communication dialogues'; read a broad range of literature and work toward expertise in a topic, not just a discipline; attend other than just the usual conferences; and invite students to use a wide range of resources in solving problems" (44).

Current Research Topics

Tompkins and Wanca-Thiebault (2001) raised issues such as leader-follower communication; communication networks and structures; the creation, sensing, and routing of information; information flow and participation in decision-making; filtering and distortion of messages; communication channels, and the like. These topics have been and are likely to remain significant areas of study within organisational communication. However, the authors noted that assumptions and questions concerning the popular issues have changed over the years and are likely to keep on changing.

According to a concept relationship analysis, within "organisation", "culture" is the most frequently studied phenomenon and currently of interest with organisation, even though the concepts only appeared together in the 1970s. Also, traditional approaches such as "management", "structure", and "theory" are among the most frequently occurring concepts with organisation.

"Technology" seems to be of great interest to current researchers. The result is in line with the interviews where technology was identified as an important topic by a majority of the interviewees, specifically within organisational communication (Jones et al., 2004). According to Jones et al. (2004), the growth and development of technology affects many aspects of organisational life and consequently, research, such as media richness, channel preference, structural changes, knowledge management, networked organisations, and computer- and Internet-mediated communication (Jones



et al., 2004; see the following section for more information on technology approaches). In addition to technology, among the most common topics along with organisation were “perception”, “identity”, and “discourse”.

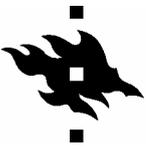
Within management, organisation has, naturally, been the most frequent concept, has maintained its momentum for decades, and seems to be of interest to current scholars also. “Conflict” issues have been studied for a shorter period of time, but are equally frequent in literature. “Uncertainty” seems to be one of the most interesting subjects in current literature as well as “crisis” and “style” issues. On the other hand, “media” and “management” have not gained very much attention. Likewise, “news” coupled with “management” have not been of interest to scholars for almost a decade. The analysis also concurs with the keyword search (see Figure 3.3) in that “public relations” issues seem to have faded a little in recent years.

The relationships of a major organisational research domain, “public relations”, were also analyzed. The analysis enforces the practical focus of the area: “practitioner” and “theory” were the most common concepts, followed by “ethics”, “profession” and “manager”. The most interesting current topics seem to be “power” and “gender”.

“Identity”, “work-life balance”, “globalisation”, and “feminism” were also among the frequently mentioned topics by the interviewees. The same was also apparent from the analysis of concept relationships within organisational and management studies. Other interesting areas of study included “social contract” and “commitment”.

Case-in-Point: Organisational Communication and Media

Media issues are among the most frequently researched topics within the communication discipline, yet within organisational communication, the interest in it seems to have faded. Media issues first appeared with organisation less than three decades ago and are still among the top frequent issues within the area, but have lost their momentum in recent literature. For example, public relations grew heavily in the 1990s, but took a drastic dip in the 2000s. A keyword search of communication literature revealed that compared to 1996–2000, the literature on PR almost halved during 2001–2005. Also, a concept relationship analysis revealed that media and management have not gained particularly much attention.



Views from Academia

The views from the academic interviewees concurred to a high degree with the findings from literature and analyses. One interviewee captured the general trends in the following way.

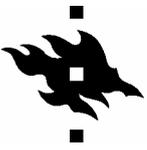
“I think the key question a lot of people are asking now is that in what ways does communication and organizing enable or constrain the process, how are we doing it in ways that enable and how are we doing it in ways that constrain and people take on a variety of approaches to that, although I think the majority of them are in the qualitative arena looking at either rich data or they are more critical, there is a lot of critical orientation, they look at dialectics and paradoxes, so I think it has shifted in the last 20 years.”

Jones et al. (2004) identified six challenges for the organisational communication field, having gone through various communication journals and books from 1993 to 2003. (1) Innovate in theory and methodology; (2) acknowledge the role of ethics; (3) move from micro- to macro-level issues; (4) examine new organisational structures and technologies; (5) understand the communication of organisational change; and (6) explore diversity and intergroup aspects of communication. Further, they specified issues that should underlie research in organisational communication in future: to incorporate multiple levels of analysis into both theory and methodology, to explore the context within which communication takes place, and to take into account the diversity of voices in the study of organisational communication.

Overall, the same issues were raised by many scholars in the interviews. One interviewee highlighted the importance of multilevel analysis in all communication study:⁶⁸

“I think multilevel analysis is very important as an analytical and empirical tool and it is very difficult, but I think communication scholars have to break out of their old boundaries of just studying individuals or communities or cultures and they have to go multilevel.”

Another interviewee noted that macro views such as government-private sector, internal-external relationships, as well as changes in organisational structures will become increasingly prevalent in future.



“Organizations are so different. They are not even buildings anymore, they’re virtual, they’re fluid, they’re all those kinds of things.”

A more general notion about organisational communication is that scholars within the area are finding the study of communication difficult and are actually not studying communication, but other related areas:

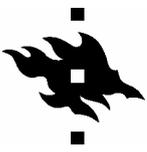
“We don’t study communication enough, a lot of our research is done using surveys, which is memory of communication as that happened; we study attitudes and stuff like that. In relation to all the publications and research that exists, there is very little that actually listens to people talk in naturalistic situations and studies it in some ways, for example discourse analysis, or coding and categorization or that sort of thing, so that is certainly in need (of new research) and goes across the whole discipline. (...) We are actually seeing this type of study happening in other disciplines. Computer science people are doing a lot of study of naturalistic interaction and we are not.”

3.4 Technological Approach

Historical Development

The history of technology in communication research can be traced back more than 500 years to the time, when the first book was printed in the West. The word “television” entered the American lexicon in 1907 and the American public was well and truly introduced to the new medium following the Second World War (Harwood 2007). Commercially focused research, in turn, started gaining momentum after the commercialisation of radio after the First World War (Delia 1987). The Internet was first envisioned in the early 1960s and started gaining popularity in the early 1990s when graphic browsers made the Internet user-friendlier. Communication research has thus always followed the introduction of new technologies.

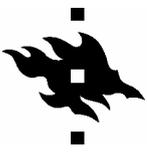
The focus of this report is on more modern approach to communication and technology, which can be pinpointed as arising a few decades ago (Lievrouw et al. 2001). For example, the term “new



media”, a “shorthand for a volatile cultural and technology industry that includes multimedia, entertainment and e-commerce,” has been used by social researchers since the 1960s and 1970s and “by investigators studying the forms, uses and implications of information and communication technologies (ICTs)” (Lievrouw & Livingstone 2002, 1). Similarly, definitions of specialty areas by the major communication associations, for example, focus on the more recent issues of technology. The technological approach to communication study, as defined by the Communication and Technology Division of the ICA, “focuses on information and communication technology in relation to communication issues from a psychological or sociological view. Specifically it addresses human-computer interaction, computer-mediated communication, social interaction and networking, group dynamics, organizational contexts and societal/cultural contexts” (ICA). Similarly, the Human Communication and Technology Division of the NCA conducts research on various communication technologies “including computer-mediated communication systems and other means of technologically-mediated human communication” (NCA).

According to Lievrouw et al. (2001), “[e]arly communication technology studies...tended toward technological determinism (i.e. emphasizing the effects or ‘impacts’ of ICTs on users, organizations, or society)” (272). This perspective assumes that “technologies have a direct causal influence on people, organizations, and society” (Poole & Walther 2001, 25). According to Lievrouw et al. (2001), this tradition is still influential; however, “contemporary researchers consider both impacts and the ways in which individuals, groups, and institutions influence and reshape technologies in use” (272). Poole and Walther call this “the emergent perspective,” which “acknowledges the role of technologies in triggering organisational changes but also explicitly incorporates the organizational imperatives that might moderate the influence of the technology” (26). According to one interviewee, there is a need to have more theoretically-driven approaches that examine how human dynamics are shaped by technology.

According to Lievrouw et al. (2001), “[c]ommunication and technology (CAT) is concerned with the development, uses, and consequences of information and communication technologies (ICTs) across all types of social, cultural, and institutional settings” (271). Broadly defined, “the technological approach to communication study can be construed to include even traditional areas such as television and the newspaper, telecommunications technologies such as the telephone,



wireless services, and videoconferencing, and information/communication technologies such as the Internet, groupware, and virtual reality" (Poole & Walther 2001, 6).

However, some scholars go even further, claiming that "largely due to the Internet, the field of communication and technology can be said to be as large and broad as the field of communication, as communication technology has touched in real ways phenomena in each of the discipline's subfields or professional association divisions" (Walther et al. 2005, 633).

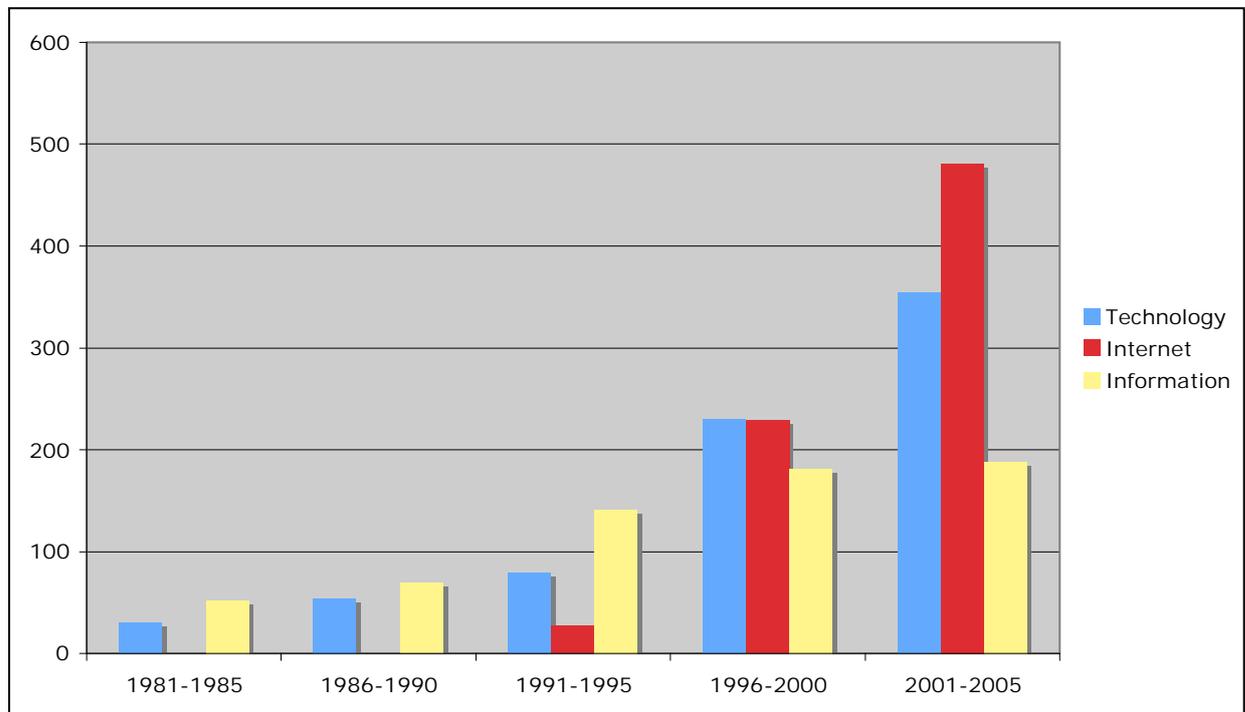
It is evident that technology is probably the greatest single factor currently influencing human communication and its research. In an extensive examination of communication research (Poole & Walther 2001), the most prominent U.S. scholars in communication stated that communication technology is considered to be the focal point of communication research now and in future.⁶⁹

Current Research

A big part of the research on communication and technology has dealt with diffusion of technologies. According to Poole and Walther (2001), "[s]ome 4,000 studies of diffusion" had been completed by 2001, "mainly dealing with the diffusion of technological innovations" (24). The growth of the research of technology has been evident especially in recent years: "Research on the use and implications of information and communication technologies (ICT) has burgeoned over the past decade, in parallel with the development of ICTs themselves" (733). Another evidence of the growth within this area is the availability of journals dedicated to research on new media (e.g., *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *Journal of Electronic Publishing*, *Behavior and Information Technology*, *The Information Society*; see Jones et al., 2004).

An analysis of communication literature revealed that the interest in technology grew steadily until the 1990s, when the curve took a drastic turn upwards (Figure 3.4). Similarly, an explosion of Internet research in the late 1990s has continued to expand exponentially.

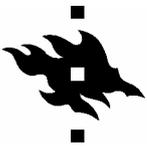
Figure 3.4 *Keyword Frequencies in ComAbstracts, 1981 to 2005*



In a 2002 meta-analysis of communication research about the Internet, the most common research topics were law and policy issues, uses and perceptions of the Internet, and economic issues such as e-commerce, advertising and marketing. Cultural or social issues, historical or philosophical discussions, and effects of the Internet on individuals and organisations were among the least studied topics.

Chung et al. (2005) found that while mass communication dominates communication research in the U.S., current U.S. research shows increasing interest in the Internet. Internet literature is somewhat multifaceted; the emphasis is on the effects of the Internet as well as on cultural, social, and educational issues. According to the study, economic issues such as e-commerce, advertising and marketing, and technical issues were also common topics in communication books.

According to Chung et al. (2005) U.S. communication researchers still focus on research about the Internet itself and its technical applications instead of more mature aspects of the Internet such as identifying the uses and the users of the medium (Phase II), various effects of the medium on people, organisations, and society (Phase III), and possible conceptual and theoretical improvements of the medium and its practical applications (Phase IV). In their study, Chung et al. used Wimmer and Dominick's (2000) four-phase model of communication research development and found that



the first phase dominates Internet research in the U.S. (32.5%). However, they also found that some research is simultaneously being conducted in the second (17.5%), third (27.8%), and fourth (22.2%) phases.

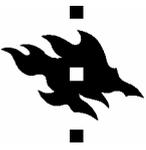
Scholars also identified several promising and important research topics within new media and communication technologies. Among the most frequently mentioned topics were broadband and its generalisation. What makes broadband influential is “not the speed, but the fact that one is always connected.” Another area of interest, overlapping to a certain degree with broadband, is the effects and developments of wireless technologies. As one scholar noted, it is likely that some countries, in, for example, Africa, will totally skip the building of a wire-broadband Internet and, instead, move directly to mobile connections:

“Wireless communication and mobile phones will change the rules of everything; we think there is not a business or activity that will not be affected in some way and it is rewriting the rules of everything.”

Other areas of interest included new business models, web design, web page usability, storytelling on the web, video games, virtual reality, and network analysis. One scholar saw the area of interactive media as particularly influential:

“The use of interactive media and particularly interactive television to deliver advertising, specifically to know information about your audience and that really hasn’t been done yet. Directed advertising happens online all the time. And this will be a quantum leap.”

Current research topics and trends in technology and communication were also examined with a concept relationship tool (CIOS). The analysis complemented and overlapped with the interviews and the literature in its confirmation of the recent popularity of the subject. Overall, the analysis suggested that technology issues have appeared in the communication literature during the last 30 to 40 years. Many of the topics gained momentum only late in the 1990s. Another interesting point is that technology seems to be studied from various perspectives; only “information” stands out as the most frequently occurring concept. Information and technology, in turn, have appeared in the literature the most often by far, even though the two concepts were first associated a full 30 years



ago. "organisation", "media", and "culture" are the next most commonly studied concepts along with technology. Recently, scholars have been most interested in "social" issues, "community", and "politics" as these are associated with technology.

An examination of "Information" as the main concept revealed that currently, information is studied on a wide range. "Process" was the most common concept followed by "technology", and "society". The examination also confirmed the contemporary interest in "health" issues as well.

Analysis of the "Internet", in turn, showed that most research on the subject first appeared in the late 1990s, a few years after the popularisation of the new technology. The most common concept occurring with Internet was "media", followed by "culture" and "online". Recently, scholars have been showing interest in issues such as "socialisation", "community", and "politics".

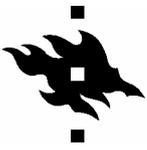
Views from Academia

Several interviewees noted that technological developments, especially the ones concerning digitalisation and the Internet, are by far the most prominent research topics now and will be in future. For example, a digital media scholar noted that the Internet will have a much greater impact on social life and consequently research than, for example, television.

"I have become convinced in the late 1990s that the impact of the Internet was going to be far more significant than television. Television is mostly about leisure and entertainment, Internet literally transforms everything about work, play, communication, and what is probably the most important long term impact, the way we learn."

The Internet will also affect people's lives in that "access to the Internet will empower people in areas such as politics, medicine, and commerce."

However, despite the centrality and manifestation of new technologies, the area has not been studied to the extent that one might think. Kamhawi and Weaver (2002) noted that "[s]o far there has been only a slight decrease in traditional media research and a slight increase in mass communication research about the Internet. Some of the reasons may be the difficulty of conducting Internet



studies, the slow acceptance of the Internet as a mass medium, the failure of the Internet to replace traditional media, and its fairly limited reach” (19).

Some scholars noted that a big portion of the most cutting edge communication technology research is conducted outside communication departments (e.g., neuroscience, physiology, computer science) or in cross-disciplinary institutes. In addition to inadequate funding and resources, many scholars noted that some scholars prefer publishing their research in the journals of other disciplines (and online publications) because of the slow publication process of communication journals:

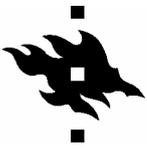
“By the time research is published in journals, it is three years too late for us. Partial research or online publications are helpful.”

3.5 Approaches Illustrated: An Analysis of the ICA and NCA Journals⁷⁰

The quantitative ComAbstract and CIOS database searches as well as the qualitative outlook provided by the interviews point to some key issues in the field of communication research in the U.S. Yet given the vast scope of the field in such a large country as the U.S., a case study was conducted to further extend the outlook on current research foci and approaches and to illustrate the kinds of research efforts recently conducted. A look at 13 key, U.S.-based journals, published by the International Communication Association (ICA) and the National Communication Association (NCA) was conducted.⁷¹ The journals, in accordance with the mission and divisions of the associations, address different fields of communication research, from cultural and media studies to education and speech communication. The journals thus provide one outlook on the kind of work fostered by the associations:

Table 3.3 *ICA and NCA Journals*

International Communication Association Journals	National Communication Association Journals
<i>Communication Theory</i>	<i>Communication and Critical/Cultural Studies</i>
<i>Human Communication Research</i>	<i>Communication Education</i>
<i>Journal of Communication</i>	<i>Communication Monographs</i>
	<i>Communication Teacher</i>
	<i>Critical Studies in Media Communication</i>



International Communication Association Journals	National Communication Association Journals
	<i>Journal of Applied Communication Research</i>
	<i>The Quarterly Journal of Speech</i>
	<i>The Review of Communication</i>
	<i>Text and Performance Quarterly</i>

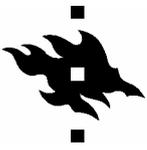
Overview of the Journals 2000-2007

First, to obtain an overview of the history of these 13 journals, the issues (728 abstracts) from 2002-2007 were reviewed quantitatively. The top ten most commonly used words from the 6,170 unique substantive words in the abstracts resonate in part with the analyses of the larger databases reported earlier. Media is by far the leading concept (415 occurrences), followed by “social”, “news” and “public” (all a little over 200 occurrences) and then by “online”, “effects”, and “students”. “Political”, “Internet”, and “influence” complete the list. While the list shows a great similarity to the larger concept searches of ComAbstracts and CIOS databases, effects and influence surely reflect the social science tradition of U.S. communication research and the emphasis, especially in the ICA, on “students” reflecting the contents of the journals *Communication Education* and *Communication Teacher*.

Identifying the most influential words and word pairs is yet another overall way of characterising the subject matter of these journals over those years.⁷² The most commonly used words from the 6,170 unique substantive words from the abstracts, together with their “word pairs” having with the most influence are shown below.⁷³ They further echo the emphasis on media and news as well as on theory and effect.

Table 3.4 ICA & NCA Journals, 2000 to 2007: The Ten Most Influential Words and Word Pairs

Words		Word Pairs	
communication	.054	communication study	.068
media	.050	media effect	.054
study	.047	communication theory	.051
student	.034	media study	.049
effect	.032	media news	.034
theory	.027	media theory	.033
social	.026	study effect	.033



analysis	.025	communication research	.032
model	.025	communication media	.030
relationship	.022	communication student	.027

Topics and Approaches in 2006

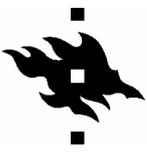
The latest full year of the journals was chosen for the illustrative outlook on kinds of research efforts currently conducted. Accordingly, 135 abstracts from those 13 journals in 2006 were first content-analysed quantitatively for their primary orientation towards mass media or interpersonal communication; their emphasis on content, effects or use; theoretical orientation; methodology; and geographic scope.⁷⁴

The main finding is that the majority, some 70% of the studies, address communication as mass media communication exclusively, and practically all studies include mass communication as an orientation. Combinations of mass media and health communication, and of mass media and interpersonal communication, account for over 10% of the orientation in the articles. Combinations of mass media with political communication, organisational communication, and group communication remain relatively small.

Topics in the ICA and NCA journal articles of 2006 varied widely. The most popular topic was television, studied in some 10% of the articles; news, film, and advertising with almost 7% of articles each; and video games with some 4%. Current media-related research is studying new technologies, often associated with the Internet. Almost 25% of the articles published in 2006 define media as an internet-based technology of some type.

The theoretical orientation of the studies from 2006 is primarily on social science (57%), critical (31%) and cultural studies (12%) (The latter two are seen as separate categories, although in the interviews they were often discussed as one approach). Consequently, the social science dominance, mentioned in many interviews, was not as clearly echoed in the journals.

Yet the effects approach accounts for one third of the focus of the studies, as does an emphasis on content. Media use focus can be found in one fifth of the articles, and "consumption and audience



studies” account for the rest. (Interestingly, effects and use are here classified separately from “audience studies,” a terminology difference from most European discussions; see Chapter 5).

The methodologies used in the 2006 articles varied widely. Reflecting the prominence of effect studies, one third of the studies utilised an experiment, while others used content analysis (21.2%), and still, others, surveys (16.2%). 20% of the articles advanced or developed theory. A small number used ethnography (7.5%) as well.

The geographic scope of the 2006 articles was not defined in over half of the studies. Those that did have a geographic limitation were from international (outside of the U.S.) sources (27%) and specifically from the United States (17%). Those that did not define a geographic scope, however, were often written by U.S.-based scholars, and it can be assumed that the studies were conducted in the U.S. Comparative analyses were rare.

Examples of Topics and Approaches from ICA and NCA Journals 2006: Three Cases

To further concretize the kind of studies that are current and that have been selected for publication in the ICA and NCA journals, the following articles were chosen as three very different cases, in order to represent both qualitative and quantitative and both interpersonal and mass (including new) media research.

Case 1: Price, V., Nir, L. & Cappella, J. N. 2006. Normative and informational influences in online political discussions. *Communication Theory*, 16(1), 47–74.

This article considers two related online processes – how statements and group interaction influence others’ willingness to express or argue – and change – their own opinions. The central assumption here is that public opinions are necessarily shaped by social-psychological processes. The study could be categorised as combining mass media and political communication in its orientation, as the focus is on opinion formation in presidential elections.

The authors argue that “public opinion” cannot really be completely individual and independent, and they distinguish between (1) normative social influence (one desires to conform to the group’s positive expectations, for reasons of self-esteem, social approval, and avoiding sanctions) and (2)



information social influence (recipients see the messages or behaviours as valid information about reality and thus reinforce or change their own views). However, these two kinds of influence are difficult to separate into small groups.

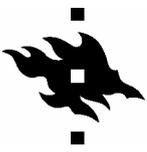
A third form of influence, according to the authors, is referent informational influence, which is motivated by one's group identity and related internalised norms. In this case, increases in group salience alone may influence one's attitudes or behaviour to be in accord with one's perceptions of that group's norms. But a related question for this approach is how the critical aspects of the social identity are inferred by its members – whether imposed by group norms or constructed by group members.

The authors analyse 60 online group discussions – with no final decision, voting, or necessary consensus – which were part of the Electronic Dialogue project, involving monthly, synchronous discussions about various issues and consisting of 1,684 randomly sampled participants. Of the participants, 915 were randomly assigned to eight monthly online group discussions, 139 to a survey-only control group (no online discussions), and the remainder to baseline and end-of-year surveys. This study analysed only the sixth discussion, about tax plans proposed by the two presidential candidates in 2000; 306 people participated, with 80% completing both baseline and post-project surveys.

The surveys measured pre-discussion opinion and post-discussion opinion. The discussion comments were coded in a variety of ways, particularly as to whether they were mere expressions of preference or opinion, and according to the reasons or arguments supporting specific points of view. Each group was assessed for overall exposure to group arguments (pro or con Bush or Gore) – what was termed the “climate of argumentation”, independent of one's own contributions – and to group levels of mere expression. Controls included group size, propensity to participate in discussions (a function of demographic and attitude variables), and group political heterogeneity.

Based on comparing hierarchical regression models, the analysis revealed, among other things, that:

- The more arguments a person made for either position the greater movement to that position in the post-survey.



- The more others in the group argued one position the more a specific individual would offer an argument supporting that direction. However, mere expressions of valence were not influenced by arguments from others.
- Interestingly, mere valence pro-Bush expressions were predicted by an initial pro-Bush position by mere pro-Bush expressions by other. However, only mere pro-Gore expressions by others influenced an individual's mere pro-Gore expressions.

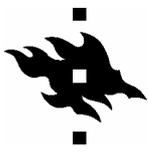
The authors conclude that:

“(a) the expressions of group members—both arguments and merely valenced statements—predict patterns of individual expression and
(b) individual expression contributes significantly to post-discussion opinion change....
There appears to be a process of collective elicitation of arguments and mere opinion statements (perhaps a form of group ‘contagion’), in which individuals’ behaviors mimic the general tenor of the group. Such behaviors—particularly the arguments each individual made—then contributed to individual shifts of opinion. Overall, there appears to be less consistency with the group tenor in the mere expression of opinion—making statements favorable or unfavorable” (p. 62).

Consequently, social influence is not due to majority pressure or silencing, but to eliciting of arguments, a form of informational influence and more specifically, to the influence of the salient group norm, to whose shape the individual also contributes. However, the authors acknowledge a variety of subtle alternative explanations, but then conduct follow-up analyses to reject these.

Case 2: Makagon, D. 2006. Sonic earthquakes. *Communication and Critical/Cultural Studies*, 3(3), 223-239.

The article describes an ethnographic study of youths who put elaborate sound systems in their automobiles. The argument is that participants in car stereo culture share an aesthetic agency, using sound and mobility to construct environments that challenge the spatial and temporal constraints of daily life. Their actions and stories speak to, and exist within, broader contemporary debates in the

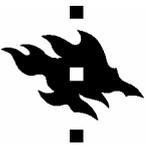


United States about music and noise in public places. As the journal's title indicates, this research represents a cultural studies approach.

The author interviewed – and drove with – six people who had customised their cars with very loud stereos. His goal was to critically examine the diverse perspectives on and the uses of such car stereos, as part of larger debates about public places, music and noise, and as ways to escape the physical and psychological confines of daily life. This article is more a cultural essay than a research study; it could just as easily be an article for the *New Yorker*.

The central concept is “mobile heterotopias,” where “heterotopia” is a place and space of multiple utopian sites, simultaneously representing, contesting, and inverting other real sites. These require some kinds of permission to enter, based on a location, ritual, limited access, and time. In this case, the loud car stereo also intrudes into other places and people's spaces. These cars combine music, customised car interiors, mobility, and interactions with space outside the car. They are also ways to escape from the usual social inequities suffered by their youthful owners as well as a means of presenting oneself to the public, through both the sounds and the appearance of the car – a public performance, while also trying to maintain anonymity. The driver becomes a form of public disk jockey, exhibiting his tastes and programming skills – a sort of mobile public rave club.

Makagon also argues that the depicted sound system culture in cars represents gender, racial, and economic divides, some somewhat stereotyped. While it has been mostly most men who have such systems installed, more women are doing so, or at least getting higher-quality sound systems. “The loud car stereo system is merely another tool to help males rule the public landscape (and soundscape)” (p. 229). There are also diverse approaches within the culture. For example, serious practitioners do not pay full price and often install (and alter) the components themselves, a source of craft and pride in their production and consumption of popular culture. Indeed, creating the car's soundscape is central to the experience; it is part of a more general “do-it-yourself” movement, whereby people reject buying standardised commodities. For example, some people buy the system simply to create the loudest sound in order to be noticed, but this approach does not reflect appreciation of the aspects of music and craft.



Another aspect of this culture is to liven up the otherwise apparently homogenised and sterile public space. Loud car stereos may be seen as a challenge to control, monitor, and limit public life – a reaction to having limited power in the form of cultural disruption, even generating risks, such as physical harm and aggression. This in turn activates attempts to regulate such sounds, as a way of gaining control over public space and sound again; but, again, reflecting power disparities, these same regulations do not usually apply to snowmobiles or large trucks. Regulating this phenomenon may also lead to profiling, where certain kinds of cars or drivers are more likely to be ticketed.

The author acknowledges that these acts may be political tactics, simple enjoyment of music or more straightforward “alpha male” or simply rude behaviour. And such behaviour, while possibly seen as art, rarely serves any larger social or political change motivations, such as fostering democratic dialog, etc. It may also just be a way to buffer and protect oneself from the urban experience; “the loud system and the mobile heterotopia, even if put together solely to fulfil the desires of individual drivers, are intriguing and exciting because they challenge the broader regulation of contemporary life, including official attempts to sanitize public spaces” (p. 237).

Case 3: Jones, K. O., Denham, B. E., & Springston, J. K. 2006. Effects of mass and interpersonal communication on breast cancer screening: Advancing agenda-setting theory in health contexts. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 34(1), 94–113.

Drawing on components of agenda-setting theory and the two-step flow of information from mass media to news audiences, this study examines the effects of mass and interpersonal communication on breast cancer screening practices among college- and middle-aged women (n= 284). It argues that screening behaviours among younger women are influenced more by interpersonal sources of information, while screening among middle-aged women is more influenced by exposure to mass-mediated information. Findings supported anticipated patterns, revealing important and varying roles for both mass and interpersonal communication in the health behaviours of women. Implications for health practitioners and campaign planners, as well as recommendations for future research, are discussed. This article integrates interpersonal and mass media processes, and could be seen as a part of the health communication research field, as it concerns women’s health behaviours (breast cancer screening).

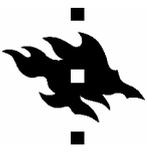


Agenda-setting theory has been used to help understand the role of media – and interpersonal communication – in a wide range of political and health issues. These approaches helped ground the two-step flow of influence, whereby opinion leaders become aware of issues through the media and then diffuse the information and perspectives through interpersonal networks. The less media-reliant may prefer to get their information through more media-reliant opinion leaders. The study included two hypotheses, that (1) older women may be more reliant on mass media, while (2) younger women may be more reliant on interpersonal sources (such as older, more experienced family members and health care providers) for breast cancer screening information.

These two hypotheses were tested using a convenience sample of 284 people (126 young college women and their mothers, $n=158$) providing survey responses. Measured variables included self-examination, mammograms, clinical breast examinations, media exposure about breast cancer, different types of stories about breast cancer (celebrities, statistics, genetics), specific media sources (local and national newspapers, local and national TV, public television), communication within the family about these topics, information obtained from physicians and health practitioners, specific family members who had breast cancer, and demographics. Analyses used binary logistic regression, separately for younger and older women, for each of the three screening practices.

For younger women, predictors of self-examination (13% variance explained) included a family member with breast cancer, reading news magazines about the topic, seeing the topic on public television, and discussing breast cancer with a relative. Only 10% had had a mammogram, so that variable was not analysed. Predictors (50% variance explained) of clinical breast examination included public television, a TV report about genetic risk statistics, a TV story on the role of genetics (both negative, as those may have reduced personal sense of risk, perhaps due to the mass media's overemphasis on the impact of genetics on risk), personal physician, and discussing cancer with a friend of the family.

For older women, there were no significant predictors of self-examination in the binary logistic regression. Predictors of mammogram (26% variance explained) included reading about the role of genetics, reading about cancer in a news magazine, and reading about cancer in a scientific journal. Predictors of clinical examination (21%) included a TV report on screening, a TV report on statistics about genetic risk (also negative), and discussing cancer with a friend of the family.

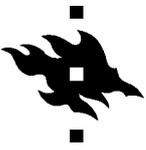


The main results of the study were described by the authors as follows:

“In terms of agenda-setting theory and the two-step flow of information (...) this study found support for their assertion that differing media behaviors across individuals do not necessarily mean that those who do not gain most of their information from media are ‘tuned out’ to important topics of the day. That younger women in the study reported receiving much of their information about breast cancer through interpersonal communication, while middle-aged women in the study tended to rely heavily on mediated sources of information, points to a possible two-step flow from mothers to daughters” (p. 108).

Authors note that the implications for health practitioners include the importance of interpersonal sources, including the health practitioners, and one’s family. Implications for mass media include helping to set the agenda about screening.

The above cases demonstrate several aspects of mainstream U.S. communication and media research which are less prominent in the Finnish context, namely, quantitative approaches, especially surveys; the important role of health communication; and the agenda-setting tradition. At the same time, the “humanistic” analysis including Foucauldian theorisation of sound systems discusses an issue pertaining to a U.S. debate on public places. Other approaches that emerged in the ICA and NCA journals from 2006 included an affects-oriented study examining the existence of “intra-affective ambivalence”, while focusing on an alternative political information source, Michael Moore’s documentary “Fahrenheit 9/11” (Holbert & Hansen 2006). Another, ethnicity-focused study researched the social capital of blacks and whites regarding differing effects of the mass media in the United States (Beaudoin & Thorson 2006). Yet another article depicted an experiment on video game violence and a female game player, focusing on the effects of self and the opposing gender on presence and aggressive thoughts (Eastin 2006). These examples, rather than representing the most typical approaches, illustrate the unique variety and scope of current academic research in the U.S.



Case-in-Point: U.S. Communication Journals

Communication is a growing discipline with nearly 190 journals worldwide and the number is growing continually.⁷⁵ In addition, a major proportion of communication and communication-related research is published in journals outside the field. The exact number of U.S.-based journals is difficult to determine; however, it is somewhat safe to say that the U.S. is the leading nation in the number of communication journals. As noted, the journals published by the two major communication associations, ICA and NCA, are considered the top journals within the field in the U.S. "Though there are several prestigious journals that are either published by regional communication associations (e.g. *Communication Quarterly*, published by the Eastern Communication Association) or by publishing houses unaffiliated with academic associations (e.g. *Communication Research*, published by Sage), the 'top' and often perceived as most desirable publication outlets are the journals published by the International and National Communication associations" (Bunz 2005, 705). Another way of evaluating journals is by comparing their impact factors. "Impact factor" is "a measure of the frequency with which the "average article" in a journal has been cited in a particular year or period."⁷⁶ At the top of the top ten list (by an eight-year mean; see Table 3.5) is *Public Opinion Quarterly* (published on behalf of The American Association for Public Opinion Research), followed by *Communication Research* (Sage), and *Journal of Communication* (ICA). Another ICA journal, *Human Communication Research*, is also included in the top-ten citation impact list. In sum, it can be seen that the top communication journals cover a wide range of topics and disciplines.



Table 3.5 Ranking of the Top 10 Communication Journals by Citation Impact, 1998-2002, 2004 and 2005
 (thanks to Sam Luna at ICA for the 1998-2002 rankings)

Title	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000	1999	1998	Mean
1. <i>Public Opinion Quarterly</i>	1*	9**	2	1	5	5	3	4	3.8
2. <i>Comm Research</i>	5	8	4	9	4	2	4	11	5.9
3. <i>J Comm</i>	7	5	13	4	9	18	6	1	7.9
4. <i>Media Psychology</i>	19	2	3	12	--	--	--	--	9.0
5. <i>Discourse Soc</i>	18	18	21	11	1	1	1	2	9.1
6. <i>Human Comm Res</i>	8	1*	1	5	26	10	7	16	10.4
7. <i>Cyberpsychol Behav</i>	9	16	7	15	--	--	--	--	11.8
8. <i>Public Culture</i>	6	7	19	3	8	28	10	18	12.4
9. <i>Polit Comm</i>	4	22	11	7	12	8	9	27	12.5
10. <i>J Health Comm</i>	17	21	6	2	6	24	15	--	13.0

Note: The citation impact factor is computed by adding up numbers of citations from all journals in the current year to those in articles published in the journal of interest over the two previous years and dividing that total by the number of "scholarly" items published by the journal of interest in the previous two years.

An examination of ICA's three printed journals revealed that those journals (JoC and HCR, in particular) are embedded in a dense and diverse network of citing journals (Rice 2007). However, the citation network is mostly woven around "the core communication journals" (such as CR, JoC, HCR, and CM). The phenomenon was particularly apparent when examining those whom the journals cite. For example, most of *Communication Theory's* citations come from the NCA journal *Communication Monographs*. In sum, despite the fragmentation of the field and the big number of communication journals worldwide, the discipline seems to revolve around a few central journals and associations, at least from the publishing perspective. On the other hand, the citation impact ranking suggests that some of the most influential work is being done and published outside "the core." These results, in turn, characterise some of the problems and challenges that the field of communication is facing now and in future (see Chapter 4).



4. Future Challenges

The field of communication research in the U.S., as elsewhere, it is facing several challenges. Discussion with key communication scholars in the U.S. revealed the major concerns, and successes, of the discipline. Five central challenges emerged: the new and constantly changing media environment, the relevance of high quality scholarly work, the need to move away from U.S.-centred focus, the desire to make the discipline a unified and significant entity in academia, and revitalisation of the relationship between academia and industry. First, the challenges are elaborated upon below; then a set of underlying concerns that pertain, more or less, to all five challenges is presented.

4.1 The Challenges

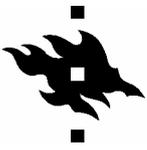
The New and Constantly Changing Media Environment

The media environment is in a constant state of change today, not only in the U.S., but also all over the world. This, in turn, poses a major challenge for academics:

“ I think that a lot of research, theories and empirical findings of the impact of the mass media on individuals and groups is all based on a media environment that has completely changed now. I think we sometimes overrate it but more often than not we don't fully appreciate how different the environment is now, the last 20 years, what has changed radically. The Internet is the obvious example, but cell phones, satellite communication. And I don't think that we have any idea yet whether it's more of the same or whether it's a fundamental change.”

Relevance and Applicability of High Quality Scholarly Work

“[The] area which I think is crucial is that (...) we need to do scholarly work in the best sense of the word but that has direct and immediate relevance to public debate and policy issues about the media and democracy. To do studies, whether we study impact or campaigns or the use of the Internet [in] building social communities, but you do it in a way that has real relevance.”



“Communication addresses social issues; it would be hard to keep it isolated. Even on the critical/cultural side, there is pleasantly a place for dialogue.”

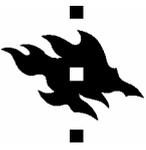
Scholars identified several areas of communication that are highly applicable, either explicitly or implicitly. Some of the more frequently mentioned topics included organisational communication, health communication, communication technology, interpersonal communication, and media effects.

In academia, basic research has been traditionally valued over applied research. Yet according to one scholar, during the past two decades or so, the appreciation of applied research has grown substantially: “I don’t think anyone in the academy would say that they want anything else but balance.” Some scholars estimated that the U.S. is more inclined to engage in applied research than, for example, Europe. The majority of the scholars also considered communication a highly applicable area of study with the purpose of communication research being applicable. Some scholars argued, for example, that public universities have an obligation to do research that contributes to their community. From that perspective, all research is based on such questions as why we need this research and how it helps society. Most scholars who embraced applicability dealt with applied research continually and designed their research projects to apply the findings to society.

However, some noted that most of the current work, even though intended to be applicable, is

“Sadly disconnected from the real world, from the both sides, the industry relies very heavily on its own proprietary research and it turns out that the industry researchers love that because they can do the same study over and over again, one for each company who think they have some secret going on.”

Similarly, many interviewees noted that, in general, current communication research could be more applicable. Especially the interviewees from professional schools thought that in general, communication journals and publications do not offer material that is useful for industry or even for professional school needs.



“There isn’t enough good research. It is so into communication theory it is hard to see the practical application and I think that is sad. There is no good solid research related to the media. They’re talking to themselves. Fine if they want to do that. Mass communication has staked out this war about theory and less about... well, if they look at real world things they do it through theories. It is hard to get down to that... it is difficult to move beyond that. I am not condemning it; it is not useful to me. (...) I think that is really sad because if there is anything that I see lacking right now [it] is solid research on just about anything related to new media; people are trying and doing things but with a lack of empirical data.”

One interviewee also wanted to see communication research being applied outside the communication discipline, which, at the moment, is infrequent. On the contrary, “[t]here is an academic culture that prides itself on irrelevance. They almost celebrate that they have no impact.” That attitude also became apparent in the interviews as some scholars questioned the feasibility of conducting academic research for applicability purposes altogether. For example, one interviewee did not think that applied research is the role of the university in society. The interviewee was especially concerned about academic research and researchers serving commercial interests: “I don’t think industry is really supposed to like what we do and I am always nervous when they do understand us and do like what we do.”

Another interviewee noted that applied research is generally conducted for groups that can afford it, whereas e.g., nonprofit groups and their issues are given less attention:

“When there is application, it is more for people in power than not in power. Debate, for example, works for a politician. In organizational communication, people will hire you as a consultant. It is not lucrative to do research that has application to people who are less powerful. It is rewarding, but not financially.”

Moving Away from a U.S. - Centred Foci

One of the frequently mentioned weaknesses of U.S. communication research is its ethnocentric approach. For example, the perspectives in rhetoric and interpersonal communication were said to be very narrow: “they might as well be labeled American studies.” Likewise, organisations and media



are often viewed from the U.S. perspective, although the issues within both areas are becoming ever more global. The same trend can also be found in literature and organisations. For example English language journals were said to be at least implicitly biased and that the ICA was known for holding to American traditions.

“I understand why it would be, any country that has that much influence, but I think that more global and comparative and international communication research is needed. I say that for three main reasons. One is, as important as the United States is to the world, but if you want to understand communication it’s legitimate and necessary to understand how it works elsewhere. Secondly, I think that the best way to understand what’s going on in the United States is to do comparative work. And comparative can be a lot of things. It can be looking back at history, it could be looking at different media, but one way is to look at what’s going on in the U.S. versus other advanced democracies, or other countries that are still developing. (...) And then the third [reason] is that the stuff that we’re really interested in is becoming more international and global. You can think of any new media and they cross borders, ownership patterns cross borders. It doesn’t make sense to study the U.S. only.”

Towards a Unified Discipline

The U.S. communication research landscape has been characterised as a highly fragmented practically from the birth of the field (the time of which is another topic of debate). The fragmentation *per se* is not a major problem, but it poses challenges that became clearly evident in the interviews. The first challenge concerns the identity of the discipline:

“If communication has a horrible shortcoming, it is the lack of a public identity. The average citizen, who does not know much about academe, does not know what the field of communication is. They know what the field of psychology is, they have at least a vague sense of what the field of sociology is, but to say that one has a degree in communication or that one is studying communication, some people would presume that are you teaching them how to write a newspaper article, ‘so you are training people how to edit video tape and have technical skills, right?’ They would not necessarily think of studying the effect of media on children. I think an average American would be more likely to say: ‘oh, a psychologist would



do that rather than a communication researcher.' But maybe that is part of the problem. We don't even have our terms down."

Another scholar summarised the same issue in the following way:

"Someone who practices psychology is a psychologist. What is someone who practices communication? Am I a communicationist? We don't have that. Communication scholar, researcher..."

A second challenge is that, some of the state-of-the-art communication research is escaping the field. "Much of the groundbreaking work occurring in 'communications' education is happening at the margins of emerging pockets of interdisciplinary activity rather than in the center of traditional communications programmes" (Salmon 2005, 8). Similarly, according to another scholar, most of the exciting work is being done in institutes or centres that do not limit themselves to a certain discipline: "It is only a matter of time before what is outside the silos come to realise that it is not nearly as important, productive and important as what is going inside these places."

Revitalising Academia – Industry Relations

"ICA met in New York City a few years ago and the hotel is near the center of the American media industry. Not one of the executives came to ICA and not one of the scholars seemed to notice or expect that the industry would find anything useful. In the struggle for industry every day one would expect that the research community would be able to provide some help."

Yet as one interviewee noted,

"It's very difficult to do anything that's industry related. You can do it in business schools, and there are probably only four or five schools in the country that have media programmes. You would have a very tough time [studying the industry] in a general communication department; the idea is that then you're selling out, helping the industry."



Also the lack of connection is not a big surprise, considering the background of many academics: “Surprisingly, few people even in business schools have experience in the industry, whatever industry.”

4.2 Underlying Concerns

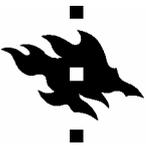
As noted in the beginning of the chapter, all of the following concerns pertain to the five major challenges of U.S. media and communication research. The following themes illustrate, if not concrete tools to address the challenges, at least some of the potential areas of focus that emerged from the interviews and current literature. Specifically, the themes touched issues such as redefining the field of communication, looking beyond the boundaries of the discipline, opening up to new approaches and methodologies, making the training of future researchers broader, and modernising the publications system.

Redefining the Field

As Salmon (2005) noted,

“Whereas the field of communications traditionally has stood in the shadow of older, more established social sciences, it is time for our field to take its rightful place in the sun. Communications programmes need administrators and faculty who ‘think big’ in reinventing their future. It is no longer satisfactory to be constrained by obsolete industry-based administrative structures or demarcated visions if we are to play a significant theoretical role in the digital revolution that is being led in many labs throughout university campuses—but not frequently enough in our own.

“Further, the communications discipline needs to redefine and promote itself relentlessly. Too often individuals in society and faculty in other departments narrowly conceptualize the role of communications education as teaching students to make speeches or to write a news story. We need to position ourselves as sites of significant and socially relevant scholarship on university campuses, enabling other disciplines to better achieve their goals and objectives, and leading the missions of the university in research, teaching and outreach to the community and beyond. We also need to redress what Professor Charles Berger once



described as the 'intellectual trade deficit' that has for so long plagued our field. The new centrality of communications technologies across campus offers new opportunities and incentives for us to display our merits as a source of important theory and research. This will not happen by itself, but only through our aggressive efforts as individual scholars and as members of national and international associations" (9 – 10).

Looking beyond the Discipline

According to a few scholars, the communication discipline, like many other disciplines, is a closed system. That is, the discipline does not easily accept methodologies or perspectives from other disciplines or even other perspectives within the discipline: "In communication discipline we don't venture out into other disciplines. There is a lot of self-citation and we don't cite other disciplines." One of the scholars sees the problem as a problem of the whole academic system: "I think the issue is at the very concept of discipline, the construction of that was fabulous in 19th century Germany, but in the 21st century, the U.S. is completely out of touch with the nature of how reality has changed." However, the general sentiment does not seem promising, as can be seen in the remark of a interviewee:

"I don't think anyone is ready to sacrifice and give up their privilege and right to say that 'I fall under the flag of communication.' So I am not sure we are going to get there soon. We have probably taken some tentative steps in the right direction to get more public recognition, more government recognition, both in Washington, interaction with funding agencies; I think that is a fundamental issue; I think it is an equal problem internationally."

Opening up for New Approaches ...

According to some interviewees, the current system reinforces repetition and non-creative thinking. As one interviewee pointed out, "50 years of looking for the evidence of media effects for example, as in change in individual behaviour still adds up to the same thing that Wilbur Schramm said in the 1950s: 'Some time, some media has some effects on some people, and that is all we can say.'"

Another scholar concurred with the previous notion:



“Our colleagues in the United States are still fixated on sexuality and violence in the media in the old propaganda model and are not properly focusing on the issues that confront the industry and regulation today, which is the protection of the old marketplace of ideas with this absolute explosion of information.”

One scholar called for a dialectical approach between different paradigms:

“Quantitative and qualitative scholars have been separated since the birth of different paradigms. Indeed, these paradigms have their unique benefits and should be constantly bridged.”

As one scholar noted, communication people should also start talking within the discipline, across the camps of professional training and academic research. “The field has to come to grips with training professionals and academics.”

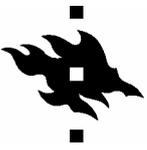
...And Methodologies

Practically all interviewees stressed the importance of employing various methodologies.

“There is no 'most useful' methodology. This misses the point of research. Scholars and professionals should use whatever methodology is most appropriate for addressing the problem that they are examining. We should be methodological generalists rather than the endless crop of empiricists who can do nothing but count things and run statistical tests. Most things are not best studied with surveys, but quantitative methods are the easiest and the most common in many parts of the field.”

Several scholars stressed the importance of historical analyses to understand the future, whether media adaptation or policy processes.

“All of these methods examine and consider concrete phenomena and manifestations of social, cultural, economic and political projections and relationships within conscious theoretical paradigms. They are sophisticated, nuanced and reflexive, and demand high levels of training and sensitivity for data collection. They do not suffer from the overly abstract



empiricism of many methods of statistical inference, whose construct validity is so often questionable, or even specious, whose theoretical assumptions are often unconscious or unexamined, and whose practice is often mechanical and insensitive.”

Broader Training

Many scholars noted that Ph.D. training is currently a little too narrow in its focus.

“There isn’t a convergence of the theoretical traditions; instead students align themselves with faculty to become like them. The current situation creates sub-specialists and reinforces fractures.”

And as another interviewee noted:

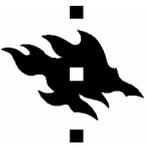
“We don’t value and we don’t nurture the people who think at these much broader levels of analysis to distil everything and bring it together in theoretical perspective and in a way that is too bad, but in a way I understand why. It is grounded in the reward system. To get tenure, you cannot be obscure and overly broad, you have to be focused and each study has to complement the other, you have to say why you are known, what is your significant contribution to knowledge and if it takes you more than six years to accomplish that, thanks but no thanks, you don’t get your tenure, see you later.”

One interviewee, responsible for hiring new faculty, noted that he would not hire people in his department who were not truly interdisciplinary:

“If you are hiring somebody in organizational communication they had better be able to speak to folks at the business school (...) you can’t really look at anything now without looking across three, four, five different areas or methodologies.”

Modernising Publication Processes

Many scholars as well as professionals noted that publication processes within the communication field are too slow for certain types of studies to be useful for the audience. For example, as one



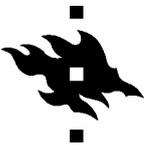
interviewee noted, “new technology research may not be valid nor of value at the time of publication.” However, the issue was not only raised by scholars of new technologies and media, but also scholars in other specialty areas felt the need to speed up the publication processes of communication journals.

Other types of modernising efforts were also mentioned. Some scholars felt that the traditional publication system of academia does not serve the purpose of communication research. They felt that, for example, publishing in popular media would have a greater impact and reach, which in academia “would be career suicide.” However, applied research especially was considered suitable for publication other than academic, peer-reviewed ones. Some of the people from the funding side felt such an approach to be essential:

“We believe strongly (...) that we need to use all different communication channels to reach the public. Certainly, media like Internet is important, toll-free hotline is important, press releases and media relations are important, but we understand that people spend time using all different kinds of media including entertainment television, so we think it is an important channel to getting accurate health information and messages out to the public. So we think projects (...) that can reach people where they are, are very important to us.”

4.3 Some Important Research Areas

Numerous fruitful and important research areas were mentioned during the course of the study, yet a few areas seemed of special interest to communication scholars from various specialties: globalisation, cultural diversity and migration, media policy and regulation-related issues, media criticism, topics on helping young scholars, and a few others. The following set of topics presented below does not, and is not intended to, exhaust the variety of topics of importance to current and future U.S. communication scholars, but it does illustrate some of the frequently mentioned topics across the field, with a moderate emphasis on media and mass communication.



Globalisation Studies

“Globalization studies need to link globalization as it occurs in people’s everyday lives with the macro-forces of globalization because it always turns out that people construct the technology in the end. And the ways in which it is going to take shape is going to be affected by the ways people use technologies in their own lives. We make the mistake of overlooking that.”

Cultural Diversity: Immigration and Migration

“The way media deal with ethnic and racial minorities, the way globalization has changed the media industry and landscapes, the way ethnic, racial and gender minorities use, interpret, engage media - because they are predicted to be largest U.S. audience, but are currently understudied.”

Media Policy and Regulation-Related Issues

“[B]asic assumptions [current modes of operation] have to be rethought,” and policy-related topics should be studied more:

- Basic research, dealing with key concepts, laying foundations for applied research (e.g., relationship between media and democracy, net neutrality, digital divide; First Amendment conceptualisation)
- Applied research (e.g., ownership’s effects)
- Accessibility of data, given the increased privatisation
- (Broadband) access and net neutrality, ownership, representation
- Content often ignored in policy oriented research

Media Criticism

“Critical research about the influence of the media and entertainment industries has become hard to find. The current generation of college students in the U.S. does not question the role of the media or anything else.”



Topics on Helping Young Scholars

“The U.S. Ph.D. programmes have an astonishing dropout rate. Interestingly, not much research has been done on it.”

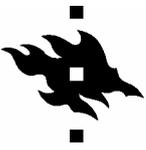
Other Topics

- Audiences
- Virtual world
- Intellectual property
- Media literacy
- Biological influences on communication in close relationships
- Social media

Case-in-Point: “We Media”

One of the most discussed trends in the media environment has been given, among other labels, the terms “user-generated content”, “we media”, or “social media” and is happening in the virtual platform of something called “Web 2.0.” The trend includes more individual-originating activities such as “blogging”, “podcasting” (audio recording) “vodcasting” or vlogging” (video blogging), but also inherently collective activities named “wiki” (“what I know is...” “intellectual sharing”⁷⁷, as in Wikipedia) or “crowdsourcing” (“the act of taking a job traditionally performed by an employee and outsourcing it to an undefined, generally large group of people”).⁷⁸ These kinds of practices vary enormously, from software development to investigative reporting, avant-garde video, and online games (Benkler 2006, 2). Symptomatically, *Time* magazine announced on 13 December 2006 that its “Person of the Year” is “You”⁷⁹:

“[L]ook at 2006 (...) and you’ll see (..) [a story] that isn’t about conflict or great men. It’s a story about community and collaboration on a scale never seen before. It’s about the cosmic compendium of knowledge Wikipedia and the million-channels people’s network YouTube and the online metropolis MySpace. It’s about the many wrestling powers from the few and helping one another for nothing and how that will not only change the world, but change the way the world changes.



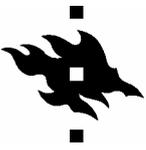
The tool that makes this possible is the World Wide Web. (...) The new Web is (...) a tool for bringing together the small contributions of million of people and making them matter. Silicon Valley consultants call it Web 2.0, as if it were a new version of some old software. But it's really a revolution. (...)”⁸⁰

As noted earlier, social networking, new forms of (political) mediated participation and community building are considered one of the new key research issues. One much-discussed recent theoretical work of the Internet and the networked information economy (Benkler 2006: *The Wealth of Networks. How Social Production Transforms Markets and Freedom*) views the impact of “we media” on the social theory of mass media and on democracy, very much as did *Time* magazine, as follows (271-272):

“The Internet does restructure public discourse in ways that give individuals a greater say in their governance than the mass media made possible. The Internet does provide avenues of discourse around the bottlenecks of older media, whether these are held by authoritarian governments or by media owners. But the mechanisms (...) are more complex than in the past (...)

“We are seeing the emergence to much greater significance of nonmarket, individual, and peer production efforts (...) We are seeing the emergence of filtering, accreditation, and synthesis mechanisms as part of network behavior. These rely on clustering of communities of interest and association and highlighting of certain sites, but offer tremendous redundancy of paths of expression and accreditation. These practices leave no single point of failure for discourse (...) In the networked information environment, everyone is free to observe, report, question, and debate, not only in principle but in actual capability (...) The network allows all citizens to change their relationship to the public sphere. They no longer need be consumers and passive spectators. They can become creators and primary subjects. It is in this sense that the Internet democratizes.”

Some studies have already mapped people’s “we media” activities. For example, as the Center for the Digital Future study documented (see Chapter 1), people are relatively active in creating their own content, and many value the online communities highly. Another survey on “Web 2.0”

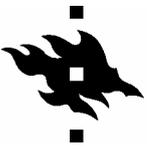


activities, by the PEW Internet and American Life Project⁸⁰, supports those findings but highlights that the more “intense” the activity (social networking, blogging), the fewer people are involved. Some one third of all Internet users go to the Internet to develop and display photos; 20% have rated a product or service online, but only 14% have created or worked on their own website; 11% used online social or professional networking sites (e.g., Friendster, LinkedIn), and 8% have created or worked on their own online journal or blog. On the other hand, research on teens by the same organisation proves that social networking is a part of everyday life for many young Americans. Over one half of teens have created a personal profile online and have used social networking sites like MySpace or Facebook.

Blogging has been the one much discussed activity in connection to mass media, especially journalism. The PEW Internet and American Life Project study on bloggers⁸¹ found that:

- 54% of bloggers say that they have never published their writing or media creations anywhere else; 44% say they have published elsewhere.
- 54% of bloggers are under the age of 30.
- Women and men have statistical parity in the blogosphere, with women representing 46% of bloggers and men 54%.
- 76% of bloggers say a reason they blog is to document their personal experiences and share them with others.
- 64% of bloggers say a reason they blog is to share practical knowledge or skills with others.
- When asked to choose one main subject, 37% of bloggers say that the primary topic of their blog is “my life and experiences.”
- Other topics run distantly behind: 11% of bloggers focus on politics and government; 7% on entertainment; 6% on sports; 5% on general news and current events; 5% on business; 4% on technology; 2% on religion, spirituality, or faith. Additional smaller groups focus on a specific hobby, a health problem or illness, or other topics.

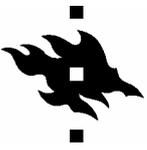
While blogging has been seen by some as an important form of political activity in recent past elections and even as an alternative form of journalism, the above illustrates that the practice also has a personal, diary-like allure for many bloggers. Also, apart the elections, relatively little original reporting originates from blogs; rather bloggers are responding to news in the old media, especially newspapers. For example, *The Economist* reports that in January 2006, links from blogs to other sites



were by far dominated by three sites: those of the *New York Times*, CNN, and the *Washington Post*.⁸² As noted in Chapter 1, the established media have begun to utilise blogs and other forms of “we media” to expand their online presence.

As one interviewee noted: “Academics have begun to take more public stands with their blogs, and there’s more academic involvement with blogging, but very little commentary on how blogging will change journalism.” One exception that has introduced a practical experiment of “we media’s” impact on journalism is Assignment Zero.⁸³ It is a “pro-am” project, in which professional journalists guide and work with “amateurs” who wish to contribute to stories under way. Assignment Zero was launched in March 2007 as an initiative of a site for innovation in journalism, founded by Professor Jay Rosen of New York University – in collaboration with the *Wired* magazine, and “those who choose to participate.” Rosen has designed Assignment Zero as a non-profit journalism pilot project to test “whether large groups of widely scattered people, working together voluntarily on the net, can report on something happening in their world right now, and by dividing the work wisely tell the story more completely.”⁸⁴

The “crowdsourcing” mode of operation (drawing from Rosen’s earlier work on citizen journalism among other things) of Assignment Zero has its own journalistic “routines”; for instance, the assignments are managed by the editors at the virtual Assignment Desk and there are special “reporting pages” and a discussion forum for exchanging more general views about the project. There are also specific ethical rules, including sourcing and anonymity. As of May 2007, the project has over 800 members, and it is currently working on a story of practices of crowdsourcing including cases of fiction and nonfiction books, film, traffic and transit, funding, and visual arts, with examples from around the world.



5. The View From Outside

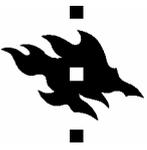
This overview, although descriptive in nature, is nonetheless a view from the outside. What is known about U.S. media and communication studies in Finland surely reflects the Finnish national research orientation. Interestingly, cultural studies influenced research on popular culture as well as research on political economy and more general critical work on the U.S. media, tends to resonate with Finnish scholars.

From the perspective of such a small homogenous Northern European country as Finland, the vast U.S. media environment and its research seem incredibly diverse and rich, yet at the same time surprisingly polarised. A view from outside reveals juxtapositions regarding (1) developments in the media environment, (2) research organisations and education, and (3) the approaches and foci of research.

1. Environment: Concentration and Fragmentation

The U.S. media market is dominated by the so-called Big Eight corporations who own, produce, and distribute the majority of media content. However, at the same time there is a lot of exhilaration around the Internet and its social media qualities, which form an opposite force of production and distribution at the micro-level. This juxtaposition reflects users' media consumption and content generation. Even though television still governs audience consumption, the Internet is gaining ground – not separately but simultaneously. Media technology forerunners are using both media at the same time; media use is best characterised as “multitasking” of different devices. Compared with Finland, a relatively large share (30%) of U.S. media users seem to be more “elite tech users,” particularly meaning that they play a relatively more active role in adapting and using innovative social media technologies including content producing.

Even though Finnish new media users can also be described as heavy users, they may be not so active in content producing. Clearly one thing Finland and the U.S. have in common is that media industry players in both countries are desperately seeking new business models. Even if few “standard examples” of successful Internet business (Google, Amazon.com) can be pointed out, there are no general, widely accepted business models for the Internet and mobile content services.



An example of the continuation of the traditional business models is that the most popular Internet news services are either run or owned by the major media corporations in both countries (e.g., General Electric, NYT, and Gannett; Yahoo! News is an exception).

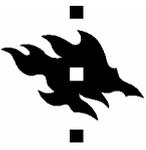
2. Research Organisations and Education: Juxtapositions

Given the size of the U.S., its vast media landscape, and the amount of research conducted in a multitude of universities and other organisations, other divisions are more easily maintained as well. Applied research does not seem to be valued too highly in some sectors of academia; generally, academic researchers do not engage too actively in public debates outside academia, and the academic research community, other researchers (advocacy, industry), and the broader public do not interact extensively.

Similarly, it is interesting that academy-industry collaboration is often narrowed only to applied commissioned research (and thus is not highly regarded), and is not extensively used as a starting point for more elaborate scholarly work. Also, given the fact that media, entertainment, and technology are such big business, it seems surprising that only four to five business schools specialise in media education and research.

Industry-related research organisations plays a big role in communication research in the U.S., including conducting major research in the areas of new technology adaptation, new business models, and various measuring techniques. At the same time, the academic mainstream is concentrated on conventional topics such as media effects and agenda-setting. Thus, in relation to the development of the media landscape in the U.S., it seems that industry research is often more up-to-date from the perspective of technology development than academic research. Industry research is also criticised by academia, an indication of the polarised relationship between these two actors.

While a great variety of research organisations exist, ranging from conventional communication departments to independent fact tanks to commercial research companies, it is interesting from a Finnish perspective that no state-funded organisation is responsible for collecting basic data on media structures, contents, audiences, and so on. One exception is the data collected by the FCC (the Federal Communications Commission) on regulated media that has been used by, for example,



the Center for Public Integrity's Media Tracker for research. This lack of state-funded data collecting seems to be a significant problem, for example, because the U.S. media policy-making process relies to a great extent on commercial sources not accessible to all parties involved (Napoli & Seaton 2007).

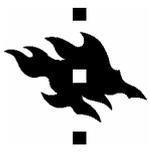
3. Approaches and Foci of Research: Emphasis on Theory and Methodologies

Reflecting the Finnish foci in communication and media research, the extent of quantitative, empirical orientation of the U.S. research field is not necessarily fully acknowledged. Yet as one interviewee notes:

“It is fair to say that more broadly, unlike in Europe in social sciences [where] it's a bit more mixed, I would argue that it leans more towards theory and qualitative [work], but in the United States it leans more towards quantitative. In some way really good quantitative work can be great because it can be theory-driven (...). I think the question is how you can be ecumenical about methodology but insist that the work is theory-driven and is of high quality regardless of the methodology.”

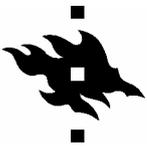
Naturally, this disparity depends on the area of research; approaches such as popular culture, communication philosophy, and feminist studies are more qualitative and critical. In addition, a too restrictive confrontation statement does not reflect the wide variance in approaches across research topics and departments across the U.S. However, from the Finnish communication research point of view, a clear distinction can be made: mainstream communication research in the U.S. when compared to Finnish research, leans more to the heritage of positivism and experimental studies.

Finally, this section concludes with some remarks about differences between the U.S. and the Finnish media and communication research contexts that can be found in terminology defining the field and in the issues addressed. As one interviewee noted, the U.S. communication research scene is generally divided between a traditional, quantitatively-oriented social science group (including political economists) and a humanistically-oriented group that, for various reasons do not have much dialogue with each other.



In Finnish communication and media studies, such drastic divisions between social sciences and humanities, and quantitative and qualitative methodologies, do not exist to the same degree, which, however, is greatly due to the small size of the country. This reflects the fact that within social sciences, the “linguistic turn” and other cultural studies’ approaches have for their part been broadly adopted and also accepted in to social sciences as one means of studying the media. The “humanistic” approach, a term used in many interviews to describe a multitude of critical cultural studies approaches, be they French-inspired discourse analyses or Birmingham School-oriented work, is not a term that would normally be used in the Finnish context. However, the juxtaposition between the two approaches is not totally non-existent; companies, for example, employ social science-oriented quantitative methodologies, whereas universities are more likely to employ the qualitative methodologies. Yet at the same there is concern in academia that quantitative know-how is disappearing from Finnish universities.

Similarly, “effects studies” as opposed to “audience studies” was another difference emerging from the interviews, again depicting quantitative tradition versus qualitative approaches. In the Finnish context, “audience studies” would often encompass both orientations, and also other approaches – effects orientation being quite rare in Finland in the past. From the Finnish perspective it is interesting that the term “journalism studies” did not often come up in the interviews or U.S. literature reviews (although it has its own sub-division in the International Communication Association), while in Finland “journalism studies” is clearly a well-established sub-category in the field. In contrast, “health communication” is much more prominent in the U.S than in Finland. In the American context, health communication is a very important field, a “flagship” research area in many schools, and also well supported by federal funding agencies. Likewise, U.S research organisations sponsor several sub-divisions that deal with communication, the media, and education. Also, the importance of ethnicity and its relation to the media in the U.S. is reflected in divisions and interest groups in both the National Communication Association and International Communication Association. Last, the importance of film studies to other humanistically-oriented media studies seems somewhat more prominent in the U.S. than in Finland.

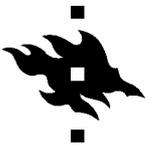


Endnotes

1. The US Census Bureau reports that in 2005, the citizens classified as "White" formed the great majority, but almost 20% of that group (and 16% of the whole population) were of "Hispano or Latino origin". Citizens with "Black or African American origin" amounted to 13% of the population and those of Asian origin, 4% of the population.
<<http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/files/pop.html>> Retrieved April 5, 2007.
2. Some 19% of the population lives in the Northeast, 22% in the Midwest, 36% in the South and 23% in the West of the US. <<http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/files/pop.html>> Retrieved April 5, 2007.
3. <<http://www.50states.com/us.htm>>
<<http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/files/pop.html>> Retrieved April 5, 2007.
4. <<http://www.economist.com/countries/USA/profile.cfm?folder=Profile-FactSheet>>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.
5. Note: Statistical data on the U.S. media industries and landscape in general is dispersed (i.e., not systematically documented by a single organisation such as a federal statistical institution); much of it is gathered by commercial companies, and thus public access to such information is limited (e.g., see the account in Napoli & Seaton 2006). Also some advocacy groups monitor and gather media statistics. Figures represented here are thus gathered from various sources and may slightly differ by source.
6. Veronis Suhler Stevenson, <http://www.vss.com/mediasegments/segments_home.html>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.
7. Plunkett's Entertainment & Media Industry Almanac 2007.
<<http://www.plunkettresearch.com/Industries/EntertainmentMedia/Entertainment%20MediaStatistics/tabid/227/Default.aspx>>
Retrieved April 10, 2007.
8. <<http://usinfo.state.gov/usa/infousa/facts/factover/ch12.htm>>
Retrieved April 17, 2007.
9. See also Plunkett's Entertainment & Media Industry Almanac 2007.
10. <<http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/html>>
Retrieved April 5, 2007.
11. Center for the Digital Future (December 7, 2005). Fifth study of the Internet by the Digital Future Project finds major new trends in online use for political campaigns.
<http://www.digitalcenter.org/pages/current_report.asp?intGlobalID=19>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.
12. See also Plunkett's Entertainment & Media Industry Almanac 2007.
13. This is a very crude summary of the issues, based on the research interviews and two small questionnaires, as well as the literature review conducted within the U.S. project. For a list of the interviewees and short biographies of each, see Appendix II.
14. <<http://usinfo.state.gov/usa/infousa/media>>, Retrieved April 8, 2007.



15. Plunkett's Entertainment & Media Industry Almanac 2007
<<http://www.plunkettresearch.com/Industries/EntertainmentMedia/Entertainment%20MediaStatistics/tabid/227/Default.aspx>>
Retrieved April 10, 2007.
16. See, e.g., the specific well-known analysis by McChesney (1993) on the communication policies in 1928-35; or the famous study on ownership by Bagdikian (*The Media Monopoly*, 1997); or the more recent works like Baker's (2006/7) *Media Concentration and Democracy*, and Lloyd's (2006) provocative *Prologue to a Farce*.
17. Benkler (ibid.), drawing from numerous earlier studies, provides a detailed account of radio and television as well, discussing the technological issues and policy decisions related to radio and early television broadcasting.
18. See, e.g., Chomsky (2002), Downie & Kaiser (2001), Nichols & McChesney 2002.
19. Scholars who have addressed media violence include notable academics such as George Gerbner, Joan Cantor, and Ellen Wartella. A list of selected recent American studies can be found e.g., on the advocacy site <<http://www.ncccev.org/violence/media.html#literature>> Retrieved April 19, 2007.
20. See Appendix I for the Advertising Age list of the top 25 media companies as well as accounts of top companies by media sector (newspapers, magazines, cable network companies, cable system/digital cable broadcasting companies, and TV broadcast and radio companies).
21. The ranking varies somewhat by source.
22. See, e.g., *The Economist*, "From GooTube to GooClick", April 21, 2007, 65-66.
23. <<http://www.freepress.net>>; <<http://www.cjr.org/tools/owners/>>
Retrieved April 10, 2007.
24. According to the freepress.net, "this fall the WB will cease operations, and will combine with CBS Corporation's UPN to become The CW. Each corporation will own 50% of the new network" Retrieved April 10, 2007.
25. The freepress.net reports that "Google has recently paid \$1 billion for a 5% stake in AOL" and that AOL also bought iTunes competitor MusicNow.
Retrieved April 10, 2007.
26. As stated on the LA Times media center on April 30, 2007. <<http://www.latimes.com/mediacenter>>
Retrieved May 10, 2007.
27. <<http://www.latimes.com>> and <<http://www.tribune.com>> Retrieved May 15, 2007.
28. <<http://www.stateofthenewsmedia.org/2007>> Retrieved April 11, 2007.
29.
<<http://www.nielsenmedia.com/nc/portal/site/Public/menuitem.9716da1f5789380e211ba0a347a062a0/?vgnnextoid=406ae2b5079bb010VgnVCM100000ac0a260aRCRD>>
30. This issue emerged in numerous interviews conducted for this study; see also the case of the "Media Reform Movement", and numerous recent publications such as Cooper (2007); Hackett & Carroll (2006);



- Klinenberg (2007). See also the Social Science Research Council's Necessary Knowledge for a Democratic Public Sphere projects at <http://www.ssrc.org> Retrieved April 2, 2007.
31. The overview is adapted from the summary in <http://www.freepress.net> Retrieved April 17, 2007.
32. <http://www.freepress.net> Retrieved April 10, 2007.
33. For an outlook on the diversity of public interest groups dealing with the media, see the list of Free Press members at <http://www.freepress.net> Retrieved April 10, 2007.
34. See, e.g., <http://www.freepress.net> Retrieved April 10, 2007; *State of the News Media 2007*.
35. Times Executive Speeches April 24 2004, published in the *Wall Street Journal* online. <http://www.wsj.com> Retrieved April 24, 2007.
36. For analyses of other selected websites, such as the *LA Times*, the *Washington Post*, *USA Today*, and others, see the report's website: <http://www.stateofthenewsmedia.com/2007>
37. The summaries here are provided by Katy Pearce and Ronald E. Rice, Department of Communication, University of California, with minor modifications by other authors of the report.
38. NAA= Newspaper Association of America: <http://www.naa.org/> Retrieved April 8, 2007.
39. http://www.pewinternet.org/pdfs/PIP_ICT_Typology.pdf Retrieved May 15, 2007.
40. Center for the Digital Future (December 7, 2005). Fifth study of the Internet by the Digital Future Project finds major new trends in online use for political campaigns. http://www.digitalcenter.org/pages/current_report.asp?intGlobalID=19 Retrieved May 14, 2007.
41. According to Dr. Linda Putnam, the chair of CCA's Task Force on NRC Recognition.
42. See <http://www.natcom.org/nca/files/ccLibraryFiles/FILENAME/00000000318/Doc%20Study%20Report.pdf> for a detailed discussion about the study, its methodology, and controversies surrounding the study.
43. It could also be argued that Communication Sciences and Disorders (under "Health Science Professions") should be included in the report, that is, the area occasionally studied and researched within speech science departments. The area does, however, miss the central focus of this report and thus is not included.
44. As noted by the Council of Communication Associations.
45. <http://www.fcc.gov/aboutus.html>; <http://www.fcc.gov/aboutus.htm> Retrieved May 13, 2007.
46. <http://www.fcc.gov>
47. <http://www.nab.org/> A trade association that advocates on behalf of more than 8,300 free, local radio and television stations and also broadcasts networks before Congress, the Federal Communications Commission and the Courts.



48. <<http://www.asc.upenn.edu>>

49. See also the Annenberg School at the University of California at <<http://www.usc.edu>>

50. <<http://learcenter.org>>

51. According to the Chair of the Normal Lear Center Martin Kaplan.

52. <<http://www.ssrc.org>>

53. <<http://www.journalism.org>>

54. <<http://consumerfed.org>>

55. Available online at:

<<http://www.fordham.edu/images/undergraduate/communications/caseagainstmediaconsolidation.pdf>>

56. <<http://www.lrwonline.com/>>

57. This section has been provided by Katy Pearce and Ronald E. Rice, Department of Communication, University of California, with some additions by other authors of the report.

58. See the Council of Communication Associations for links to these and other communication associations: <<http://www.councilcomm.org>> Retrieved April 14, 2007. Also see Appendix I for additional lists and more detailed descriptions of categorising communication studies by several associations and publishers.

59. <<http://www.icahdq.org>>

60. <<http://www.natcom.org/>>

61. <http://programs.gradschools/health_communication>
Retrieved April 24, 2007.

62. The journal is based in the George Washington Center for Global Health at the George Washington School of Public Health and Health Services, in the George Washington University, Washington D.C. and is published by Taylor & Francis; see <<http://www.gwu/~cih/journal/>>
Retrieved April 24, 2007.

63. From the Oxford Centre for fMRI home page: <<http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk>>

64. <<http://newsroom.msu.edu/site/indexer/2532/content.htm>>

65. See the special issue of *Media Psychology* (January, 2006) for more information on fMRI and the study described above.

66. Keywords were selected initially from the core concepts of the application (The concepts were identified through a statistical analysis of the frequency of occurrence and co-occurrence of core terms appearing in the titles of 37,000 articles from the primary scholarly journals of the communication discipline). The initial selection concentrated on identifying the main terms of the three major approaches of the report (Mass communication/media studies: e.g., media, journalism, broadcasting, print, and radio; organisational approach: organisation and management; technological approach: technology and internet) and the terms central to media and communication industry (e.g., production and advertising). In addition, a few terms were added to the analysis for two reasons: (1) they occurred frequently in the interviews and seemed to be central



concepts in the report (e.g., entertainment) or (2) they occurred frequently in the concept explorer analysis with the initial concepts (e.g., identity). The same analyses have also been used in the following sections 3.3. and 3.4.

67. 76 journals in the CIOS database and 100 journals in ComAbstracts database; see <<http://www.cios.org>> for the complete lists.

68. *Human Communication Research* recently devoted a whole issue to multilevel analysis (32(4), 2006).

69. See e.g., Noll (2006), Meadow (2002), and Lin & Atkin (2006) for historical reviews of technology and communication.

70. This section has been provided by Katy Pearce and Ronald E. Rice, Department of Communication, University of California, with some modifications by other authors of the report.

71. See the case U.S. Communication Journals on page 109 for justification.

72. Word influence is calculated based on the structural position of the word within the Crawdad Centering Resonance Analysis. Crawdad Analysis is based on linguistic theory concerning how people create coherence in their communication. Crawdad uses natural language processing to create a network model of text (see <<http://www.crawdadtch.com/>> and Corman, S. R., Kuhn, T., McPhee, R. D. & Dooley, K. J. 2002. Studying complex discursive systems: Centering resonance analysis of communication. *Human Communication Research*, 28(2), 157-206.

73. For the complete list, see Appendix I.

74. The categories of theory and methodology were taken from Rice & Crawford (1992).

75. What is counted as a "communication journal" depends on who is counting. One example of a list of communication journals is ISI's list of 2006, which is used, along with the sociology and psychology journals, as the basis for the National Research Council productivity compilations for the Social and Behavioral Sciences.

76. <<http://scientific.thomson.com/free/essays/journalcitationreports/impactfactor>>

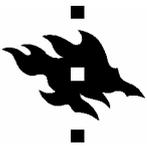
77. "The wiki principle", *The Economist* 20 April 2006;
<http://www.economicst.com/surveys/displaystory.cfm?story_id=6794228>
Retrieved April 2, 2007.

78. <http://zero.newassignment.net/glossary_terms>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.

79. "The Person of the Year: You", 13 December 2006;
<<http://www.time.com/time/printout/0,8816,1569514,000.html>>
Retrieved January 30, 2007.

80. "Riding the Waves of 'Web 2.0'", (Madden & Fox 2006, 2);
<http://www.pewinternet.org/pdfs/PIP_Web_2.0.pdf>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.

81. <http://www.pewinternet.org/pdfs/PIP_SNS_Data_Memo_Jan_2007.pdf>
"Blogger: A Portrait of the Internet's New Storytellers" (Lenhart & Fox 2006);
<<http://www.pewinternet.org/pdfs/PIP%20Bloggers%20Report%20July%2019%202006.pdf>>

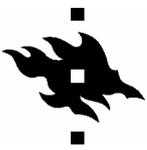


Retrieved March 14, 2007.

82. "Compose yourself";
<http://www.economist.com/surveys/displaystory.cfm?story_id=6794240>
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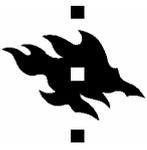
83. <<http://zero.newassignment.net/>>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.

84. <<http://zero.newassignment.net/aboutassignmentzero>>
Retrieved May 14, 2007.

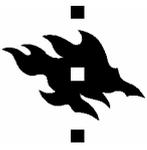


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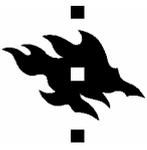
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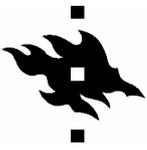
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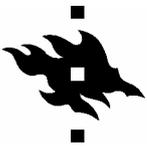
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Appendix I: Additional Data

Top 25 U.S. Media Companies

Advertising Age, August 2005

List of top 25 U.S. media companies Net Media Revenue

1.	Time Warner	\$37,008
2.	Viacom	21,473
3.	Comcast Corp.	20,103
4.	Walt Disney Co.	17,408
5.	NBC Universal (General Electric Co.)	12,463
6.	News Corp.	11,405
7.	DirecTV Group	9,764
8.	Cox Enterprises	8,579
9.	EchoStar Communications Corp.	6,677
10.	Clear Channel Communications	6,490
11.	Advance Publications	6,464
12.	Gannett Co.	5,772
13.	Tribune Co.	5,525
14.	Charter Communications	4,977
15.	Cablevision Systems Corp.	4,448
16.	Hearst Corp.	4,181
17.	Adelphia Communications Corp.	3,920
18.	Sony Corp.	3,859
19.	The New York Times Co.	3,304
20.	Knight Ridder	3,014
21.	Yahoo	2,653
22.	The Washington Post Co.	2,165
23.	Google	2,083
24.	Meredith Corp.	1,823
25.	E.W. Scripps Co.	1,770

Top 10 U.S. Companies by Media Sector

Newspaper Net Newspaper Revenue

1.	Gannett Co.	\$4,951
2.	Tribune Co.	4,109
3.	The New York Times Co.	3,143
4.	Knight Ridder	2,900
5.	Advance Publications	2,285
6.	Hearst Corp.	1,564
7.	Dow Jones & Co.	1,293
8.	McClatchy Co.	1,163
9.	Cox Enterprises	1,160
10.	Lee Enterprises	1,140

Magazine New Magazine Revenue

1.	Time Warner	\$4,851
2.	Advance Publications	2,420
3.	Hearst Corp.	1,837



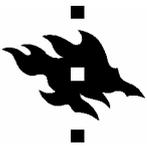
4.	Meredith Corp.	1,534
5.	Primedia	1,206
6.	Reader's Digest Association	917
7.	International Data Group	755
8.	McGraw-Hill Cos.	687
9.	Reed Elsevier	594
10.	Hachette Filipacchi Media U.S.	552

Cable Network Companies		Net Cable Revenue
1.	Time Warner	\$8,354
2.	Viacom	6,698
3.	Walt Disney Co.	6,410
4.	News Corp.	2,492
5.	NBC Universal	2,110
6.	Discovery Communications	1,561
7.	Cablevision Systems Corp.	1,324
8.	A&E Television Networks	980
9.	Lifetime Entertainment Services	827
10.	Comcast Corp.	787

Cable System/DBL Companies		Net System Revenue
1.	Comcast Corp.	\$19,316
2.	DirecTV Group	9,764
3.	Time Warner	8,484
4.	EchoStar Communications Corp.	6,677
5.	Cox Enterprises	6,425
6.	Charter Communications	4,977
7.	Adelphia Communications Corp.	3,920
8.	Cablevision Systems Corp.	3,124
9.	Advance Publications	1,759
10.	Mediacom Communications Corp.	1,057

Broadcast TV Companies		Net TV Revenue
1.	Viacom	\$8,505
2.	NBC Universal	7,487
3.	Walt Disney Co.	4,756
4.	News Corp.	4,538
5.	Tribune Co.	1,354
6.	Univision Communications	1,262
7.	Gannett Co.	822
8.	Hearst Corp.	780
9.	Sinclair Broadcast Group	695
10.	Time Warner	700

Radio Companies		Net Radio Revenue
1.	Clear Channel Communications	\$3,754
2.	Viacom	2,096
3.	Walt Disney Co.	612
4.	Westwood One	562
5.	Cox Enterprises	438
6.	Entercom Communications Corp.	424
7.	Citadel Broadcasting Corp.	412
8.	Univision Communications	328



9.	Cumulus Media	320
10.	Radio One	320

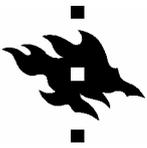
Doctoral Program Descriptions

2004 Doctoral Reputational Study

Area 1: Communication and Technology

<i>University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication</i>	
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Information and Society; Interpersonal and Health Communication; Media, Culture and Communication; Organisational Communication; Rhetoric and Political Communication	
<u>Degree Programs:</u> <i>School of Communication Degree Programs:</i> Bachelor of Arts in Communication; Progressive B.A. in Communication/Master of Communication Management Minor in Communication and the Entertainment Industry; Minor in Interactive Media and the Culture of New Technologies; Minor in Professional and Managerial Communication; Minor in Communication Law and Media Policy; Minor in Global Communication; Minor in Health Communication; Minor in Cultural Studies Master of Arts in Global Communication; Master of Arts in Communication; Master of Communication Management; Master of Public Diplomacy Doctor of Philosophy in Communication Dual Degree in Law (J.D.) and Communication Management (M.C.M.) Dual Degree in Communication Management /Jewish Communal Service <i>School of Journalism Degree Programs:</i> Bachelor of Arts in Print Journalism; Bachelor of Arts in Broadcast Journalism; Bachelor of Arts in Public Relations Minor in Advertising; Minor in News Media and Society Master of Arts in Journalism, Broadcast Emphasis; Master of Arts in Journalism, Print Emphasis; Master of Arts in Journalism, Online Emphasis; Master of Arts in Strategic Public Relations	
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 78	
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 504	
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 1377	
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Professional School	

<i>Michigan State University, College of Communication Arts & Sciences</i>	
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Advertising, Public Relations, and Retailing; Communication; Communicative Sciences and Disorders; Telecommunication, Information Studies, and Media; School of Journalism	
<u>Degree programs:</u> Bachelor of Arts in Advertising; Bachelor of Arts in Communicative Sciences and Disorders; Bachelor of Arts in Communication; Bachelor of Arts in Journalism; Bachelor of Science in Retailing; Bachelor of Arts in Telecommunication, Information Studies, and Media Master of Arts in Advertising; Master of Arts in Public Relations; Master of Arts in Communicative Sciences and Disorders; Master of Arts in Communication; Master of Arts in Journalism; Master of Arts in Telecommunication, Information Studies and Media; Master of Arts in Health Communication Doctor of Philosophy in Communicative Sciences and Disorders; Doctor of Philosophy in Communicative Sciences and Disorders - Urban Studies; Doctor of Philosophy in Communication; Doctor of Philosophy in Media and Information Studies	
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 113	



<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 600
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 3450
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Free-standing college

<i>University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Department of Speech Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Health Communication; Intercultural Communication; Interpersonal Communication; Mass Media and Effects; Organisational Communication; Political Communication; Rhetoric
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PhD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 28
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 75
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 500
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> College of Liberal Arts & Sciences

Area 2: Critical-Cultural

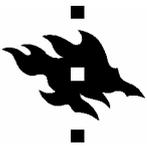
<i>University of North Carolina, Department of Communication Studies</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Interpersonal and Organisational Communication; Media Studies and Production; Performance Studies; Rhetorical Studies; Cultural Studies
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 34
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 47
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 800
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> College of Arts and Sciences

<i>University of Colorado, Department of Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Organisational Communication; Group Interaction; Rhetoric
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 15
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 50
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 850
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Arts and Sciences

<i>University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication</i>
<u>Aspects:</u> (see above)

Area 3: Health Communication

<i>University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Children and Media; Culture, Society and Communication; Global Communication; Health Communication; Media



Institutions; New Media and Information Technologies; Political Communication; Visual Communication
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 21
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 86
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 400
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Graduate School

<i>Pennsylvania State University Department of Communication Arts and Sciences</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Health communication; Intercultural-international communication; Interpersonal-small group communication; Political communication; Rhetorical communication
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 16
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 40
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 200
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> College of Liberal Arts

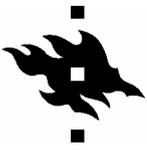
<i>Michigan State University College of Communication Arts & Sciences</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

Area 4: Intercultural-International

<i>University of California, Santa Barbara, Department of Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Interpersonal; Mass; Organisational
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 22
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 30
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 1200; 550 graduate per year
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Division of Social Sciences

<i>University of Southern California, Annenberg School for Communication</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

<i>University of New Mexico, Dept of Communication and Journalism</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Intercultural Communication; Interpersonal Communication; Mass Communication; Organisational Communication; Rhetorical Communication
<u>Degree programs:</u> B.A. in Communication; B.A. in Journalism; B.A. in Mass Comm. M.A. in Communication Ph.D. in Communication
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 19
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u>



65
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 565
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> College of Arts and Sciences

Area 5: Interpersonal-Small Group

<i>University of California, Santa Barbara, Department of Communication</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, PHD

<i>University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Department of Speech Communication</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

<i>Pennsylvania State University, Dept of Communication Arts and Sciences</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

Area 6: Mass Communication

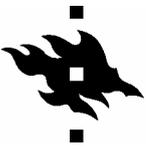
<i>University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

<i>Stanford University, Department of Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Communication
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, Co-Terminal MA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 16
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 30
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 100
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> School of Humanities and Sciences

<i>Michigan State University, College of Communication Arts & Sciences</i>
<u>All Aspects:</u> (see above)

Area 7: Organisational Communication

<i>Texas A&M University, Department of Communication</i>
<u>Concentration areas:</u> Rhetoric & Public Affairs; Organisational Communication; Health Communication; Telecommunication Media Studies
<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, BS, MA, PHD
<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 21
<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 37
<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 962
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u>



College of Liberal Arts

<i>University of California, Santa Barbara, Department of Communication</i>

All Aspects: (see above)

<i>University of Colorado, Department of Communication</i>
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All Aspects: (see above)

Area 8: Political Communication

<i>University of Pennsylvania, Annenberg School for Communication</i>

All Aspects: (see above)

<i>Stanford University, Department of Communication</i>

All Aspects: (see above)

<i>University of Texas, Austin, Communication Studies Department</i>
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<u>Concentration areas:</u> Interpersonal Communication; Organisational Communication; Rhetoric and Language

<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PHD
--

<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 18

<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 110
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<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 700

<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Own college

Area 9: Rhetorical Communication

<i>University of Georgia, Department of Speech Communication</i>
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<u>Concentration areas:</u> political rhetoric/public address; social movement and change; rhetoric of science; feminism

<u>Degree programs:</u> BA, MA, PHD
--

<u>Number of communication faculty:</u> 16

<u>Number of communication graduate students:</u> 34

<u>Number of communication undergraduate majors:</u> 400

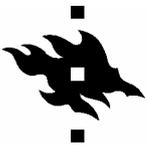
<u>Academic positioning within the university:</u> Franklin College of Arts and Sciences

<i>University of Texas, Austin, Communication Studies Department</i>
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All Aspects: (see above)

<i>Pennsylvania State University, Department of Communication Arts and Sciences</i>

All Aspects: (see above)



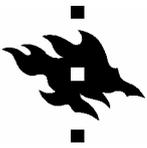
Sub-Disciplines of Communication Research – by Associations and Publishers

The US Department of Education Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP) uses four major categories: (1) Communication, journalism, and related programs; (2) Speech communication and rhetoric; (3) Radio and television broadcasting; and (4) Mass communication and media studies.

Sub-disciplines or areas of interest within communication scholarship are more explicitly represented by the divisions of the major Communication associations. See the Council of Communication Associations for links to these and other communication associations -- <<http://www.councilcomm.org/>>

Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC) Divisions (<<http://www.aejmc.org/>>):

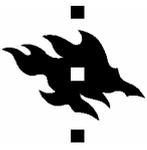
- *Advertising*: focuses on all aspects of advertising in American society, including creative, media and research, as well as its impact on audiences and institutions.
- *Communication Technology*: brings together researchers, educators and professionals interested in how new communication technologies are affecting our society.
- *Communication Theory and Methodology*: examines communication processes and effects from a theoretical perspective, using scientific tools.
- *Cultural and Critical Studies*: encourages humanistic, interdisciplinary, nonquantitative research into mass communication areas; methods range from literary and critical analysis to creative and philosophical essays.
- *History*: represents the enormous range and variety of historical interests, from social science theory to traditional biography to statistical analysis of historical data.
- *International Communication*: focuses on the study of processes and effects of mass communication in the international arena.
- *Law and Policy*: investigates the relationship and implications between current laws and mass communication.
- *Magazine Division*: features a variety of interests, from magazine writing and editing to magazine layout and design to production, economics and publishing.
- *Mass Communication and Society*: explores a wide variety of teaching, research and professional concerns about the role of the mass media; the media's impact on society; and ethical, legal, and methodological questions and their relationship to society.
- *Media Management and Economics*: focuses on the role of media management in journalism and communication programs, and its implications for the professional world, as well as the relationship of media management to economics.
- *Media Ethics Division*:
- *Minorities and Communication*: devotes its energies to rectifying inequalities in the fields of journalism and mass communication, and to making journalism curriculum more reflective of America's ethnic and racial diversity.
- *Newspaper*: examines key concerns facing journalism education, the newspaper industry and society; topics include ethics, new technology, readership, minority recruitment and the media's role in society.
- *Public Relations*: examines and analyzes scholarly and pedagogical issues relating to public relations education for educators and practitioners and others who recognize the importance of public relations practice in society.
- *Radio-Television Journalism*: focuses on electronic news practices and study and research of news as a mass media phenomenon; maintains close ties with professionals.



- *Scholastic Journalism*: provides a liaison between high school journalism teachers and college-level journalism educators, and stimulates interest among other AEJMC members regarding issues and trends in scholastic journalism.
- *Visual Communication*: focuses on photojournalism and graphic design topics in teaching, research and professional areas, including visual literacy, new technologies, desktop publishing, presentation media and visual ethics.

Broadcast Education Association (BEA) Divisions (<<http://www.beaweb.org/>>):

- *Radio and Audio Media*: is interested in the work of academics and industry professionals who examine and research the role and nature of over-the-air and Internet radio in society and culture. The investigation of other new media distribution systems for radio signals is also a primary objective of the division.
- *Communication Technology*: mission is to keep members informed about the latest advances in communication technology including hardware, teaching and research. Their goals are to address needs of BEA members in teaching courses dealing with communication technologies; to help us prepare our graduates and ourselves for changes in the media landscape; to provide a forum for presentation and discussion of theory and research on emerging communication technologies; and to keep members of the organisation informed about changes in communication technology and how those changes will affect broadcast education.
- *Courses, Curricula and Administration*: goal is to offer help and support to all educators in their pursuit of the betterment of course materials and the strengthening of curricula in the areas of broadcasting and electronic media.
- *Documentary*: focuses on scholarship, teaching, and creation of documentaries, and radio-TV-Internet delivery of documentary film/video.
- *Gender Issues*: stimulates awareness and discussion of existing issues and problems related to gender concerns in the media and media education; encourages dissemination of information about impact of gender issues to professional colleagues in the field; leads discussion on issues of promotion and tenure related to gender; fosters and promotes the teaching of issues focusing on gender related concerns as a substantive area of study within the disciplines of broadcasting/media.
- *History*: is concerned with teaching history and conducting scholarship in the field. Members are involved in classroom teaching and in the recording and analysis of historical events relating to the electronic media.
- *International*: objectives are to provide a forum for research and discussions on international communication; to provide regular opportunities for members to update their information and skills resulting from changes in the field of international communication; and to encourage the international exchange of faculty and students for purposes of research, teaching and consulting.
- *Law and Policy*: mission is to assist fellow teachers, researchers and practitioners in electronic media law and policy.
- *Management and Sales*: mission is to enhance the teaching of effective, empathetic and ethical management and sales in academia and to improve this type of managing and selling in the broadcast industry.
- *Multicultural Studies*: a forum for addressing concerns of the relationship between traditionally underrepresented groups - especially racial and ethnic groups (i.e., African, Hispanic, Asian and Native American (ANANA) - and the electronic media.
- *News*: goals are to provide the scholar, the media practitioner and the citizen with a better understanding of the role and functions of the broadcast journalist in a free society. They seek to improve communication and understanding among working professionals, scholars and the public concerning broadcast journalism.
- *Production Aesthetic and Criticism*: purpose is the improvement of teaching and the fostering of research and innovations in audio and video production, aesthetics and criticism. The division provides a forum for the exchange of teaching techniques and material; the presentation of juried and non-juried scholarly



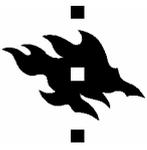
research; the presentation of faculty and student productions; the demonstration and discussion of innovations in production equipment and techniques; and as a means of evaluation through juried competition of scholarly research and faculty production.

- *Research*: include telecommunication research, methodology and interests not served by other divisions. No methodology is excluded.
- *Student Media Advisors*: mission is to provide a forum for the person responsible for supervising and/or advising student-operated media outlets. The goals of the division are to stimulate awareness and discussion of existing issues and related problems to student-operated electronic outlets on campuses; to encourage dissemination of information about the impact of student operations to professional colleagues in the field; and to foster and promote the teaching of information connected with the operation of any outlet where students are the primary workforces as a substantive area of the disciplines of broadcasting/media.
- *Two Year/Small Colleges*: mission is to provide a forum for issues unique to the teaching and operation of a program of broadcast education at a community college, a small college or in a small broadcasting program. Their goals are to share and propagate teaching strategies; to enhance and promote the teaching of lower division courses in broadcasting; to promote and encourage the transferability of broadcasting courses between institutions; to facilitate the interaction of faculty with broadcasters and media practitioners; to promote the study of broadcasting across academic disciplines; and to promote the use of broadcast facilities to support broadcast education.
- *Writing*: is to provide a forum for discussion of issues pertinent to writing for electronic and other media; to develop understanding of media writing and the teaching of writing through scholarly research to be presented at panels and in an annual competition for scholarly papers at the BEA Business Convention; to encourage student writing through an annual, national scriptwriting competition; to encourage creative writing by faculty through an annual, faculty scriptwriting competition; and to maintain a web page with a collection of media writing resources such as syllabi, scripts, grants, competitions and links to other writing resources on the web.

Publisher Categories. There are of course many other ways to categorize communication research areas. For example, the publisher Blackwell/Taylor& Francis uses these primary and secondary categories:

Communication Studies

- Applied Communication
- Communication & Public Policy
- Communication Research Methods
- Communication Theory
- Critical/cultural Communication
- Ethnology
- Feminist Communication
- Health Communication
- Intercultural Communication
- Interpersonal Communication
- Mass Communication
- Organizational Communication
- Political Communication
- Pop Culture And Communication
- Rhetoric And Stylistics
- Risk & Crisis Communication



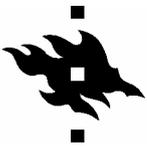
Media Studies

- Advertising
- Advertising And Society
- Audience Studies
- Broadcast Reporting / Writing / Editing
- Children And Media
- Global Journalism
- Global Mass Communication And Global Media
- History Of Journalism
- History Of Television
- Introduction To Television
- Journalism
- Journalism & Economics
- Journalism Ethics & The 1st Amendment
- Journalism Studies
- Magazine & Newspaper Journalism
- Mass Communication
- Mass Communication Theory
- Mass Media And Society
- Media And Public Policy
- Media Criticism
- Media Economics
- Media Effects
- Media Ethics
- Media Law
- Media Management
- Media Production
- Media Theory
- New Media
- Photography
- Print Reporting / Writing / Editing
- Public Relations
- Public Relations And Society
- Publishing And Printing
- Reality Television
- Television Theory
- Tv And Radio
- Writing Systems

Broadcast Media

- Broadcasting History

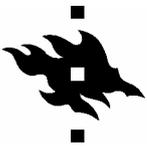
The new Blackwell/Taylor&Francis International Encyclopedia of Communication (edited by Professor Wolfgang Donsbach) uses these main categories; there are over 1350 subheadings associated with these main subject headings:



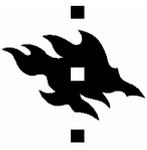
- Communication and Media Law and Policy
- Communication and Social/Behavioral Change
- Communication and Technology
- Communication as a Field and Discipline
- Communication Theory and Philosophy
- Development Communication
- Developmental Communication
- Exposure to Communication Content
- Feminist and Gender Studies
- Information Processing and Cognitions
- Instructional/Educational Communication
- Intercultural and Intergroup Communication
- International Communication
- Interpersonal Communication
- Journalism
- Language and Social Interaction
- Media Economics
- Media Effects
- Media History
- Media Production and Content
- Media Systems in the world
- Organizational Communication
- Political Communication
- Popular Communication
- Reality Perception through the Media
- Research Methods
- Rhetorical Studies
- Visual Communication

ICA & NCA Journals, 2000 to 2007: The Most Influential Words and Word Pairs

Words		Word Pairs	
communication	.054	communication study	.068
media	.050	media effect	.054
study	.047	communication theory	.051
student	.034	media study	.049
effect	.032	media news	.034
theory	.027	media theory	.033
social	.026	study effect	.033
analysis	.025	communication research	.032
model	.025	communication media	.030
relationship	.022	communication student	.027
public	.021	study student	.019
use	.021	study relationship	.017
group	.020	theory social	.015
news	.020	media social	.014
message	.018	media relationship	.014
research	.017	student perception	.014



Words		Word Pairs	
behavior	.017	media research	.013
political	.017	media political	.013
information	.015	communication effect	.012
individual	.015	study research	.012
woman	.014	communication model	.011
participant	.014	communication political	.011
discourse	.014	study theory	.011
television	.014	communication social	.010
perception	.013	communication use	.010
online	.012	communication information	.010
child	.012	communication technology	.010
new	.012	media use	.010
issue	.011	study model	.010
process	.011	communication group	.009
context	.011	media public	.009



Appendix II: Interviews and Other Original Source Material

Interviewees

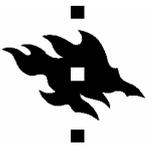
Sandra Ball-Rokeach is Professor of Communication in the Annenberg School for Communication at the University of Southern California. Ball-Rokeach also is a Principal Investigator with The Southern California Injury Prevention Research Center located in the School of Public Health at UCLA. Ball-Rokeach received her doctorate in sociology from the University of Washington. Ball-Rokeach proposed Media System Dependency Theory with Melvin DeFleur (1976). Recent publications include, among other things, articles on Internet, storytelling, and globalisation in *Communication Research*, *Journal of Communication*, and in several books.

Jay Bernhardt is the Director of the National Center for Health Marketing at the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, Georgia. The CDC Marketing Center is one of the newest National Centers at CDC and specializes in health marketing programs and services that are high-impact, science-based, and customer-centered. Before joining the CDC in August 2005, Dr. Bernhardt was an Assistant Professor of Behavioral Sciences and Health Education at the Rollins School of Public Health at Emory University and the Founding Director of the Emory Center for Public Health Communication. Dr. Bernhardt's research and instruction have focused on health communication, social marketing, and media, with an emphasis on information technology, e-health, and strategic communication. He has published more than 30 articles in scholarly journals including the *American Journal of Public Health*, *Journal of Health Communication*, and the *British Medical Journal*. Dr. Bernhardt recently served as Vice Chairperson of the Executive Board of the American Public Health Association. He has served as Associate Editor of *Health Education Research* and an Editorial Board member of the *Journal of Health Communication*.

Craig Calhoun is Professor of Sociology, New York University. His Areas of Research/Interest include social, political, and cultural theory; comparative historical sociology; public communication; social solidarity; collective action and social movements; social change. He edited the *International Handbook of Sociology* (2005) and co-authored *Lessons of Empire?* (2005). He is President of the New York based Social Science Research Council (www.ssrc.org).

John Carey is Professor of Communications and Media Management at Fordham University. He serves on the Advisory Boards of the Adult Literacy Media Alliance, the Annenberg School For Communications and the Donald McGannon Communication Research Center. He was a Commissioner on the Annenberg Commission on the Press and Democracy, has been an invited lecturer in more than a dozen countries and has presented his research to the boards of major media companies in the U.S. His Research Interests / Specialisations include: New Media Adoption; Consumer Media Behavior; Media Economics; International Communications. Recent publications have included Consumer Adoption of New Media; Audience Demand For Television Over The Internet; The Future of Radio; The Challenges in Media Forecasting; How New Media Are Changing Viewer Behavior; Content and Services For Next Generation Wireless Networks; The Future of News, The Future of Journalism; and The Long Road To Interactive Television.

Michael X. Delli Carpini is Professor of Communication and Walter H. Annenberg Dean, University of Pennsylvania -- Annenberg School for Communication. He focuses on the extent, sources and impact of public deliberation; the causes and consequences of the blurring between



news and entertainment; generational differences in political and civic participation; and the impact of the media on political knowledge and democratic engagement. Prior to joining the University of Pennsylvania faculty in July of 2003, Professor Delli Carpini was Director of the Public Policy program of the Pew Charitable Trusts (1999-2003), and member of the Political Science Department at Barnard College and graduate faculty of Columbia University (1987-2002), serving as chair of the Barnard department from 1995 to 1999. His research explores the role of the citizen in American politics, with particular emphasis on the impact of the mass media on public opinion, political knowledge and political participation.

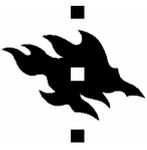
Jeffrey Cole joined the USC Annenberg School for Communication in July 2004 as Director of the newly formed Center for the Digital Future and as a Research Professor. Prior to joining USC, Dr. Cole was a long-time member of the UCLA faculty and served as Director of the UCLA Center for Communication Policy, based in the Anderson Graduate School of Management. At UCLA and now at USC Annenberg, Cole founded and directs the World Internet Project, a long-term longitudinal look at the effects of computer and Internet technology on all aspects of society, which is conducted in over 20 countries.

Lori Collins-Jarvis is a senior project manager with Lieberman Research International in Los Angeles. Prior to her current work, she was an assistant professor at Rutgers University. She has published articles on information technology helping relationships, and virtual meetings. Her particular focus is on consumer uses of and attitudes toward new media.

Steve Corman is a Professor at Arizona State University. He focuses on broadband text and discourse analysis, Jihadi communication and discourse, organisational communication networks & activity systems, computational modeling and communication and information technology. Recent, forthcoming publications include chapters on activity systems, and more broadly, organisational communication theory, in several books as well as journal articles in, e.g., *Computational and Mathematical Organization Theory*.

Geoffrey Cowan has been Dean of USC's Annenberg School for Communication since 1996. In 2006, he was named the inaugural holder of the Annenberg Family Chair in Communication Leadership at the Annenberg School and director of the School's Center on Communication Leadership. He holds a joint appointment in the USC Gould School of Law, teaches courses in journalism, and is directly involved in the work and research of a number of major centres and projects at the Annenberg School, including the USC Center on Public Diplomacy, which he founded, the Norman Lear Center, the USC Center on Communication Law and Policy, the Charles Annenberg Weingarten Program on Online Communities and the USC Annenberg School Center for the Digital Future. Dean Cowan wrote *See No Evil: The Backstage Battle Over Sex and Violence on Television* (1980), and the best-selling *The People v. Clarence Darrow: The Bribery Trial of America's Greatest Lawyer* (1993). Prior to becoming dean, Cowan served the nation as director of the Voice of America. He was appointed to the position by President Clinton in March 1994. He served as the 22nd director of the VOA, the international broadcasting service of the U.S. Information Agency. He also served as associate director of the USIA and as director of the International Broadcasting Bureau, with responsibility for WORLDNET TV and Radio & TV Marti as well as VOA.

Everette Dennis is Felix E. Larkin Distinguished Professor, Director of the Center for Communications, and Area Chair for Communications and Media Management at Forham University. He has served as President, American Academy in Berlin, 1996-2000; Founding



Executive Director, Media Studies Center, Columbia University, 1984-96; also Vice President and Senior Vice President of Gannett & Freedom Forum Foundation; Assistant Professor, Acting Department Head, Kansas State University; Visiting Professor, Northwestern University; Dean, Professor, School of Journalism and Communication, University of Oregon, 1981-84; Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, Lecturer, Director of Graduate Studies, School of Journalism and Mass Communication, University of Minnesota, 1972-81. His books include *Understanding Mass Communication, 7th ed.* (2001); *Media & Democracy* (1998); and *Media Debates* (1999).

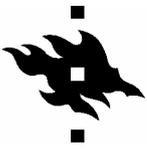
Ed Donnerstein is Professor and Dean at University of Arizona. His major research interests are in mass media violence, as well as mass media policy. He was a member of the American Psychological Association's Commission on Violence and Youth, and the APA's Task Force on Television and Society. He recently served on a new Surgeon General's panel on youth violence. He currently serves on the Advisory Council of the American Medical Association Alliance's violence prevention program, and is President of the International Society for Research on Aggression. From 1994-98, Dr. Donnerstein was co-Principal Investigator (along with UA colleague Dr. Dale Kunkel) of the National Television Violence Study (NTVS). This project is the largest scientific study of media violence. Professor Donnerstein's recent publications include articles on media violence and sexual content, in e.g., *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *Sexuality & Culture: An Interdisciplinary Quarterly*, and *Journal of Communication*.

Susan Douglas is the Arthur F. Thurnau Professor, Catherine Neafie Kellogg Professor of Communication, Professor of Communication Studies and Chair, Department of Communication Studies, College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, University of Michigan. Professor Douglas has written many books including *The Mommy Myth: The Idealization of Motherhood and How it has Undermined Women* (with Meredith Michaels), *Where the Girls Are: Growing Up Female with the Mass Media*; *Inventing American Broadcasting*; and *Listening In: Radio and the American Imagination*, which won the 2000 Sally Hacker Popular Book Prize from the Society for the History of Technology. Her column "Back Talk" appears in *In These Times* every month.

Andrew Flanagin is Associate Professor at UC Santa Barbara. Flanagin's research focuses on the ways in which communication and information technologies structure and extend human interaction, with particular emphases on processes of organizing and information evaluation and sharing. Recent publications include numerous articles in journals such as *New Media & Society*, *Communication Monographs*, *Computers in Human Behavior*, *Communication Theory*, and *Communication Research Reports*.

Paul Grabowicz directs the New Media Program at the Graduate School of Journalism, UC Berkeley, and teaches classes in multimedia reporting, new media publishing and computer assisted reporting. A professional journalist for more than 25 years, he spent most of his career as the investigative reporter at *The Oakland Tribune*. He also served as night city editor and acting city editor and developed an early prototype of a Web site for the paper (it was rejected). He began his journalism career in 1973 working for local papers in the San Francisco Bay Area, including the *Bay Guardian*. He has written for publications such as the *Washington Post*, *Esquire* magazine, *The Village Voice* and *Newsday*.

Dan Hallin, Professor at University of Arizona, is an authority on political communications and the role of the news media in democratic politics. Hallin is known for his research on media coverage during war time, and has written numerous publications on the role of the news media in Vietnam,



Central America, and the Gulf War. He also studies television coverage of elections and other political activities, and was the first scholar to trace the evolution of the shrinking "sound bite." Hallin studies political communications, media coverage of politics, and political rhetoric and speechmaking. He is the author of *The Uncensored War: The Media and Vietnam* and *We Keep America on Top of the World: Television Journalism and the Public Sphere*.

Radha Hegde is Associate Professor of Culture and Communication, New York University. Her research interests include: Globalisation and migrant identities; postcolonial feminism; race, gender and communication; South Asian diaspora. Hedge has published extensively in these areas and is currently working on issues of gender and new technologies in India.

Tom Hollihan is Professor of communication and associate dean for academic and faculty affairs in the Annenberg School, University of Southern California. Hollihan publishes in the areas of argumentation, political campaign communication, contemporary rhetorical criticism, and the impact of globalisation on public deliberation. Recent publications include the book *Uncivil wars: Political campaigns in a media age* (2001). He has also edited the publication by the National Association of Communication, *Argument at century's end: Reflecting on the past and envisioning the future*. (2000).

Sean Jacobs is Assistant Professor of Communication Studies and Afroamerican and African Studies, University of Michigan. His interests include media and political power, social movements and the politics of identity. Before coming to the University of Michigan, he was a postdoctoral fellow of the International Center for Advanced Studies at New York University and held fellowships at the Shorenstein Center for the Press, Politics and Public Policy at Harvard University and the Graduate Faculty of the New School for Social Research. Jacobs, a native of Cape Town, South Africa, previously worked as a journalist and a researcher for the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA). He has contributed to, among others, *The Nation*, *The Mail & Guardian* and *Africa Confidential* and co-edited *Thabo Mbeki's World: The Politics and Ideology of the South African President* (2002).

Gigi Johnson is Principal, Marel Partners and Lecturer, Entertainment and Media Management Institute, UCLA Anderson School of Management, ex-Executive Director for UCLA Anderson's Entertainment and Media Management Institute. Johnson received her MBA in finance and accounting from UCLA Anderson School and her BA in Cinema-Television Production from the University of Southern California.

Martin Kaplan is Director of the Norman Lear Center, and Associate Dean and Research Professor at the USC Annenberg School for Communication, where he holds the Norman Lear Chair in Entertainment, Media and Society. He has been a White House speechwriter; a Washington journalist; a deputy presidential campaign manager; a Disney studio executive; a motion picture and television producer and screenwriter; and a radio host. He graduated from Harvard College in molecular biology, where he was president of the Harvard Lampoon, president of the Signet Society, and on the editorial boards of the Harvard Crimson and Harvard Advocate. As a Marshall Scholar, he received a First in English from Cambridge University in England. As a Danforth Fellow, he received a Ph.D. in Modern Thought and Literature from Stanford University. He is principal investigator of a project monitoring television news coverage of political campaigns, and also of an effort, funded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the National Cancer Institute, which offers free research and technical assistance on public health issues to writers and producers in the entertainment industry.



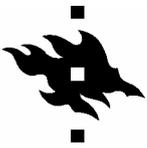
Dale Kunkel is Professor at University of Arizona. He studies children and media issues from diverse perspectives, including television effects research as well as assessments of media industry content and practices. He is a former Congressional Science Fellow, and has testified as an expert witness on children's media topics at numerous hearings before the U.S. Senate, the U.S. House of Representatives, and the Federal Communications Commission. From 1994-98, Dr. Kunkel was co-Principal Investigator (along with UA colleague Dr. Edward Donnerstein) of the National Television Violence Study (NTVS), the largest scientific study of media violence. Recent publications include a chapter in *Handbook of children, culture, and violence* (2006), and an article on the television industry's program rating judgments in *Journal of Communication*.

Robert McChesney, Professor at University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, is one of the nation's leading media researchers and analysts, whose pioneering work focuses on the history and political economy of communication, emphasizing the role media play in democratic and capitalist societies. A Research Professor at the Institute of Communications Research and the Graduate School of Library and Information Science at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, McChesney has written or edited eight books and more than 120 journal articles on media and politics. His book, *The Problem of the Media: U.S. Communications Politics in the 21st Century*, examines the decline in hard news, the growth of "info-tainment" and "advertorials," staff cuts and concentration of ownership, and the increasing conformity of viewpoint and suppression of genuine debate.

Maxwell McCombs is the Jesse H. Jones Chair in Communications, University of Texas, Austin. He is internationally recognized for his research on the agenda-setting role of mass communication. Recent publications include: *Setting the agenda: The mass media and public opinion* (2004) and (together with Merrit, D, 2003). *The two W's of journalism: The why and what of public affairs reporting*.

Philip M. Napoli is the Director of the Donald McGannon Communication Research Center and an Associate Professor at Fordham University's Graduate School of Business Administration, in New York. Prior to joining Fordham, Professor Napoli was a member of the faculty at Rutgers University's School of Communication, Information, and Library Studies. Professor Napoli's research interests focus primarily on the areas of media economics and policy. He is the author of the books *Foundations of Communications Policy: Principles and Process in the Regulation of Electronic Media* (2001) and *Audience Economics: Media Institutions and the Audience Marketplace* (2003). His work has been published in journals such as *Telecommunications Policy*, the *Journal of Communication*, the *Policy Studies Journal*, the *Harvard International Journal of Press/Politics*, and the *Journal Advertising*. He has been interviewed in publications such as the *Los Angeles Times*, the *Baltimore Sun*, the *Christian Science Monitor*, *Rolling Stone* and the *Boston Globe*. Professor Napoli's specific areas of expertise include the communications policymaking process, the developing field of communications policy analysis, and the economic aspects of media audiences.

W. Russell Neuman is the John Derby Evans Professor of Media Technology and Research Professor, Center for Political Studies, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan. Professor Neuman's research and teaching span two fields in communications: behavioral research on communication effects with a focus on political communication and new media technology and policy with a focus on the social and political impacts of new media diffusion.



Michael Parks joined the USC Annenberg faculty in Fall 2000. In Fall 2001, he became interim director of the School of Journalism. He was named director of the school in March 2002. He is a journalist and educator whose assignments have taken him around the globe, and whose "balanced and comprehensive" coverage of the struggle against apartheid in South Africa earned him the 1987 Pulitzer Prize for International Reporting. From his first overseas assignment covering the war in Vietnam as the Baltimore Sun's Saigon correspondent, Parks has reported on major international news events from a variety of international capitals, including Beijing, Moscow, Hong Kong, Johannesburg, and Jerusalem. He joined the *Los Angeles Times* in 1980 and in 1995 was promoted to deputy foreign editor and later managing editor, before taking the helm as editor in 1997. From 1997-2000, Parks served as editor of the Los Angeles Times, a period during which the Times garnered four additional Pulitzer Prizes.

Larry Pryor is on the Journalism School faculty at the University of Southern California Annenberg School and teaches online writing and reporting. He was formerly a reporter for The Louisville Courier-Journal and, later, a staff writer and editor for the Los Angeles Times. He held various writing and editing positions at the Times, including news editor of Times Mirror's pioneering videotex project, Gateway, in 1982 and editor of the Times' Web site in 1996. Pryor conducts research on immersive, 3D technology and the use of perspectives in digital technology. He also works on applications of chaos theory to journalism and how the Internet and traditional media interact.

Linda Putnam, Professor at Texas A&M (moving to UC Santa Barbara July 2007) is Co-editor of *The Handbook of Organizational Discourse* (2004), *The New Handbook of Organizational Communication* (2001), *Communication and Negotiation* (1992), *Handbook of Organizational Communication* (1987), and *Communication and Organization: An Interpretive Approach* (1983). Her research and scholarly articles appear in such journals as: *Communication Monographs*, *Human Communication Research*, *Communication Theory*, *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, *Journal of Communication*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Organization*, *Organizational Studies*, *Negotiation Journal*, and *Journal of Conflict Management*. Dr. Putnam is a member of the editorial boards for 8 scholarly journals and is an Associate Editor for *Human Relations* and a Co-Editor for *Organization*. Among other things, she is a Fellow of the International Communication Association, and a Distinguished Scholar of the National Communication Association (NCA).

Jay Rosen is a press critic and writer whose primary focus is the media's role in a democracy. He teaches courses in media criticism, cultural journalism, press ethics and the journalistic tradition, among other subjects, as , New York University. Since 1990, Professor Rosen has been a leading figure in the reform movement known as "public journalism," which calls on the press to take a more active role in strengthening citizenship, improving political debate and reviving public life. From 1993 to 1997, he was the Director of the Project on Public Life and the Press, funded by the Knight Foundation and housed at NYU. Rosen's book on the subject is titled, *What Are Journalists For?* (1999). Currently, he is working on *Assignment Zero* (<http://zero.newassignment.net/>), an exploratory project on collaborative online journalism.

Eric Rothenbuhler, is a Professor at Texas A&M. His teaching and research address media anthropology and communication systems ranging from ritual through community to media industries. He is co-editor of *Media Anthropology* (2005), and author of *Ritual communication: From everyday conversation to mediated ceremony* (2003), and co-editor of *Communication and Community* (2001). He was Review and Criticism Editor for the *Journal of Communication* (1997-99) and currently serves



on the Editorial Boards of *Journal of Communication*, *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, and *The Radio Journal*. He is author or co-author of over 50 articles, chapters, essays, and reviews on media, ritual, community, media industries, popular music, and communication theory.

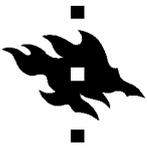
Paddy Scannell joined the faculty of University of Michigan's Department of Communication Studies, College of Literature, Science, and the Arts in 2006. His co-edited book *Broadcast Talk* (1991) is a major study on the discourses of broadcasting. His co-edited book *Culture and Power: A Media, Culture & Society Reader* (1992) derives from major articles published in *Media, Culture & Society* from 1985-1991. *Media, Culture & Society: A Critical Reader* (1987) similarly represent a cross section of the best work published in *Media, Culture & Society*. His book *Media and Communication* (2007) traces the historical development of media and communication studies.

Michael Schudson is a Professor at UC San Diego and Columbia University. He studies the history and sociology of the American news media, advertising, popular culture, and cultural memory. His current research examines growing freedom of expression in the United States from 1960 to the present, and its complicated consequences. He won a MacArthur Foundation award. Recent publications include *The sociology of news* (2003) and *American dreams. American Literary History* (2004).

Katherine Sender is Assistant Professor of Communication, University of Pennsylvania -- Annenberg School for Communication. Her areas of expertise include consumer and popular culture; reality television, especially makeover shows; audience research; cultural production; gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender media and marketing; and documentary film and video, including production. She is the author of the book "Business, not Politics: The Making of the Gay Market" (2004) and a new article, *Queens for a Day: Queer Eye for the Straight Guy and the Neoliberal Project*, in *Critical Studies in Media Communication* (2006), as well as many other articles on GLBT media and marketing. She is currently working on a new book on audience perceptions of makeover reality shows, *The Big Reveal: Makeover Television, Audiences, and the Promise of Transformation*. She is also the producer, director, and editor of a number of documentaries.

Joe Straubhaar is the Amon G. Carter Centennial Professor in Communication in the Department of Radio Television Film, College of Communication, University of Texas. He is also Associate Director for International Programs of the Telecommunication and Information Policy Institute at the University of Texas. He was the Director of the Center for Brazilian Studies within the Lozano Long Institute for Latin American Studies, 2003-2006. His primary teaching, research and writing interests are in global media, international communication and cultural theory, information societies and the digital divide in the U. S. and other countries, and global television production and flow. His book, *World Television from Global to Local*, will be published in May 2007. A revised 5th edition of his textbook with Bob LaRose, *Media Now*, will be published in June 2007. He has an edited book, *The Persistence of Inequity in the Technopolis: Race, Class and the Digital Divide in Austin, Texas*, forthcoming. He had an edited book with Othon Jambeiro, *Políticas de informação e comunicação, jornalismo e inclusão digital: O Local e o Global em Austin e Salvador (Information and communication policy, journalism and digital inclusion: The local and global in Austin and Salvador)* (2005).

René Weber is an assistant professor at UC Santa Barbara. He is developing and applying both traditional social scientific and neuroscientific methodology (e.g., functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging/fMRI) in order to study media effects on humans. He has a Ph.D. from the University of Technology, Berlin, Germany. Recent publications include articles on soap opera enjoyment, and aggression and video games.



Mimi White is Professor, Radio/Television/Film, Northwestern University. Her research and teaching areas include: film, television, media theory; feminist theory and film/television/popular culture; mass culture studies; issues in media historiography. She was The Bicentennial Fulbright Chair in American Studies, University of Helsinki in 2004-2005. Recent publications include chapters in *Media/Space: Place, Scale and Culture in a Media Age* (2004) and *Planet TV: A Global Television Studies Reader* (2002) as well as an article on Women's Television in *Camera Obscura*.

In addition, following experts have been consulted and/or interviewed:

- Joe Brown, Lecturer, Communications and Media Management at Fordham University
- Joe Karaganis}, Programme Director, Culture, Creativity and Information Technology; Arts; Communication as a Right and a Public Good; Media and Democracy, Social Science Research Council
- Becky Lentz, Programme Officer, Electronic Media Policy, the Ford Foundation
- David Vaina, Research Associate, PEW Research Centre, Project for Excellence in Journalism

Other material

Keyword Searches

(the CIOS – Concept network database - [http://shadow.cios.org:2222/concept2\\$\\$TARGET=null?](http://shadow.cios.org:2222/concept2$$TARGET=null?))

Concepts were identified through a statistical analysis of the frequency of occurrence and co-occurrence of core terms appearing in the titles of 37,000 articles from the primary scholarly journals of the communication discipline. This data is that included in the CIOS's ComIndex database (<http://www.cios.org/www/cidesc.htm>).

- Frequency tells how often the concept has occurred with the title concept in communication journals.
- Median is the year at which 50 percent of all the observed cooccurrences occurred earlier and 50 percent occurred more recently -- it is probably the best way to tell which concept pairs have received attention more recently in the communication field's literature
- First is the year that the pair of words was observed in the literature the first time.
- Latest is the year representing the most recent observation.

CIOS - Concept network

Searches made on March 28 and March 29, 2007 (The years starting with "19" are mostly abbreviated; i.e. 1982 is "82")

MEDIA					JOURNALISM				
	Freq.	Median	First	Latest		Freq.	Median	First	Latest
News	234	1995	1968	2005	History	55	82	74	2003
Politics	159	1996	1971	2005	Public	50	2000	80	2004
Culture	125	1998	1977	2005	Ethic	40	97	85	2005
Cover	109	1997	1970	2005	Press	37	99	70	2005
Public	94	1992	1970	2005	News	34	97	73	2004
Theory	73	1997	1973	2005	Educator	28	90	72	2002
TV	69	1995	1973	2005	Women	21	97	74	2004



Policy	69	1995	1975	2005
Perceive	63	1996	1972	2005
Election	59	1994	1975	2005
Audience	56	1997	1969	2005
Exposure	54	1990	1970	2005
Environment	54	1996	1973	2005
Campaign	53	1997	1973	2005
Information	53	1993	1971	2004
Press	53	1997	1970	2005
Social	53	1998	1972	2005
Nation	52	1998	1970	2005
Global	51	2001	1990	2005

Media	19	99	73	2003
Australia	18	96	90	2003
Profession	18	89	72	2004
Speech	17	69	46	1992
Theory	16	2000	70	2004
Editor	14	90	72	1997
Reporter	14	97	87	2005
Television	14	98	75	2003
Covered	14	2001	77	2005
Culture	13	98	75	2005
Politics	13	99	74	2005
Online	13	2001	97	2005

MANAGEMENT

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Organization	49	1995	1941	2004
Conflict	49	1991	1981	2005
Theory	33	1994	1973	2004
Public relations	32	1988	1975	2004
Style	31	1999	1975	2005
Media	23	1993	1970	2004
Perceived	23	1993	1972	2005
News	22	1987	1973	1999
Crisis	20	1999	1990	2004
Women	19	1988	1977	2004
Corporate	18	1992	1970	2004
Business	17	1989	1966	2004
Culture	15	1994	1988	2003
Press	15	1990	1977	2003
Group	15	1993	1986	2002
Environment	14	1994	1973	2001
Uncertainty	14	2001	1996	2005
Role	13	1994	1972	2002
Information	13	1994	1969	2004

ORGANIZATION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Culture	75	96	73	2004
Theory	63	93	66	2004
Manager	49	95	41	2004
Structure	45	93	60	2004
Media	43	93	79	2004
Perceived	41	97	70	2005
Process	37	90	68	2004
Information	36	92	59	2005
Social	36	95	74	2005
Model	33	89	73	2003
System	31	94	73	2005
Technology	31	97	82	2005
Rhetoric	30	93	78	2004
Identification	29	98	83	2005
Job	28	90	70	2004
Public relations	27	91	83	2002
Group	27	97	70	2005
Satisfaction	25	94	76	2004
Discourse	25	97	83	2005

TECHNOLOGY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Information	73	95	76	2005
Organizing	31	97	82	2005
Media	31	97	76	2004
Culture	27	91	74	2004
Social	18	2000	74	2005
News	16	97	84	2004
Policy	16	95	74	2004
TV	16	94	73	2004
Community	14	2001	86	2004
Group	14	95	87	2004
Politics	14	2000	88	2004
Broadcast	14	94	70	2005
Rhetoric	14	96	79	2003
Public	13	97	75	2005
Canada	13	96	86	2005
Computer	13	97	75	2005
Science	12	90	75	2004

NEW TECHNOLOGIES

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Information	73	95	76	2005
Organizing	31	97	82	2005
Media	31	97	76	2004
Culture	27	91	74	2004
Social	18	2000	74	2005
News	16	97	84	2004
Policy	16	95	74	2004
TV	16	94	73	2004
Group	14	95	87	2004
Community	14	2001	86	2004
Broadcast	14	94	70	2005
Politics	14	2000	88	2004
Rhetoric	14	96	79	2003
Canada	13	96	86	2005
Computer	13	97	75	2005
Public	13	97	75	2005
System	12	95	73	2004



System	12	95	73	2004
Industry	11	96	84	2003

Science	12	90	75	2004
Industry	11	96	84	2003

EDUCATION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Speech	238	61	18	2002
TV	51	80	53	2005
College	43	61	19	2002
Teacher	40	61	30	2002
Academic	37	61	61	2001
West	34	61	61	1972
Public Relations	31	91	75	2000
Program	31	77	25	2003
School	30	61	18	2001
Media	28	97	73	2005
Journalism	28	87	72	2002
Kids	23	96	39	2003
Rhetoric	23	78	36	2004
Survey	20	80	22	1999
Broadcast	20	77	39	2005
Theatre	20	58	19	2002
Profession	20	94	35	2000
Liberal	19	70	46	2005
Public	18	91	40	2004

INDUSTRY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	30	96	76	20033
Television	28	93	78	2003
Culture	27	94	81	2004
Broadcast	18	94	58	2005
Music	18	2000	82	2005
Press	18	94	74	2005
Film	17	91	78	2004
Market	15	95	79	2003
Competition	15	96	78	2005
Canada	13	92	79	1998
Policy	12	94	68	1998
Structure	12	2001	84	2003
Technology	11	96	84	2003
Organization	11	95	69	1997
Business	10	80	65	2000
Concentration	10	92	71	1999
Economic	9	95	79	2002
Information	9	99	84	2004
Cable	9	96	83	2003

THEORY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Rhetoric	163	85	22	2004
Media	73	97	73	2005
Organizing	63	93	66	2004
Group	54	90	71	2004
Argument	53	90	71	2002
Information	53	92	63	2004
Culture	51	95	70	2004
Public relations	45	93	76	2004
Model	45	91	67	2004
System	44	88	71	2002
Process	40	91	70	2001
Social	39	95	62	2004
Critical	38	92	77	2003
Teach	38	82	67	2001
Construct	35	85	73	2004
TV	35	94	74	2005
Language	34	93	66	2002
Manager	33	94	73	2004
Cognitive	32	93	64	2003

METHODOLOGY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Theory	26	93	75	2004
Measure	10	91	74	2004
Considerations	8	84	72	1992
Attitudes	7	98	82	2001
Group	7	91	78	1997
Television	7	89	78	1990
Rhetoric	6	73	63	1997
Studying	6	90	71	2001
Critical	5	78	73	1997
Conceptual	5	89	70	1996
Criticism	5	73	47	1984
Press	5	81	74	1993
Culture	5	86	63	1997
Experiment	5	82	75	1998
Information	5	92	82	2001
Social	5	87	47	2000
Teach	5	85	78	1998
Media	5	92	90	1998
News	5	90	78	1996

BROADCASTING

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Television	76	98	71	2005
Public	64	92	70	2005
News	55	92	70	2004
Radio	48	86	38	2004
Policy	42	93	75	2005

NEWS

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
TV	479	92	64	2005
Media	234	95	68	2005
Cover	216	92	70	2005
Press	166	89	67	2005
Local	99	91	73	2005



Canada	37	91	71	2005	Politics	94	95	74	2005
Politics	37	86	67	2001	Reports	80	96	67	2005
Public service	33	99	70	2005	Source	80	93	69	2003
Media	27	95	73	2005	Perceive	74	90	72	2005
Regulate	27	94	73	2005	International	72	89	70	2004
Britain	26	92	65	2005	Foreign	67	86	70	2004
International	26	85	70	2001	Frame	58	94	88	2005
Nation	24	90	70	2001	Story	57	96	73	2005
Election	22	86	66	2002	Nation	55	92	70	2004
Culture	21	91	76	2000	Broadcast	55	92	70	2004
Station	21	82	63	2003	Campaign	53	95	71	2004
Education	20	77	39	2005	Public	52	97	70	2005
Industry	18	94	58	2005	Content	46	92	72	2005
Program	17	92	76	2004	Radio	45	90	67	2004

TELEVISION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
News	479	92	64	2005
Kids	290	87	66	2005
Viewing	169	91	68	2005
Politics	125	92	52	2004
Perceive	115	89	70	2004
Public	108	92	68	2005
Cover	105	92	66	2005
Cable	104	88	71	2004
Local	99	91	73	2004
Program	98	90	45	2004
Viewer	98	91	61	2004
Audience	90	89	54	2005
Culture	87	95	76	2005
Primetime	77	90	70	2004
Broadcast	76	98	71	2005
Women	74	89	72	2004
Violence	73	81	70	2005
Advertiser	71	93	71	2005
Media	69	95	73	2005

RADIO

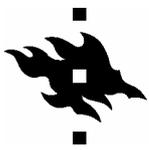
	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Television	54	86	52	2003
Broadcast	48	90	67	2004
News	45	86	38	2004
Station	35	87	47	2003
Program	34	92	41	2003
Talk	32	98	51	2005
Local	31	92	49	2003
Politics	30	98	73	2004
Public	28	95	41	2004
Audience	27	93	41	2002
Speech	25	40	32	1985
Listen	20	92	60	2004
Music	17	2000	66	2002
College	17	47	41	2003
Commercial	16	86	49	1996
Culture	16	93	77	2005
French	15	96	78	2005
Drama	15	71	34	1990
Media	15	95	76	2003

FILM

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Televised	46	87	64	2005
Teach	17	60	51	1995
Industry	17	91	78	2004
Culture	17	97	75	2004
Audience	16	87	72	2002
History	16	97	72	2004
Women	14	98	78	2004
Politics	13	92	79	2004
Representation	13	96	92	2004
Producers	11	79	51	2005
Critic	10	90	60	2001
Frightening	10	91	86	2000
Media	10	99	75	2005
Viewing	10	91	87	2002
Attendance	9	87	63	1987

POPULAR

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Culture	53	87	75	2004
Music	34	85	76	2004
Television	22	92	78	2003
Politics	20	96	79	2004
Media	17	98	70	2003
Magazine	16	98	70	2003
Presidential	13	82	77	2003
Discourse	11	99	89	2004
Press	10	92	78	2000
Rhetoric	10	94	76	2003
Women	10	97	86	2001
Film	9	99	73	2005
Nation	8	86	82	2002
Science	8	92	81	2003
Public	7	96	74	2002



Gender	9	98	87	2003
Emotion	9	89	84	1997
Digital	9	2003	99	2003
Children	9	90	73	1999

Youth	7	91	82	2005
Children	6	84	79	1996
Coverage	6	95	82	2003
Family	5	98	96	2003

ENTERTAINMENT

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
TV	21	95	57	2005
Educate	16	2002	56	2004
Media	10	2002	85	2004
Programs	6	89	80	1999
Culture	5	94	92	2005
Sports	5	2004	2004	2004
Messages	4	98	91	2005
Radio	4	96	81	2003
News	4	92	83	2003
Audience	3	90	90	2004
Exposure	3	2004	2004	2005
Commercial	3	2002	78	2002
Health	3	2002	91	2005
Image	3	2004	2000	2004
Home	3	94	78	2003
Soapopera	3	2000	90	2001
Interaction	3	2000	90	2000
Industry	3	89	85	1993
Press	3	79	79	2003

MUSIC

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Popular	34	88	76	2004
Video	30	90	79	2002
Culture	19	95	75	2003
Youth	18	87	75	2003
Industry	18	2000	82	2005
Radio	17	2000	66	2002
Rhetoric	14	86	72	2005
Television	11	90	66	2000
Theory	9	86	46	2003
Semiotic	9	90	74	1999
Drama	7	87	95	1996
Preference	7	92	85	2001
Rap	7	98	90	2003
Structure	7	90	85	2002
Function	6	93	90	2001
Program	6	86	85	2002
Content	5	86	85	2001
Australia	5	95	93	2003
BBC	5	81	80	2000

PRINT

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	35	1997	72	2004
Advertising	17	1993	73	2001
News	16	2000	76	2005
Culture	8	1991	80	1997
Broadcast	7	1995	81	2002
Press	7	2001	73	2004
Television	7	1997	84	2005
Imaegs	6	1999	88	2001
Coverage	5	2000	88	2004
Journalism	5	1991	75	2001
Online	5	2001	99	2004
Political	5	1998	89	2001
Recall	5	2000	78	2004
Learning	4	1988	81	2002
Architecture	4	2001	2001	2001
Perception	4	1994	79	2001
Magazines	4	1989	84	1991
Australia	3	1992	92	2002
Children	3	2000	2000	2000

INTERNET

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	24	2002	98	2004
Culture	15	2002	97	2005
Online	13	2001	94	2005
Community	12	1998	96	2005
Information	12	2000	94	2005
Perception	12	2002	95	2004
Social	9	2000	98	2005
Access	9	2002	98	2005
Gender	9	2002	99	2005
News	9	2001	97	2005
Public	8	1995	98	2004
Television	8	2003	2000	2005
Health	7	2002	99	2004
Interaction	7	2003	97	2005
Policy	7	2002	96	2004
Politics	7	2000	96	2004
Context	6	2003	2001	2005
Democracy	6	2001	96	2004
Broadcast	6	2000	99	2003

PUBLIC RELATIONS

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Practitioner	46	95	78	2003
Theory	45	93	76	2004
Ethics	35	94	84	2004

IDENTITY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Culture	45	98	86	2004
Social	36	98	76	2005
Construct	32	2000	88	2004



Profession	34	97	79	2004
Manager	32	94	75	2004
Education	31	91	75	2000
Public	31	94	78	2001
Organizing	27	91	83	2002
Role	25	92	81	2001
Model	17	96	84	2004
Women	17	95	85	2001
Media	15	98	84	2004
Power	15	98	85	2005
Corporate	14	88	67	2003
Gender	14	99	85	2004
News	14	96	83	2003
Perceived	12	98	84	2004
Bibliography	11	81	75	1986
Business	11	89	78	2000

Nation	30	99	87	2005
Gender	29	2001	85	2004
Media	29	97	78	2005
Politics	28	97	88	2004
Language	22	97	77	2004
Women	21	97	88	2004
Discourse	21	2002	80	2005
Television	18	99	88	2003
Communal	18	2001	88	2004
Ethnic	17	2000	87	2005
Theory	17	99	86	2005
Narrative	15	2001	94	2004
Self	13	97	86	2005
Organizing	13	98	93	2005
Negotiated	13	2002	76	2005
Canada	12	93	73	2004

COMMUNITY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Press	48	88	70	2004
Media	39	95	78	2004
Culture	26	98	80	2004
Television	26	91	76	2004
Politics	25	97	73	2004
Speech	25	74	36	2000
College	24	75	46	2004
Local	21	96	55	2004
Group	18	98	76	2005
Identity	18	2001	88	2004
Public	18	99	70	2004
Network	16	2001	89	2004
Rhetoric	15	96	77	2004
Information	15	94	70	2005
Perceived	15	95	77	2004
Social	15	98	86	2004
Technology	14	2001	86	2004
Interpretive	14	95	88	2002
Broadcast	14	93	70	2003

INFORMATION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Process	86	91	68	2005
Technology	73	95	76	2005
Society	63	96	72	2004
Seek	59	97	70	2005
Media	53	93	71	2004
Politics	53	93	68	2004
Theory	53	85	63	2004
Public	48	94	71	2004
Source	44	84	70	2004
Health	42	2001	74	2005
Televised	42	90	69	2005
Group	38	97	69	2005
News	37	90	75	2005
Organizing	36	92	59	2005
System	35	85	69	2005
Decision	29	95	71	2005
Policy	28	96	75	2005
Perceived	28	97	75	2005
Social	27	96	72	2005

CHILDREN

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
TV	290	87	66	2005
Parent	92	96	41	2005
Speech	50	59	19	1994
Viewing	50	86	74	2005
Perceive	47	85	73	2004
Media	42	97	75	2005
Adult	41	97	71	2004
Young	38	87	50	2003
Family	38	95	74	2005
School	35	84	23	2005
Interaction	33	92	78	2004
Mother	32	96	76	2004
Social	32	85	75	2004

PRODUCTION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
TV	42	96	63	2005
Message	30	98	84	2005
News	29	96	73	2005
Culture	21	94	83	2005
Cognitive	14	93	84	2000
Drama	14	80	19	2004
Speech	14	85	20	2003
Media	12	2001	80	2005
Social	11	95	84	2003
Text	11	94	79	2004
Film	11	86	51	2005
Informed	10	2000	84	2004
Language	10	89	71	1996



Peer	31	93	82	2005
News	30	98	76	2005
Teen	28	91	74	2004
Learn	28	85	36	2004
Comprehension	27	84	68	2002
Language	27	84	64	2001

Children	9	84	66	2001
Process	9	95	80	2004
Discourse	8	97	83	2002
Model	8	95	83	2000
Knowledge	7	98	86	2003
International	7	95	93	2004

ADVERTISING

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
TV	71	93	71	2005
Politics	64	93	72	2004
Culture	35	97	73	2005
magazine	29	91	71	2005
Press	29	90	72	2005
Campaign	25	98	77	2003
Perceive	23	88	73	2005
Media	22	93	74	2005
Child	21	91	77	2003
Consumer	20	96	74	2004
Contentanalysis	19	96	71	2005
Women	19	81	84	2005
Image	18	94	83	2005
market	18	95	70	2004
Value	18	95	71	2004
News	17	94	74	2004
Print	17	93	73	2001
Influence	16	2003	76	2005
Content	16	1993	77	2005

ECONOMICS

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Press	29	88	76	2003
Politics	23	97	79	2005
Television	22	86	76	2002
Media	21	98	77	2003
News	17	94	70	2004
Policy	14	92	79	2002
Culture	12	91	81	2002
Broadcast	11	89	69	2000
Social	10	87	83	1999
Industry	9	96	79	2002
Cable	8	92	78	1999
International	8	87	77	2002
Rhetoric	8	93	86	2000
Coverage	7	91	77	2004
Programs	7	78	77	2000
Telecommunications	7	95	92	2004
Law	6	94	79	1997
Concentration	5	85	77	2005
China	5	95	92	2002

STRUCTURE

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Group	56	86	72	2004
Organizing	45	93	60	2004
Televised	45	91	64	2004
Discourse	35	89	79	2005
Model	30	91	68	2003
Social	30	93	72	2004
Theory	30	93	63	2003
Interaction	27	87	70	2003
Narrative	27	89	73	2004
Press	26	96	70	2002
Rhetoric	24	86	64	2002
Politics	22	93	68	2005
Function	20	84	73	1996
System	20	93	77	2001
News	20	96	80	2004
Process	19	93	71	2003
Perceived	19	94	73	2004
Influence	19	96	78	2004
Conversation	19	83	79	2004

OWNERSHIP

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Press	41	88	70	2004
Media	19	93	74	2005
TV	12	85	74	2004
Public	12	93	78	2003
Station	12	80	74	2003
Group	11	89	75	1997
Broadcast	10	83	75	2003
News	10	94	76	2003
Minority	9	88	77	2003
FCC	9	81	76	2005
Daily	8	93	75	2004
Concentration	7	80	71	1996
Radio	7	81	77	1996
Competition	5	96	91	2003
Control	5	82	70	1992
Editorial	5	91	75	1995
Cross	5	89	74	1995
Policy	5	79	77	2001
Affects	4	93	77	2001

CULTURE

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Cross	131	96	68	2005

POLITICS

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	159	96	71	2005



Media	125	98	77	2005	TV	125	92	52	2004
TV	87	95	76	2005	Press	99	94	70	2004
Politics	79	97	81	2004	Campaign	96	92	56	2005
Organizing	75	96	73	2004	News	94	95	74	2005
Rhetorics	55	96	63	2005	Rhetoric	84	92	55	2004
Popular	53	92	75	2004	Culture	79	97	81	2004
Theory	51	95	70	2004	Discourse	67	92	65	2004
Identity	45	98	86	2004	Advertising	64	93	72	2004
Value	44	97	37	2005	President	60	96	65	2004
Global	41	99	79	2005	Election	54	94	74	2005
Advertising	35	97	73	2005	Informed	53	93	68	2004
Language	33	96	55	2004	Debate	47	92	16	2004
Gender	33	2001	84	2005	Public	42	93	70	2004
Policy	31	92	61	2005	Broadcast	37	86	67	2001
Nation	30	94	69	2005	Women	37	93	78	2001
Japan	28	96	72	2005	Party	37	95	68	2004
Technology	27	98	74	2004	Image	37	89	69	2002
Industry	27	94	81	2004	Covers	35	96	77	2004

PUBLIC OPINION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	20	91	81	2004
Poll	20	93	72	2002
Press	19	87	72	2003
Policy	16	91	67	2005
Public	15	98	84	2005
Coverage	14	97	74	2004
News	13	97	87	2004
Opinion	10	94	80	2005
Theory	10	93	66	2004
Reported	9	92	82	2002
Foreign	8	86	67	2004
Politics	8	85	66	2000
President	8	91	72	2003
War	7	94	54	1998
Campaign	6	94	68	2002
Perceived	6	96	84	1999
Rhetoric	6	98	54	2005
Construction	5	89	93	2003
Journalists	5	90	78	1999

CONTENT

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Televised	58	92	51	2005
News	46	92	72	2005
Press	43	87	70	2003
Media	29	95	73	2005
Message	24	94	68	2005
Children	19	89	74	2004
Informed	17	90	74	2005
Advertising	16	93	77	2005
Politics	15	91	68	2003
Course	14	68	21	2000
Form	13	90	23	2003
Model	13	2000	74	2005
Perceived	13	90	73	2005
Speech	11	56	21	1993
Public	11	2000	78	2005
Daily	10	88	73	2003
Magazine	9	87	73	1999
Group	9	81	75	1995
Competing	9	88	74	1996

CONSUMPTION

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	15	97	78	2003
Television	8	95	81	2003
Culture	6	95	86	2002
Identity	5	2001	86	2002
Consumer	5	96	91	2002
Massmedia	5	83	71	1995
Patterns	5	94	71	2003
Produced	5	94	81	2003
News	4	93	86	2004
Alcohol	4	2000	81	2004
Construction	3	99	98	2001

DEMOCRACY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Media	36	98	73	2004
Politics	29	98	69	2004
Rhetoric	19	99	43	2003
Public	19	99	46	2005
Deliberative	14	2002	90	2004
National	13	88	55	2002
Press	13	98	75	2005
Organizing	12	98	90	2004
Speech	12	55	39	1997
TV	11	89	69	2004
Education	10	65	39	2004



Canada	3	99	95	2004	Participation	10	2001	88	2004
Integrated	3	2003	93	2003	Process	10	95	58	2003
Newspaper	3	99	95	2004	Culture	9	99	94	2002
Music	3	91	86	2003	News	9	98	83	2001
Women	3	97	95	2004	Public sphere	9	98	93	2002
Time	3	2001	2001	2002	Theory	9	91	74	2004
Advertising	2	88	81	1996	Broadcast	8	98	93	2005
Advertisements	2	95	94	1995	Election	8	96	89	2004

HISTORY

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Rhetoric	64	88	34	2004
Journal	55	82	74	2003
Media	34	96	74	2004
Press	29	90	71	2005
Women	26	94	74	2004
Speech	25	61	46	1999
Culture	24	91	75	2003
Television	22	94	79	2004
Write	22	95	78	2005
Theory	20	93	65	2004
Semiotic	18	86	79	1994
Language	16	90	71	2002
Critical	16	89	62	1998
Debate	16	71	36	2004
Film	16	97	72	2004
Public	16	94	76	2005
Critics	14	80	65	1994
Broadcast	14	86	70	2002
Image	13	97	80	2003

HEALTH

	Freq.	Median	First	Latest
Care	71	95	73	2005
Inform	42	2001	74	2005
Patient	26	97	81	2004
Public	21	94	69	2005
Campaign	20	98	77	2005
Media	20	88	85	2005
Theory	18	94	77	2005
TV	16	2002	84	2005
HIV	16	2002	95	2005
Belief	14	2000	90	2003
Social	14	2003	84	2004
Control	13	2000	86	2004
Model	13	98	79	2005
Organization	12	86	79	2004
Education	12	96	77	2005
Perceived	12	2000	89	2005
Women	12	98	87	2005
Knowledge	11	2001	69	2003
Cancer	10	98	83	2004

ComAbstract Frequencies (<http://www.cios.org/www/abstract.htm>)

Searches were made on March 24, 2007. The search was limited to keywords.

	Media	Journalism	Broadcasting	News	Television	Radio
2001-2005	827	322	211	652	719	137
1996-2000	646	486	120	348	605	94
1991-1995	482	333	69	360	522	71
1986-1990	249	124	53	146	354	57
1981-1985	112	7	30	70	213	37

	Organization	Management	Public relations	Identity	Technology	Internet
2001-2005	205	181	121	339	354	481
1996-2000	40	112	205	184	230	229
1991-1995	27	97	181	72	79	27
1986-1990	14	56	53	32	54	0
1981-1985	57	19	5	8	30	0



	Education	Children	Industry	Production	Advertising	Economics
2001-2005	261	454	144	6	234	164
1996-2000	134	273	77	30	157	87
1991-1995	105	181	47	23	118	38
1986-1990	47	169	13	14	62	25
1981-1985	52	111	15	6	38	5

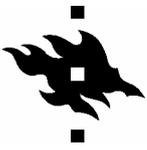
	Film	Popular	Entertainment	Structure	Ownership	Print
2001-2005	172	84	113	37	69	60
1996-2000	102	30	29	20	24	23
1991-1995	65	19	20	32	31	23
1986-1990	38	9	9	20	5	6
1981-1985	33	16	16	6	6	2

	Information	Community	Music	History	Health	Democracy
2001-2005	188	215	68	400	336	190
1996-2000	181	91	56	261	220	72
1991-1995	141	53	45	134	158	51
1986-1990	69	16	29	101	69	12
1981-1985	52	14	23	53	23	8

	Culture	Politics	Public opinion	Content	Consumption
2001-2005	279	284	103	265	19
1996-2000	180	63	70	93	17
1991-1995	118	62	57	54	10
1986-1990	78	25	36	23	6
1981-1985	36	6	8	15	2

	Theory	Methodology
2001-2005	618	170
1996-2000	411	154
1991-1995	289	165
1986-1990	224	101
1981-1985	197	22

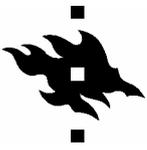
TOP 10 2001-2005	
Media	827
Television	719
News	652
Theory	618



	Journals included		
2001-2005	86	Internet	481
1996-2000	72	Children	454
1991-1995	65	History	400
1986-1990	55	Technology	354
1981-1985	43	Identity	339
		Health	336
		Journalism	322

ComAbstract Database Journals
 (as of March 24, 2007)

- Advances in Discourse Processes
- Advances in Telematics
- American Journalism
- Argumentation and Advocacy
- Asian Journal of Communication
- Australian Journal of Communication
- Australian Studies in Journalism
- Canadian Journal of Communication
- Communicatie
- Communication
- Communication Education
- Communication Law and Policy
- Communication Monographs
- Communication Quarterly
- Communication Reports
- Communication Research
- Communication Research Reports
- Communication Studies
- Communication Theory
- Communication Yearbook
- Convergence
- Critical Studies in Mass Communication
- Discourse Processes
- Discourse and Society
- Electronic Journal of Communication
- European Journal of Communication
- Free Speech Yearbook
- Gazette
- Harvard Int. Journal of Press Politics
- Health Communication
- Howard Journal of Communication
- Human Communication Research
- Information, Communication and Society
- Issues in Applied Linguistics
- Journal of Applied Communication Research

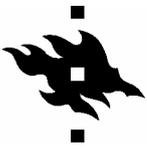


Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media
Journal of Business and Technical Communication
Journal of Business Communication
Journal of Communication
Journal of Communication and Religion
Journal of the International Listening Association
Journal of Family Communication
Journal of Language and Social Psychology
Journal of Mass Media Ethics
Journal of Media Economics
Journal of Mediated Communication
Journal of Public Relations Research
Journal of Social and Personal Relationships
Journalism
Journalism History
Journalism Monographs
Journalism and Communication Monographs
Journalism and Mass Communication Monographs
Journalism Quarterly
Language and Communication
Management Communication Quarterly
Mass Comm Review
Mass Communication and Society
Media, Culture and Society
Media Studies Journal
Media Psychology
Nordicom Review
Organization Communication: Emerging Perspectives
Operant Subjectivity
Philosophy and Rhetoric
Political Communication
Progress in Communication Sciences
Public Opinion Quarterly
Public Relations Research and Education
Public Relations Research Review
Quarterly Journal of Speech
Research in Language and Social Interaction
Rhetoric and Public Affairs
Rhetoric Review
Semiotica
Small Group Research
Southern Speech Communication Journal
Studies in Communications
Western Journal of Communication
Women's Studies in Communication
Written Communication

Small-scale Questionnaires to:

- a. ICA and NCA division heads
- b. Fordham Media Leadership programme participants (industry views)

The questionnaires were modified for these two groups, but included the following themes:



- Key future trends of the U.S. media landscape;
- Most important research topics and methodologies in one's specific field;
- The blind spots of the current research;
- The most important future trends in the research;
- Researcher education in universities; and
- Applicability of academic research.