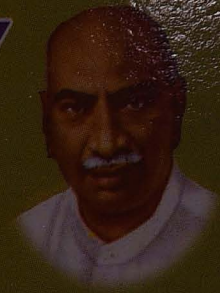




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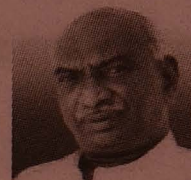


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PAPER - II

HISTORY OF JOURNALISM

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History of Journalism

Unit-I: A brief history of the genesis of writing. Gutenberg Invention leading to printing press. Printing history in India. Press as fourth estate.

Unit II: History of Journalism, early growth of journalism Raja Ramohan Roy and the growth of Indian Language Press – East India Company and role of Newspapers and Indian Press in First World War – The role of newspapers in National Liberation Movement. Press in Indian Freedom Movement.

Unit III: Press in Post Independence years. Development of Radio and TV Journalism. Contribution of press in National Development. Censorship and press. Press and society. Language and Press in India.

Unit IV: Origins of Indian Journalism - Indian Pioneers –Tamil press origin. Leaders of Tamil press. Trends of contemporary Tamil Press – Prominent News Papers

Unit V: News Agencies, Controlling influences of press. Regulatory bodies. Amendments in Laws of press. Audience continuum.

Reference:

- History of Indian Journalism: J. Natarajan, Publications Division, New Delhi.
- Mass Communication in India: Keval J. Kumar, Jaico Publishing House.
- History Of Indian Journalism : S P Thiaga Rajan The Press In India : G N S Raghavan

CONTENTS

Lesson	Title of the Units	Page No
1	The Genesis of Writing and Gutenberg Revolution	1-27
2	Print History in India	28-35
3	Early Growth of Journalism	36-51
4	East Indian Company and the Role of Newspapers	52-66
5	Post Independent Press-Radio and TV Journalism	67-78
6	Press in National Development and Press Acts	79- 100
7	Origin of Tamil Press	101-117
8	Tamil Press: Trends and Pioneers	118-132
9	Press Agencies and Organizations	133-147
10	Press Organizations and Regulatory Bodies	148-176

UNIT – 1

LESSON - 1

THE GENESIS OF WRITING AND GUTENBERG REVOLUTION

INTRODUCTION

History speaks of many revolutions but two in particular have changed the face of the earth, they are the industrial revolution and the communication revolution. These have totally transformed the quality of life and have brought social change all over the world. The industrial revolution was manifested in the mass production of goods; the communication revolution was manifested in the mass production of images and information.

The industrial revolution replaced old agrarian order and gave birth to the manufacturing age. Applications of the steam engine to manufacturing and transportation, beginning around 1750 in England, set off an industrial revolution that began the transition from an agricultural society to an industrial society.

The communication revolution made it possible to send a message to an extended audience without the need of the sender's physical presence. This opened up the possibility of greater control over mass audiences. It revolutionized the essential process of how human beings relate to each other. The last hundred years and more have seen an explosion of new means of communication: from the early telegraph and telephone to satellite networks and interactive multimedia. The result is what is known as the information revolution, the socio-cultural changes in society resulting from the impact of communication technologies, especially the television and the computer.

Today we are speaking of interactive media and the information highway, most of these terms refers to the linkage of computers, television sets and telephones in an increasingly elaborate global network. This electronic world is referred to as the information available on the Internet, which is the nearly boundless world wide web of the computer networks, which are capable of interactivity. This is our new world of cyberspace.

We are living in an information age. Information comes to us from a plethora of media such as from newspapers to pamphlets, to advertisements, hoardings, kiosks, billboards, neon signs, pictures, films, television and even computers and the Internet. We use all these media in our quest for information.

We find most of the time the unwanted information bombarding us from every nook and corner and from all possible media.

Have we ever stopped by to think what led to the development of these media or vehicles of communications? And why did we at all need to invent them? What was the first communication vehicle? To answer these questions let us look at the evolution of communication itself which made it mandatory to invent and discover various media for disseminating and transmitting information.

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Trace out the genesis of writing
- Understand the various stages of developments of writing
- Know the impacts of writing
- Comprehend the Gutenberg's Revolution
- Explain the impact of Gutenberg's revolution in the society

UNIT STRUCTURE:

1.1 Genesis Of Writing

- 1.1.1 Pre-Agricultural stage of Writing
- 1.1.2 Agricultural Society
- 1.1.3 The Beginning of Writing
- 1.1.4 First Writing
- 1.1.5 Innovation of other writing materials
- 1.1.6 Chinese small Seal and Writing
- 1.1.7 Beginning of Book Writing
- 1.1.8 Wood block printing and invention of paper
- 1.1.9 The Middle ages
- 1.1.10 The Pope
- 1.1.11 The Parish Churches
- 1.1.12 Pilgrimages
- 1.1.13 Monks and Nuns
- 1.1.14 Middle Ages and Parchments
- 1.1.15 Social Impacts of Writing

1.2 Gutenberg's Printing Revolution

- 1.2.1 Production of Secular Books
- 1.2.2 The Printing Catalyst
- 1.2.3 Consequences of Gutenberg's Revolution

- 1.2.4 Dawn of Reformation movement in the Church
- 1.2.5 Printing Press and Explorations
- 1.2.6 Effects on the Scholarship and Knowledge
- 1.2.7 Printing Technology and Cultural Changes
- 1.3 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.4 Lesson-End Exercises
- 1.5 Points For Discussion
- 1.6 Answers To Check Your Progress
- 1.7 Suggested Readings

1.1 THE GENESIS OF WRITING

1.1.1 Pre-Agricultural Society

Since the dawn of mankind, humans have strived to communicate effectively. Human beings are social animals. They always felt the need to communicate. To share the excitement of achieving success at hunting, sorrows when the dear ones passed away or anger when encountered injustice, or to call the partner for mating, the need to communicate and share information and views has been constant. The first thing that they developed was the language as the vehicle of communication...from primitive grunts their words evolved into tangible, meaningful and syntactical language. Today as humans we have learned to communicate in every aspect of our lives – intimate relationships, social-political survival, the transfer of knowledge and tradition, spiritual and philosophical beliefs, and business, all through the written and spoken language. When in a foreign country we try to learn that country's language, only because we need to communicate.

The innate need to communicate has been the cornerstone of innovations in communication media. With the development of language the early man began to invent written communication in the form of art and simple pictures. The cave paintings of the pre historic era found at Lascaux some of them more than 20, 000 years old are the classic examples of such attempts, and the earliest evidence of human being recording their presence, action and environment- Often called the first information revolution.

Communication is an exchange of information and messages. It is an activity. About one hundred thousand years ago our ancestors communicated through nonverbal gestures and evolving system of spoken language. As their world became complex, they needed more than just the shared memory of the group to recall important things. They needed what is sometimes called an extra-somatic memory, a memory outside of the body. Thus an increase in

communication led to communications, the development of media to store and retrieve the growing volume of information.

Hunting culture existed before tens of thousands of years before the raise of farming. The pre-farming age we call it pre-agricultural age. 45,000-Neanderthal Man carves on Woolly Mammoth tooth, discovered near Tata, Hungary. Horse engraved on pelvis bone. Ivory horses, oldest known animal carvings, from mammoth ivory were discovered near Vogel herd, Germany. Sketch of Cro-Magnon engraving may be lunar notation. The Cro-Magnon notation, possibly of phases of the moon, carved onto bone, discovered at Blanchard, France. Engraved antler baton, with seal, salmon and plants portrayed, discovered at Mont gaudier, France. In Mesopotamia tokens used for accounting and record keeping.

Cave drawings were murals that people painted onto the walls of caves and canyons to tell the story of their culture. They would tell stories of battles, hunts and culture. Storytelling was used to tell stories, both fiction and nonfiction, before there were books. It was a way for families and communities to pass on information about their past. Smoke signals were another way to send messages to people who were not close enough to use words with.

1.1.2 Agricultural Society

Civilization began somewhere around 8000 B.C. with human beings settling down with agriculture and animal husbandry, in the areas around Israel, Iraq, Syria, and Lebanon. Man used clay stones for accounting his activities, lifestyle and customs. This time in history is often called the second information revolution. 4000-3000 BC Proto-Indo-European (PIE) languages develop. It spreads with the success of the people living in the Russian Steps Northeast of the Black Sea. Advances in metallurgy are the key and the domestication of the horse. Granddaughter cultures spread West and North of Hungary.

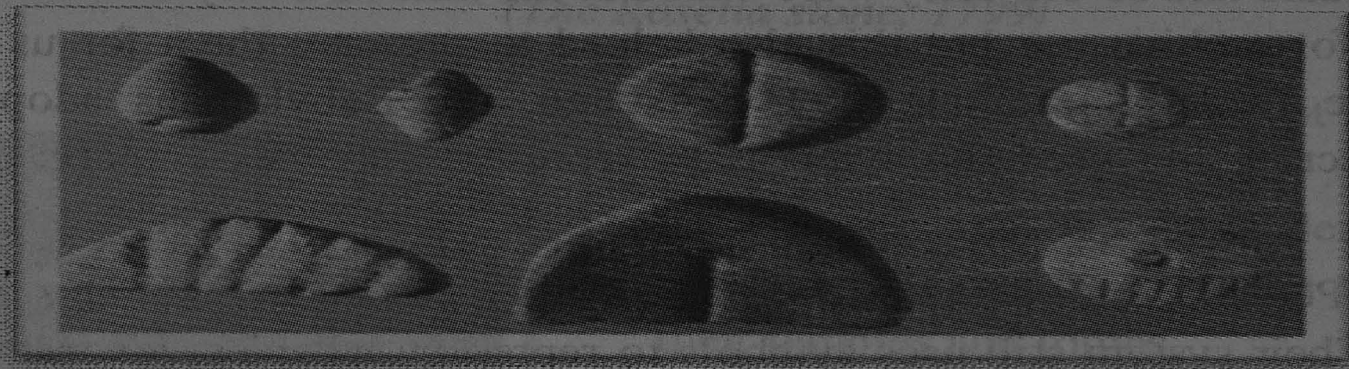
1.1.3 The Beginning of writing

When people went from hunting and gathering to farming, communities became more complex. Once farming produced a surplus of food, not everyone was involved with bringing in enough food to survive every day. Surplus food animals and crops were stored in temples. Consequently, people had more time for one or more specialized jobs like craftsman, manager, soldier, priest, and trader. Keeping track of the extra food, goods, services, and trade was too much to keep in any one head. So a system of symbols/writing was invented to keep records.

This early accounting system (*economics*) eventually led to a fully developed writing system that could also record stories and laws. Stories written down and passed from one generation to the next recording experiences and beliefs (*politics, religion*) about how the human society came to be the way it was. In the primitive societies the tribes had sentinels who scanned the environment and reported dangers. Councils of elders interpreted facts and made decisions. Tribal meetings were used to transmit those decisions to the rest of the groups. Other members of the tribe played the role of storytellers or jesters who functioned to entertain the group. As societies became larger and more complex these jobs grew too big to be handled by few individuals. With the advent of technologies that allowed for mass communication, the jobs were slowly take over by mass media.

1.1.4 The First writings

The first manifestations of script were of course inscriptions without a writing surface in the accepted sense in Mesopotamia; about 5000 years ago that was around 3000 B.C. The earliest writing seems to be an accounting device to record inventory.



(Clay tokens were used for this purpose in the Mediterranean as early as 8000 BCE and were common by 4000 BCE.)

The Sumerians were developing a writing system, which we now call cuneiform (from the Latin meaning wedge shaped). It was written with wedge shaped sticks pressed into clay tablets, which were then baked for longer preservation. Two-dimensional rolls of seals or stamps in the medium of clay enabled goods to be given addresses indicating their owner or their contents.

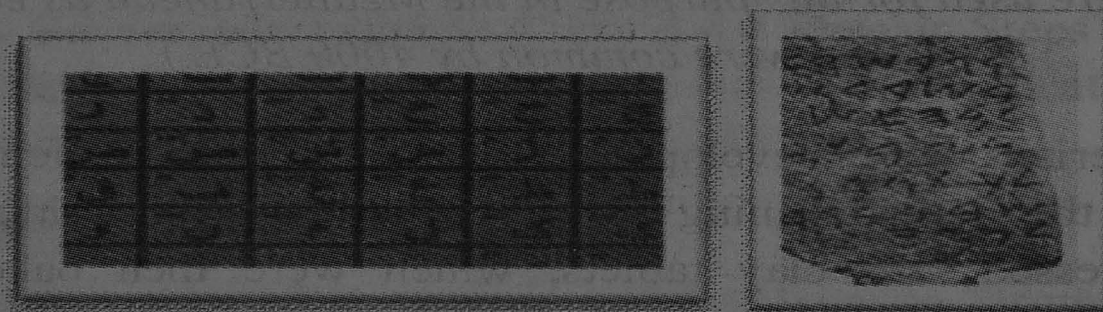


(Source: Univ Chicago Oriental Institute)

Stone inscriptions named the deceased occupants of tombs. As signals in the absence of the source of information, in other words through the decoupling of communication and interaction, inscriptions opened up, according to Jan Ashman, author of **the possibility in principle of literature**. The introduction of the Sumerian system was a significant occurrence in that the cuneiform is the first known use of abstract forms to represent a single word. This form of writing probably derived from former pictorial and symbolized representations of words and ideas.

Many of the tablets discovered are administrative records of temples, crops, calendars and so on. They were baked at the time as a way of making them permanent for archive use but this also helped to preserve them for us to find today. More recently, around 4000 years ago, the Babylonians adopted the cuneiform script and used the symbols to represent syllables or parts of word sounds.

The Persians later developed it further into the beautiful Arabic scripts we see today. Their system still uses symbols to represent syllables, for instance the word 'al-pha-bet' would use three symbols for each syllable.



(Phoenician writing emerges ca. 1200 BCE; all 22 symbols were consonants -- the vowels weren't written)

This is known as a syllabic writing system as opposed to alphabetic, which uses symbols to represent each component sound of a word and consists of consonants and vowels.

At about the time of the emergence of cuneiform the Egyptians were developing their own writing system. Consisting of characters called hieroglyphs (from the Greek, meaning "sacred carving"), they were possibly based on pictograms, ideograms and rebus devices. Each hieroglyph was a pictogram but when certain combinations of hieroglyphs appeared together, they created an entirely new word with a different meaning. The phonetic elements of hieroglyphics are much more highly developed than those of previous languages. The earlier Sumerian pictographic system may have influenced the development of the Egyptian hieroglyphic system. In 1799, the Rosetta stone, containing a copy of the same passage in hieroglyphic writing, an Egyptian priestly shorthand, and Greek allowed the hieroglyphs to be translated.



(The Rosetta stone, 1799)



The pyramids of Egypt contain an awesome array of well-preserved hieroglyphs and we have learnt much about the Egyptians from the writings in their temples and tombs.

The symbols used eventually came to represent syllables and thus far the written language shared the syllabic aspect with Mesopotamia and Babylon. Around 3500 years ago the Phoenicians refined the Egyptian hieroglyphs into a set of consonants and vowels to suit their own syllabic writing system.

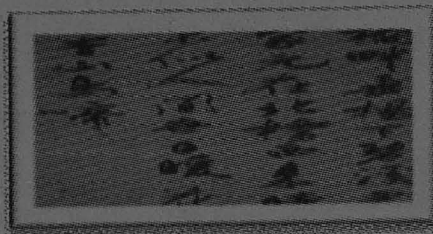
By now we can begin to see the emergence of symbols related to sounds in the spoken language, rather than pictorial, word-based representation. There are many benefits in using this system, not least because you can be much more specific about ideas and notions than mere representation of the concept as a whole.

Conversation, in a well-developed language, can express thoughts pretty closely and it became necessary to be able to emulate that discussion in such a way that you could understand it as if it were actually being talked about. No wonders then those alphabets were invented very soon.

Some of the eastern countries still use pictograms and ideograms in a form called logograms in their writings today. This is evident in Chinese and Japanese in particular.



(The earliest Chinese writing was "oracle bone" script, inscribed on tortoise shell or ox bone during the Shang Dynasty, ca. 1600 - 1000 BCE. Priests burned the shell or bone, and then read the cracks as good or bad omens.)



(This Chinese calligraphic poem is written on silk and dates from the Song dynasty, 900 - 1279 CE. By this time, Chinese writing has clearly become ideographic rather than pictographic)

They are literally sets of visual characters that have developed into a series of 'logos' over time, each logo representing a word. Because of the diversity of spoken language in China there are thousands of these characters and it can take a lifetime to learn them all. To top it all, unlike an alphabetic writing system, the Chinese need to invent new characters, and learn them, for new words introduced into their language. This means that the number of characters in their 'alphabet' is always growing.

The advantage of logographs, for the Chinese, is that although many different languages are spoken across their vast continent, their written characters are the same. This means that two people from opposite sides of the country can communicate by the written word even if they can't understand each other's speech. The other amazing fact is that Japanese or Chinese people can understand some of each other's symbols. Significant with the evolution of communication system was the development of transport system. In 3300 B.C. the wheel was invented – the first step toward development of modes of travel.

1.1.5 Innovation of other writing materials

Around 1300 B.C. the Chinese invented tortoise shell and oracle bone writing. This type of primitive writing was the ancestor to the beautiful Chinese calligraphic writing of later centuries and the simplified characters of today.

Human beings quest for recording what he thought and his experiences of what he saw, wherever he traveled continued the momentum of inventions. Around the same time the Greek, Persian and Indian subcontinent was flourishing

with settlement. People were settling down in organized societies and cities were being built up around the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea. People started spending time pondering over questions concerning the spiritual aspects of life. By the 8th century B.C new philosophers in Persia, Greece and Indo-Persian coasts were coming up with new thoughts and they would tell them in forms of verse to people around them. Homer's Iliad is a famous example of this kind of storytelling. By 6th century B.C. they adopted the Phoenician alphabet of Northwest Syria and took it for their own.

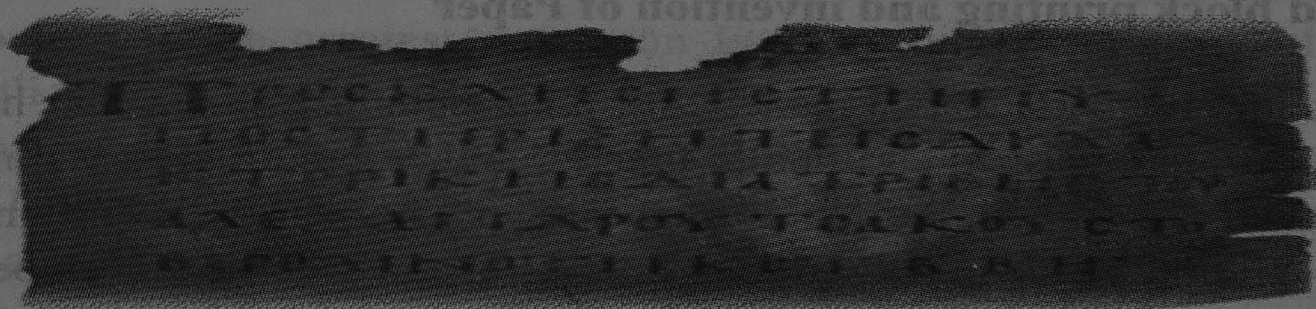
Up until 500 B.C. before the papyrus roll was introduced, long manuscripts were written on cumbersome and bulky clay tablets. The Egyptians discovered the secret of making papyrus from reeds that grew along the Nile.



(Hieratic Script, Egypt, circa 1000 B.C)

This material was tough and flexible. A coarse and a smooth variety were made, and several grades in between. The Egyptians tried to keep the process of manufacturing papyrus a secret, but it eventually spread throughout the Mediterranean world. Books on papyrus were rolled on a hardwood stick with an identifying leather tag on one end. As the book was read, the scroll was rolled and unrolled onto another such stick. The later Greek philosophers, scientists and poets of pre-Socrates era also used papyrus to write down their thoughts and discoveries.

It is interesting to note that while the Egyptians made papyrus from a plant that grew in the Niles region, it was the Chinese who developed what is close to the modern days paper. Strips of papers were woven together, soaked and pounded together into a flat surface that was polished with a rock until smooth. Hieroglyphics were painted or scratched on the papyrus with a brush or a pen. The Greeks wrote on parchment, made from treated animal hides.



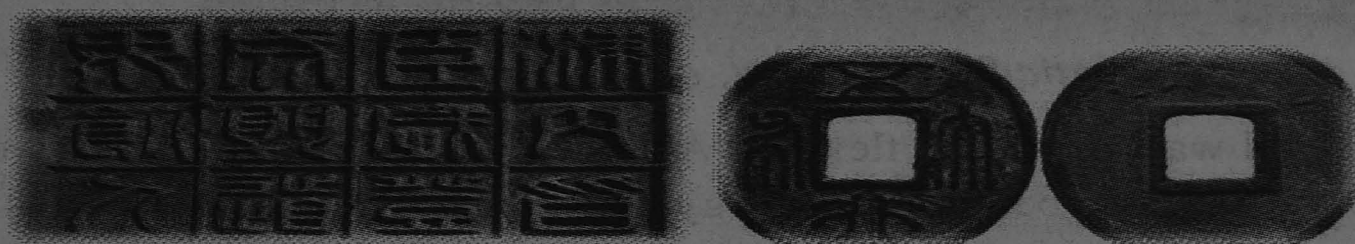
(Greek manuscripts on parchment)

<http://kemeap.blogspot.in/2013/02/greek-manuscripts-on-parchment.html>

Parchment was more durable than papyrus but much more expensive to manufacture. Sheets of parchment or 'papyrus' could be stitched together into long scrolls. It was the Chinese, however, who developed the writing surface that was to become the standard-paper. Mixtures of rags, tree bark, and other fibrous materials were soaked in tubs, pounded with mallets, pressed into sheets, and left to dry in the sun. The resulting paper had many advantages: It was lightweight, cheap, and easy to write on. Moreover, sheets of paper could be stacked and bound together, producing what we today would recognize as a book. The Chinese were making paper by about A.D. 100, but it took nearly another thousand years before paper became widely used in Europe.

1.1.6 Chinese Small Seal writing developed

By 220 B.C. Qin Shih Huang Ti, China's first emperor, outlawed local dialects and gave the newly unified China a standard language. Some fine examples of early Chinese characters can be seen on ancient Chinese coins.



(https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:CMOC_Treasures_of_Ancient_China_exhibit)

1.1.7 Beginning of Book writing

From A. D. 100 onwards, the bound book with separate pages started to be used by the Romans. Known by its Latin name of CODEX, this kind of book provided a major breakthrough in quick and efficient access to information. No longer must a reader roll through an entire rolled document to find a passage. The individual pages later came to be numbered and indexed for even more efficient access. This type of manuscript undoubtedly made it easier for the Roman bureaucracy to grow and flourish as it did in later years.

1.1.8 Wood block printing and invention of Paper

Around 100 A.D Paper made from plant cellulose fibers that have been pounded, separated, washed and finally felted together and dried, was a much less expensive material than Vellum and tougher than papyrus. Its invention allowed printing to be done with inked wooden blocks, a process also developed by the Chinese at about the same time as paper was invented. A court official of the emperor Ho Ti supposedly invented paper

The Greek, Mesopotamians and Roman scholars continued compilation of books in this way. Roman and Greek Cities were flourishing and the concept of organized political Government came to the fore. People showed their interest in the daily happenings and news were exchanged through word of mouth. Urgent communiqués were delivered by foot messengers, runners and the market place of ancient Greek and Roman Towns served as a gathering ground for the news hungry to glean a little of the recent goings-on in the community and possible the capital.

Of course scholars continued to write also and the library of Alexandria was one of the largest and oldest collections of manuscripts from the ancient world until it was destroyed when Julius Cesar invaded Greece as part of his quest for conquering the world. The second largest city and the main port of Egypt, Alexandria was built by the Greek architect Democrats (332-331 BC) on the site of an old village, Rhakotis, at the orders of Alexander the Great. The city, immortalizing Alexander's name, quickly flourished into a prominent cultural, intellectual, political and economic metropolis, the remains of which are still evident to this day.

It was the renowned capital of the Ptolemy's, with numerous monuments. It was the site of the Lighthouse, one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World, as well as the Great Library. It was along these shores that history took a tragic turn at the time of Cleopatra, Julius Caesar, Mark Antony and Octavian. The final destruction of the library around in 600 A.D. sounded a complete death knell and closure of doors to valuable writings and chronicles of the ancient times.

1.1.9 The Middle Ages

Writing flourished during the middle Ages with art, architecture and culture. But books and scripts remained in their place of origin. Greek and Roman scholars were compiling great works. However after the fall of Roman Empire and tribal invasions scholastic work started taking a back seat, until England started emerging as a powerful empire.

For several hundred years, from about the first to around the fifth century AD, Rome was the greatest power on Earth, ruling Britain and the countries around the Mediterranean Sea. However, in Northern Europe, there were fierce tribes that were only held at bay by the Romans. Around 400 A.D., the Roman Empire began to weaken and the northern tribes swept across the continent of Europe and plundered the city of Rome. The Roman Empire collapsed and was gradually replaced by many small kingdoms ruled by a strong warrior.

For many years, Europe was without the luxuries and riches that had marked the height of Rome. Many centuries later, a new interest in learning would

mark the beginning of the Renaissance. The thousand years in between is called the middle Ages or the medieval period. This period began and ended for different countries at different times across Europe. It also affected different areas of the continent in different ways.

The northern tribes did not stamp out learning completely, only momentarily set it back. The Catholic Church was already a powerful institution at the end of the Roman Empire and it continued to be the unifying force between the many small kingdoms that would become Europe. The Church salvaged much from the ruins of the ancient world and became one of the centers of learning during the middle Ages. The people of the middle Ages had a rich culture and produced many advances in art, literature, science and medicine and paved the way for the ideas that would become the beginning of the Renaissance.

The Roman Catholic Church was the single, largest unifying structure in medieval Europe. It touched everyone's life, no matter what their rank or class or where they lived. With the exception of a small number of Jews, everyone in Europe was a Christian during the middle Ages from the richest king down to the lowest serf.

From the moment of its baptism a few days after birth, a child entered into a life of service to God and God's Church. As a child grew, it would be taught basic prayers, would go to church every week barring illness and would learn of its responsibilities to the Church. Every person was required to live by the Church's laws and to pay heavy taxes to support the Church. In return for this, they were shown the way to everlasting life and happiness after lives that were often short and hard.

In addition to collecting taxes, the Church also accepted gifts of all kinds from individuals who wanted special favors or wanted to be certain of a place in heaven. These gifts included land, flocks, crops and even serfs. This allowed the Church to become very powerful, and it often used this power to influence kings to do, as it wanted.

1.1.10 The Pope

The head of the Church was called the Pope. As God's representative on Earth, the Pope had a great amount of power to influence kings and their advisors. If someone went against the Church, the Pope had the power to excommunicate him or her. This meant that the person could not attend any church services or receive the sacraments and would go straight to hell when they died. At a time when everyone believed in heaven and hell and all belonged to the Church, this was an awful punishment. Under the Pope, were his bishops who ruled the lower classes of priest in the same manner that an earl would rule his vassals.

1.1.11 The Parish Church

The parish church was the center of every town. It was generally the largest building in town and had stained glass windows and statues that told stories from the Bible to the villagers who, for the most part, could not read. This building and the religion it stood for were involved in every aspect of the lives of the people. A newborn infant would be baptized here and enter into a union with God. A couple would exchange their wedding vows before God in this church. When a person died, the final prayers would be said there and the body would be buried in ground that had been consecrated by the Church. If crops failed or someone fell ill, people would come to the church to pray to God for help. Every Sunday, every villager went to church to a service in Latin (which they didn't understand) and a sermon (which they did understand). On Holy Days, when the Church forbade them to work, the people came to praise God for the good things in their lives. A parish priest, whose duties were to teach the Christian gospel to his parishioners and help them to live their lives by God's laws, oversaw the parish church.

1.1.12 Pilgrimages

Pilgrimages were journeys made to places that held special religious significance. Usually, this was a shrine where a saint was buried or a visit to the Holy Land itself. Making a pilgrimage was long and often dangerous. Almost everyone traveled on foot and bandits and pirates lay in wait for the unarmed pilgrims. However, people went on these journeys anyways because they felt that prayers made at a saint's tomb were especially powerful. If a loved one fell ill, a relative might promise to make a pilgrimage if the person got better, or someone might go to show that they were sorry for their sins.

1.1.13 Monks and Nuns

Because religion was so important during the middle Ages, many people devoted their whole lives to being closer to God and doing the Church's work. Sometimes, parents promised their children to this religious life in order to fulfill a promise to God and to ensure their children were never homeless or without food. These people became monks (if they were men) or nuns (if they were women) and lived apart from the rest of the people in special communities called monasteries and nunneries. Monks and nuns promised to always remain single, to be obedient to their superiors and to live a life of prayer. They ate simple food, dressed in simple clothes (called habits) and spent their days in silence, praying or working. They also attended many church services. There were seven main church services each day, the first at dawn and the last in the middle of the night.

The European Middle Ages are normally thought of as being the time period of 400 A.D. to 1500 A.D. The fall of the Roman Empire, Germanic Tribe Invasions and the rise of Christianity began the middle Ages.

Writers during the middle Ages produced many works during the course of their daily lives. Many of these concern household goods and commercial transactions. Among the day-to-day works, widely separated authors that are regarded as classic works today produced several great works. These great works include: The Canterbury tales by Geoffrey Chaucer, Divine Comedy by Dante Alighieri, the Song of Roland, Tale of King Arthur and more. Writer wrote out of their will or at times was commissioned by the nobility. Both art and writings of this era give an account of the daily lives, the social systems, the dresses and attires and the religious beliefs.

Since church and religion were held in highest esteem, learned people also revolved their work around religious allegories and chronicled churches activities which included collecting taxes, building up towns and roads and even laying down directives for living. The church was powerful and towards the latter half of the middle ages after England became more powerful and the king was gaining popularity, there began a tussle of power between the church and the monarch which of course was another factor contributing to the onset of the renaissance.

1.1.14 Middle ages and Parchments

During the middle Ages, there was no television, no telephone and no postal service. If you wanted to talk to someone who was far away, you had to write them a letter and send it by private messenger. So the medium of communication was both man and the written material. A letter was written on parchment (the skin of a sheep or goat) with ink made of soot mixed with gum or acid and a goose quill pen. After the letter had been written, the parchment was carefully folded, had holes punched into it and a string was carefully strung through the holes. Then, the sender would stick a dab of hot wax or molten lead on the strings to hold them together and imprint the hot liquid with his seal. The seal was an image that was unique to the sender. It might be the coat of arms of his family or an image that he especially liked. Often, the seal was on a ring that the writer always wore. The letter was then given to a messenger, who took it to the recipient. The receiver would examine the strings and the seal to ensure that someone else had not secretly read the letter.

This worked well for sending messages between the members of nobility who were taught to read and write and could afford to hire a messenger. The common people, though, depended on traveling merchants and tinkers to bring them news from other places. Travel was slow so sometimes the news might be

weeks, months, or even years old by the time the villagers heard it.

Feudalism played a tremendous role in Europe in the middle ages. The majority of the people were peasants who reported to the lords. A code of chivalry was developed for the knights. Towns became the center of commerce and guilds were developed, causing the weakening of feudal ties. In England, individual rights came to the forefront by trial by jury and the Magna Carta. Myths and legends played a significant role in the superstitions of this time period. Philosophies like Byzantine came to the fore leading to further enquiries into the nature of life and universe.

However with the Fall of Constantinople in the hands of the Turks scholastic works suffered a major blow when Greek scholars fled with their books. It was only during the Renaissance period and after that need for information once again resurrected its head propelling a series of invention like the printing press, transports like ships, road vehicles and railways until after the industrial revolution the invention of media started at a rapid pace. In the next few chapters we will examine in detail the growth and evolution of individual rights and democracy, which began in the renaissance period and continued more feverishly into Victorian and the modern era- thus containing within itself the genesis of modern journalism and media.

1.1.15 Social Impacts of Writing

The arrival of writing carried with it several consequences for early society. In the first place, it created a new division in society. Before writing, everybody had about the same degree of communication skills they could speak and hear. But not everybody could read and write. People those who could have access to information not available to the rest of the population. And, as is usually the case, with greater access to information comes greater access to power. This power was concentrated in the rulers and the scribes who served the ruler. In Egypt, for example, only privilege children, who would later become priests or Government scribes for the pharaohs, were taught to read and write.

Second, writing helped make possible the creation of empires. Writing made organization easier. Tax collection records could be kept more efficiently, as could the accounts of payments. An army could be established and paid regularly. Written orders to commanders simplified administration. Writing helped develop trade and increased a country's treasury. Although it's difficult to say what role writing played in its development, it is probably no coincidence that the first Egyptian dynasty under Menes, (the ruler who united-upper-and lower Egypt and established a capital at Memphis) came into being about the same time as the Egyptians were developing their hieroglyphics. Additionally, writing helped

Check your Progress

1. What do you mean by cuneiform?
2. What is the earliest Chinese writing?
3. What are the social impacts of writing?

establish and maintain both the Greek and the Roman empires. Note that this is not to say that writing caused empires to develop; other political, economic, and social conditions had to be present as well. But it is probably safe to say that

Writing made it easier for these empires to come about. Another, subtler, effect

Had to do with the nature of knowledge itself. For the first time, it was possible to preserve and nourish a permanent body of knowledge. Before writing, the transmission of knowledge from one generation to the next was hampered by the limits of human memory, forgetfulness and distortion. Knowledge that was written down, however, could be stored. The Greeks established the Great Library at Alexandria around 311 B.C., which eventually contained about a half-million scrolls. Scholars from all over the Greek world came to Alexandria to use the library and to further increase the store of knowledge.

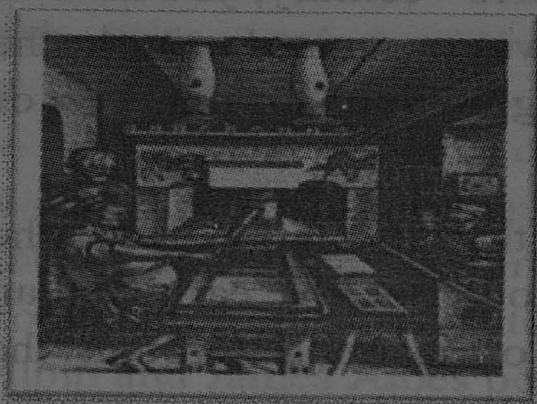
Finally, writing made it possible to develop a consistent and enduring code of laws. Before the written word, local judges representing the particular village or community where they were located made legal decisions. There was no general, overarching, impersonal body of law on which decisions were based. With writing, law became tangible in the establishment of codes that transcended locale and individual circumstances. The first great legal document in history, the Code of Hammurabi, was written in Sumerian around 2000 B.C.

1.2 GUTENBERG'S PRINTING REVOLUTION

The invention by Johannes Gutenberg of the movable metal type was perhaps one of the most important ones that led to modernity. Printing and printing presses existed long before Gutenberg perfected his process in or around 1446. The Chinese were using wooden block presses, as early as 600 A.D. and by 1000 A.D. had movable clay type. Gutenberg hit upon the idea of using metal type crafted from lead molds in place of type made from wood or clay. This was an important advance. Not only was metal type durable enough to print page after page but also letters could be arranged and rearranged to make any message possible. With the help of the movable type Gutenberg was able to produce virtually identical copies.

Gutenberg saw his invention as a way to produce books – many copies – for profit. But his stress over quality, since he was printing copies of the Bible, could not have made it a very profitable venture. Other printers, however, quickly saw the true economic potential of Gutenberg's invention. The first Gutenberg Bible appeared in 1456 and within 44 years printing operations existed in 12 European countries and the continent was flooded with 20 million volumes.

Though perhaps never foreseen by Gutenberg, his invention had a profound cultural impact. Handwritten or hand copied materials were expensive to produce and the cost of education had made education an expensive luxury. However with the spread of printing, written communication was available to a much larger portion of the population and the need for literacy among the lower and middle classes. The ability to read became less of a luxury and more of a necessity, as did education. Soldiers at the front needed to read the emperor's orders.



Traders, soldiers, clergy, bakers and musicians all now had business at the printer's shop. They talked. They learned of things, both in conversation and by reading printed material.

As more people learned to read new ideas germinated and spread and still newer ideas were born. More material from various sources was published and people were freer to read what they wanted when they wanted. The authorities – church and the king – were now less able to control communication and therefore the culture of the people. New ideas about the world appeared and new understanding of the existing world flourished.

Duplication also provided the means of standardization and preservation. Myth and superstition gave way to standard, verifiable bodies of knowledge. History, Economics, Physics and Chemistry all became part of the culture's intellectual life. Literate cultures were now on the road to modernization. Printed materials were the first mass-produced product, speeding the development and entrenchment of capitalism. Use of the printing press helped fuel the establishment and growth of large middle classes. Printing had given a powerful voice to the people. The French Revolution and the Industrial Revolutions followed.

The history of the book presents us with a complete, observable communications revolution. The historical record is such that we can watch the whole of a vast socio- cultural, political and economic change happens over a period of some three to five hundred years (depending on whose perspective you prefer). By following the developments in manuscript and print book production, tied to the changes in the technologies used to produce those texts, we can also chart the various changes in social organization, politics and economics from the feudalism of the 7th century, through to the advent and advance of early capitalism in the 15th century.

The implications of the printed word are vast. There are those who argue that Martin Luther and the Protestant revolution could not have taken place if it were not for the printing press. While this is not entirely valid, the press and the already wide distribution of books and other printed matter in Luther's time certainly added to the distribution of his ideas and work. In the shifts in the world from the mid-15th century to the end of the 18th century, it is possible to trace the divergence of science from religion and the opening up of the new world.

In order to understand the effect of printing in the 15th century, you have to go back to the 7th century and see how the book world was organized prior to the advent of printing. Then you can see what changed along with the introduction of printing.

In their view, print came along and sustained that revolution, with the promotion of vernacular languages and new information. But the early Italian Renaissance was initiated by a social restructuring of learning through the emergence of a university system.

The 7th to 13th Century can be called the age of religious "manuscript" book production. Books in this period are entirely constructed by hand, and are largely religious texts whose creation is meant as an act of worship. 13th to 15th Century: The secularization of book production. Books are beginning to be produced that do not serve as objects of worship, but that try to explain something about the observable world. The difficulty with the spread of such knowledge is that production is still taking place via pre-print - manuscript - methods.

1.2.1 Production of secular books

The production of secular books is driven by two things, they are: the rise of universities in Europe, spreading from Italy and the return of the crusaders in the 13th century, who bring with them texts from Byzantium. These books, written during the Greek and Roman periods in history, focus on this-world concerns. By far, the biggest effect of the universities, print books and an increasingly literate reading public came in the emerging scientific fields of Botany, Geography and Astronomy.

In large part, the rise of Science as a replacement for religion as a way of seeing the world has to do with the changing nature of libraries. Instead of a few repositories, usually in the control of the church, people began to accumulate private libraries.

Misinformation in books was impossible to spot until you could gather a stack of books together on the table and do comparisons. In much the same way that literacy allows for critical reflection, print books pushed this ability into a

new dimension. For the first time private individuals could gather a collection of books which allowed them to examine a range of opinions and attempt to fix invariance's in the world. In this case, the knowledge that underlies an emerging science did not have to come from direct experience in the world, but could instead come from experience with books.

In the early 13th century, science got a boost from the Crusaders returning from the Holy Land. These men brought back copies of the texts of the Greeks and Romans, lost to European audiences since the fall of Rome. Included in those texts were science texts from the Greeks. The 19th century saw a series of important refinements in the process of printing. Continuous roll paper, which permitted rapid printing of large numbers of identical, standardized pages, was invented in France in the beginning. Soon after in 1811, a German Friedrich Koenig converted the printing press from muscle to steam power, speeding production of printed material and reducing its cost. In 1830 Americans Thomas Gilpin and James Ames perfected a wood-grinding machine that produced enough pulp to make 24 miles of paper daily, further lowering the cost of printing. Another most important development in this connection was the invention of the linotype machine in 1884 by Ottmar Mergenthaler, a German migrant to the US. Employing a typewriter-like keyboard, the linotype allowed printers to set type mechanically rather than manually. About the same time was invented offset lithography, which made it possible to print from photographic plates rather than from heavy and relatively fragile metal casts.

Of course, the developments of the late 20th century, which saw the advent of desktop publishing has, pushed many of the path-breaking inventions into history. Now the entire process is managed on computers except the last one in which the content is transferred to paper by the use of ink.

1.2.2 The Printing Catalyst

The invention of printing is a story of many inventions. We've already mentioned the development of paper by the Chinese. China was also responsible for the development of block printing. Character outlines were carved out of a block of wood, and the raised parts were linked and pressed against a piece of paper. The oldest surviving block printed book was published in 868. The Chinese also perfected a system of movable type, first using clay and later blocks of wood for individual characters. The Koreans too were experimenting with movable metal type by the beginning of the 15th century.

The next major invention occurred in Germany, where Johann Gutenberg is generally credited with developing a printing press that used movable metal type. Gutenberg published his famous Bible around 1453 and his new printing

method quickly spread across Europe. Only 30 years after Gutenberg's Bible appeared, there were printing presses in more than 110 towns in Western Europe alone. The total increase in the number of books available in Europe is impossible to calculate, but it can be safely said that by 1500 there were hundreds of times more books available than in 1450. As books proliferated, their cost went down. Although still expensive, books were no longer the exclusive possession of the very rich. Those who were relatively prosperous could now afford the printed book.

The consequences of the printing revolution are so far-reaching and extensive that it is impossible to discuss all of them. Most scholars seem to agree, however, on the most significant results.

1.2.3 Consequences of Gutenberg Revolution

First, the printing press helped the development of vernacular (everyday) languages across the European continent; Most of the pre-printing, hand-lettered books had been written in Latin, the language of the Catholic Church and of higher education. Reading these works therefore required the knowledge of a second language, which restricted the type of people who might use them to the educated elite. Many early printers, however, recognized that a broader market for their books would be available if they were published in French, German or English. Many printers also felt closer ties to their home country than to the church, further encouraging the printing of the books in native languages. This trend had other consequences. Bodies of information now became more accessible to more people, further encouraging the growth of literacy, and, in turn prompting more people to read and more books to be published. Finally, the use of the vernacular probably helped prepare the wave of nationalism that swept Europe in succeeding centuries.

1.2.4 Dawn of Reformation Movement in the Church

The printing press played a role in the religious upheaval that swept Europe in the 16th century. Before the press, those clerics who disagreed with the doctrines and policies of the church had limited channels for expression. Handwritten copies of their views were few, had limited circulation and could easily be censored or confiscated by the authorities. The situation was forever changed after Gutenberg. Theologian and religious reformer Martin Luther's writings were translated from Latin into the vernacular, printed as pamphlets, and distributed all over Europe. It has been estimated that it took only a month for his famous Ninety-five Theses (the ones he nailed to the church door in Wittenberg, Germany) to be diffused across Europe. One of his later pamphlets sold 4,000 copies in a month. Despite efforts by the church to confiscate and burn his

writings, the Reformation movement continued. In addition, the printing of the Bible in the vernacular meant that individuals now had direct access to the core of their religious belief system. The Bible could now be read directly and interpreted individually; there was no need for clerical intervention. This increased access to information further weakened the power of the Catholic Church and helped the spread of Protestantism.

Moreover, the arrival of printing speeded up the publication of scientific research. Although it would still be considered agonizingly slow today in an era of e-mail and the Internet, printing a book of scientific findings took far less time than it did when manuscripts were handwritten. Printing also ensured that identical texts would be read by scientists in different countries and helped them build on the work of others. Galileo and Newton came along in the 17th century, after advances in the 16th-century printing.

1.2.5 Printing Press and Exploration

The printing press even helped exploration. The efforts of the Vikings are little known, due in part to the fact that they explored during a time when it was difficult to record and publicize their exploits. Columbus visited America after printing developed and his deeds were widely known in Europe a year after his return. Printed accounts of the discoveries of early explorers found a ready audience among those eager to find wealth or bring religion to the New World. Many early developers published glowing (and sometimes overly optimistic) accounts of life in the new lands, hoping to promote investments and help business. Printed books that contained navigational and geographic information about the Americas helped the journeys of the early voyagers.

1.2.6 Effects on the Scholarship and Knowledge

Further, the printing press had a profound effect on the growth of scholarship and knowledge. Whereas access to handwritten textbooks was difficult, university students now had printed texts. (Think how hard it would be to take this course if everybody in the class had to use just one textbook.) As the number of books increased, so did the number of students who studied at a university. Literacy increased further. Interest in the classical works of Greece and Rome was revived, as they appeared in printed books that were read by many. Books based on the scholarship of other countries appeared. The advances in mathematics made by the Indians, Muslims and Arabs were disseminated. Without the printing press, the Renaissance of the 16th century might not have occurred.

Finally, the printing press led to the development of what we would today call news. Early newspapers sprang up in Europe at the beginning of the 17th

century. These early publications were primarily concerned with foreign-news. It wasn't long, however, before these early papers focused on domestic news as well. This development did not sit well with some early monarchies and Government attempts to suppress or censor news content was not unusual. It took until the end of the 17th century to establish the notion of a press free of Government control. The early newspapers made Government and political leaders more visible to the public and helped create a climate for political change in both Europe and America.

1.2.7 Printing Technology and Cultural Change

Before leaving this topic, we should point out that it is easy to ascribe too much significance to the printing press. The above discussion makes it easy to assume that the printing press was the prime mover behind all these effects. Such a view is called technological determinism-the belief that technology drives historical change: A more moderate position suggests that technology functions with various social, economic and cultural forces to bring about change. Printing didn't cause the Reformation, but it probably helped it occur. And vernacular languages were growing in importance before Gutenberg, but his invention certainly helped them along. In any case, the birth of printing marks the beginning of what we have defined as mass communication and it is certainly a momentous event in Western history.

The next centuries brought further refinements to printing. A metal press was developed by the late 1790s: steam power to drive the press was added shortly thereafter. Advances in printing technology helped usher in the Penny press, a truly mass newspaper. A better grade of paper made from wood pulp came into use in the 1880s, about the same time as Linotype machine that that could compose and justify a whole line of metal type. Photo engraving 'brought better visuals to the paper in the 1890s, as did the development of half tone photography a few decades later. Hot metal type gave way to photocomposition and offset printing in the 1970s and 1980s and the – computer ushered in an age of relatively cheap desktop printing a few years later. Printing has changed a great deal over the years, but its consequences are still there with us.

The next two communication milestones occurred during what many have called the age of invention and discovery, the period roughly encompassing the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries. The reasons behind the many achievements of this period are several. The great explorations of previous centuries had brought different cultures together and scholars were able to share ideas and concepts. Further, there was a change in the way people generated knowledge itself. The traditional authority of the Catholic Church was eroding and intellectuals looked less to revelation as a source of knowledge and more toward reason and observation. Philosophers such as Bacon, Descartes and Locke argued for systematic research based on what the senses could perceive. In addition, scientific societies in Italy, France and Great Britain helped advance the frontiers of knowledge. And, as we have already mentioned, the printing press helped distribute news of current discoveries to all, prompting others to new breakthroughs. Whatever the reasons, these three centuries saw such advances as Galileo's use of the telescope and the notion of a heliocentric solar system; the theory of blood circulating through the body; Newton's theory of gravitation; the roots of modern chemistry; electricity; and the discovery of microscopic bacteria. Inventions came along at a dizzying rate: the steam engine, the locomotive, the plow, the internal combustion engine, the automobile, the sewing machine, the dynamo and a host of others. Not surprisingly, the field of communication also saw major developments, as the next two milestones demonstrate.

Check your Progress

4. Who is the father of printing press?
5. Write short notes on printing press revolution.

Thus we conclude that the immediate effect of the printing press was to multiply the output and cut the costs of books. It thus made information available to a much larger segment of the population who were, of course, eager for information of any variety. Libraries could now store greater quantities of information at much lower cost. Printing also facilitated the dissemination and preservation of knowledge in standardized form this was most important in the advance of science, technology and scholarship. The printing press certainly initiated an "Information Revolution" on par with the Internet today. Printing could and did spread new ideas quickly and with greater impact.

Printing stimulated the literacy of lay people and eventually came to have a deep and lasting impact on their private lives. Although most of the earliest books dealt with religious subjects, students, businessmen and upper and middle class people bought books on all subjects. Printers responded with moralizing, medical, practical and travel manuals. Printing provided a superior basis for scholarship and prevented the further corruption of texts through hand copying. By giving all scholars the same text to work from, it made progress in critical scholarship and science faster and more reliable.

1.3 LET US SUM UP

Chronological history of writing

1. 4000 BCE - wet clay required a sharp tool to create wedge-shaped symbols (pre- cuneiform) in Mesopotamia.
2. 3000 - 2500 BCE - hieroglyphics. Papyrus required pigment, a powder from plants that makes paint or ink, and a brush, reed or stalk feathers to write in Egypt
3. 2500 - 2000 BCE - clay seals also required a sharp tool to create symbols and pictures of animals in Indus River Valley. Around 2300 BCE cuneiform that appeared more random became linear and progressed from left to right show images and artifacts
4. 1500 BCE - palm leaves with fibers that lent themselves to rounded characters seen in India and Southeast Asia. A sharp tool was used to engrave the letters then a wash of ink was placed over the entire leaf allowing the ink to seep into the grooves created by the tool. The ink was then wiped off the leaf leaving the script clearly visible
5. 100 BCE - Phoenician alphabet
6. 300 BCE - ceramics, walls, bark-paper, carved wood or stone and figures molded on stucco sometimes used with paint in the Mayan civilization
7. 200 BCE - the smooth surface of parchment (goat or sheep skin) worked well with brushes and quill pens in Europe and Middle East.
8. 200 BCE - paper made from Mulberry bark, hemp or rags worked well with brushes and quill pens in China.
9. Once paper was invented it soon was widely used. It could be produced quickly and cheaply and the method was transmitted by the Silk Road to Central Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. Around the 8th century the Arab world became a major manufacturing center and paper was mass-produced in medieval Europe during the 13th century.
10. 200 CE - China invented woodblock printing used on silk.
11. 700 CE - China invented woodblock printing for paper. Text was written on paper then glued face down on a woodblock. The characters were then carved out. This had to be done for each page of the book.
12. 1000 CE - China invented movable type. Individual characters were carved in clay.
13. 1440 CE - Johannes Gutenberg in Mainz, Germany invented printing press. This led to mass production of books. The availability and affordability of the printed word allowed more people access to information.

14. 1867 CE - typewriter was invented.
15. From the 1960s to present day there has been a rapid evolution of communication technology: computers, smart phones and tablets, all connected by the Internet.

1.4 LESSON – END EXERCISES

1. Discuss the various stages of development in writing.
2. Elaborately explain the impact of Gutenberg's Revolution.

1.5 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Prepare a special article on the genesis of writing to publish in your local newspaper. What are the major points of development in writing would you discuss in your article.

1.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The Sumerians were developing a writing system, which we now call cuneiform (from the Latin meaning wedge shaped).
2. The earliest Chinese writing was "oracle bone" script, inscribed on tortoise shell or ox bone during the Shang Dynasty, ca. 1600 - 1000 BCE. Priests burned the shell or bone and then read the cracks as good or bad omens.)
3. In the first place, it created a new division in society. Before writing, everybody had about the same degree of communication skills they could speak and hear. But not everybody could read and write. Second, writing helped make possible the creation of empires. Writing made organization easier. Tax collection records could be kept more efficiently, as could the accounts of payments.
4. Johannes Gutenberg
5. The printing press had a profound effect on the growth of scholarship and knowledge. Printing stimulated the literacy of lay people and eventually came to have a deep and lasting impact on their private lives. The printing press was to multiply the output and cut the costs of books. The printing press led to the development of what we would today call news. The printing press even helped exploration.

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UNIT – 1

LESSON – 2

PRINT HISTORY IN INDIA

INTRODUCTION

The history of printing is also a history of people, culture and trade. Technological changes come as they are needed and as people are ready for them. Cultures rise to their day in the sun and fall into decline, sometimes suffering a long darkness. Printing began as all things begin: a thousand efforts, with no goal in sight, no big picture, combined in a thousand ways to affect a thousand ends. The history of printing could as well be the history of civilization.

Human beings' instinctive curiosity to know about what is happening around has always been there. The writings on the walls and on stones dating back to several centuries before Christ were the first signs of the origin of the press in India. Emperor Ashoka's edicts renouncing violence after the Kalinga war are available to this day on stone. Later, paper and writing materials were invented; state records in the form of messages from spies were maintained in a rudimentary form. According to J. Natarajan, "newsletters" were the earliest though rough form of 'newspaper'. The newsletters were regularly issued during the Mughal period. These manuscript newspapers were the only source of information about the developments taking place in various parts of the empires of kings, down the ages.

Have we ever stopped by to think what led to the development of print history in India? And why did we at all need to know them? What was the first communication vehicle? What are the impacts of printing in Indian society? To answer these questions let us look at the evolution of printing in India itself which made it mandatory to invent and discover various print media for disseminating and transmitting information.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Trace out the genesis of Printing in India
- Know the Pioneers of Printing in India

- Know the impacts of writing
- Describe press as Fourth Estate.

UNIT STRUCTURE:

2.1 Print History In India

2.1.1 The Pioneers

2.1.2 The First Printed Work

2.1.3 The Boost to Literature

2.1.4 Prodigious Outputs

2.1.5 Impacts of Printing in India

2.2 Press As Fourth-Estate

2.3 Let Us Sum Up

2.4 Lesson-End Exercise

2.5 Points For Discussion

2.6 Answers To Check Your Progress

2.7 Suggested Readings

2.1 PRINT HISTORY IN INDIA

2.1.1 The Pioneers

It was Christian missionaries, who wanted to produce the *Bible* in the several languages of the country, who introduced printing and publishing in India. In fact, we got the first printing press as a happy accident: As early as 1542, Francis Xavier, a Spaniard, was teaching the *Bible* in Tharangambadi (Tranquebar), Tamil Nadu. Also, when the Viceroy of Goa, on behalf of King Joan III of Portugal, opened schools for Indians, books had to be provided. Thus, pressure was put on Portugal by Francis Xavier to dispatch printing presses to India, Ethiopia and Japan. Meanwhile, the Emperor of Abyssinia (Ethiopia) requested the king of Portugal to send a press along with the missionaries. Thus the first batch of Jesuit missionaries left for Ethiopia on March 29, 1556. En route, they arrived in Goa on September 6, 1556. But, while they were preparing to proceed to Ethiopia, news reached them that the Ethiopian Emperor was not keen to receive the missionaries. Thus, as luck would have it, the press stayed in Goa and was set up at the College of St. Paul in Goa. Today, the huge arch of the St. Paul's College gate, restored by the Archaeological Survey of India, stands as a witness to this pioneering effort.

2.1.2 The First Printed Work

Printing technology came to India in 1556. It was the Jesuit priests who brought this technology to our country. The first book printed in India was in Portuguese language in Old Goa. It was *Doctrina Christa* by St. Francis Xavier. The invention of printing has revolutionized mass communication. Books are printed in large numbers and circulated in many countries. No other invention has had such an influence in the history of mankind. The missionaries established a number of printing presses in many parts of India, triggering a language and literature revolution.

The history of printing in India is the story of the re-awakening of a nation. No wonder, when B.S. Kesavan wrote the three-volume comprehensive **History of Printing and Publishing in India**, published by National Book Trust (1985), he sub-titled it as "A Story of Cultural Re-awakening". In his words: "The history of printing starts with the rehearsal of Evangelist efforts — Catholic and Protestant. Fifty-nine years after the landing of Vasco da Gama in India, the printing press opened its account at Goa, a few decades after the beginning of the 16th century. Within a hundred years of the printing of Gutenberg's Bible in Germany, India initiated its groping towards fashioning of types for the many Indian languages."

The story of printing is not merely a matter of what was printed when, but how the Gutenberg invention proved a handmaid to the cultural uplift of the nation. In literature, spanning all its genres, in art, in music, in folklore, in language and rhetoric, how did printing expand the intellectual horizons in the country? How did printing achieve this in the sciences, in philosophy, in the social sciences, and various other disciplines? Points out Kesavan: "The promethean effort of bringing knowledge from exclusive palm-leaves and other manuscripts into the houses of ordinary people, and familiarise them with their cultural heritage, is an aspect of this history in every Indian language. How printing has served tradition, and also challenged tradition, is a very exciting story. Printing has no political, social or religious barriers and is a mode of broadcasting ideas adopted by all shades of opinion".

If the location of the earliest printing presses in India were plotted on the map, it will be found that they were all located along the coastline of peninsular India. Goa, Cochin, Punnaikyal (near Kanyakumari), Vypicottai (near Kodungalloor) and Amblakkadu (near Thrissur), were the places along the west coast. Tharangambadi (Tranquebar), Madras, Fort William, Calcutta and Serampore along the east coast represent the shaping of Indian printing. Bombay contributed its share towards the second phase of the vigorous growth of early

Indian printing. Roman priests of the Catholic Missions and the Protestant Missions from Europe fathered and furthered this impulse in their anxiety to translate the *Bible* and thus spread the Word of God.

2.1.3 Boost to Literature

The start of printing in Goa spread along the southern coast and its attainment of maturity at Tharangambadi and Madras has been described as the dawn of printing in India, but the sunrise in all its brilliance was when William Carey set foot in India on November 11, 1793. The Bengali alphabet in movable type followed a long time after the Tamil alphabet had been devised in movable type. The Serampore Mission of Carey was a pioneer in this respect, helped by William Ward and Joshua Marshmann, establishing a press in Serampore in 1800. Two able Indians, Panchanan Karmakar and Manohar helped in casting the types, publishing in 40 Indian languages, for the first time. Carey also set up the first paper making factory and the first foundry in India.

Nathan Brown, Oliver Cutter and Miles Bronson, all missionaries, established a press in Sadiya, Assam in 1838, bringing a literary revolution in several Northeastern languages. William Fyvie, the first in Gujarat, publishing in Gujarati, set up the Surat Mission Press in 1820. The Wesleyan Mission Press, established in 1820 and the Basel Mission press set up in 1840, boosted Kannada publishing. The CMS Press established by Benjamin Bailey in Kottayam in 1821 and the Basel Press by Hermann Gundert in Thalassery in 1838 revolutionised Malayalam publishing.

The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge (SPCK) established a press in Tharangambai (Tranquebar) in 1713. Many missionaries, including Ziegenbalg, Schultze, Beschi, Nobili, Fabricius, Rhenius, Rottler, Winslow, G.U. Pope and Calwell were involved in promoting Tamil language and literature. And C.P. Browne laboured for Telugu language. In Bombay, the American Mission Press was established in 1812.

2.1.4 Prodigious Output

Thus, in most of the Indian languages, the pioneer publishers were *Bible* translators. Also the Christian missionaries, as pioneers, produced 86 dictionaries, 115 grammar books and 45 journals in 73 languages of India during these years. For example, in Goa, the cradle of Indian printing, it was Fr. Thomas Stephens (1549-1619) who produced the first "Konkani Grammar". Also it was Fr. Diogo Ribero (1560-1633) who published the first dictionary in Konkani in two volumes in 1626.

Check Your Progress

1. When did Printing technology come to India?

2. What was the name of the first book printed in India, was in Portuguese language in Old Goa?

3. Who helped to The Serampore Mission of Carey was a pioneer in this respect, for establishing a press in Serampore in 1800?

The introduction of printing and the consequent development of the languages of India had a tremendous socio-political impact, leading to enlightenment and empowerment. The second half of the 19th century began to witness a change from the old to the new, from the medieval to the modern. A scientific new educational system was being launched and practices like Sati (widow burning) and infanticide were being abolished.

2.1.5 Impacts of Printing in India

In the realm of literature, the foundations of prose had already been laid. In the words of B.S. Kesavan, it was indeed "The dawn of the Indian Renaissance... The missionaries, through the introduction of printing and publishing helped the Indians think of the need for political freedom and social progress and at the same time question certain traditional superstitious beliefs and practices. In a word, literature of the modern age became democratic. Whereas in the past, ownership of a handwritten book used to be a matter of pride, now, thanks to the advent of the printing press, even a man of average means could read and possess books".

After the establishment of the printing presses, newspapers began to appear in various cities. The first news journal in any Indian language was *Digdarshan*, published in 1818 by the Serampore Mission in Bengali, followed by *Samachar Darpan*. These newspapers proved a powerful medium for people to voice their thoughts and assert their rights.

Today, India has over 55,000 registered newspapers and periodicals. The missionaries also established the Serampore University in 1820, the first in Asia, besides a number of schools nationwide. Indeed, Indians are grateful to these visionaries who pioneered printing and publishing 450 years ago, the fruit of which the nation is reaping now.

2.2 CONCEPT OF THE FOURTH-ESTATE

The fourth-estate is the public press, referred to as a collective and encompassing photographers, journalists, television broadcasters and radio announcers, among others. Many people generally agree that the fourth-estate has immense political and social power, thanks to the fact that the press can be used to shape societies while imparting news of note and commentary of interest. Because the fourth-estate is recognized as such an important body, many nations have laws which protect the rights of the press, ensuring that citizens have access to reporting on matters of interest and of note.

The origins of the term "the fourth-estate" are best explained within the context of the medieval "estates of the realm." In medieval society, three "estates"

were formally recognized: the clergy, the nobility and the commoners. Each estate had a very distinct social role and a certain level of power and the idea of the estates of the realm became so entrenched in European society that it still lives on, to some extent, although society is far more egalitarian today.

In the middle of the 19th century, people began referring to the press as a fourth-estate, referencing the fact that most parliaments and other houses of Government had an area set aside specifically for the use of the press and pointing out that the press was a distinct group within the larger framework of the realm. Several historians credit the coinage of the term to Edmund Burke, who is said to have referenced the fourth estate when discussing the French Revolution, and Thomas Carlyle, a 19th century author, popularized the term.

The press plays a very important role in most societies, reporting on a wide variety of topics and creating powerful personalities who are relied upon for sources of information and commentary. Writing about the first estate in 1841, Thomas Carlyle pointed out that the press had a powerful role in parliamentary procedure, shaping the will of the people and influencing the outcome of votes among the Government, as well. Carlyle also argued that the press was an important part of a democratic society, saying that writing gives people “a tongue which others will listen to.”

Because of the importance of journalism in society, most members of the fourth-estate abide by certain professional and personal ethics. Many journalists attempt to cultivate an air of neutrality, focusing on reporting of the issues as they are so that people can judge the facts for themselves, while others focus on offering commentary and analysis from the perspective of a particular position. Journalists are careful as a whole to protect the integrity of the press, protecting sources, verifying information before publication, and using a variety of other techniques to convey a trustworthy appearance to the public, encouraging people to put their faith in the press.

2.3 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we attempted to trace out the history of printing history in India. We have also elaborately discussed on pioneers of printing in India especially on Christian missionaries’ contributions. The start of printing in Goa spread along the southern coast and its attainment of maturity at Tharangambadi and Madras has been described as the dawn of printing in India. The prodigious output and impacts of printing press also have reviewed. Finally, we concluded this lesson by examining press as Fourth Estate.

Check Your Progress

4. Who pointed out that the press had a powerful role in parliamentary procedure, shaping the will of the people and influencing the outcome of votes among the Government, as well?

5. Who should be careful as a whole to protect the integrity of the press, protecting sources, verifying information before publication, and using a variety of other techniques to convey a trustworthy appearance to the public, encouraging people to put their faith in the press?

2.4 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Trace out the print history in your locality.
2. Write an essay out the history of a newspaper that you are reading it.

2.5 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Suppose if you are asked to deliver a talk on 'History of Print in India', what are the salient points to be reviewed.

2.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. 1556
2. Doctrina Christa
3. William Ward and Joshua Marshmann
4. Thomas Carlyle
5. Journalists

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UNIT – II

LESSON – 3

EARLY GROWTH OF JOURNALISM

INTRODUCTION

Journalism as a craft, a profession and even as a trade or business is over two centuries old. It was made possible by coming together of a number of technologies as well as several social and political and economic developments. The main technologies that facilitated the development of large-scale printing and distribution of print material were the printing press and the railways.

As a craft Journalism involves specialization in one area (editorial, design, and printing); for the reporters and the sub-editors for instance, it entails writing to a deadline, following routines in a conveyor-belt like workplace, while respecting the division of labor in the newsroom and the printing press. In earlier times, knowledge of type writing and shorthand were the main skills demanded; today computing and DTP skills are in demand for all areas of Journalism. Also the divisions among the different areas have become blurred.

As a profession it is markedly different from other established professions like law, medicine, engineering, management or teaching. While the established professions require some specialized educational qualifications and training to be recruited to them, Journalism does not make any such requirement essential. There is no bar to anyone entering the profession no matter what ones educational background or professional experience is. From the very beginning Journalism (like the other media professions such as Advertising, Public Relations, Film, Television, Theatre and Publishing) has been and still remains, an open profession. Further, Journalism has no distinct body of knowledge that defines the profession and marks its relationship with its clients (readers, advertisers, advertising agencies, public relations officials' and others) and other professions. This lesson will provides you with early history and growth of Indian journalism and the contribution of Raja Ram Mohan Roy and the language press.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe what is journalism
- Understand the gradual growth of Indian Print journalism

- Comprehend the role of journalism in the freedom movement
- Appreciate the contributions of great leaders of freedom movement
- Explain the role of vernacular press in India

UNIT STRUCTURE:

3.1 History Of Journalism

3.1.1 Handwritten Bulletin to Newsletter

3.1.2 From Books to Newspapers

3.1.3 Early Indian Newspapers

3.2 Early Growth Of Indian Journalism

3.2.1 National and English Press

3.2.2 Madras

3.2.3 Bombay

3.3 Raja Rammohan Roy

3.3.1 Atmiya Sabha

3.3.2 Publications and Literary Works

3.4 The Growth Of Language Press

3.4.1 Famous Leaders and Journalists and Newspapers

3.4.2 Vernacular Press Act

3.4.3 Great Newspapers

3.5 Let Us Sum Up

3.6 Lesson-End Exercise

3.7 Points For Discussion

3.8 Answers To Check Your Progress

3.9 Suggested Readings

3.1 HISTORY OF JOURNALISM AN OVER VIEW

The ancient Greeks had great orators like Demosthenes who spoke to large publics consisting of hundreds or even thousands of people who would assemble in the amphitheaters. Obviously there was no microphone in those days. Oratory was an art developed by the Greeks and the Romans.

Emperor Ashoka's rock edicts and pillar inscriptions in the third century B.C. are examples of rulers' attempts to communicate with a large number of their literate subjects and through them to the illiterates by word of mouth. The Roman rulers from Julius Caesar's time (100-44 B.C.) used wall postings containing imperial dicta to inform the public on a daily basis about what the public had to know or do. These "all-news bulletins" were called Acta Diurna (Daily Acts). Some historians consider them the first newspapers, but it is doubtful if they reached many Roman subjects directly. Perhaps their contents were orally

transmitted to the general public by those who were able to read them or by the town criers appointed for the purpose.

3.1.1 Handwritten Bulletins to Newsletters

From handwritten bulletins evolved handwritten newsletters and later lithographed newsletters and bulletins. Lithography (stone writing or printing from images of letters cut in stone) was stepping stone to other forms of printing. The latter evolved several centuries later. When mechanical printing came into existence in the early years of mechanical inventions. It was part of what later historians called the Industrial Revolution. Reference has already been made in the last chapter to the development of an ingenious device to speed up printing, namely, the movable type in China. PiSheng's invention in the 10th century did not catch roots in the East. When Marco Polo returned to Europe after his long tour of the Orient in the 13th century, he brought with him information about the art of printing from movable types. This kind of printing was prevalent in Korea too, but it fell into disuse for some reason.

It was Johann Gutenberg who revived and popularized the art of printing from movable types in Mainz, Germany around 1450. As mentioned before, this was indeed a revolutionary step in communication, perhaps the second revolution, the first being the invention of the art of writing.

Quicker and cheaper printing of books had a big impact on the course of socioeconomic and political communication in subsequent centuries. First, printing of secular books started. Until then the bulk of books printed consisted of religious texts. Even in the third quarter of the 15th century, most of the books printed in Europe were religious ones: the Bible, prayer books, catechisms, etc. But when secular books began to be printed, production and dissemination of information moved out of the compounds of religious institutions into the midst of common people.

Soon libraries started appearing. They became accessible to common people and the number of readers increased by leaps and bounds. The new middle class became literate and well informed in a number of areas, although the bulk of the printing efforts were still directed towards religious texts, pamphlets and tracts. Knowledge of the Bible, which until then was the prerogative of the priests, reached the newly literate middle class. The emancipation of religious thought from Orthodox Church controlled to individuals 'questioning of priests' teachings. Thus along with the Renaissance and the Revival of Learning, Europe witnessed the big religious Reformation initiated by Martin Luther and others. Direct access to the Bible led to different interpretations of its contents. In all these new

movements, printing of books and the formation of libraries and schools played important roles.

3.1.2 From Books to Newspapers

Learning and literacy spread from the aristocracy and the Church to the wealthy merchants and landlords first and then to the rising middle class of artisans, tradesmen and small entrepreneurs. The first two estates—the royalty or nobility and the church—gradually yielded place to the rising middle class because of the scientific and technical revolution of the time, especially because of the revolution in communication and the creation of wealth at the lower levels.

Printing also helped in spreading scientific and technical knowledge. After religious texts including pictures of saints and literature including classical works, it was technical manuals, which were printed the most. The descriptions of nature and different religions of the world were known afterwards. There was a simultaneous progression of new learning and old learning. And both affected the course of the socioeconomic, political, religious, cultural, scientific and technological life of the new nations of Europe.

Another far reaching effect of this printing revolution was the death of feudalism and the rise of nationalism and commercial capitalism, although the latter was tied to international colonialism right from the start, because of the adventurers in the sea and the ‘discovery’ of the new lands for colonization.

At home political changes were also taking place in the direction of democracy—at least democracy of the middle class, if not an all-pervasive democracy based on adult franchise. In England and Holland, the wealthy land-owning commercial class took reins of Government through parliamentary democracy, although property continued to be the criterion for voting rights. The kings of Europe had to yield many of their privileges to the representatives of the new middle class.

Information about new technologies, products and ways of thinking and styles of living spread not only within individual European nations but internationally, especially into those countries that had already established colonies in far off lands.

Explorers and adventurers like Columbus, Vasco da Gama and Sir Francis Drake brought not only silver and gold from other lands but information about the lands and the peoples they had ‘discovered.’ Trade and commerce needed information aid and one dependable medium was the printed bulletin (that is what the newspaper was in the beginning).

About 1550 A.D. the Government of Venice issued bulletins that cost one 'gazeta' or 'gazel', a Venetian coin. In later years, gazette, a term derived from the Venetian coin, became synonymous with the newspaper.

Meanwhile, the technique of printing had spread to England through William Caxton's efforts in 1476 and to the New World in 1539 through Juan Pablos. But it took almost a century and a half for England to have its first newspaper, Weekly News (1622).

The first real newspaper of England was Daily Courant (1702); and that of the U.S., the Boston Newsletter (1704), although some historians consider increase Mather's newspaper of 1689 as the first newspaper of the American Colonies. Others consider Benjamin Harris' Publick Occurrences: both Domestic and Foreign (1690) to be the first newspaper of the U.S. thought it lasted only for a while since it was banned by the British Governor of the colony on the grounds that it had not obtained the prior consent of the British King.

Stephen Day had brought printing to the Massachusetts Colony in 1639 and within 50 years, the first newspaper in the colony appeared. By the middle of the 17th century, the technique of printing had become an integral part of the commercial and economic life of Europe and North America. However, as in printing so in bringing out the printed newspaper, Germany led the west. The first printed bulletin in Germany, Avisa Relation oder Zeitung, came out in 1609. (Some historians consider the year to be 1615). None of these early newspapers were dailies. Moreover, most of them were view papers or trade bulletins with a sprinkling of news items; they were not newspapers in the modern sense.

3.1.3 Early Indian Newspapers

During the early centuries, the rulers of the Mauryan Empire founded by Ashoka's grandfather. Chandragupta Maurya (321 B.C.), indulged in secret newsgathering through intelligence personnel (spies) who gave regular news reports to the rulers. This system continued up to the Mughal period. Akbar the Great (1556-1605) established a recording office in 1574, where news writers and copyists known as Waquiah Nawis prepared manuscript newspapers based on newsletters arriving from the far corners of the Empire. These manuscript newspapers were prevalent even during Aurangzeb's reign (1659-1707).

3.2 EARLY GROWTH OF INDIAN JOURNALISM

3.2.1 The National and the English Press

William Bolts, an ex-employee of the British East India Company attempted to start the first newspaper in India way back in 1776. Bolts had to beat

Check your Progress

1. Who are the news writers of Akbar the Great?

2. Describe Acta Diurna.

a retreat under the disapproving gaze of the Court of Directors of the Company. The Bengal Gazette by James Augustus Hicky was started in 1780. The Gazette, a two-sheet newspaper, "specialized" in writing on the private lives of the Sahibs of the Company. He dared even to mount "scurrilous attacks" on the Warren Hastings' wife, which soon landed "the late printer to the Honorable Company" in trouble.

Hicky landed himself a 4 months jail term and Rs.500 fine, which did not deter him. After a bitter attack on the Governor-General and the Chief Justice, Hicky was sentenced to one year in prison and fined Rs.5,000, which finally drove him to penury. These are the first tentative steps of journalism in India.

B.Messink and Peter Reed were plaint publishers of the India Gazette, unlike their infamous predecessor. The colonial establishment started the Calcutta Gazette. It was followed by another private initiative the Bengal Journal. The Oriental Magazine of Calcutta Amusement, a monthly magazine made it four weekly newspapers and one monthly magazine published from Calcutta, now Kolkata.

3.2.2 Madras

Now Chennai: The Madras Courier was started in the southern stronghold of Madras, which is called Chennai now. Richard Johnson was its founder, was a Government printer. Madras got its second newspaper when, in 1791 Hugh Boyd, who was the editor of the Courier quit and founded the Hurkaru. Tragically for the paper, Boyd passed away within a year of its founding - it ceased publication too. The India Herald only in that competitors to the Courier emerged with the founding of the Madras Gazette followed it. The latter was an "unauthorized" publication, which led to the deportation of its founder Humphreys. The Madras Courier was designated the purveyor of official information in the Presidency.

3.2.3 Bombay

Now Mumbai: Bombay surprisingly was a late starter - the Bombay Herald came into existence in. Significantly, a year later a paper called the Courier started carrying advertisements in Gujarati. The first media merger of sorts: The Bombay Gazette, which was started in 1791, merged with the Bombay Herald the following year. Like the Madras Courier, this new entity was recognized as the publication to carry "official notifications and advertisements". 'A Chronicle of Media and the State', by Jeebesh Bagchi in the Sarai Reader 2001 is a handy timeline on the role of the state in the development of media in India for more than a century. Bagchi divides the timeline into three 'ages'. The Age of Formulation, which starts with the Indian Telegraph Act in 1885 and ends with the Report of the Sub- Committee on Communication, National Planning Committee

Check Your Progress

3. When was the Bombay Gazette started?

4. Who is the father of Journalism in India?

5. Who is the founder of Mirat-ul-akhbar?

in 1948. The Age of Consolidation that follows stretches from with the extension of the Indian Telegraph Act to the whole of India and ends with the promulgation of the Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act in 1985. The current age is the Age of Uncertainty, which began in 1989 with the introduction of the Prasad Bharati (Broadcasting Corporation of India) Bill.

Though media and reporting were practiced during Mughal times in India the press in the modern sense came into existence in the early part of the 19th Century. The first newspapers were bulletins brought out by officials of the East India Company mainly as a means of exchanging gossip and to air grievances. The Bengal Harkuru and Bengal (Hickey's) Gazette were examples. (Show copies). The Company authorities did try to curb this but it was essentially an exchange of ideas between its British employees and management. In the second and third decades of the 19th century Indian nationalism began to grow as a concept. Raja Ram Mohan Roy, one of the men responsible for the infusion of new ideas in the country, also started the first nationalist newspaper. It was called the Mirat-ul-akhbar. Divisions within Indian society was the major problem facing anyone who had embarked on the road to building and uniting a nation. Common factors had to be emphasized. Rationalism rather than superstition or the diktat of the clergy was other important developments all over the world during the 18th and 19th centuries. That is why the initial tone of the nationalist newspapers in India was reformist – evils like sati were identified. Campaigns were run against them. A sympathetic British administration run by Company officials was persuaded to pass legislation to check these evil practices. Caste was seen as a major obstacle to unity among members of the newly emerging India. The urgent need for social and religious reform thus formed the content of most of the early newspapers.

The First Indian war of independence or the Sepoy Mutiny (as the British called it) in 1857 was a turning point. Subsequent to this event the British Government took full control over Indian administration.

The 1857 event signaled the diminishing power of the middle feudal classes like Zamindars and the rise of the new middle classes belonging to the professions who had received the new western style education. As administration became serious business for the British authorities, the new Indian middle classes started clamoring for a share in power. The Indian National Congress was formed. To give expression to their views and aspirations papers like the Amrit Bazar Patrika were founded. In the beginning these papers concentrated on demanding Indianisation of the growing administrative services. Later this graduated to the demand for responsible Government and self-Government. But they did not pay much attention to social reforms.

Some of the nationalist press did, however focus on the need for reforms in the social sectors like education, health and the removal of untouchability. Mahatma Gandhi's Harijan and Ramananda Chatterjee's Modern Review can be mentioned as examples.

3.3 RAJA RAM MOHAN ROY

Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772/74-1833) the great Hindu reformer, was born in a conservative Brahmin family in the village Radhanagar, West Bengal. He received the traditional education that was common in 18th century India. During his boyhood and early youth he had acquired remarkable proficiency in several oriental languages such as Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, besides Hindi and his mother tongue Bangla.

He became well versed in Hindu religious scriptures and through his close contact with Muslim scholars and officials of the revenue and judicial departments of the East India Company's Government gained considerable knowledge of Islamic theology and jurisprudence. It may be noted that until 1837 the East India Company's Government as the language of official business in revenue and judicial transactions retained Persian. Ram Mohan was also acquainted with the rudiments of ancient Greek philosophy and science such as Aristotle's Logic and Euclid's Principles which he had learnt through Arabic medium and had imbibed a somewhat critical and rational outlook. A comparative study of Islamic and Hindu theological scriptures and acquaintance with the works of the Sufi mystic poets of Persia, together with knowledge of Aristotelian logic, had enabled him at an early age to develop a somewhat revolutionary approach towards the traditional religions.

Ram Mohan's early works were written in Arabic and Persian. His first treatise entitled Manazaratul Adyan was devoted to discourses on various religions. This was never printed and is lost. Ram Mohan merely mentions it in his Tuhfat-ul-Muwahhiddin (A Gift to Monotheists), a tract written in Persian with Arabic title and preface. It was published in 1803-04 at Murshidabad where he was living at that time. In this remarkable work Rammohun boldly asserted that 'falsehood was common to all religions without distinction' and maintained that realization of One Universal Supreme Being could be attained by individuals.

3.3.1 Atmiya Sabha

In 1814 Ram Mohan came and settled in Calcutta and in 1815 founded the Atmiya Sabha - an association for the dissemination of the religious truth and the promotion of free discussions of theological subjects. Amongst the rich and influential who gathered around him at that time were Prince Dwarkanath Tagore of Jorasanko, Prasanna Kumar Tagore of Pathuriaghata, Kali Nath and Baikuntha

Nath Munshi of Taki, Raja Kali Shankar Ghoshal of Bhukailash etc. But the meetings of the Sabha were not the only means to propagate his doctrines. Here recital and expounding of Hindu scriptures were done and Govinda Mala would sing songs composed by Ram Mohan. In 1819 there took place a celebrated debate between Ram Mohan and Subrahmanya Sastri on the subject of idol worship in presence of the leading citizens of Calcutta including Raja Radhakanta Deb and Ram Mohan vanquished his adversary.

3.3.2 Publications and Literary Works

During the course of his researches into the domain of Sanskrit literature Ram Mohan was struck by the purity of the monotheistic doctrines of the Upanishads, which were in sharp contrast with the prevailing corruptions of Hindu idolatry. He decided to publish the Upanishads with his own preface and translations. These books produced an intense and widespread agitation in the Indian society

He published the Vedanta (1815), Ishopanishad (1816), Kathopanishad (1817), Moonduk Upanishad (1819), The Precepts of Jesus - Guide to Peace and Happiness (1820), Sambad Kaumudi - a Bengali newspaper (1821), Mirat-ul-Akbar - Persian journal (1822), Bengali Grammar (1826), Brahmapasona (1828), Brahmasangeet (1829) and The Universal Religion (1829). Ram Mohan was also instrumental in setting up the Hindu College in 1817 in Calcutta, which was renamed as Presidency College in 1856 when it was taken over by the Government. He also tried his utmost to repeal the Press Censorship Act of 1823 and even appealed to the King of England. Though his efforts proved fruitless at that time - the Act was finally repealed in 1835. Ram Mohan was the first to compose Dhrupad songs in Bengali in 1828. He felt the need of Dhrupad songs - noted for their depth, grandeur, simplicity and absence of decorative tonal effusion - for his Brahmo Sabha meetings. Tappa and Thungri, he felt, were much too frolicsome for such occasions. He composed thirty-two songs in Dhrupad style and introduced them in Brahmo Sabha gatherings.

Ram Mohan wrote in the Brahminical magazine where he assailed the Trinitarianism of Christianity and tried to prove that it was no better than the Hindu polytheism. This gave rise to great scandal amongst the orthodox Christian community. Ram Mohan also helped William Adam to set up a Unitarian mission in Calcutta in 1823. Till 1828 Ram Mohan regularly attended the Unitarian Sunday service of Mr. Adam. In fact he called himself to be a Hindu Unitarian and he silenced his critics by saying, "Because I feel already weary of the doctrine of Man God or God Man frequently inculcated by the Brahmins in pursuance of their corrupt traditions and the same doctrine of Man God though preached by

Another body of priests cannot effectually tend to excite my anxiety to listen to it. Because Unitarians believe, profess, inculcate the doctrine of divine unity, a doctrine which I find firmly maintained both by Christian scriptures and by our most ancient writings commonly called the Vedas."

His writings attracted the masses and had a large number of sympathizers. Also during this time Lord William Bentinck declared the abolition of Sutte act on 4th December 1829, due to Ram Mohan's tireless agitation against this evil practice. The orthodox Hindus under Raja Radhakanta Deb formed a rival association called Dharma Sabha to ridicule and protest against Ram Mohan's actions. In the midst of this furious party contests Ram Mohan opened his new church on 11th Magh, on 23rd January 1830. In 1825 he also opened the Vedanta College for the teaching of the monotheistic doctrines of the Upansihads.

As a Nationalist Reformer, Ram Mohan Roy had a three-fold mission: As a Hindu Reformer, he gave a Unitarian reaction of the Hindu Shastras from the Vedanta and the Mahanirvana Tantra As a Moslem defender of the faith, he wrote the Tuhfat-Ul-Muwahhiddin and the Monozeautul Adiyen, which were polemical works and As a Christian, he gave a Unitarian version of the entire body of scriptures, old and new, in his controversies with the Christian Missionaries."

3.4 THE GROWTH OF LANGUAGE PRESS

The 'press', in a sense, is as old as the human race itself. Human beings' instinctive curiosity to know about what is happening around always has been there. The writings on the walls and on stones dating back to several centuries before Christ were the first signs of the origin of the press in India. Emperor Ashoka's edicts renouncing violence after the Kalinga war are available to this day on stone. Later, paper and writing materials were invented; state records in the form of messages from spies were maintained in a rudimentary form. According to J.Natarajan, 'Newsletters' were the earliest though rough form of a 'newspaper'. The newsletters were regularly issued during the Mughal period. These "manuscript newspapers" were the only source of information about the developments taking place in various parts of the empires of kings, down the ages. The practice seems to have been continued until the East India Company acquired began ruling over India. It is the dissemination of these newsletters, which perhaps inspired James Augustus Hickey to start his newspaper *Bengal Gazette* in 1780.

The first printing press was established in Bombay in 1674, the second in Madras in 1772 and the third in Calcutta in 1779. Although, the British were responsible for bringing the printing press in India, they were most allergic to the

Check Your Progress

6. What is the name of the Bengali newspaper which was released on 1821?

7. Who declared the abolition of Sutte act on 4th December 1829, due to Ram Mohan's tireless agitation against this evil practice?

emergence of a newspaper in this country. Dr.R.Das Gupta, former Director, National Library, Calcutta, writes: "About 14 years before the establishment of the *Bengal Gazette*, one William Bolts, a merchant of Dutch origin, pasted a notice on the door of the council House in Calcutta to inform the public that they want of a Printing press in this city is a great disadvantage. On 17 April, 1767, the council at Fort William asked Bolts to quit Bengal and proceed to Madras in order to take his passage from there to Europe. The history of Indian press begins with the deportation of a person who wanted to found a newspaper. Hicky's initiative to publish his gazette was therefore an adventure".

Hicky's newspaper known as *Bengal Gazette* or *Calcutta General Advertiser* was born on 29 January, 1780 and described itself as "A weekly Political and Commercial Paper Open to All Parties but Influenced by None". The newspaper was mostly devoted to gossip, rumor and juicy and sob stories about doings and misdoings of the East Indian Company staff where he himself was employed as a clerk. His exposure of private lives of people at high places led to his imprisonment and banning of his paper for some time. In this regard, Hicky wrote: "I have no particular passion for printing of a newspaper. I have no propensity: I was not bred to slavish life of hard work, yet I take a pleasure in enslaving my body in order to purchase freedom for my mind and soul". His paper, however, languished as he suffered heavy losses. The enclosure of the paper came about in March 1782 when an order was issued for the seizure of the printing types.

Thereafter, several newspapers came into existence in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras in quick succession but they had a short life. The East Indian Company had now started taking a serious view of the contents of newspapers and imposed ruthless restrictions on the printing presses and editors. Censorship was introduced in Madras in 1759 when a newspaper entitled '*The Madras Gazette*' was required to submit for scrutiny all the material meant for publication. Similarly, in Bengal, several papers such as the *Bengal Journal*, *Indian World* and *Bengal Harkaru* had incurred the displeasure of the East Indian Company's authorities in one form or the other. A number of legal restrictions were imposed on the press soon after.

As J.Natrajan says, "the first two decades of the 19th century saw the imposition of a rigid control of the press by Lords Wellesley and Warren Hastings". The May, 1799 regulations required the newspapers to carry the names of the printer, editor and proprietor in every issue and to submit for scrutiny all material meant for publication. The censorship rules, however, were not strictly followed and also not so severely enforced. A lot of important development took place between 1813 and 1818, and consequently, among others, a number of

missionaries started publishing weekly and monthly newspapers in Bengal such as Dig Darshan, Samachar Darpan and the Friend of India, the precursor of The Statesman of today.

A number of regulations known as the Adams regulations of 1818 were issued. These gave enough freedom to the editors but a strict watch was kept on the contents of their papers. Around this time, Raja Ram Mohan Roy and James Silk Buckingham raised a voice for freedom of the press. Though pre-censorship was withdrawn, a number of rules continued to be in force to strictly deal with the press. Ram Mohan Roy's weeklies, Sambad Kaumdi in Bengali and Mirat-ul-Akbar in Persian, a Bombay's noted paper, Mubai Samachar, (which exists even today) started publication.

At this point of time, the press came out with some criticism of the administration. Therefore, the first press ordinance was issued in 1823. It laid down stringent regulations for the editors and heavy penalties and fines were prescribed for infringement. The East India Company staff was prohibited from having any relations with the newspapers. While political writings were forbidden, social and religious news, particularly those by missionaries, was encouraged. However, things changed when William Bentick became the Governor-General of India. He and Raja Ram Mohan Roy were instrumental in improving the social climate in the country and a somewhat liberal attitude was meted out to the press by the authorities. The press was allowed a measure of freedom. In 1835 when Charles Metcafe became the Governor-General, he relaxed several restrictions previously imposed on the press.

The first Indian-owned newspaper, according to N. Krishna Murthy, was the Bengal Gazette started by Gangadhar Battacharya. The press in several Indian languages has started making rapid strides. Urdu and Persian papers in northwest India won over many readers. Also, the Marathi and Gujarati press had started to make their presence felt. Besides, newspapers in Hindi, Malayalam, Kannada, Tamil, Oriya, Assamese and Punjabi appeared around 1850 or later.

When the 1857 war of independence broke out, the growth of the press received a setback. The press freedom, consequently, was curtailed drastically. After the failure of the war of independence, the governance of India changed hands from the East Indian Company to the crown in England. In 1859, when Lord Canning became the Viceroy of India, the India Penal Code (IPC) was adopted in 1860. A number of newspapers from Bengal, such as Nil Darpan, The Hindu, Patriot, Shome Prakash, Indian Mirror, Bengalee and several others influenced the Indian public opinion a great deal. With the appearance of the Amrita Bazar Patrika, first in Bengali and then dramatically changing over to the

English language, the complexion of journalism in India transformed suddenly and radically.

It needs to be recorded here that around this time a number of noted English language newspapers were established. The Times of India came into being with the amalgamation of four papers – The Bombay Times, The Courier, The Standard and The Telegraph. Besides, the three other noted English newspapers – The Pioneer, Civil and Military Gazette and The Statesman – were born. In Madras, The Mail (an evening) and The Hindu also came into existence soon after.

This period witnessed a boom in the Indian language press in the country. Several newspapers in almost all major Indian languages appeared on the horizon. The Bengali language press was of course on the forefront followed by the press in Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Tamil, Gujarati, Malayalam, Kannada, Punjabi and other languages.

3.4.1 Famous Leaders, Journalists and Newspapers

A number of India's great men, intellectuals, political leaders, thinkers and journalists came to be associated with the press in English and other Indian languages. Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Lala Lajpat Rai, Kasturi Ranga Iyengar, Surendra Nath Banerjee, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Mahadev Govind Ranade, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Motilal Ghosh, Syed Abdulla Brelvi, Aurobindo Ghose, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad and many others made their remarkable contributions in the development of the press in the country. Most of the eminent journalists were also eminent freedom fighters and vice-versa.

Several famous newspapers such as Bande Matram (Hindi), Kesari and Maratha (Marathi), Swadesamitran (Tamil), Amrita Bazar Patrika, National Herald, The civil and Military Gazette, Free Press Journal, Bombay Chronicle, The Leader, The Tribune, Madras Standard, The Hitavada and a large number of other papers in English came to be set up. There were a lot of problems that these newspapers had to confront. Kaleidoscopic restrictions on newsgathering, printing and display were imposed. Vernacular Press Act, Official Secrets Act, Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act, the newly introduced sections of the Indian Penal Code such 124-A, 153-A and 505, Defense of Indian Rules, Post Office Act, Press and Registration of Books Act, the Sea Customs Act and a large number of ordinances throttled the growth and development of the press in India in all respects from the very beginning.

3.4.2 Vernacular Press Act

When Queen Victoria assumed the title of “Empress of India” in 1857, nationalist leaders demanded a greater role in the conduct of Government affairs in India. The newspapers and journals devoted liberal space to news and comments on such events. Lord Lytton, worried over the increasing impact of the writings in the press, particularly in the language press and enforced the Vernacular Press Act on March 1, 1878, for stringently controlling the newspapers. The law came down heavily on the press. Under these regulations, any district magistrate or a police commissioner was empowered to force the printer and publisher of a newspaper to agree not to publish certain kinds of material, to demand security and to confiscate any printed matter it deemed to be objectionable.

According to N. Krishna Murthy, the Vernacular Press Act of 1878 was the greatest blow to the freedom of the Press in India and the Indian languages newspapers suffered most heavily because of this law. Again, according to him, “in order to keep the press fully posted with accurate and current information”, Lytton instituted the post of “Press Commissioner for India”. His main job was to liaise between the press and the Government.

3.4.3 Some Great Newspapers

When the Indian National Congress was established in 1885, a number of newspapers in several languages had large readerships. The Tribune, Kesari, Spectator, Indu-Prakash, Maratha, Amrita Bazar Patrika, The Pioneer, The Bangalee, The Englishman, The Hindu and others in all parts of India enjoyed a high reputation and large circulations. Meanwhile, the periodical journalism also surfaced at this point of time. The Illustrated Weekly was brought out in Bombay and the Capital was founded in Calcutta. Besides The Hindustan Review and Indian Review also came into being as monthly journals.

In 1889, when Lord Curzon took over as the Governor-General of India, a number of new measures such as the partition of Bengal and enactment of the India Official Secrets Act, 1889, further estranged the people from the British Government in India. The press opposed these steps tooth and nail. By that time, a number of draconian laws such as the Press and Registration of Books Act, and Sections 124-A and 505 of IPC had created tremendous difficulties for the press. Numerous Nationalist leaders such as Lala Lajpat Rai, Aurobindo Ghose, B.C.Pal, Lokmanya Tilak and several others had been arrested for their contributions in the press in diverse ways.

It should also be mentioned here that most of the great English language newspapers of India appeared between 1860s and early 1920s. These included

Check Your Progress

8. What is the name of the newspaper James Augustus Hickey started in 1780?

9. When was the Censorship introduced in Madras?

10. When was the Indian National Congress was established?

modern time greats such as The Hindu, The Times of India, The Statesman, The Amrita Bazar Patrika (defunct now), The Pioneer, The Hindustan Times, and of course several others in Indian languages all over the country.

3.5 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we attempted to illustrate the history of journalism from handwritten bulletin to newsletter, from books to newspapers and early Indian newspapers. The early growth of Indian journalism was explained in terms of national and English press, and its growth in Madras and Bombay. We also discussed Raja Ramohan Roy's contribution to early growth of Indian Journalism, and his publications and works. Finally we traced out the growth of language journalism, famous leaders, vernacular press act and great newspapers.

3.6 LESSON-END EXERCISES

1. Trace out the early history of Indian journalism
2. Explain the Raja Ramohan Roy contribution to Indian Journalism.
3. Elaborately discuss the vernacular act and language press.

3.7 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

If you are asked to teach the early history and growth of Indian Journalistic history to 10th standard students what are the main points would you discuss in your class.

3.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Waquiah and Nawis
2. The Roman rulers from Julius Caesar's time (100-44 B.C.) used wall postings containing imperial dicta to inform the public on a daily basis about what the public had to know or do. These "all-news bulletins" were called Acta Diurna (Daily Acts).
3. 1791
4. James Augustus Hicky
5. Raja Ram Mohan Roy
6. Sambad Kaumudi
7. Lord William Bentinck
8. Bengal Gazette
9. 1759
10. 1885

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4.1.2 James Augustus Hicky

James Augustus Hicky ventured to start a newspaper in Calcutta in January 1780. Before starting paper he took approval of the first British company

UNIT –II

LESSON – 4

EAST INDIAN COMPANY AND THE ROLE OF NEWSPAPERS

INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson we have discussed various early historic developments such as the media and reporting were practiced during Mughal times in India, the press in the modern sense that came into existence in the early part of the 19th Century and the first newspapers were bulletins brought out by officials of the East India Company mainly as a means of exchanging gossip and to air grievances. In the second and third decades of the 19th century Indian nationalism began to grow as a concept. Ram Mohan Roy, one of the men responsible for the infusion of new ideas in the country, also started the first nationalist newspaper. It was called the Mirat-ul-akhbar. In this lesson we discuss about the stringent measures taken by the East Indian Company authorities towards the Indian Nationalists Newspapers. We try to narrate about East Indian Company and its role. We would also discuss about early British journalists like William Bolts and James Augustus Hicky. We also tried our level best to trace out the difference between Vernacular Press and Fore Father's Press. We examine the controversy over Freedom Press, attitude of Colonial Government towards Press Areopegitica of Indian Press History, the Heyday of the Press and Press in First and Second World War. Finally we conclude with the Newspapers and their role in the National Liberation Movement.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe what is journalism
- Understand the gradual growth of Indian Print journalism
- Comprehend the role of journalism in the freedom movement
- Appreciate the contributions of great leaders of freedom movement
- Explain the role of vernacular press in India

UNIT STRUCTURE:

4.1 East Indian Company And The Role Of Newspapers

- 4.1.1. William Bolts
- 4.1.2. James Augustus Hicky
- 4.1.3. Liberty of Press
- 4.1.4. East Indian Company's Repressive attitude towards Indian Press
- 4.1.5. Difference between Vernacular Press and Fore Father's Press
- 4.1.6. Controversy over Freedom Press
- 4.1.7. Attitude of Colonial Government towards Press
- 4.1.8. Areopegitica of Indian Press History
- 4.1.9. The Heyday of the Press
- 4.1.10. General Estimate
- 4.1.11. Press in First and Second World War

4.2 The Newspapers And National Liberation Movement

- 4.2.1. Patriotic Writing
- 4.2.2. Gandhi's Influence
- 4.2.3. Saratcharndra Chattopadhyay
- 4.2.4. Press in Indian Freedom Movement

4.3 Let us Sum Up

4.4 Lessons-End Exercises

4.5 Points For Discussion

4.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

4.7 Suggested Readings

4.1 EAST INDIAN COMPANY AND ROLE OF NEWSPAPERS

4.1.1 William Bolts 1776

Journalism was not associated with politics in its earlier stages. It was one of the means of amusement in England. Because of its gutter press characteristics, it did not occupy respected place in the development of political and social ideas in the country. Journalism knocked the doors of India with the establishment of colonial rule after the battle of Plassey in 1740 A.D. The first periodical was started by Bolt in 1767 A.D. The objective of the paper was purely commercial. They dissipated sensational news about the corruption rampant in the East India Company. East India Company officials did not like the newspaper and felt supreme contempt for the newspapermen. The Company gutted the first newspaper and deported 'Bolts' the author of the paper.

4.1.2 James Augustus Hicky

James Augustus Hicky ventured to start a newspaper in Calcutta on 29th January 1780. Before starting paper he took approval of the East India Company.

He named his newspaper as Bengal Gazette or Calcutta General Advertiser. It consisted of 4 pages of 14 3/5 x 20 sizes with the inscription in bold letters, "a weekly political and commercial paper open to all parties but influenced by none." It became popular as Hicky's Bengal Gazette. Bengal Gazette in its bold and fearless writings criticized the political and commercial policies of the East India Company. He was a fierce and abusive critic of Warren Hastings, the Governor General of the East India Company in India and Chief Justice Sir Elijah Impey. He did not spare the clergies. He criticized the first Anglican Bishop of Calcutta, John Zachariah for his greed." He clearly mentioned that Warren Hastings and Elijah Impey were petty tyrants and himself as a spokesman for the unofficial community in the city and as guardian of the liberties of "freeborn Englishman." East India Company regarded him as interloper and trespasser of their personal property – the Indian territories. He had several bruising encounters with the company. The authorities forced to cease publication as a result of a successful private prosecution. Thus, in March 1782, the second newspaper was nipped in the bud. This is noteworthy that the British ventured the first two periodicals. They were written in English and edited by Englishmen and for English community in India and abroad. Thus, the earliest press in India was doomed.

4.1.3 Liberty of Press

This untimely sentence of Press raised an important issue of "Liberty of Press". Hicky fought for the Liberty of Press single-handed. Hicky emphatically stressed that the Liberty of Press was essential for the existence of an Englishman and free Gazette. "The subject should have full liberty to declare his principles and opinions and every act which tends to coerce that liberty is tyrannical and injurious to the community." Though, Hicky was convicted and his paper was discontinued but he laid the foundation of Free Press in India. From 1780 to 1793 six papers were started in Calcutta; The Calcutta Gazette in 1784, The Bengal Journal in 1785, The Oriental Maritime of Calcutta in 1785, The Calcutta Chronicle in 1786, The Madras courier in 1788, The Bombay Herald in 1787. Three papers and weeklies were started in Madras from 1785 to 1795. From 1789 to 1792 three weeklies and papers came into circulation in Bombay.

These newspapers had common characteristics. Firstly, they refrained themselves from the criticism of the Government, its official and policies. Editorials were mainly on political and military affairs. Public in general was not interested in them. They mainly published orders of the Government; Indian news; letter to the editors; notes on fashion and extracts from British newspapers. Taking lesson from Bolt and Hicky these papers tried to remain non-controversial and of non-political character consequently, officials were not apprehensive of them and some papers enjoyed favor of the Government. In spite of all this Government was

very cautious about the papers and whenever any news or criticism of the Government was published it took strong action against them. Bombay Gazette was asked by the authorities to submit every issue for censorship before publication. These newspapers were in English so the circulation was limited to English speaking Anglo-Indian and British community.

4.1.4 East India Company's repressive attitude towards Indian Press

The journalism took another significant step in 1818 when the first Bengali monthly paper Digdarshan (Indicator of ways) was started under the editorship of J.C. Marshman. Marshman was a missionary of Serampore, was its nominal editor; it was really conducted by Bengali pundits. The paper was disseminating liberal views and useful information on variety of topics of local interest. About the same time a weekly paper Bengal gejeti {Bengal Gazette} was published from Calcutta. The name of editors is not definite. No file of this paper is available but it is considered the first vernacular paper. Most probably Hara-Chand Ray, a member of Atmiya Sabha, founded by Raja Ram Mohan Roy edited it. The vernacular press, thus, started breathing. Another paper Sambada-Kaumudi appeared on 4th December 1821. He started a weekly Journal Miratul Akhbar in Persian. An English Mercantile firm in Calcutta started an Urdu weekly Jam-i-Jahan on 28th March 1822. It soon became a bilingual (Persian, Urdu) paper. The Bunga-Duta (Bengal Herald) a weekly, in four languages (English, Bengali, Persian, Hindi) was published by Raja Ramohan Roy. Dwarka Nath Tagore with some other distinguished citizens of Calcutta. Montgomery Martin edited it. The Gujarati Bombay Samachar was started in 1822 from Delhi. Several Urdu papers published from Delhi as Syed ul Akhbar, in 1837, Delhi Akhbar in 1838. An important English journal the Bombay Times, which later known as Times of India founded in 1838. In the same year Bombay Courier made its appearance. From 1818 to 1839 Calcutta had 26 European newspapers and 9 Indian newspapers; Bombay had 10 European and 4 Indian Journals; Madras had 9 European journals; Ludhiana, Delhi, Agra and Serampore, each had one newspaper. Sadasukh Lal launched an Urdu paper Jam-a-Jahan Numa at Calcutta. In 1823 Mani Ram Thakur brought out the Samsul Akhbar, which survived for 5 years only. On its closure editor wrote, "I have gained nothing by it except vexation and disappointment, notwithstanding what idlers and ignorant may please to assert." They showed the East India Company's repressive attitude towards Indian press. In spite of all this the Indian Journalism, continued its growth since its inception. The earliest authentic record 26 news Papers, 19 in Urdu, 3 each in Hindi and Persian, one in Bengali and two Magazines also from North West Provinces. In 1852 the number of Hindustani journals incresed to 34, Agra published 7 papers, Delhi 6, Meerut 2, Lahore 2, Benaras 7, Saradhna 1,

Barielly 1, Kanpur 1, Mirzapur 1, Indore 1, Ludhiana 2, Bharatpur 1, Amritsar 1, Multan 1. It was well accepted by the people of the land. Newspaper became part and parcel of Indian life.

4.1.5 Difference between Vernacular Press and Fore Fathers Press

It is really interesting to note that the Vernacular Press of India was totally different from its fore fathers (Bolt and Hicky). From the very beginning objective of the vernacular press was of disseminating useful knowledge, information and discussion on problems of Indian interest with a view to educate and instruct people. It was based on a distinguished high ideology. Raja Ram Mohan Roy's editorial published in *Miratul - Akhbar* in 1822 set the ideal; objective and line of action for the coming journalism in India. He expressed that, "My only object is that I may lay before the public such articles of intelligence as may increase their experience and tend to their social improvement; and that to that extent of my abilities I may indicate to the rulers a knowledge of the real situation of their subjects and make the subjects acquainted with the established laws and customs of their rulers; that the rulers may, more readily find an opportunity of granting relief to the people; and the people may be put in possession of the means of obtaining protection and redress from their rulers." Vernacular press thus assumed the role of an educationist, preacher and socio-religious reformer. The Vernacular press, thus, offered a refreshing contrast to the English press. English press catered only to a small group of Englishmen while vernacular press had large recipients. English press had flippant tone and its objective was amusement and entertainment, while vernacular press had dissipation of knowledge as its primary objective. This was entirely an indigenous version of journalism. The difference in aims and objectives soon divided the press into two parts; Indian, English Press and Vernacular Press. Thus, the house of journalism divided but its dominion spread far and wide.

4.1.6 Controversy over Freedom of Press

The growth of Indian Journalism caused alarm in the minds of many Englishmen. They expressed grave apprehensions that a free and unrestricted Press in India would jeopardize the sovereignty of England over India. President of the Board of Control, Dundas, British officials like Elphinstone, Munro, William C. Bentinck etc. were of the opinion that the unrestricted press might shake Government to its foundation. Munro's apprehension was based on an analysis of the character of press. He said, "A free press and the dominion of strangers are two things, which are incompatible and which cannot long exist together. The first duty of a press is to deliver the country from a foreign yoke and to sacrifice to this one great object every measure and consideration."

There was another school of thought in England. This school advocated free press. Leicester Stanhope, Francis Homes etc. were such Britons who argued that "a free press was the truest friend of good Government, the best protection against sedition and revolution and was particularly necessary to India as her people had no other way of bringing their grievances to the notice of the Government possessing vast discretionary powers." In India Charles Metcalfe supported the principle of free press. Thus, journalism in its infancy was surrounded by various theories and opinions. A tug of war started between two principles.

4.1.7 Attitude of Colonial Government towards Press

East India Company, though apprehensive of press but could not adopt any general policy regarding newspapers and weekly's etc. In the beginning the company took some restrictive measures to prevent publication of military intelligence and comments of seditious nature. Though such writings were few but Lord Wellesley was intolerant to any criticism in newspapers. He was angry with the whole tribe of editors of newspapers. To control press, Lord Wellesley laid down regulations in 1799; according to which newspapers had to show and get approval of the Government before the publication of any manuscript, proof sheet including advertisement. The penalty for violating these regulations was deportation of the editor to Europe. Lord Minto extended these regulations to religious books also. But, surprisingly, this penalty was laid on English press only because they were only criticizing the company's practices and policies. Vernacular Press was not in the purview of these regulations.

Marques of Hastings's attention were drawn to the above said regulations. He tried to remove the anomalies of the Press Regulations. He abolished pre-censorship Press Regulation and a new set of rules was drafted in 1818 for the guidance of newspapers, with a view to prevent discussion on dangerous and objectionable topics. This draft was not passed into a Regulation in legal manner. Therefore, it did not possess any force of law.

Marques of Hastings's action were hailed with a joy in India and Madras. European inhabitants of Madras decided to present an address to Lord Hastings in a public meeting. This address was presented to him in Calcutta. In Reply to address Hastings made a remarkable speech in favor of freedom of Press. He said, "He referred to his habit of regarding the freedom of publication as a natural right of my fellow subjects. It is salutary for Supreme Authority even when its intentions are most pure, to look to control of Public Scrutiny. He was conscious of rectitude that authority of the company would not be affected by its exposure to general comments. On the contrary it would acquire incalculable force in addition.

4.1.8 Areopagitica of Indian Press History

Lord Hastings actions were in consonance with his views. Buckingham, the editor of Calcutta Journal criticized the action of Bishop and admonishes Governors of their duties. His press soon created commotion in official circle. Lord Hastings' Government asked explanation from Buckingham. He gave a very spirited reply that the Government decision would give considerable pain to the friends of freedom of press because it would really reduce the freedom of opinion to a more perilous and uncertain state than it was under the existence of the censorship. Chief Secretary W.B. Bayly, a member of Council and Adam was opposed to Buckingham and his council continued till 13th January 1823. After Lord Hastings, when Adams became officiating Governor General, he took speedy vengeance. Adam and his council decided to exercise a more efficient and decided control over the press. They approached Court of Directors for formulating stern policy regarding press. The minutes of the Council, recorded by W.B. Bayly are very eye opening. It recorded that the Liberty of Press, however essential to the nature of free state, is not, in my judgment consistent with the character of our institutions in this country, or with extraordinary nature of our dominion in India. The Court of Directors did not receive approval from the Board of Control to change the Regulation of Press of 1818. The censorship continued in Madras. The Government of Bengal and Bombay granted freedom of the press. Consequently, the discussions on the free press brought to surface several other issues also. It underlined the philosophy of polity in India and England. The Court of Directors then approached British Ministry for passing a new Press Act. Instead of passing a Law, the Government suggested that the local authorities were empowered to grant or withdraw the licenses of printing press. At this Adam the officiating Governor General, practically enforced the old restrictions rigorously. On March 14, 1823, he issued Press Ordinances. According to new ordinances no one should publish a newspaper or periodical without having previously obtained a license from Governor General in council by submitting an affidavit. Under the law, every legislative measure had to be submitted to the Court. The new Press Ordinance was to be presented to the Supreme Court for registration on 15th March 1823. A vigorous protest was made against the Press Ordinance. Indian leaders also agitated against it in constitutional manner. Raja Ram Mohan Roy, with five distinguished citizens of Calcutta, presented a memorial to Supreme Court for hearing objections against the Press Ordinance. Miss Collet, an English lady called this memorandum an "Areopagitica of Indian History". Macnaten was the judge of Supreme Court; he heard the memorial but could not give any redress to Raja Ram Mohan Roy. Raja Ram Mohan Roy made and 'Appeal to the King in Council'. This memorial was considered very distinguished as it did not demand any peculiarly Indian rights but tried to safeguard the natural rights of all men, i.e.

the free access to knowledge and opinion without intervention of any authority to say what was good for them, what not. This activity of Raja Ram Mohan Roy with his five associates marked the beginning of a new type of political activity, which became special characteristic of India for nearly a century. Dr.R.C. Dutta observed, "It was a start of that system of constitutional agitation for political rights which their countrymen have to learn to value so much in the present day." Raja Ram Mohan Roy suspended the publication of his paper *Mirat ul Akhbar* in protest.

Lord Amherst the Governor General of the company, was instructed by his masters to proceed against Indian Press. So he tried to curtail the freedom of press as far as possible. He issued a circular that the servants of East India Company should not have any connection with the public press in any way. Lord Amherst tried to suppress *Calcutta Chronicle* in 1827. Lord William Bentinck was considered to be a liberal Governor General. But regarding freedom of press, he was opposed to the idea. According to him the press in India should be kept under most rigid control. So, he did not make any change in Press Laws nor took any action against any press.

4.1.9 The Heyday of the Press

The press saw heyday in the brief administration of Sir Charles Metcalf. He repealed the Ordinances and removes all restraints upon periodical and press in India. The famous Press Law was passed on 3rd August 1835. Dr. R.C. Majumdar had written that 'It received a wide almost frenzied applause of all Indians and a section of liberal Englishmen, but was, and has since then been condemned even by distinguished and liberal minded Englishmen, both in India and England.'

The passing of a Press Law by a temporary Governor General raised a controversy that what was the urgency for passing the Law and on general issue of Freedom of Press. Sir Metcalf justified and defended his action on basic principles of freedom of speech and knowledge. He said that Freedom of Public discussion was nothing more than the freedom of speaking aloud. This was a right of the people, which no Government had a right to withhold. Thornton advanced argument that diffusion of knowledge or expressions of opinion on political matters were two different issues. The press laws were for the latter and not for the former. The liberal minded Munro and Elphinstone were also exposed to the fallacy of Thornton. Elphinstone in 1832 said that as an inevitable effect of free press it might be possible that a foreign Government, avowedly maintained by the sword, cannot keep his ground for long in such circumstances. A hidden suspicion came to the foreground that the free press would alienate people against the Company Government. However, Charles Metcalfe closed this argument by

stating that the increase of knowledge in India would strengthen and not destroy the British Empire. Moreover, what was in future nobody knows but the promotion of knowledge of which the liberty of press is one of the most efficient instruments was manifestly an essential part of the Government. To quote his words, "we are doubtless here for higher purposes, one of which is to pour the enlightened knowledge and civilization, the arts and sciences of Europe, over the land, and thereby improve the condition of the people. Nothing, surely, is more likely to conduce to these ends than the liberty of press."

Charles Metcalf's argument involved the issue of enlightenment of Asia from the darkness. Thus, the controversy of Freedom of Press was pivoted round the safety and security of the British Empire in India. The authorities could not afford the remotest chance of being endangered, even to the smallest extent. Free Press advocates were though quite clear and sound in their approach but they were in scanty minority in India and England. As a punitive measure, the Government did not approve the permanent Governor-Generalship of Metcalf. He resigned from the services of the Company. The Government of India did not pass any press legislation in the next 20 years from 1835 to 1857. The question of Civil Liberties continued.

4.1.10 General Estimate

The Indian press crawled in the midst of controversy over liberty of press. In spite of vexation, disappointment, and closures of papers, the Indian press swelled slowly. In 1835 their number was only 17 but in 1853 it raised to 37. Some Newspapers had circulation of 259 papers. It is difficult to assess the influence of press in different spheres of Indian society and politics. Their circulation increased day by day. A fairly reliable estimate of the circulation of Indian newspapers about the middle of 19th century shows "that 8 Bengali newspapers of Calcutta had approximately 1,300 subscribers. 200 copies were consumed in side Calcutta and 151 were sent by post outside Calcutta. Rev. James Long throws interesting light on the ever-increasing number of printed Bengali books. According to him the number of Bengali books in 1853 was 300,000 which doubled in 1857. Some Bengali newspapers were circulated widely as far as Punjab.

Europeans mostly subscribed the English papers. In 1843 the English papers of Calcutta had circulation of 4,000 copies, out of which Indians subscribed only 125. This was very big number, as it shows that the English educated Indians had also shown interest in the English newspapers. A few English papers were started by Indian individuals to advocate the interest of their country and impartial exposition of social, political evils, which she was afflicted. The press emerged as an only organ of hundred millions of Indians for redress.

In India the newspapers were read aloud in groups it was generally followed by discussion & discourses on important news. The news thus traveled far and wide. The contribution of the papers was that they became instrument of imparting western knowledge, ideas, culture, thought and political theories. The editorials of the papers were advanced and liberal. They mobilized public opinion in favor of socio-religious evils and pleaded the East India Government to enact legislation against inhuman practices. The Sati Pratha Abolition Act of 1823 was the direct result of it. Indian press silently made people aware of operation, discrimination, exploitation, avarice, nepotism, injustice etc. The colonial atrocities were made known to the educated word in and outside India. Though, it never assumed leadership but brought the question of civil liberties to the surface. The silent and imperceptible crusade of press played an important role in the extinction of Company's rule in India.

4.1.11 Press in First and Second World Wars

The Second World War brought about a change in the attitude of the Government towards newspapers. For the first time the Government agreed to self-regulation by the organizations of the newspapers themselves, thereby avoiding much of the bitterness caused by the Government control. The two important newspaper organizations formed were: The Indian and Eastern Newspapers Society (IENS) and the All India Newspapers Editor's Conference (AINEC). A Press Advisory Committee was formed with the assistance of AINEC. The result was that whatever restrictions were to continue during the subsequent years were administered by the press bodies themselves or by independent authorities other than the Government.

Journalism as a profession took a new turn from the beginning of the twentieth century. Nationalist agitation, rise of Muslim nationalism, the First and Second World Wars and the introduction of representative Government contributed to the rapid increase in newspaper readership. The Partition of Bengal in 1947 and emergence of Dhaka as the capital of East Bengal was another important factor that contributed to the growth of journalism in Eastern Bengal. At present, about 1,800 newspapers and periodicals are published from different parts of Bangladesh. It speaks of a massive development in the field of journalism since 1947.

4.2 THE NEWSPAPERS AND NATIONAL LIBERATION MOVEMENT

4.2.1 Patriotic writings

During the late 1800's, the various regions of India began to share a common purpose in reacting to the British presence in their country. A nationalist

Check Your Progress

1. Who started the first periodical in 1767 A.D.?
2. To whom did the Vernacular press, offer a refreshing contrast?
3. Raja Ram Mohan Roy, with five distinguished citizens of Calcutta, presented a memorial to Supreme Court for hearing objections against the Press Ordinance. How this is called in the history of Journalism in India?

movement gradually grew in strength. This movement was the inspiration behind much Indian writing in the 1800's and early 1900's. A common pattern exists in the modern literature of most Indian languages. The spread of journalism helped the development of prose writing, with the short story becoming especially popular.

Writers such as the Bengali Bankim Chandra Chatterjee (1838-1894) attacked colonialism and created their own brand of nationalism. Bankim's historical novels achieved popularity throughout the subcontinent and helped spread nationalism and patriotism. Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), the greatest name in modern Indian literature, made federalism an important part of his concept of national ideology. He said that the unity of India should be a unity in diversity.

Patriotic writings grew almost simultaneously in different languages as part of the resistance of a community to foreign rule. For example, Rangalal in Bengali, Mirza Ghalib (1797-1869) in Urdu and Bharatendu Harishchandra (1850-1885) in Hindi all expressed their opposition to colonial rule and wrote about the glorification of India.

The Bengali writer Michael Madhusan Dutt (1824-1873) wrote the first modern epic in an Indian language. Subramania Bharati (1882-1921) was a great Tamil poet who revolutionized the poetic tradition in Tamil. Maithili Saran Gupta (1886-1964) and Bhai Vir Singh (1872-1957), writing in Hindi and Punjabi respectively, took themes from mythology and history for their patriotic epics.

The first Indian novels appeared in the late 1800's. Krishnamona Chetty's Sri Ranga Raja (1872) was the first novel in Telugu; Samuel V. Pillai's Pratap Mudaliyar Charitram (1879) was the first in Tamil; and Chandu Menon's Indu Lekha (1889) the first in Malayalam. These novels questioned contemporary social practices and customs. Similarly, the Bengali novel Phulmani O Karunar Bibaran (1852) by the English writer H. Catherine Mullens and the Hindi novel Pariksha Guru (1882) by Lala Srinivas Das examined social issues.

Bankim Chandra Chatterjee in Bengali and Hari Narayan, Apte in Marathi to describe the glorious past of India and instill nationalist sentiments in their readers wrote historical novels. Tagore wrote his novel Gora (1910) to challenge colonial rule and to give new meaning to Indian nationalism.

4.2.2 Gandhi's influence

The ideas of Gandhi deeply affected India in the decades leading up to independence in 1947. Gandhi, writing in Gujarati, English and Hindi, used the language of common people. He used the weapons of truth and nonviolence and

spoke out in favor of traditional values and against industrialization. Gandhi became a symbol of peace and idealism. Writers of fiction and poetry in almost all the Indian languages adopted the Gandhian figure as a theme of cultural nationalism.

4.2.3 Saratchandra Chattopadhyay

Saratchandra Chattopadhyay (1876-1938) is one of the most popular Bengali novelists. A Gandhian and a socialist and his influence spread throughout India with translations of his books in various Indian languages. Premchand (1880-1936) wrote novels in Hindi. He wrote about the plight of the poor in India. His greatest achievement, the novel *Godan* (The Gift of a Cow, 1936), tells the story of a debt-laden peasant and his struggle for survival.

4.2.4 Press in Indian Freedom Movement

The struggle for freedom gained momentum in the last few years of the nineteenth century and this to a large extent was one of the views, which appeared in English language newspapers. M.K. Gandhi, who had regularly published **Indian Opinion** when he was in South Africa, continued to bring out the paper even after returning to India. When Mahatma Gandhi returned to India, he gave a great impetus to the freedom movement. He was also a great editor. He took over "Young India", the weekly started by the Home Rule Party in 1918. In addition, he started its sister publication, **Harijan**. Gandhiji exhorted the press in general to support the struggle for freedom and to continue to appear even in the form of handwritten pamphlets in case the printing equipment was confiscated. The English press responded to the call to fight for a free India. During the Civil Disobedience Movement, the Press (Emergency Powers) Act, 1931, was enforced.

Several newspapers, which started with the singular purpose of giving a boost to the nation's struggle for, freedom, have survived to this day. To name just a handful of such papers, we have the examples of centenarians like **The Times of India** of Bombay (1838), **Amrita Bazar Patrika** of Calcutta (1868), **The Statesman** of Calcutta (1875), **The Hindu** of Madras (1878), **The Tribune** of Chandigarh (1881). The year mentioned within brackets indicated the year of first publication.

The Pioneer of Allahabad, **Madras Mail** of Madras and the **Civil and Military Gazette** of Lahore were very much in the forefront, providing quality news reports. One must make mention here of Annie Besant's **New India**, which carried some fiery editorials in its time.

With the approval of Independence Act in August 1947 the role of Press changed. It had to shoulder the new responsibilities of national reconstruction.

Check Your Progress

4. Who insisted that his papers would not carry any advertisements?

5. Under which Constitution The freedom of the press being a fundamental right, as guaranteed?

6. Who wrote the novel Gora (1910) to challenge colonial rule and to give new meaning to Indian nationalism?

India's first Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru was the champion of the liberty of press. About the contribution of Nehru in strengthening the Indian Press Chalapathi Rau says: In the period after independence, Nehru played a large part in shaping all thinking about the Press, as Gandhiji had done before independence. He was opposed by powerful sections of the Press, but he could carry on easily because he was a product of adult suffrage, had mass appeal and vast majorities, while newspapers still represented a small segment of opinion. But he stood for tolerance and accepted that vigorous critical press was a vital part of democracy. He was a passionate defender of press freedom as of all other freedoms. The traditions, which grew in his time, are becoming deep-rooted.

The Indian-owned newspapers were cheaper than the British-owned ones. Naturally, this fact benefitted the former category in terms of increased sales. Gandhiji insisted that his papers would not carry any advertisements. But all his publications had wide circulation among readers. There are 41 such newspapers in the country and are called centenarian newspapers. Among English dailies, four have crossed this mark: The Times of India, The Hindu, The Tribune and The Statesman. Among language newspapers, Mumbai Samachar, Amrita Bazar Patrika, Malayala Manorama and Deepika are among the centenarians.

Towards the end of the 19th century, many social reformers began actively campaigning for radical changes in Indian society. The reformation of Hinduism, the move for abolition of sati and efforts to encourage widow remarriage were some of the major reforms. Inspired by these great leaders, many newspapers were started in different parts of the country. All this led to a boom in the newspaper industry in India.

The print media in India in recent years has made rapid strides and can now be compared with the best in the world. The freedom of the press being a fundamental right, as guaranteed by the constitution under article 19(1)(a), the people have made abundant use of this right. The print media has played a very significant role in the democratic process. The mainstream press in India has been the front-runner in the issue-based investigative, interpretative and development reporting.

4.3 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to narrate about East Indian Company and its role. We have also discussed about early British journalists like William Bolts and James Augustus Hicky. The Liberty of Press was explained in terms of repressive attitude of the East Indian Company towards Indian Press. We also tried our level best to trace out the difference between Vernacular Press and Fore Father's Press. We discussed the controversy over Freedom Press, attitude of Colonial

Government towards Press Areopagitica of Indian Press History, the Heyday of the Press and Press in First and Second World War. Finally we concluded with the Newspapers and their role in the National Liberation Movement.

4.4 LESSONS-END EXERCISES

1. Write an essay about Gandhi's Journalistic contribution Freedom Struggle Movement.
2. Explain the role vernacular newspapers towards National Liberation Movement.

4.5 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

If you are requested to speak about the role newspapers during independence, what are the main points you would insist on from this lesson.

4.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Bolt
2. The English press
3. "Areopagitica of Indian History"
4. Gandhiji
5. Article 19(1)(a)
6. Tagore

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UNIT – III

LESSON – 5

POST INDEPENDENT PRESS-RADIO AND TV JOURNALISM

INTRODUCTION

With Independence in August 1947 and the tragic disappearance of Mahatma Gandhi in January, 1948 several things changed a great deal. One of the fields that underwent a big change was journalism and the ownership of newspapers. During the Independence movement, newspapers had played a strong political and social role and inspired many thousands of educated Indians to join the freedom movement and also take up social work for the development of the rural areas. Editors and publishers were men women of idealism, inspired by Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Moulana Azad and a host of other great leaders. They took up journalism as a noble mission and vocation untainted by any monetary motivation. Many an editor had to suffer imprisonment for holding patriotic ideas and many journals had to close down, only to re-appear in other towns under different editors. None of them were motivated by crass commercialism.

In this lesson, we attempt to describe about the press in post-independence era and we also elaborately explain the development of Indian and as well as British Broadcasting companies. The significant role and contribution of Fielden the Director General of Radio for the evolution of Indian Broadcasting Company is too explained. We discuss various other committees, such as Chanda Committee, Varghese Committee and their input for the development of radio in India. We elucidate the Code for Broadcasters too in this lesson. Further in this lesson, we discuss the growth in the transmission and services of the television broadcasting in India. Finally we conclude with the discussion of Color transmission, Joshi Committee and Cable Television Journalism in India.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe role Press in post-independent era
- Analyze contribution of press for national development
- Explain the development of radio and television Journalism

UNIT STRUCTURE:

5.1 Post-Independence Era

5.2 Development Of Radio Journalism

- 5.2.1. The Indian Broadcasting Company
- 5.2.2. The British Broadcasting Corporation
- 5.2.3. Fielden the Director General of Radio
- 5.2.4. Chanda Committee
- 5.2.5. Code for Broadcasters
- 5.2.6. Varghese Committee

5.3 Growth of Tv Journalism

- 5.3.1. Experiments in TV broadcasting
- 5.3.2. The Second World War
- 5.3.3. Satellite revolution
- 5.3.4. School Television
- 5.3.5. Commercial service on TV
- 5.3.6. Color transmission
- 5.3.7. Joshi Committee
- 5.3.8. Cable TV

5.4 Let Us Sum Up

5.5 Lesson-End Exercise

5.6 Point For Discussion

5.7 Answers To Check Your Progress

5.8 Suggested Readings

5.1 POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA

The role of the English press in the 1950s was necessarily shaped in response to the immediate needs of development and modernization. In a newly democratized country, the Indian press had the responsibility of educating the masses about the intricacies of the functioning of the administrative, legal and other departments of the Government. All this press had to do in addition to the task of promoting communal harmony in the wake of the country's partition into Pakistan and India. The notable feature of the newspapers at this time were:

- a marked increase in circulation,
- greater collection of advertisement revenue,
- modern equipment and expanded facilities of reporting from distant locations, and
- the appearance of features and columns with by-lines.
- As the Government emphasized planned economy, the volume of economic news that the English papers carried, multiplied. The press
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-
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stressed the importance of economic progress and interpreted the Government's goals for the people.

When India was at war with Pakistan (in 1965 and 1971) and China (in October, 1962), the English press did a commendable job of defending the country's sovereignty. The population 'boom' was another area that the mass media had to address head on. The English Press was not lagging on this front either. It was imperative; to contain the growth in population then, as it continues to be now, some three decades later.

The imposition of Emergency in 1975 by the Government headed by Mrs. Indira Gandhi marked the beginning of the hard times. There were severe restrictions on the freedom of the press. The English Press was muzzled, especially the outspoken journalists and the papers they wrote for, during the two years of the Emergency.

The freedom of the press has been debated quite vigorously in recent times. The second Press Commission has discussed it in detail in its report. The issue has invariably been the imposition of Government regulations versus self-regulation by the press.

Chain Publications, quite familiar on the Indian Press scene, have come to stay. By the 1980s, "chain" newspapers were a trademark of those publishers who notched remarkable circulation figures for their groups of papers and periodicals. The idea was to use the profits of any publication for the numerical expansion of the group. The general trend has been to view journalism as a profit making industry. There is an urgent need to change this attitude.

In the early years of the 1990s, the Government's economic measures of liberalization and integration of the country in the global economy are issues that have been receiving ample coverage in our English dailies. Besides, the disturbing trend of religious intolerance is constantly commented upon, in our English newspapers.

5.2 DEVELOPMENT OF RADIO JOURNALISM

In the United States of America, the beginning of radio was made as early as in 1909. A station in San Jose, California, started broadcasting announcements and phonograph music. But regular and systematic broadcasting began only in 1920. Thereafter, the expansion was fast in the U.S.A. and other countries. Before long there was a huge network of radio broadcasting in every country.

Check Your Progress

1. What was the immediate responsibility of the Indian Press during the post-independence period?
2. The imposition of The Emergency in India was done by whom and which year was marked as the beginning of the hard times?

In India, like in many other countries, amateurs were the first to start broadcasting. The Radio club of Bombay broadcast its first programme in June 1923. In November 1923, the Calcutta Radio Club went on the air. The Madras Radio Club broadcasting on 31 July 1924 with a 40-watt transmitter. Later, it broadcast with a 200-watt transmitter for 2½ hours every evening. But it closed down due to financial difficulties. The Madras Corporation re-started the broadcast service in 1930.

5.2.1 The Indian Broadcasting Company

The Indian Broadcasting Company (IBC) started organized broadcasting in India in 1927. Bombay and Calcutta stations were inaugurated in July and August 1927. The first radio programme journal **India Radio Times** was started on July 15, 1927. Its name was later changed to **The Indian Listener** and again to **Akashvani**.

IBC was a financial failure in spite of a loan from the Government. It went into liquidation and was closed down in March 1930. Under pressure from the radio-set dealers, programmers and the general public, the Government took over the Bombay and Calcutta stations in April 1930. The Indian Broadcasting Service was formed.

Those were the days of worldwide depression. The Government too faced financial difficulties. Even otherwise, it was not very enthusiastic about broadcasting. So, it ordered the closure of the Indian Broadcasting Service on October 10, 1931. Representations and agitations compelled the Government to reverse the orders on November 23, 1931. The Government doubled the duty on radio sets.

5.2.2 The British Broadcasting Corporation

In 1932, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) started an Empire Service. The number of receiving sets, which were all imported, doubled in less than two years. This resulted in an increase in the Government's income from license fees. The increase in import duty on radio sets and components of the radio sets also enhanced the Government's revenue. Broadcasting now became financially viable. It was decided to start a radio station in Delhi. It actually went on the air on January 1, 1936.

The BBC loaned the services of Lionel Fielden who became the Controller of Broadcasting. (Today the radio chief is called Director General). He persuaded the Government to realize the potential of broadcasting and allot more money to

the service. In his autobiography, **The Natural Bent**, he writes about financial problems and red-tapism. He also gives an interesting account of how he could persuade the then Viceroy to adopt the name All India Radio for the broadcasting service. The name was adopted from June 8, 1936.

5.2.3 Fielden the Director General of Radio

Fielden got together a group of devoted young people. With the help of these and of Goyder, his Chief Engineer, he started Short-Wave service in 1938, to cover the entire country. Lucknow station went on air on April 2, 1938 and Madras on June 16, 1938. In 1939, The Tiruchy station came into being. The same year the External Service Division at Delhi was started.

A.S.Bokhari, another dynamic administrator, took over from Fielden to become the first Indian Director General. He was the chief during all the war years and thereafter till the partition. A new Broadcasting House was built on Parliament Street, New Delhi. On June 3, 1947, Lord Mountbatten (the Viceroy), Jawaharlal Nehru and Mohd Ali Jinnah made historic broadcasts on the partition of India. In the midnight on August 14-15, 1947, Nehru broadcast his famous speech "Tryst with Destiny". It is preserved in the AIR archives.

5.2.4 Chanda Committee

A committee on Broadcasting and Information Media was set up in 1964 under the Chairmanship of A.K.Chanda. It gave its report in 1966. It recommended separation of radio and television with two independent corporations. The Government then accepted it. The separation ultimately came about in 1976 and the TV set-up was called Doordarshan. Another recommendation was for the starting of a commercial service. Commercial service was started from Vividh Bharati in 1967.

5.2.5 Code for Broadcasters

A nine-point code for broadcasters, introduced in 1969, prohibits the following:

1. Criticism of friendly countries
2. Attack on religion or communities
3. Anything obscene or defamatory
4. Incitement to violence or anything against maintenance of law and order
5. Aspersions against the integrity of President, Governors and Judiciary
6. Attack on a political party by name
7. Anything amounting to contempt of court
8. Hostile criticism of any state or the Center

Check Your Progress

3. When was regular and systematic broadcasting begun?
4. Who suggested an autonomous set-up for AIR and Doordarshan?
5. When was "Yuva Vani" started at Delhi?

9. Anything showing disrespect to constitution or advocating change in the constitution by violent means, but advocating changes in a constitutional way should and be debarred.

10. In 1969, a new channel "Yuva Vani" was started at Delhi. The sponsored programmes on commercial service were introduced in 1970 and the Sanskrit news bulletins were introduced in 1974. Earlier, in 1971, the highest AIR station was set up at Leh. In the same year the first satellite link was established.

5.2.6 Varghese Committee

10. In 1977, the Janata Government appointed a Working Group headed by B.G. Varghese, to suggest an autonomous set-up for AIR and Doordarshan. The Group recommended in 1978 the creation of National Broadcast Trust or Akash Bharati to look after both radio and TV. A bill to create the recommended Trust was introduced in 1979. The recommendations of the Working Group, however, were much diluted in the Bill. Eventually the bill lapsed when the Janata Government went out of power.

The Janata Government also introduced party election broadcasts for the first time in 1977, on the eve of assembly election in several states.

5.3 GROWTH OF TELEVISION JOURNALISM

5.3.1 Experiments in TV broadcasting

Experiments in TV broadcasting started in the USA, in the 1920s. But the available equipment did not scan the picture effectively. In the next five years came certain inventions like the picture tube, electronics camera and TV sets. They made it possible for NBC (National Broadcasting Co) in the 1930s to set up a TV station in New York. BBC too started a TV station in London.

5.3.2 The Second World War

The Second World War halted the expansion of TV. But immediately after the war, TV broadcasting started expanding in the USA and other Western countries. By 1948, there were 48 TV stations in 25 cities and two million TV sets in the USA. Within 10 years, 512 stations were sending programmes to 5 crore sets. Canada, Japan and European countries were also making brisk progress.

5.3.3 Satellite revolution

Satellite revolutionized TV broadcasting from 1962. In that year appears the first satellite called the Early Bird. In 1965 came Intelsat, a big international communication system. Another such system, Inter-sputnik, was added in 1971.

Today, more than 125 countries have their earth stations linked to satellites. Thirty-five satellites systems have brought the people and nations of the world much nearer. In the 1970s computer technology made possible a 2-way communication between the transmitting stations and receiving households. Then came audio-visual cassettes and the video tape recorder and player. Closed circuit TV, cable TV, pay phone TV and now Direct Broadcasting System (DBS) followed them. In DBS broadcasting, you do not need even a receiving station. Programmes can be transmitted direct to the TV sets.

Television came to India rather late, on September 15, 1959. For years the debate went on whether a poor country like India could afford TV. It was also feared that TV might alienate us from our cultural roots, that it might spread a consumerist culture. Consumerism would increase the hunger for comfort and luxuries. It might increase frustration and lead to social conflict between the rich and the poor.

But manufactures, businessmen, educational institutions continued to make strong demands for TV in India. UNESCO offered a grant of twenty thousand dollars to buy community sets. The USA also offered some equipment.

Philips India offered a transmitter at a low price. Ultimately, the Government yielded. It set up a TV station at Delhi on an experimental basis. The declared aim was to discover what TV could achieve in community development and formal education.

The transmission could cover an area of 40 k.m., in and around Delhi. Programmes were beamed twice a week. Each programme was of 20 minutes duration. The viewers were members of 180 television clubs. These clubs were provided free TV sets for community viewing by UNESCO. Programmes were beamed from an improvised studio at Delhi. UNESCO conducted a survey in 1961 and its conclusion was that TV did make "some impact".

5.3.4 School Television

School Television (STV) was launched in 1961. It was meant to train science teachers of Delhi Schools. Many schools which did not have laboratories, benefitted from the new transmission. On pressure from public and TV set manufacturers, entertainment programmes were started on August 15, 1965. They were broadcast daily for one hour. The first Hindi news bulletin was also introduced on that very date. The Federal Republic of Germany helped in setting up a studio for production of programme.

The first rural programme "Krishi Darshan" was started from Delhi on the Republic Day. January 26, 1967. Farmer-members of 180 village Tele-clubs in

Delhi, U.P. and Haryana received this programme. Daily TV transmission was increased from one to one and half hours and to two hours on Sundays on August 15, 1968. On 3rd December 1971, the first English news bulletin was introduced.

In 1972 (October) the inauguration of the Bombay TV centre came about. In 1973, Srinagar and Amristar Kendras started producing Tele programmes. Pune too started relaying programmes from Bombay that year. Calcutta, Madras and Lucknow TV centers were set up in 1975. So, we can see that the real expansion TV in India came about in the seventies.

5.3.5 Commercial Service

Commercial service on TV was started on January 1, 1976. Advertisers had to be allowed in because TV is a "Supreme Salesman". But a code for advertises was framed. Every advertisement had to be in accordance with the code. It could not be offensive. It could not hurt the moral, aesthetic and religious sentiments of the people. It could not be obscene and could not encourage violence or social conflict.

The year 1980 was the start of the National Programmes of Music and Dance. The basic aims of radio and TV are to provide information, education and entertainment. It is also their responsibility to preserve and promote our culture and heritage. It is to fulfill this aim that Doordarshan started these National Programmes. The idea of National Programmes already existed at AIR. The National Programme for the whole of India began on TV on August 15, 1982.

5.3.6 Color Transmission

In 1982, Doordarshan took to colour transmission on August 15. Then occurred two significant events in the development of Indian TV. In November 1982, the Asian Games were efficiently covered through colour transmission.

The first domestic satellite was launched in 1982. This satellite, INSAT 1-A, was placed in geostationary orbit but it could not become operational. India's second satellite, INSAT 1-B, was launched in August 1983. This made TV programmes available to a much larger segment of our population. It also improved the quality of reception of broadcasts.

The year 1984 was very important for our TV. The first sponsored serial, Humlog, went on the air in July. Higher Education TV (HETV), produced by the University Grants Commission, was started. Doordarshan celebrated its silver jubilee and Delhi Kendra's second channel started.

Educational TV (ETV) was started in 1961 from Delhi. The broadcasts, to start with, were meant for science teachers and students of Delhi Schools. Later, they covered larger areas and more subjects. ETV was taken extended to other

kendras like Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Srinagar. The service was also made available to higher secondary schools.

The Morning Transmission was introduced in 1987. The late night feature film project was also introduced that year. Besides, a weekly news bulletin for the deaf and dumb was launched.

In 1993, Doordarshan started five Metro channels, including music, sports and entertainment channels. They were started under pressure from the foreign channels like the Hong-Kong based Star TV and the U.S. based CNN.

5.3.7 Joshi Committee

The Joshi Committee on Software for TV, set up under the Chairmanship of P.C. Joshi, gave its report in 1985. The report is called "An Indian Personality for Television". The report criticized Doordarshan for concentrating mostly on the North for its programme content. It also criticized TV's attitude to make broadcasts predominantly in Hindi. The Committee said that Doordarshan has not been able to achieve its aim of becoming a medium of public service and social education. The reason was that it did not have functional freedom.

The Joshi Committee recommended the setting up of a National Doordarshan Council. Its aim would be (1) to review and guide Doordarshan's performances, (2) to act as a guardian of functional and professional autonomy, (3) to act like Press Council to examine complaints of unfairness against the medium.

The Committee also recommended decentralization of Doordarshan. Local stations at district level should be set up to involve the local communities in the process of programme production. Every village must have at least one community viewing set and the Audience Research Unit should be strengthened. Viewers should be encouraged to give views freely so that the organization becomes democratic in its programming.

The Committee did not ask for an autonomous corporation for Doordarshan. But it asked the organization to find its roots in the rich Indian heritage and develop a strong Indian personality. Only then shall we be able to fight the foreign invasion of the Indian Skies.

5.3.8 Cable TV

Cable TV is another significant development. It has spread in a big way, especially during the 1990s. Cable was there earlier too, in metro cities like Bombay. Cable has been operating in Bombay and other metros for almost ten years. But in the past few years cable TV has invaded much smaller cities.

Check Your Progress

6. When was Commercial service on TV started?

7. When Doordarshan took to colour transmission on August 15?

8. What type of National programmes was started in 1980 in Doordarshan?

Linking the viewers' TV sets through cables to a common antenna operates Cable TV. It is operated through a dish antenna and room a control room. The dish antenna, placed in a particular angle, can catch signals from broadcasting services like Doordarshan or foreign services like Star, TV, CNN, BBC, MTV, Prime Sports and Pakistan TV etc. These broadcasts can be relayed through cable to individual customers of a cable TV operator.

Political parties are now increasingly using video and cable TV, especially during elections. Industrialists, businessmen and professionals like doctors; architects and consultants have also started using these media. Several video news magazines like India Today's Newstrack, Stardust's Starbuzz and former Union Minister, Harmohan Dhawan's Third Eye give a roundup of recent news. Their cameras go where Doordarshan's cameras do not or cannot go. These magazines probe subjects, which are not taken up by Doordarshan. Their coverage and comments tend to be bolder and deeper. Sometimes, of course, they can indulge in what is called "yellow" journalism (cheap, sentimental).

5.4 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to describe about the press in post-independence era and we also elaborately explained the development of Indian and as well as British Broadcasting companies. The significant role and contribution of Fielden the Director General of Radio for the evolution of Indian Broadcasting Company. We discussed various other committees, such as Chanda Committee, Varghese Committee and their input for the development of radio in India. We elucidated the Code for Broadcasters too in this lesson. Further in this lesson, we discussed the growth in the transmission and services of the television broadcasting in India. Finally we concluded with the discussion of Color transmission, Joshi Committee and Cable Television Journalism in India.

5.5 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Organize a visit to the local radio station. Request a programme producer or assistant to you around the station.
2. Conduct a survey of the music genres that young people listen to on the FM radio stations of your city.

5.6 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose if you have taken up on assignment to be submitted in your class and to be presented in front of your classmates, what major aspects of this lesson will you keep in mind for your assignment.

5.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. In a newly democratized country, the Indian press had the responsibility of educating the masses about the intricacies of the functioning of the administrative, legal and other departments of the Government. All this press had to do in addition to the task of promoting communal harmony in the wake of the country's partition into Pakistan and India.
2. Mrs. Indira Gandhi, 1975.
3. 1920.
4. B.G. Varghese.
5. 1969.
6. On January 1, 1976.
7. In 1982.
8. National Programmes of Music and Dance.

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UNIT – III

LESSON - 5

PRESS IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PRESS ACTS

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, we attempt to illustrate the important Contribution of Press in National Development. The salient points discussed are: Reflecting Public Opinion, Enlightening and Educating People, Exposes Corruption, Convey Government's Policies and Brings Communal Harmony. The Censorship and Press are explained in terms of press acts such as: the Censorship of the Press Act, 1799, the Licensing regulations Act, 1823, the Liberation of the Indian Press, 1835, the Licensing Act, 1857, the Registration Act, 1867, the Vernacular Press Act, 1878, the Newspapers Act, 1908, the Indian Press Act, 1910 and the press (objectionable matters) act, 1951. We discuss the role and need of press and society and then define the concept of Language Newspapers in India. We distinguish between English Newspapers and Language Newspapers and finally we discuss on the Growth of Language Newspapers such as: Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kannada, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Tamil, Telugu, Hindi, Urdu, Magazines. We describe the role of a good Magazine and accomplishments of Magazines.

With Independence in August 1947 and the tragic disappearance of Mahatma Gandhi in January, 1948 several things changed a great deal. One of the fields that underwent a big change was journalism and the ownership of newspapers. During the Independence movement, newspapers had played a strong political and social role and inspired many thousands of educated Indians to join the freedom movement and also take up social work for the development of the rural areas. Editors and publishers were men women of idealism, inspired by Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Moulana Azad and a host of other great leaders. They took up journalism as a noble mission and vocation untainted by any monetary motivation. Many an editor had to suffer imprisonment for holding patriotic ideas and many journals had to close down, only to re-appear in other towns under different editors. None of them were motivated by crass commercialism.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe role Press in post-independent era
- Analyze contribution of press for national development

- Comprehend the relationship between press and society
- Understand the language and the press in India

UNIT STRUCTURE:

6.1 Contribution Of Press In National Development

6.1.1. Reflecting Public Opinion

6.1.2. Enlightening and Educating People

6.1.3. Exposes Corruption

6.1.4. Convey Government's Policies

6.1.5. Brings Communal Harmony

6.2 Censorship And Press

6.2.1. The Censorship of the Press Act, 1799

6.2.2. The Licensing regulations Act, 1823

6.2.3. The Liberation of the Indian Press, 1835

6.2.4. The Licensing Act, 1857

6.2.5. The Registration Act, 1867

6.2.6. The Vernacular Press Act, 1878

6.2.7. The Newspapers Act, 1908

6.2.8. The Indian Press Act, 1910

6.2.9. The Indian Press (Emergency Provisions) Act, 1931

6.2.10. The Press (Objectionable Matters) Act, 1951

6.3 Press And Society

6.4 Language And Press In India

6.4.1. Definition of Language Newspapers

6.4.2. Differences of English Newspapers and Language Newspapers

6.4.3. Growth of Language Newspapers

6.4.3.1. Assamese

6.4.3.2. Bengali

6.4.3.3. Gujarati

6.4.3.4. Kannada

6.4.3.5. Malayalam

6.4.3.6. Marathi

6.4.3.7. Oriya

6.4.3.8. Punjabi

6.4.3.9. Tamil

6.4.3.10. Telugu

6.4.3.11. Hindi

6.4.3.12. Urdu

6.5 Magazines

6.5.1. Role of a Good Magazine

6.5.2. Accomplishments of Magazines

6.6 Let Us Sum Up

6.7 Lesson-End Exercise

6.8 Points For Discussion

6.9 Answers To Check Your Progress

6.10 Suggested Readings

6.1 CONTRIBUTION OF PRESS IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Prior to Independence, the press in India had a clear-cut role to play in the Nation's struggle against British rule. It had put up a brave fight in its heroic effort to expose the brutality of the regime, particularly in its suppression of the freedom movement. With the goal of Independence being achieved at long last, the Indian press seemed to have lost its moorings.

6.1.1 Reflecting Public Opinion

In any democratic country the press plays a vital role in creating, molding and reflecting public opinion. Over the years the media became so powerful that it soon acquired the status of "Fourth Estate" as the British politician Edmund Burke aptly described it. It also became so indispensable for the democratic functioning that Thomas Jefferson who was also the third US president (1801-1809) said, "Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a Government without newspapers or newspapers without a Government, I should not hesitate for a moment to prefer the latter". For the same reason our first Prime Minister,

Jawaharlal Nehru declared "I would rather have a completely free press with all the danger involved in the wrong use of that freedom, than a suppressed or regulated press". In fact, the media touches almost every aspect of our public life.

6...2 Enlightening and Educating People

Press plays a very important and crucial role in enlightening and educating the people. The media can aid public involvement through advocating issue and transferring knowledge, skills and technologies to the people. Awareness about various rural development programmes, using the media could spread propagation of family planning. It made farmers aware of the new and improved methods of agriculture and protection of the crops. Press plays very emphatic role in awakening people against many evils prevailed in the society like child marriage, killing of female unborn child, the evil practice of child labour etc. Through educational programmes, it can cover many students in a single platform. The University Grants Commission telecasts educational programmes benefiting the school and college students all over India. Press can ignite scientific temper among the students for development of science. The Government can use the press more effectively to make it an instrument of social change.

6.1.3 Exposes Corruption

Press has exposed a number of corrupt practices, hidden deals, thus putting a check on the cancer in the form of corruption in the society. The various news channels keep the vigilant citizens updated. They organize debates and group discussions about the current political issues in order to enlighten the people about the democratic process. Press serves as a bridge between the Government and the people.

6.1.4 Convey Government's Policies

The Government's policies and actions are conveyed to the people and the latter's views are forcefully expressed to make the authorities aware of the public feelings. It makes the policy makers aware of the wrongs that may otherwise escape attention. During the election period, the media can play very important role by publishing the bio- data of the candidates, which makes the general public aware about the candidates, to whom they are planning to vote. An impartial and fearless media is the basic requirement for the success of democracy.

Now-a-days press has become so powerful that it is in a position to make or break Governments. It is usually conceded that John F. Kennedy might never have been the American President, were it not for his brilliant performance on television. The same is true about Barak Obama who led his Democratic Party to victory because of the dynamic confidence he projected over the Internet. Heavy

media emphasis on news about excess of Emergency brought about a change in the Government in India. Even a powerful President like Richard Nixon was forced to leave the White House due to the exposure by media in the notorious Watergate scandal.

6.1.5 Brings Communal Harmony

The press has a distinctive role to play in bringing communal harmony, which in turn will preserve the secular fabric of a democratic country. It also serves to highlight those issues, which violate human rights. Press has led to the promotion of business through advertisements. The telecasting of latest updates about techniques of economy management are providing fruitful to trade and commerce. In the present era of IT Revolution, globalization and liberalization, the advent of Internet and e-mail, has shrunk the globe to such an extent that the world can now be called a 'global village'. Press is helping global culture to be evolved. Through T.V. we journey across the globe in instants, see the people, their way of living, their fashion and tastes without own eyes. Thus emerging on the horizon the concept of the global village.

The press does play a role in nation building. The owners and managers of the press must realize their responsibility towards society and aim to provide information that is clean, transparent and reliable. There are many things that are wrong with the society and the media should engage itself in the betterment of society and the nation as a whole. By addressing itself to the needs of the people, it can strengthen the very root of democracy.

6.2 CENSORSHIP AND PRESS

6.2.1 The Censorship of the Press Act, 1799

Lord Wellesley imposed severe censorship on all newspapers. Apprehending a French invasion of India had engaged in the struggle for supremacy in India might have the effect of weakening his influence *vis-à-vis* his Indian adversaries or the French. The Censorship of the Press Act, 1799, imposed almost wartime restrictions on the press. These regulations required:

1. The newspaper to clearly print in every issue the name of the printer, the editor and the proprietor; and
2. The publisher to submit all material for pre-censorship to the Secretary to the Government.

Breach of these rules was punishable with immediate deportation. In 1807 the Censorship Act was extended to cover journals, pamphlets and even books. Relaxation of press restrictions came under Lord Hastings. The Governor-General

Check Progress	Your
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1. Prior to Independence, what was the important role played by the press in India?	
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2. What are the roles played by the Post-Independence press in India for the nation's growth? Brief answer only.	
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tried to put his liberal ideas in practice and succeeded in establishing in India some of the progressive views, which were gaining ground in England.

6.2.2 The Licensing regulations Act, 1823

The appointment of John Adams as acting Governor-General in 1823 gave him the opportunity to give a practical shape to his reactionary views. Press regulations of 1823 proved more stringent than any other that had been in force earlier. The new regulations required:

1. Every printer and publisher to obtain a license for starting a press or using it.
2. The penalty for printing and/or publishing any literature without the requisite license was Rs. 400 for each such publication or imprisonment thereof. Magistrates were authorized to attach unlicensed presses.
3. The Governor-General had the right to revoke a license or call for a fresh application.

6.2.3 The Liberation of the Indian Press, 1835

Lord William Bentinck adopted a liberal attitude towards the press. Although Adams' press regulations were not revoked considerable latitude of discussion was given to the press, Indian as well as Anglo Indian. However, it was left to Charles Metcalfe, officiating Governor General to repeal the obnoxious ordinance of 1823 and earn the epithet of 'Liberator of the Indian Press'. The result of this liberal press policy which continued till 1856 was the rapid growth of newspapers all over the country.

6.2.4 The Licensing Act, 1857

The emergency caused by the Rebellion of 1857 led the Government to again impose licensing restrictions on the press in addition to the existing registration procedure laid down by the Metcalfe Act. The Act prohibited the keeping or using of printing presses without a license from the Government and the Government reserved the discretionary right to grant licenses or revoke them at any time.

6.2.5 The Registration Act, 1867

The Press and Registration of Books Act of 1867 replaced Metcalfe's Act of 1835 pertaining to registration of printing presses and newspapers. The Act was of a regulating nature and not a restriction on printing presses or newspapers. By this Act every book or newspaper was required to have printed legibly on it the name of printer and publisher and the place of printing. Further, within one month of the publication of a book a copy of the book had to be supplied free of charge to the local Government.

In 1870, an Act to amend the Indian Penal Code was passed which contained a sedition section. Later on this section was incorporated in the Indian Penal Code as Section 124-A.

6.2.6 The Vernacular Press Act, 1878

The Vernacular Press Act, 1878 was designed to 'better control' the vernacular press and to empower the Government with more effective means of punishing and repressing seditious writings. The Act empowered:

1. A district magistrate with the previous permission of a local Government to call upon the printer and publisher of any vernacular newspaper to enter into a bond undertaking not to publish anything likely to excite feelings of dissatisfaction against the Government or antipathy between persons of different races, castes and religions among Her Majesty's subjects. The Magistrate could further require the publisher to deposit security and to forfeit it if the newspaper contravened the regulation. If the offence occurred the press equipment could be seized.
2. The Magistrate's action was final. No appeal could be made to a court of law.
3. A vernacular newspaper could get exemption from the operation of the Act by submitting proofs of the paper to a Government censor. The Act came to be nicknamed as the Gagging Act.

6.2.7 The Newspapers Act, 1908

The newspapers of the time often commented adversely on the Government policies. The Government followed a repressive policy and enacted the Newspapers (Incitement to Offences) Act, 1908. According to this Act:

- i. The magistrates were empowered to confiscate printing presses, property connected thereto of newspapers which published objectionable material which served as incitement to murder or acts of violence;
- ii. The local Government was empowered to annul any declaration made by the printer and publisher of an offending newspaper made under the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867; and
- iii. The newspaper editors and printers were given the option to appeal to the High Court within fifteen days of forfeiture of the press.

Under the Newspapers Act of 1908, the Government launched prosecutions against nine newspapers and confiscated seven presses.

6.2.8 The Indian Press Act, 1910

The Government further sought to strengthen its hands by the Indian Press Act of 1910, which revived the worst features of Lytton's Press Act of 1878. The aggrieved party could appeal to a Special Tribunal of the High Court against orders of forfeiture within two months. Further, the printer of every newspaper was required to supply to the Government free of charge two copies of each issue of the newspaper published. The Act gave powers to the Chief Customs Officer to detain all imported packages, which contained objectionable material.

6.2.9 The Indian Press (Emergency Provisions) Act, 1931

This Act gave sweeping powers to the provincial Governments in suppressing the propaganda for the civil disobedience movement. In 1932, the Press Act of 1931 was amplified in the form of the Criminal Amendment Act of 1932. During the Second World War, pre-censorship was reinforced and at one time the publication of all news related to the Congress activities were declared illegal.

6.2.10 The Press (Objectionable Matters) Act, 1951

This Act was more comprehensive than any earlier legislation affecting the press. It replaced the Central and State Press Acts, which had been in operation till then. The Act empowered the Government to demand and forfeit security from presses and newspapers for publication of 'objectionable matter'. The Government to demand and forfeit security and demand further security from presses and newspapers for publication of 'objectionable matter'. The Government could also declare certain publications forfeited, prohibit transmission by post of objection documents, to seize and destroy unauthorized newspapers and to seize and forfeit unauthorized presses. The Act remained in force till 1946.

Under our constitution there is no separate guarantee of the freedom of the press. It is implicit in the freedom of expression, which is conferred on all citizens. The freedom of press under our constitution is not higher than the ordinary citizens. It is subject to the same limitations as are imposed by Article 19(2), and to those limitations only.

Now the question before us is what exactly constitutes restriction upon the press?

- i. Any restriction that is directly imposed upon the right to publish, to disseminate information or to circulate constitutes a restriction upon the freedom of the Press. The right to publish includes the right to publish not only its own views but also those of its correspondents. The right to circulate refers to the matter to be circulated as well as the volume of circulation.

- ii. To require a newspaper to reduce its space for advertisements would directly affect its circulation since it would be bound to raise its price.
- iii. To fix the maximum page or price level, thereby affecting its volume of circulation.
- iv. To restrict the use of the paper which is allotted to a newspaper so as to affect its volume of production or circulation?

It would not be legitimate for the state –

- (a) To subject the press to laws which take away or abridge the freedom of expression or which would curtail circulation and thereby narrow the scope of dissemination of information or fetter its freedom to choose its means of exercising the right would undermine its independence by driving it to seek Government aid.
- (b) To single out the press for laying upon it excessive and prohibitive burdens, which would restrict the circulation, impose a penalty on its right to choose the instruments for its exercise or to seek an alternative media.
- (c) To impose a specific tax upon the press deliberately calculated to limit the circulation information.
- (d) To cancel a declaration under the Press and Registration of Books Act without giving an opportunity to the person affected to show cause against the proposed action.
- (e) To require the newspapers either to reduce the number of pages or to raise their prices according to the schedule prescribed by the state, on some ground extraneous to clause 2, e.g., the elimination of their competition amongst newspapers.
- (f) To subject the press to a statutory wage structure which has no regards to its paying capacity and is beyond its financial capacity?
- (g) To demolish a building when it is intended to stop the business of a newspaper located in that building.

6.3 PRESS AND SOCIETY

Towards the end of the 19th century, many social reformers began actively campaigning for radical changes in Indian society. The reformation of Hinduism, the move for abolition of sati and efforts to encourage widow remarriage were some of the major reforms. Inspired by these great leaders, many newspapers were started in different parts of the country. All this led to a boom in the newspaper industry in India.

Check Your Progress

3. Which Article is imposing Limitations for Freedom?

4. Why the Government followed a repressive policy and enacted the Newspapers (Incitement to Offences) Act, 1908?

The print media in India in recent years has made rapid strides and can now be compared with the best in the world. The freedom of the press being a fundamental right, as guaranteed by the constitution under article 19(1)(a), the people have made abundant use of this right. The print media has played a very significant role in the democratic process. The mainstream press in India has been the front-runner in the issue-based investigative, interpretative and development reporting.

Different people read it for different purposes. Newspapers keep the people aware of the activities of the Government. They mobilize public opinion. They play an important role in fighting the menace of corruption. In a democracy, there should be an efficient and fearless press. Press is the mirror of the society. The first newspaper published in India was the Bengal Gazette. Information is fed to newspapers by a number of amenities like PTI, UNI etc. Newspapers should concentrate on giving only the true picture of the society.

Everybody except a few read the newspaper every day. One reads it with exciting curiosity every morning. Different people read the newspaper for different purposes. Young graduates scan the job-advertisement pages. Lottery addicts pour over the lottery results. The schoolboy looks about the detailed happenings in cricket and other sports. The head of the household reads about Government matters and other events. Business entrepreneurs go through the business news. Housewives look for topics like cookery, health and beauty care tips etc. Casual readers look for sensational topics like loot, murder, kidnapping etc. Others go through the daily predictions of the zodiac. There are others who are interested in the articles and the letters to the editor. Those who love the glamour world read the pages on fashion, movies and film stars.

India is a developing country. Most of the people are poor and illiterate. For democracy to be successful, all the citizens should be literate. Politicians with selfish motive deceive the poor and illiterate with false promises. Newspapers help in spreading public opinion. They keep the people aware of the activities of the Government.

In a democracy, there should be an efficient and fearless press. Press refers to newspapers, magazines, the news section of radio and television, and the journalists who work for them. Press is the mirror of the society. It acts as a Watch Dog of democracy. It is the duty of the press to watch the activities of the Government. Its duty is to highlight the failure of the policies of the Government and pinpoint its lapses.

The first newspaper published in India was called *The Bengal Gazette*. The *Bombay Samachar* is the oldest existing daily newspaper. It was first published in

Gujarat in 1822. Anand Bazaar Patrika, Punjab Kesri and The Times of India are old newspapers.

Newspaper gives us the latest information on local, national and international events. They serve as a platform for discussion on public issues. Newspapers focus on social and political evils prevailing in the society. Some of these evils are unsociability, dowry, drinking, gambling, drug addiction etc. Newspapers can exhort the people to root out these evils.

Newspapers make people aware of every field of society. Once in every week, every newspaper publishes vacancies in all fields. Job seekers get much benefited thought this. A weekly matrimonial supplement is also published with almost every newspaper and its related news and events. Newspapers also contain the schedules of Television and theaters. It helps people to plan their day accordingly. News related to sports becomes very important nowadays as it fetches large amount of revenue. So almost all the newspapers publish the sports-news with elaborate pictures and charts. People get informed about weather forecast, railway and airport timetable. In the present age, corruption is present in all walks of life. Newspapers play an important role in fighting against the menace of corruption. The people can be made aware of the corrupt practices prevalent in various departments of Government and other agencies.

Newspapers act as a link between the Government and the people. They make the people aware of the policies, programmes and activities of the Government. They also make the Government aware of the problems, being faced by the people.

Information is fed to the newspapers by a number of agencies. The Press Information Bureau gives information to the Press on the Government's policies, programmes and activities. It receives feedback from the people. India has four major news agencies - Press Trust of India (PTI), United News of India (UNI), Samachar Bharit and Hindustan Samachar. The newspapers are published in English, Hindi and other regional languages. Newspaper could make a great impact on its readers. So, they should concentrate on giving only the true picture of the society.

6.4 LANGUAGE AND PRESS IN INDIA

We have seen the cultural awakening and freedom movement that led to the growth of language newspapers. Newspapers in India can broadly be classified into two groups - English newspapers and language newspapers. As the name indicates, English newspapers are published in English language. They are mainly published from big cities and towns. Whereas language newspapers are published in different Indian languages. Unlike the English papers, these are available even

Check Your Progress

5. What is the name of the oldest existing daily newspaper?
6. What is the mirror of the society?
7. What is the extension of PTI?

in the interior villages of the country. Thus they have a major role in formulating public opinion across our country.

6.4.1 Definition of Language Newspapers

By language newspapers, we mean newspapers published in different languages spoken in the country. They are also called regional newspapers. In India, language papers are published in more than 100 languages. But the main papers are published in 16 principal languages. Language papers vary from English papers in their style, presentation and approach.

6.4.2 Differences between English Newspapers and Language Newspapers

- a) English papers are published in one language only i.e. English, whereas Language papers are published in different languages.
- b) English papers are mostly concentrated in big cities and major towns. Language papers are circulated all over the country.
- c) English newspapers cater mainly to the well-educated, middle class, upper Middle class and higher income groups. Even lower middle class and even Those below that read language papers.
- d) English dailies have less penetration in the rural public where as language dailies have more penetration in the rural areas.
- e) English papers follow the British tradition while the language papers have evolved their own style and methods.
- f) More money is generated from advertisements in English papers as they circulate amongst people with better purchasing power. Language papers do not get the same amount of revenue from advertisements.
- g) English papers are more colorful and flamboyant. Language papers adopt a simple style.

6.4.3 Growth of Language Newspapers

The reasons for the growth of newspapers in India that we have studied so far are equally applicable for the growth of language newspapers. But there are some other factors that helped the rise of the latter. During the early days, the language press was looked down upon as 'vernacular dailies' by the English press but with the rise and emergence of language media as a major force this impression has changed.

Indian economy is basically a rural economy. More than 60 per cent of our population lives in the rural areas. According to a survey by National Sample Survey Organization, more than 16 crore households live in the rural areas. A paradigm shift has been visible in the rural population over the past 50 or 60 years. Indian farmers, who were classified as born in debt, live in debt and die in debt, have become one of the most influential consumer groups in society now. Their income levels have increased and along with that, tastes and preferences have also shown changes. This advancement of the rural mass has resulted in the growth of language newspapers.

A marked change in the coverage of local news by newspapers is another reason for the growth of language newspapers. Earlier national and international news dominated the Indian press. But the experiment by some newspapers, especially in the southern states, of covering local news with prominence gave a big boost to their circulation. Newspapers from other parts soon copied this. Newspapers started covering issues that were concerned with the ordinary people. The rural people found that there is a medium to express their grievances and aspirations. Starting of multiple editions was another factor that resulted in the growth of the language press. Earlier newspapers were confined to state capital cities only. But as more and more potential readers emerged from other areas, newspaper owners started editions from even district centers. Thus multiple editions of newspapers were brought out. The boom in advertising also helped in the growth of the language press. The rural mass turned out to be the biggest market for any product. For attracting them, advertisers were forced to give advertisements in local papers. This in turn resulted in an increase of revenue for the language press.

Newspapers are classified on the basis of their circulation into Big, Medium and small newspapers. A newspaper with a total circulation of up to 25,000 copies on any publishing day is called a 'small newspaper'. A newspaper with a total circulation of 25,000 to 75,000 copies on a publishing day is considered as 'medium newspaper'. A total circulation of 75,001 to 99,999 copies on any publishing day entitles a newspaper to be called a 'big newspaper'. Newspapers with a circulation of one lakh and more are also deemed 'big newspapers'.

6.4.3.1 Assamese

Prior to the publication of **Dainik Assamiya** and **The Assam Tribune**, Assam had no dailies, whether in English or in Assamese, except for the daily **Dainik Batori** of Jorhat which had a short run. The Assamese daily, **Dainik Assamiya** ceased publication in 1951 and a new Assamese daily, **Natun**

Assamiya, under different ownership and anagement, was launched. Of weeklies and occasional publications, however, there have been several, of which mention may be made of **Assamiya**—the oldest Assamese language weekly of the state, and **Deka Asom** from Gauhati; **Asom Sevak** from Tezpur; **Sramik** from Dibrugarh and **Janmabhumi** from Jorhat.

6.4.3.2 Bengali

In 1937, when **Anand Bazar Patrika** started the English **Hindustan Standard**, the Amrita Bazar Patrika brought out the Bengali **Jugantar**. During the war, the Amrita Bazar Patrika was started in English from Allahabad (1943) and since 1950 it has added the Hindi daily **Amrita Patrika** from the same place.

In 1939, two more dailies were started—the **Bharat** founded by Makhan Lal Sen, Who had contributed substantially towards the establishment of **Ananda Bazar Patrika**, and **Krishak**, an organ of the Krishak Praja Party. In 1941, A.K. Fazlur Huq started publication of the daily **Navajug** in Bengali and five years later the official organ of the Communist Party of India, **Swadhinata**, came on the scene along with **Swaraj** edited by Sri Satyendra Nath Mazumdar.

Besides Fazlur Haq's **Navajug**, there were two other Bengali dailies edited by muslim editors, published from Calcutta, **Azad**, founded and edited by **Maulana Akram Khan** in 1936 and **H.S. Suhrawardhy's Ittehad**, published in 1947, which is no longer published from India. Started by the Shramik-Trust Society, **Lokasevak** (1948), edited by Chakravorty is still being published. So also **Janasevak**, owned by Atulya Ghosh. Today, **Ananda Bazar Patrika**, and **Jugantar** are the most popular Bengali newspapers.

6.4.3.3 Gujarati

The first Gujarati newspaper, **Bombay Samachar** began its long career in 1822, with a full-fledged printing press complete with types.

Another paper which made an illustrious beginning was **Jam-e-Jamshed**, a Gujarati weekly, started by pestonji Manakji Motiwala in 1831.

After 1850, the starting of a number of papers, many of which had a short life, marked the development of Gujarati journalism. Other papers of that time are **Kheda Vartman**, started in Kaira in 1861, **Surat-Mitra** started in 1880 and published till 1953 from Bombay, **Desh Mitra** which was published from surat between 1873 and 1950, **Kaiser-i-Hind**, a weekly started in 1880 and still in publication from Bombay, **Kathiawar Times** started in 1888 and still being published from Rajkot.

Prajabandhu, after a chequered career for long, finally found stability under the name of **Gujarat Samachar**. Published from Ahmedabad, it is the

largest circulated Gujarati daily today. In 1943, Sri Amritlal Seth started in Bombay **Janmabhoomi**, a Gujarati daily that also has a large circulation. Yet another group consists of the daily **Prabhat**, the weekly **Nav Saurashtra** and the monthly **Kumar**, owned by Shri Kakalbhai Kothari. Surat has two leading dailies, **Samachar**, started in 1922 by Shri M.R. Vidyarthi and Gujarati, (1921) edited by Sri Ramanlal Chhotubhai Desai.

6.4.3.4 Kannada

Between 1880 and 1908, a number of newspapers in English and in Kannada made their appearance, prominent among them was **Desabhimani** edited by B. Srinivasa Iyengar. In 1908, the Mysore Legislative Council passed the Newspaper Regulation Act and soon after a Kannada weekly publication. **Uryodaya Pakasika** published a report, which incurred the displeasure of the Government. Prompt action was taken and in protest, most of the newspapers of Mysore closed down. One of these newspapers, which ceased to exist and never appeared again, was the first Kannada daily, **Bharati** edited by Sri D.V. Gundappa.

Jayarao Deshpande, a leading lawyer and public figure of Bijapur, took the editorship of **Karnataka Viabhav** and conducted it with great fervor and ability. In 1947, two daily papers, **Vishal Karnataka** and **Navyuk** were started at Hubli and are still being published.

6.4.3.5 Malayalam

Kandathi Varghese Mappilai who had an instinct for news, keen business acumen and wide experience of men and matters founded Malayala Manorama of Kottayam, presently the leading daily of Kerala.

The **Narsni Deepika** and **Karala Kesari** edited by Ballath Kunjunni Achan and **Yogakeseman** edited by V.S. Nambudripad were well-known publications.

The struggle for independence brought into being a number of dailies in the 1920s. The most important of these is **Mathurbhumi**, it started as a tri-weekly in 1923 and is now published as a daily and a weekly (illustrated) and commands great popularity in Kerala. The paper was founded by K. Madhavan Nari and P. Achutan who gave up their practice as lawyers in Calcutta to join the non-cooperation movement.

6.4.3.6 Marathi

Bal Shastri Jambhekar started the first Anglo-Marathi paper, the **Bombay Darpan**, in 1832 as a fortnightly. Jambhekar later brought out a monthly Marathi magazine, **Dig Darshan** (May 1840). In February, 1849, **Dhyan**

Prakash of Poona came into existence under the editorship of Krishnaji Trimbak Ranade.

In 1923, Khadilkar started **Navkal** which is today the oldest Marathi daily. If A.B. Kolhatkar popularized Marathi daily journalism, Khadilkar may be said to have introduced modern methods of production.

Lokasatta is the first Marathi daily to be published from Bombay after independence. It was started in 1948 by the Express Group with Sri T.V. Par gate as its first editor. Dr. N.B. Parulekar who graduated from the Columbia University, USA and was the first Indian to study journalism as a subject in the United States established the Poona-based Sakal in 1931. The **Maharashtra Times**, was started in 1962 by the Times of India group.

6.4.3.7 Oriya

Among the earliest Oriya newspaper, **Asha** and **Samaj** stand prominent. Sashibhushan Dutt published Asha as a weekly; it was converted into a daily in 1928. The veteran politician **Gopu Bandhu Das** established **Samaj** in 1928 as a weekly newspaper. A newspaper, **Praja Tantra**, was started under the guidance of Hare Krishna Mehtab, the noted Congressman, who later rose to such high political positions as the Union Minister and the Chief Minister of Orissa.

6.4.3.8 Punjabi

Punjabi journalism entered a new phase with the Akali movement in 1920 when the first Akali paper was started. The division of Punjab dealt a heavy blow to Punjabi journalism in 1947. Lahore, the center of Punjabi journalism, was lost to Pakistan. Many Gurmukhi papers and magazines were uprooted. Some of them rehabilitated themselves in a short time and others were started. Among the major Punjabi newspapers today are **Ajit**, **Akali Patrika**, **Khalsa Sevak**, **Prakash**, **Newan Hindustan**, **Nawan Zamana**. Among the periodicals, the largest circulated one is the monthly magazine, **Preeth Lari**, from Amritsar.

6.4.3.9 Tamil

The first Tamil magazine was a monthly, **Tamil Magazine**, started in 1831. The progress of the Tamil press was accelerated in the last decade of the 19th century with the starting of **Swadesamitran** in 1882 founded by the G. Subramanya Aiyer, who converted it into a daily in 1899. The next Tamil daily made its mark only in 1917 entitled **Desabhaktan**, but was forced to be closed down in 1926; that year **Tamil Nadu** under Varadarajulu Naidu started as a daily. But it was **Swadesamitran**, which had the highest circulation, thanks to its stalwart editor C.R. Srinivasan. In 1936, the Indian Express group started

Dinamani, a daily, in September 1934. A.N. Sivaraman, its editor, spared no effort to make, is a leading Tamil daily like **Swadesamitran**.

Among the Tamil weeklies, it is **Anand Vikatan**, which achieved notable success. Started in 1924, it has always been identified with its founder-editor, S.S. Vasan, the movie tycoon. **Kalki**, started by R. Krishnamurti in 1941, is another popular Tamil weekly. But the largest circulated Tamil weekly is **Kumudum**, started in 1947, with a print order of over four lakhs.

6.4.3.10 Telugu

The first newspaper in Telugu was **Satyadoota**, started in 1835. The renowned Andhra social reformer and literature, Kandkuri Veereshilingam Panthulu started **Vivekavardhini** in 1885 from Rajahmundry.

In the beginning of the 20th century, Pinjal Subramanya Setty started a Telugu daily called **Samadarshini**. A precursor of modern Telugu journalism was **Janata**, launched by two eminent literati, Viswanadha Sathyanarayana and Ramakoteswara Rao. An enterprising young man, he migrated to Bombay where he built up a good business patenting a pain balm known as **Amrutanjan**. As he was deeply interested in the Telugu languages, he founded a Telugu weekly in Bombay, entitled **Andhra Patrika**, in 1908. In 1914, **Andhra Patrika** was shifted from Bombay to Madras and came to be issued as a daily newspaper. It was acclaimed Andhra's first successful daily paper.

In the Telangana area, the first journal was **Hitabodhini** started in 1913, with Srinivasa Sharma as its editor. The most important journal was **Golkonda Patrika** promoted by Madapati Hanumantha Rao Panthulu. Besides this, many weeklies and monthlies are published from the Telangana region of Andhra Pradesh.

The inauguration of the State of Andhra Pradesh on October 1, 1953 gave a real fillip to the development of Telugu journalism. The following four daily newspapers were started in Andhra Pradesh after 1953: **Andhra Janata** edited by K.S. Subramanyam and published from Hyderabad, **Andhra Bhoomi** started in 1960 by K.R. Pattabhiram; **Rajahmundry Samacharam** edited by Gandham Seetharamayanjalulu and published from Rajahmundry since 1956, and **Vishalandhra** started in Vijayawada in 1952, by K.R. Rajagopal Rao. Another prominent Telugu daily of recent years in **Andhra Jyoti**, started in 1960. **Udayam** was started by a film personality, Desari Narayan Rao, in 1983.

Check Your Progress

8. Who launched Hind Samachar in 1948?

9. What is the name of the daily which was started by Varadarajulu Naidu?

6.4.3.11 Hindi

The earliest Hindi newspaper was started in Calcutta in 1826. It was a weekly, **Oodunt Martan**; its editor was Jooghul Kishore Sookool. **Banga Doot**, sponsored, among others, by Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Dwaraka Prasad Thakore, appeared in 1829. The first Hindi daily, **Samachar Subha Varshan**, came out in 1854 with shyam Sundar Sen as its editor. A literacy magazine which set the standard for Hindi journals in the early years of the century was **Saraswati**, a monthly, edited by Mahabir Prasad Dwivedi. In 1920, **Aaj** was started in Banaras and it played a very notable part in the freedom struggle. Its first editor was Sri Prakasa, a reknowned freedom fighter who occupied positions of power and prestige in free India. As freedom came to **India**, one of the important Hindi dailies to greet it from the capital was **Hindustan**, a sister newspaper of **The Hindustan Times**, started in 1936. The **Nav Bhara Times** of the **Times of India** group started in Delhi in 1950.

6.4.3.12 Urdu

Delhi's earliest Urdu newspapers, **Fawaid-ul-Nazarin** and **Kiran-us-Sadai** (1852) were edited by a Christian convert, Ram Chandra. In the 1860s, there were six Urdu papers published from Delhi and loyalists owned them all. The most enduring of these was **Akmal-ul-Akbar** published by Hakim Abdul Majid Khan. In 1877, Maulvi Nasir Ali, one of the founders of the Anjuman Islamia, edited three newspapers, **Nusrat-ul-Akbar**, **Nusrat-ul-Islam** and **Mihir-e-Darakshan**. A notable Urdu journal in the first decade of 20th century was Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad's **Al-Hilal** which came out from Calcutta in 1912. **Al Hilal** marked a turning point in the history of Urdu Journalism. It achieved unprecedented popularity within a short time. A prominent Urdu daily in Delhi in 1923 was **TEL**, founded by Swami Shradhanand. Its first editor was Lal Deshbandu Gupta, a leading Congressman. The most important Urdu daily to make it to the top was **Hind Samachar**, Launched by Lala Jagat Narain in 1948. It has its sister publication **Punjab Kasari**, a Hindi daily published from Delhi, Jalandhar and Ambala. The group's total circulation is over 6 lakhs.

6.5 MAGAZINES

Magazines disseminate more specialized information; they carry articles and commentary to diverse readers. A newspaper generally reports the happenings of the last 24 hours. The tempo of work is very fast since it has to appear every morning. In comparison, magazines—weeklies, fortnightlies, monthlies, have more time to plan and publish. They attract wide and diverse audience. The contents are marked by high quality and pictorial stuff.

The term “magazine” indicates a stitched paperback of writing by different authors and traditionally a medium of light entertainment. It includes articles or stories or both and it is published at regular intervals. Most magazines include illustrations as well as advertisements. Writings of different types ranging from factual or practical reporting to more personal or emotional accounts regularly appear in these publications. The word magazine is derived from the Arabic word. **Makhasin** mean warehouse or **Khazane** that is a store-up.

The readership of magazines is by and large confined to somewhat influential, affluent and discriminating sections of the people. They cover important events, in-depth and investigative reports and sensational revelations. For these characteristics the magazines are called the 5th Estate in Japan and are proving to be that in India also.

Since independence, the periodical press in our country has been expanding and exploding, diversifying and professionalizing, and thus becoming enriched in contents, looks and impact. This sudden growth during 1970-80 is called the magazine boom. Even otherwise, during the last 45 years, magazines of all categories and periodicity, expanded nearly six times.

6.5.1 Role of a Good Magazine

A good or a bad periodical is basically a matter of opinion and individual taste. Broadly speaking, a good magazine must be the reader’s forum. It should satisfy their needs as well as fancies. In a vast and multilingual country with ethnic variety, it should also fulfill the aspirations of each segment. For that, readers’ surveys and preference polls are necessary so that the contents and design of the journals are close to the reader’s hearts.

Apart from being imaginative and creative in the treatment of topics, a better quality periodical should reflect a sense of advancement and excitement about life in general and about events, issues, values and literature in particular. The other essential qualities of good periodicals, besides its slick production and titillating illustrations, are its liveliness, clarity, insight, probing investigative reports and individual character. It is heartening that some of the periodicals have attained standards comparable with the good western periodicals but the bulk of magazines and journals in the country still lag behind. Most of the magazines, as critics point out, week to lure the readers by providing juicy and sexy stories, gossip columns, morbid sensationalism and exposures of the private life of VIPs or stars.

Check Your Progress

10. What is disseminating more specialized information; they carry articles and commentary to diverse readers?

11. What did play a vital role in molding public opinion and mobilizing it against the foreign rule, during India’s freedom struggle, opinion magazines like?

12. Why the magazines are called as the 5th Estate in Japan?

6.5.2 Accomplishments of Magazines

Magazines fulfill the need for a medium of information, instruction and entertainment. They also interpret issues and policies. They have much accomplishment to their credit:

- Magazines have helped strengthen social, religious and national bonds.
- During India's freedom struggle, opinion magazines like Gandhiji's Harijan played a vital role in molding public opinion and mobilizing it against the foreign rule.
- They help in bringing about social, cultural and political reforms on national lines.
- They provide excellent entertainment at an affordable price.
- Magazines act as an effective medium of education and instruction by interpreting issues, events and developments and putting them in proper focus.

6.6 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to illustrate the important Contribution of Press in National Development. The salient points discussed are: Reflecting Public Opinion, Enlightening and Educating People, Exposes Corruption, Convey Government's Policies and Brings Communal Harmony. We explained the Censorship and Press in terms of press acts such as: the Censorship of the Press Act, 1799, the Licensing regulations Act, 1823, the Liberation of the Indian Press, 1835, the Licensing Act, 1857, the Registration Act, 1867, the Vernacular Press Act, 1878, the Newspapers Act, 1908, the Indian Press Act, 1910 and the press (objectionable matters) act, 1951. We discussed the role and need of press and society and then defined the concept of Language Newspapers in India. We distinguished between English Newspapers and Language Newspapers and finally we discussed on the Growth of Language Newspapers such as: Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kannada, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Tamil, Telugu, Hindi, Urdu, Magazines. We described also the role of a good Magazine and accomplishments of Magazines.

6.7 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Distinguish between English Press and Indian Press after independence.
2. Sketch the history of Press laws and acts from pre-independence to post-independence.

6.8 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose you have taken an assignment for the folklore students of your University or College to discuss about the topic “the growth and salient features of language newspapers in India”. What major aspects of growth and salient features you would keep in mind for your assignment.

6.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The nation's struggle against British rule.
2. Reflecting Public Opinion, Enlightening and Educating People, Exposes Corruption, Convey Government's Policies and Brings Communal Harmony.
3. Article 19(2),
4. The newspapers of the time often commented adversely on the Government policies.
5. Bombay Samachar
6. Press
7. Press Trust of India
8. Lala Jagat Narain
9. Tamil Nadu
10. Magazines
11. Gandhiji's Harijan
12. They cover important events, in-depth and investigative reports and sensational revelations. For these characteristics the magazines are called the 5th Estate in Japan.

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UNIT – IV

LESSON – 7

ORIGIN OF TAMIL PRESS

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, we attempt to discuss the over view of the origin of Indian Journalism, meaning of “Press”, early of Indian Journalism, Rigidity of East Indian Company on Press, Indian Pioneers, Famous Leaders, Journalists, Newspaper, Vernacular Press Act and National Liberation Movement and Press. Then we elucidate the origin of Tamil press and early years of Tamil Journalism. Finally we conclude with the kinds of newspapers, periodicals, and journals in Tamil.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the early history of Indian Journalism
- Explain the origin of Tamil Journalism
- Pin point the Pioneers of Tamil Press
- Able to identify kinds of Tamil Newspapers and Periodical in Tamil Press

UNIT STRUCTURE:

7.1 Origin Of Indian Journalism

7.1.1. Meaning of “Press”

7.1.2. Origin of the press in India

7.1.3. Beginning of Indian Journalism

7.1.4. Rigidity of East Indian Company on Press

7.2 Indian Pioneers

7.2.1. Famous Leaders, Journalists

7.2.2. Newspapers

7.2.3. Vernacular Press Act

7.2.4. National Liberation Movement and Press

7.3 Origin Of Tamil Press

7.3.1 Early Years of Tamil Journalism

7.3.2 Kinds of Newspapers

7.3.3 Periodicals

7.3.4 Various Types of Journals

7.4 Let Us Sum Up

7.5 Lesson-End Exercise

7.6 Points For Discussion

7.7 Answers To Check Your Progress

7.8 Suggested Readings

7.1 ORIGIN OF INDIAN JOURNALISM

7.1.1 Meaning of “Press”

In common parlance, by “press”, we mean “printing press”. But in journalistic and mass communication terminology, by ‘press’ we mean print media, newspapers, journals, magazines, periodicals, pamphlets, leaflets, books, or any other printed materials like handbills, documents, etc. Even news agencies, press syndicates and feature agencies form part of the umbrella term ‘press’. More often ‘press’ refers to newspapers and magazines, particularly in the expressions like ‘freedom of the press’, ‘privileges of the press’.

As newspaper means ‘any printed periodical work containing public news or comments of opinions interpretation of facts and statements of opinions through editorials, news analysis and in a number of other ways. Thus, a newspaper on the one hand is a medium of information and on the other hand it serves as means of reflecting public opinion and of molding public opinion. It is a vehicle of expression, education and enlightenment. It is a source of entertainment. It also serves as a medium of advertising and publication. Thus, in newspapers we find information, opinion, publicity and propaganda.

7.1.2 Origin of the press in India

The ‘press’, in a sense, is as old as the human race itself. Human beings’ instinctive curiosity to know about what is happening around always has been there. The writings on the walls and on stones dating back to several centuries before Christ were the first signs of the origin of the press in India. Emperor Ashoka’s edicts renouncing violence after the Kalinga war are available to this day on stone. Later, paper and writing materials were invented; state records in the form of messages from spies were maintained in a rudimentary form.

According to J. Natarajan, 'newsletters' were the earliest though rough form of a 'newspaper'. The newsletters were regularly issued during the Mughal period. These "manuscript newspapers" were the only source of information about the developments taking place in various parts of the empires of kings, down the ages. The practice seems to have been continued until the East India Company acquired began ruling over India. It is the dissemination of these newsletters, which perhaps inspired James Augustus Hickey to start his newspaper **Bengal Gazette** in 1780.

7.1.3 Beginning of Indian Journalism

The first printing press was established in Bombay in 1674, the second in Madras in 1772 and the third in Calcutta in 1779. Although, the British were responsible for bringing the printing press in India, they were most allergic to the emergence of a newspaper in this country. Dr. R. Das Gupta, former Director, National Library, Calcutta, writes: "About 14 years before the establishment of the Bengal Gazette, one William Bolts, a merchant of Dutch origin, pasted a notice on the door of the council House in Calcutta to inform the public that the want of a Printing press in this city is a great disadvantage. On 17 April, 1767, the council at Fort William asked Bolts to quit Bengal and proceed to Madras in order to take his passage from there to Europe. The history of Indian press begins with the deportation of a person who wanted to found a newspaper. Hicky's initiative to publish his gazette was therefore an adventure".

Hicky's newspaper known as Bengal Gazette or Calcutta General Advertiser was born on 29 January, 1780 and described itself as "A weekly Political and Commercial Paper Open to All Parties but Influenced by None". The newspaper was mostly devoted to gossip, rumor and juicy and sob stories about doings and misdoings of the East Indian Company staff where he himself was employed as a clerk. His exposure of private lives of people at high places led to his imprisonment and banning of his paper for some time. In this regard, Hicky wrote: "I have no particular passion for printing of a newspaper. I have no propensity: I was not bred to slavish life of hard work, yet I take a pleasure in enslaving my body in order to purchase freedom for my mind and soul". His paper, however, languished as he suffered heavy losses. The enclosure of the paper came about in March 1782 when an order was issued for the seizure of the printing types.

Thereafter, several newspapers came into existence in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras in quick succession but they had a short life. The East Indian Company had now started taking a serious view of the contents of newspapers and imposed ruthless restrictions on the printing presses and editors. Censorship was

introduced in Madras in 1759 when a newspaper entitled 'The Madras Gazette' was required to submit for scrutiny all the material meant for publication. Similarly, in Bengal, several papers such as the Bengal Journal, Indian World and Bengal Harkaru had incurred the displeasure of the East Indian Company's authorities in one form or the other. A number of legal restrictions were imposed on the press soon after.

7.1.4 Rigidity of East Indian Company on Press

As J.Natrajan says, "the first two decades of the 19th century saw the imposition of a rigid control of the press by Lords Wellesley and Warren Hastings". The May, 1799 regulations required the newspapers to carry the names of the printer, editor and proprietor in every issue and to submit for scrutiny all material meant for publication. The censorship rules, however, were not strictly followed and also not so severely enforced. A lot of important development took place between 1813 and 1818 and consequently, among others, a number of missionaries started publishing weekly and monthly newspapers in Bengal such as Dig Darshan, Samachar Darpan and the Friend of India, the precursor of The Statesman of today.

A number of regulations known as the Adams regulations of 1818 were issued. These gave enough freedom to the editors but a strict watch was kept on the contents of their papers. Around this time, Raja Ram Mohan Roy and James Silk Buckingham raised a voice for freedom of the press. Though pre-censorship was withdrawn, a number of rules continued to be in force to strictly deal with the press. Ram Mohan Roy's weeklies, Sambad Kaumdi in Bengali and Mirat-ul-Akbar in Persian, a Bombay's noted paper, Mubai Samachar, (which exists even today) started publication.

At this point of time, the press came out with some criticism of the administration. Therefore, the first press ordinance was issued in 1823. It laid down stringent regulations for the editors and heavy penalties and fines were prescribed for infringement. The East India Company staff was prohibited from having any relations with the newspapers. While political writings were forbidden, social and religious news, particularly those by missionaries, was encouraged. However, things changed when William Bentick became the Governor-General of India. He and Raja Ram Mohan Roy were instrumental in improving the social climate in the country and a somewhat liberal attitude was meted out to the press by the authorities. The press was allowed a measure of freedom. In 1835 when Charles Metcalf became the Governor-General, he relaxed several restrictions previously imposed on the press.

The first Indian-owned newspaper, according to N. Krishna Murthy, was the Bengal Gazette started by Gangadhar Battacharya. The press in several Indian languages has started making rapid strides. Urdu and Persian papers in northwest India won over many readers. Also, the Marathi and Gujarati press had started to make their presence felt. Besides, newspapers in Hindi, Malayalam, Kannada, Tamil, Oriya, Assamese and Punjabi appeared around 1850 or later.

When the 1857 war of independence broke out, the growth of the press received a setback. The press freedom, consequently, was curtailed drastically. After the failure of the war of independence, the governance of India changed hands from the East Indian Company to the crown in England. In 1859, when Lord Canning became the Viceroy of India, the India Penal Code (IPC) was adopted in 1860. A number of newspapers from Bengal, such as Nil Darpan, The Hindu, Patriot, Shome Prakash, Indian Mirror, Bengalee and several others influenced the Indian public opinion a great deal. With the appearance of the Amrita Bazar Patrika, first in Bengali and then dramatically changing over to the English language, the complexion of journalism in India transformed suddenly and radically.

It needs to be recorded here that around this time a number of noted English language newspapers were established. The Times of India came into being with the amalgamation of four papers – The Bombay Times, The Courier, The Standard and The Telegraph. Besides, the three other noted English newspapers – The Pioneer, Civil and Military Gazette and The Statesman – were born. In Madras, The Mail (an evening) and The Hindu also came into existence soon after.

This period witnessed a boom in the Indian language press in the country. Several newspapers in almost all major Indian languages appeared on the horizon. The Bengali language press was of course on the forefront followed by the press in Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Tamil, Gujarati, Malayalam, Kannada, Punjabi and other languages.

7.2 INDIAN PIONEERS

7.2.1 Famous Leaders, Journalists

A number of India's great men, intellectuals, political leaders, thinkers and journalists came to be associated with the press in English and other Indian languages. Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Lala Lajpat Rai, Kasturi Ranga Iyengar, Surendra Nath Banerjee, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Mahadev Govind Ranade, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Motilal Ghosh, Syed Abdulla Brelvi, Aurobindo Ghose, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad and many others made their remarkable

contributions in the development of the press in the country. Most of the eminent journalists were also eminent freedom fighters and vice-versa.

7. 2.2 Newspapers

Several famous newspapers such as *Bande Matram* (Hindi), *Kesari* and *Maratha* (Marathi), *Swadesamitran* (Tamil), *Amrita Bazar Patrika*, *National Herald*, *The civil and Military Gazette*, *Free Press Journal*, *Bombay Chronicle*, *The Leader*, *The Tribune*, *Madras Standard*, *The Hitavada* and a large number of other papers in English came to be set up. There were a lot of problems that these newspapers had to confront. Kaleidoscopic restrictions on newsgathering, printing and display were imposed. Vernacular Press Act, Official Secrets Act, Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act, the newly introduced sections of the Indian Penal Code such 124-A, 153-A and 505, Defense of Indian Rules, Post Office Act, Press and Registration of Books Act, the Sea Customs Act and a large number of ordinances throttled the growth and development of the press in India in all respects from the very beginning.

7.2.3 Vernacular Press Act

When Queen Victoria assumed the title of “Empress of India” in 1857, nationalist leaders demanded a greater role in the conduct of Government affairs in India. The newspapers and journals devoted liberal space to news and comments on such events. Lord Lytton worried over the increasing impact of the writings in the press, particularly in the language press and enforced the Vernacular Press Act on March 1, 1878, for stringently controlling the newspapers. The law came down heavily on the press. Under these regulations, any district magistrate or a police commissioner was empowered to force the printer and publisher of a newspaper to agree not to publish certain kinds of material, to demand security, and to confiscate any printed matter it deemed to be objectionable.

According to N. Krishna Murthy, the Vernacular Press Act of 1878 was the greatest blow to the freedom of the Press in India and the Indian languages newspapers suffered most heavily because of this law. Again, according to him, “in order to keep the press fully posted with accurate and current information, Lytton instituted the post of “Press Commissioner for India”. His main job was to liaise between the press and the Government.

7.2.4 National Liberation Movement and Press

When the Indian National Congress was established in 1885, a number of newspapers in several languages had large readerships. *The Tribune*, *Kesari*, *Spectator*, *Indu-Prakash*, *Maratha*, *Amrita Bazar Patrika*, *The Pioneer*, *The*

Bangalee, The Englishman, The Hindu and others in all parts of India enjoyed a high reputation and large circulations. Meanwhile, the periodical journalism also surfaced at this point of time. The Illustrated Weekly was brought out in Bombay and the Capital was founded in Calcutta. Besides The Hindustan Review and Indian Review also came into being as monthly journals.

In 1889, when Lord Curzon took over as the Governor-General of India, a number of new measures such as the partition of Bengal and enactment of the India Official Secrets Act, 1889, further estranged the people from the British Government in India. The press opposed these steps tooth and nail. By that time, a number of draconian laws such as the Press and Registration of Books Act, and Sections 124-A and 505 of IPC had created tremendous difficulties for the press. Numerous Nationalist leaders such as Lala Lajpat Rai, Aurobindo Ghose, B.C.Pal, Lokmanya Tilak and several others had been arrested for their contributions in the press in diverse ways.

It should also be mentioned here that most of the great English language newspapers of Indian appeared between 1860s and early 1920s. These included modern time greats such as The Hindu, The Times of India, The Statesman, The Amrita Bazar Patrika (defunct now), The Pioneer, The Hindustan Times and of course several others in Indian languages all over the country.

7.3 ORIGIN OF TAMIL PRESS

7.3.1 Early Years of Tamil Journalism

Tamil Journalism, when compared to other regional languages, was rather slow in its growth. The first Tamil Daily was "Swadesimitran" which was first published as weekly in 1882 by the founder of the Hindu, G.Subramania Iyer. It was converted as a daily in 1899 and dominated Tamil Journalism for over four decades. But all for its role in helping the great poet Subramania Bharathiyar to express his free and frank views, though for short period, will remember it. For many of his writings, its publisher, C.R.Srinivasan, incurred the wrath of the British rulers when A. Rangaswami Iyengar took over as its editor, he carried out many improvements and the paper gained the reputation of a standard daily. It identified itself with the congress party and the freedom struggle and the political consciousness of the people was stirred up by the writings of C.R.srinivasa, Subramania Bharathiyar and other nationalists.

Iyothee Thass or Pandit C. Ayodhya Dasa: (May 20, 1845–1914) Iyothee Thass was born on May 20, 1845 in a Dalit (Paraiyar) family from Coimbatore district was a practitioner of Siddha medicine who is regarded as a pioneer of the Dravidian Movement. Born on 20 May 1845, Thass's original name was Kaathavarayan. His grandfather has served as a butler to Lord Arlington.

Kaathavarayan gained expertise in Tamil literature, philosophy, Siddha and had good knowledge of English, Sanskrit and Pali. After organising the tribal people in the Nilgris in the 1870s, he established the Advaidananda Sabha in 1876. He launched a magazine called Dravida Pandian along with Rev. John Rathinam in 1885. He issued a statement in 1886 announcing that the so-called untouchables' are not Hindus. He established the Dravida Mahajana Sabha in 1891 and during the very first Census urged the so-called untouchables to register themselves as casteless Dravidians. This in fact makes Tamil Dalits the true descendents of the anti-Brahmin legacy, which is today claimed by non-Brahmin non-Dalits.

Iyothee Thass met Colonel H. S. Olcott with his followers and expressed a sincere desire to convert to Buddhism. According to Thass, the Paraiyars of Tamilakam TamilNadu were originally Buddhists and they were conquered by Hindu Aryans, in concurrence they were treated as untouchables. With Olcott's help, Thass was able to visit Ceylon and obtain diksha from the Sinhalese Buddhist monk Bikkhu Sumangala Nayake. On returning, Thass established the Sakya Buddhist Society in Madras with branches all over South India. The Sakya Buddhist Society was also known as the Indian Buddhist Association and was established in the year 1898. On June 19, 1907, Iyothee Thass launched a Tamil newspaper called **Oru Paisa Tamizhan** or One Paise Tamilian. In his later days, he was a vehement criticizer of Caste system. Iyothee Thass died in 1914 at the age of 69.

Iyothee Thass remains the first recognized anti-Brahmin leader of the Madras Presidency. In many ways, Periyar, Dravidar Kazhagam, Dr. Ambedkar and Thirumavalavan are inheritors of his legacy. He was also the first notable Dalit leader to embrace Buddhism.

Thiru V. Kalyanasundara Mudaliyar, the Tamil scholar, started "**Desabhaktan**" in 1917 and revolutionary, V.V.S Iyer served as its editor for some time. It was not a great success and had short life of three years. Dr.P. Varadarajulu Naidu, a Congressman and an ardent supporter of Annie Besant's Home Rule movement, started **Tamil Nadu**, and it was published from Madras in 1926. The paper, during its short life of four years, campaigned against the Justice Party. There were also other dailies like "Jayabharathi", a tabloid "India" started by some congressmen and the "Dravidian", the mouth piece of the Justice party, which was edited by J.S.Kannappar.

But the most important Tamil newspaper was "Dinamani" which was started in 1934 by Sadanada who also purchased "The Indian Express" from Varadarajulu Naidu. Ramanath Goenka later bought the newspapers and he had two eminent editors, T.S.Chockalingam and A.N.Sivaraman. Both of them,

freedom fighters, scaled new heights in journalism and "Dinamani", priced at six paise (one rupee consisted of 192 paise then), With its excellent presentation of news and articles carved a niche for itself in the hearts of Tamil readers and became the number one newspaper in Tamil Nadu. Chockalingam parted company with "Dinamani" in 1943 and started "Dinasari" in 1944.

After his departure, Sivaraman took over the reins of Dinamani and gave a new look to the newspaper. Though he had no great education in conventional sense, he studied almost all works and was also proficient in Malayalam, Sanskrit, German and Hindi. He covered almost all fields and his articles on economic problems and scientific topics with the pen name of semi-literate layman (Araikurai Pamaran) were very popular and when they were published in book form they sold like hot cakes. Though many newspapers have gained popularity by straying from the path of standard journalism, "Dinamani" has never wavered from the chosen path of presenting news like any Standard English newspaper.

Another significant name in Tamil journalism S.B.Adityan started his "Dina Thanthi" for the people in the lower strata of the society. It was he who made the people of this kind politically conscious, which was responsible for making people aware of their rights and how they were being exploited. He believed that newspapers should use the common man's language and not the Sanskritised Tamil or the literary Tamil. His Paper's pages were filled with stories of crime, sex etc, no doubt, but they were interspersed with the day's major news.

Unlike "Dinathanthi", a paper which used pure Tamil was "Tamil Nadu" published from Madurai by Karumuthu Thiagaraja Chettiar. It was patronised by those who wanted pure Tamil but the paper was not a big success financially and had to close down.

Another paper, which started as a local daily pleading the cause of Travancore Tamils and later spread its wings to other areas, was "Dinamalar", the paper incurred the wrath of the Pattom Thanu Pillai Government when Nagercoil and other Tamil speaking areas formed part of Travancore Cochin State and its copies were seized. After the merger of these areas with Tamil Nadu, "Dinamalar" moved to Tirunelveli and concentrate more on local news and highlighting public grievances. When the DMK split in the 1970s the paper identified itself with M.G.R and its circulation went up by leaps and bounds. Very soon it started editions at Madurai, Tiruchirappalli and Madras and when other dailies were using the Bombay machine, it went for offset printing and this helped the paper publisher more visuals of bigger size and this greatly impressed the public. Another plus point for it was to give headings for various news items using old proverbs or lines from film songs. The paper is still liked by many for its Photo Journalism.

Other Tamil dailies, which deserve to be mentioned, are "Dinakaran" published by K.P.Kandasami and "Makkal Kural", brought out as a co-operative endeavor by T.R.Ramasami, who was earlier, an office bearer of the king journalists Federations. There were also dailies like "Nava India" published from Coimbatore, "Nesamani" from Madras and "Madurai Mani" run by a journalist in Madurai. It was estimated in 1983 that there are 113 Tamil dailies of which 108 are published in Tamil Nadu. Of these Dinamani alone had a circulation of over one lakh at that time though it had lost heavily in circulation since then.

7.3.2 Kinds of Newspapers

Eveningers: In the past as most of the newspapers had to be sent by trains or buses to far off places, they used to publish their evening edition, which was also known as the dak edition. They used to carry mostly the morning news, which would have been published in the city editions. But with the improvement in modes of transport with newspaper having their own or hired vehicles or facsimile editions, eveningers or dak editions have been consigned to the pages of history. "The Mail" which ceased publication some years back was the line English eveninger of Tamil Nadu. After that arrival "News Today" is a sister publication of the Makkal Kural which is also an eveninger. There are many Tamil evening newspapers like "Malai Murasu", "Malai Malar" etc, which are published from many centers in the state. They mostly carry the news published by the morning newspapers. But when some important news breaks out they are in great demand and are sold like hot cakes.

In metropolitan cities people returning from offices, schools and colleges would be eager to know as to what had happened in the day and they used to buy these eveningers which might cost less when compared to the morning newspapers. But with the TV and radio fast catching up and presenting the day's news in their regular bulletins, such type of newspapers have ceased to be of great value in the centers of publication. After "The Mail" ceased publication in Madras the "Express" group came out with an evening daily known as "Five P.M.". But it was not a great success and was short-lived.

7.3.3 Periodicals

Journalistic and Educational: A periodical is different from a daily newspaper as the name itself suggests. It may be published over a period at regular intervals, say a week, thrice in a month, fortnight, and a month, a quarter or a year. Many newspapers in the past had started as periodicals and had switched over to daily publication. Now it is the other way round and many daily newspapers have periodicals twice or thrice a week, published as their supplements. Many of the periodicals, whether in English, Tamil or other

languages have got large circulation, twice or thrice that of daily newspapers. For example in Tamil, Kumudam is the largest circulated periodicals and no daily newspapers can come anywhere near it.

In the case of Tamil journals had been rather slow. The earliest Tamil journal on published in 1831 was "Thamizh Magazine", published by the Religious tract Society. Christian missionaries who used them as vehicles to spread their religion published this, as well as other Tamil journalists at that time. The first non-religious Tamil journal was "Rajavritta Bodhini" which was published in 1855 and specialised in translating various news items published in journals received from England. These journals had Government support and had limited circulation. Another important journal was "Jana Vinodhini", which was popular because of its serial on Ramayana. This as well as other Journals like "Viveka Vilasam" (published by Tamil scholars to counter the missionaries' propaganda) was published from Madras, which was also the center from where journals in other Indian languages were published.

Two Tamil literary journals which were published in the first part of this century were "Senthamizh" of Madurai Tamil Sangam and "Senthamizh Selvi" of Karanthai Tamil Sangam of them "Senthamizh" which had as its editors three great litterateurs up to the middle of the century, had done great service to the development of Tamil language and literature. No field had been left untouched by it and the articles in it have covered every subject from A to Z. When teaching science subjects in Tamil was considered a taboo, it published lessons on physics, Astronomy, Chemistry and other subjects, Its volumes, in short are a storehouse of information for researchers and other students. Its first editor was R.Raghava Iyengar, a scholar of Ramanathpuram and after him, his cousin, M.Raghavan Iyengar whose articles and books are illuminating, many libraries was its editor. But the man who was its editor for four decades was Thirunarayana Iyengar who took the journal from strength to strength. One should not forget Pandithurai Thevar who was the man behind the success of this journal as the established the Tamil Sangam in 1901 and gifted his palatial residence at Madurai for housing it. Even now the journal is published quarterly.

Unlike "Senthamizh", "Senthamizh Selvi" was purely literary journal published by the Tamil Sangam of Karnattai or Karunthattangudi near Thanjavur.

During the First World War, people's interest turned towards the war theatre and they wanted to know more about the war development. When the war ended the country witnessed the freedom struggle and politics became a matter of greater general interest. As a result newspapers became popular. The newspapers first devoted more attention to liberal translation of news given by foreign

agencies and their style was stiff and more labored. There was also greater use of Sanskrit words but later on there was no stress on liberal or free translation and newspapers also used the spoken language when Thiruvika became the editor of Desabakthan, Tamil journalism attained a dignity and he used literary and not the simple style.

The pioneer of Tamil periodicals journalism was "Ananda Vikatan" which was started by S.S.Vasan in 1924. Originally laying stress on giving race tips and publishing cross words puzzles, it later shifted its emphasis to short stories, political comments, cartoons, essays on art and culture and even literature. The journal had among its editorial staff writers like Kalki Devan, Saavi and cartoonist Mali, Kalki later started his own weekly "Kalki" which is one of the leading journals even now. "Kumudam", started by the great philanthropist, Dr.R.M.Alagappa Chettiar was published thrice a month and later became a weekly with a circulation of nearly six lakhs it is the largest circulated periodical.

One cannot forget the contribution of a set of writers who wrote stories in a standard journal known as "Manikkodi" and they came to be called as Manikkodi group of writers. They were led by Pudumaippithan and B.S.Ramaih, Ku.Pa.Rajagopalan and others belonged to this group. Their short stories, which were written in easy to understand, were really gripping. Their writings and the journal Manikkodi that they wrote then are an unforgettable chapter in the history of modern Tamil literature.

Apart from the usual literary journals like "Senthamizh" etc here are scientific journals like "Kalaikadir" published by Coimbatore industrialists and educationalists like G.R.Damodaran. Though such types of journals are very small in number, one cannot forget the significant contribution they have made for the enrichment of Tamil language and literature. They have got some committed leaders. Unlike in the west and other Indian languages there are not many journals in Tamil, which can be said to belong to the category of educational and even the small number among them like Manjari, belonging to the Kalaimagal group are leading a hand to mouth existence. If only shows that the number of people like standard journals is on the decline and this does not augur well for the Tamil country and its language.

7.3.4 Various Types of Journals

A) Investigative: In Tamil, as in other Indian languages there were some journals, which exposed the misdeeds of public figures, especially film personalities. Though described as yellow journals, these magazines had exposed the men behind some famous murder cases in the past. If one wants to describe an investigative journals as the one, which digs up some facts behind an incident one

can call Tughlaks of Cho Ramaswamy as an investigative journals as, it exposed the muster roll scandal in Madras Corporation and the Veeranam pipe scandal. Both of these caused some heads to roll a pure investigative journal are "Junior Vikatan" and there is a mushroom growth of such journals of late. But many of them have turned into scandal sheets and we see in newspapers actions initiated by the Government against them whatever the undesirable elements in investigative journals, their exposure have led to corrupt politicians indulging in their usual practice, not do so quite frequently.

B) Sports Journals: Sports news like other news forms part of a newspaper and one can see the children in the house scanning through the sports page only, where the newspaper is received. Any journal whether in English or regional languages devote at least one page for carrying sports news and this only shows that there are committed readers for this page. As such it is no wonder that some journals, devoted exclusively to sports activities, have made mark. The Hindu launched a new sports journal in tabloid format, "Sport star". Very soon it was published in book form and its fine color and black and white pictures are an instant draw with sports lovers. Now there are many sports journals like sports world etc. and even some in regional languages. As sports is a visual event, these journals have to devote more space for publishing pictures and this is too costly a business unless there is a minimum circulation these journals could not carry on their business.

(C) Film Journals: The cinema, which came to India as early as 1896, proved to be an instant success. The number of people who witness this form of entertainment has been growing ever since. It used to be jocularly said that an average Tamil spends half of his time in seeing films and the other half in reading and discussing about them. It is no wonder that film journals have been appearing in large numbers as the number of this class of readers has been even-increasing. In the past e.g., in Tamil there was hardly one or two film journals but there is a multiplicity of them. In the past, people made it a point to buy books containing songs of their favorite movies. Some publishers made use of this opportunity to bring out books containing the entire dialogues of popular Tamil films.

(D) Religious and Astrological Magazines: The etymological meaning of religion is that which binds together, Whatever had qualities the atheists and detractors may find in religion, "it is like a river which has shallows that a child may play in and depths which the strongest diver cannot fathom". The more it is studied the more does it illuminate the intellect and satisfy the mind. Religion is not something to be studied alone, having no connection with the daily life of humanity. But it is the very principle of a healthy and beneficent life. This applies

to all religions as they are like different sources of water reaching the ocean. They show different paths to reach the ultimate goal.

Notable among the private religious journals are "Gnana boomi" brought out by Idayam publications and "Sakthi". Various Saivite and Vaishnavite mutts are bringing out their own journals. The Tirumala Tirupathi Devasthanam has been publishing its multi-lingual edition of "Sapthagiri" for the past several years. As long as people believe that "more things are wrought by prayer than this world dreams of" the demand for these religious magazines will be on the rise.

When man believes religion he will also have faith in fate, which it is believed, rules over the whole society. Apart from those who have faith in their fate and want to less their sufferings by undertaking religious views and other means, everyone will be eager to know what lies in store for him in the future. There will be at least one member in each family who will scan through the astrological predictions column of each newspaper and magazine. No newspaper or journal with the exception of those, which are official organs of the Dravidian parties, comes out without a column devoted to astrological predictions. Even the bestselling Tamil journal like Kumudan has now begun publishing astrological predictions.

(E) Interpretative Journals: Interpretative journals are those which are published by political parties and other allied organizations giving their own interpretations about various speeches of political leaders and events taking place around them. General newspaper also asks their regular contributors to give interpretative articles about various political events. It should be remembered that interpretative writing is mere rephrasing of the original news in such a way that it made more interesting. Apart from the regular newspapers many journals in Tamil like Tughlak, Junior Vikatan and others publish interpretative and investigative articles. Writers of such materials would always believe that these were much more than what they were able to see. They can write freely only if they have full backing of the editors.

(F) Women and Family Magazines: Apart from stories and novels, these are many items of interest for women. No doubt every journal devotes some pages for women, but when there are exclusive women's magazines dealing with many of their problems, they have proved to be instant success. In the past there was hardly a woman's magazine in the 1940s and 1950s, but after 1960 many journals have appeared. Edited by women journalists, these magazines contain short stories, even short novels, articles on fashion Kolam and other items of art, dance, music astrological predictions, cookery etc. There was only a handful of them even in 1960s and 1970s but now there are more than a dozen, some of them

brought out by publishers of other Tamil journals and some of them standing on their own legs, marriage counseling, health problems etc., are the other subjects dealt with by them and they are read not only by women, but by other family members also. These women's magazines as well as the family magazines mark a new trend hitherto unheard of in Tamil Journalism and their success and

Popularity has made more people enter the field. Whatever the arguments against them, they have come to stay in the field of Tamil Journalism.

(G) Children Magazines: It used to be said of children's magazines that they effectively make a child reader feel grown up while at the same time they make an adult reader remember the child he was. Still many of us if we happen to come across "Ambulimama" the children magazine in Tamil would like to read the serial 'Vikram and Vetala' though we know that the story would never end. Similar was the case with Sindbad serial in "Dinathanthi", Phantom, Superman etc., of the west though the last mentioned had been made to die in the last episode which was televised recently. Why such stories are of interest to both the adult and the child reader? The reason is simple, because the child reader does not write them. Adult readers write them whose imagination they will have to satisfy first. Hence people who are in the same age group will find them to be interesting.

In the past there were only two or three children's Magazines in Tamil and this may be the case with regard to other languages also. But of late there are any number of Magazines which unlike those of the past do not stop with serializing fairytales and stories of fantasy, but are presenting more serious reading material. A survey has concluded that the very young child is curious to know about his environment as he starts exploring the world as soon as he goes to school. If such children are provided with knowledge, which relate to his stage of awareness in the manner he likes, i.e., either through stories or other forms, it will be of great help in developing his knowledge. It has been concluded that the introduction of science into the young child's environment helps develop an enquiring mind and a scientific approach to solving problems, helps the child to know about the physical world, provides interest and enjoyment and develops in him a feeling of responsibility for the environment.

(H) Science and Other Magazines: As already mentioned science is the systematic study of natural or physical phenomenon. It involves research and the youth should be given enough opportunity through reading material to experiment and know more about his environment unfortunately there are not many science magazines meant for the common man either in English or other languages. There are many scientific journals no doubt to cater to the needs of the researchers and specialists. This is made good to some extent by newspapers publishing weekly

Check Your Progress

1. What is the name of the first Tamil newspaper which was first published as weekly in 1882 by the founder of the Hindu, G.Subramania Iyer?
2. Who did start his "Dina Thanthi" for the people in the lower strata of the society?
3. What is the name of the Tamil newspaper launched by Iyothay Thass on June 19, 1907?
4. Who did start the Desabhaktan in 1917?, Who did serve as its editor for some time?

pullouts on science and technology, farm front etc. But what is needed is the publication of scientific journals in large numbers, which will provide answers to the queries that rise in an inquisitive mind. Apart from what we have listed here are others like 'house journals published by some companies and organizations, throw away papers' which carry only advertisements and are supplied freely to readers, All these have been dealt with in other units.

In the above unit we studied about various types of print media in India like daily newspapers published in English and Indian languages and also the evening newspapers. Their role in helping the freedom movement before independence and after independence, in making the people know about various Government schemes for their welfare and in making them politically conscious and also in the spread of literacy were analyzed. Then various periodicals and their different kinds like journalistic and educational, investigative, sports, cinema, religious astrological, science etc., were discussed in detail.

7.4 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to discuss the over view of the origin of Indian Journalism, meaning of "Press", early of Indian Journalism, Rigidity of East Indian Company on Press, Indian Pioneers, Famous Leaders, Journalists, Newspaper, Vernacular Press Act and National Liberation Movement and Press. Then we elucidated the origin of Tamil press and early years of Tamil Journalism. Finally we concluded with the kinds of newspapers, periodicals, and journals in Tamil.

7.5 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Trace out the early history of Tamil Journalism
2. Discuss the Tamil Press in Pre-Independence and Post-Independence period.

7.6 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose if you are asked to address Tamil students in your university or in your college with regard to history of Tamil Journalism. What major aspects of Tamil Journalistic History you would keep in mind.

7.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Swadesimitran
2. S.B.Adityan
3. Oru Paisa Tamizhan or One Paise Tamilian
4. Thiru V. Kalyanasundara Mudaliyar , V.V.S Iyer

7.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT – IV

LESSON - 8

TAMIL PRESS: TRENDS AND PIONEERS

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, we attempt to discuss on the Leaders of Tamil Press and their contribution to the growth of Tamil Journalism. We try to elucidate the trends of contemporary Tamil Press. We also examine few Tamil periodicals and their contents such as: Ananda Vikatan, Va Ra's writings, The Novels of Ka. Naa. Subramaniam, The Casual Approach of T.Janakiraman, Ramaiah's Achievement and Poetry. Finally we conclude with Prominent newspapers: Dina Mani, Dhina Thanthi, Dinakaran, Maalaimalar, Dinamalar.

The role of print media in the process of mass communication is of special importance. Print media like newspapers, journals and magazines are the basic and oldest channels of communication between one of the sources to the other. Because of development of roads and communication newspapers are being circulated in every small village in India even if situated in a very remote area. Print media are being printed in every regional language to facilitate, the readers to get information and knowledge in one's own mother tongue. In India where about 25% of the people are living below poverty line, where they cannot afford to have expensive devices like T.V., Radio to get information, for them newspaper is the cheapest medium of mass communication. Before independence the print media played a missionary role of helping in creating public opinion against the foreign rule. This they did for more than half a century. The whole country was up against the foreign rule, which eventually ended in 1947. The achievement of independence brought in a real challenge for those in power and also those not in powers. This meant an altogether different role for the press. The regional language press obtains scarce attention in competition with major national dailies. Few individuals attempt to start a newspaper or magazine at a local level, because of the large amounts of investment and the technology involved. Consequently, the first casualties are the freedom of the press and the standard of journalism.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the early history of Indian Journalism
- Explain the origin of Tamil Journalism
- Describe the trends in Tamil Journalism
- Pin point the Pioneers of Tamil Press

UNIT STRUCTURE:

8.1 Leaders Of Tamil Press

8.2 Trends Of Contemporary Tamil Press

8.2.1. Ananda Vikatan

8.2.2. Va Ra's writings

8.2.3. The Novels of Ka. Naa. Subramaniam

8.2.4. The Casual Approach of T. Janakiraman

8.2.5. Ramaiah's Achievement

8.2.6. Poetry

8.2.7. General Estimate

8.3 Prominent Newspapers

8.3.1 Dina Mani

8.3.2 Dhina Thanthi

8.3.3 Dinakaran

8.3.4 Maalaimalar

8.3.5 Dinamalar

8.4 Let Us Sum Up

8.5 Lesson-End Exercise

8.6 Points For Discussion

8.7 Answers To Check Your Progress

8.8 Suggested Readings

8.1 LEADERS OF TAMIL PRESS

The first Tamil magazine was a monthly, **Tamil Magazine**, started in 1831. The progress of the Tamil press was accelerated in the last decade of the 19th century with the starting of **Swadesamitran** in 1882 founded by the great G. Subramanya Aiyer, who converted it into a daily in 1899. The next Tamil daily made its mark only in 1917 entitled **Desabhaktan**, but was forced to be closed down in 1926; that year **Tamil Nadu** under Varadarajulu Naidu started as a daily. But it was **Swadesamitran** which had the highest circulation, thanks to its stalwart editor C.R. Srinivasan. In 1936, the Indian Express group started **Dinamani**, a daily, in September 1934. A.N. Sivaraman, its editor, spared no effort to make, is a leading Tamil daily like **Swadesamitran**.

Among the Tamil weeklies, it is **Anand Vikatan**, which achieved notable success. Started in 1924, it has always been identified with its founder-editor, S.S. Vasan, the movie tycoon. **Kalki**, started by R. Krishnamurti in 1941, is another popular Tamil weekly. But the largest circulated Tamil weekly is **Kumudum**, started in 1947, with a print order of over four lakhs.

8.2 TRENDS OF CONTEMPORARY TAMIL PRESS

In seeking to survey the trends in Tamil writing today, one's task appears to be easy on the surface. For the period involved in this kind of survey seems to be just a generation. But the growth during this short period has been so accelerated that the volume of material one will have to wade through even for a general assessment is breathtakingly huge. Any cursory attempt to discern the trends in this context will necessarily appear superficial. If in the process the result is akin to the attempt of the six blind men who sought to describe the elephant, one need not even be apologetic about it.

The enormity of the task can be imagined when one remembers the hundreds of names, which are familiar in the field of Tamil writing. In a world where social status and political power intrude upon the cultural field, it is not easy, for the mere writer whether professional or amateur, to make headway in claiming public attention. Such intrusion, even when it results in patronage serves to provide unjustified weightage to un-assessed merit. In a way this circumstance seems to have given the urge necessary for the creative writer to rise in intellectual revolt, thereby ushering in the renaissance in Tamil letters. This, to all purposes, seems to have happened about a quarter century ago in the wake of post-Bharati revival, based mainly on nationalistic upsurge. Political discontent and a helpless awareness of social stagnation had taken hold of the people all over the country and thinking men in Tamil Nadu were trying to shake off their intellectual somnolence.

8.2.1 Ananda Vikatan

One of the most popular Tamil magazines published in Chennai, India. Ananda Vikatan part of the Vikatan group, which also publishes Aval Vikatan, Sakthi Vikatan, Motor Vikatan, Junior Vikatan, Chutti Vikatan, Naanayam Vikatan and Pasumai Vikatan.

The Tamil reading public at that time was being entertained to longwinded but readable melodramatic stories often adapted from nineteenth century English fiction of ordinary merit. There was not much activity and the average reader was himself being discovered by journals like Ananda Vikatan. Writers of critical and academic bent like Swaminatha Ayyar, Thiru Vi Ka and a few others had set things to do, in that their subject-matter was restricted to the editing of the classics or expounding traditional modes of living. Lone giants like Rajam Iyer and Madhaviah had blazed trails, which waited in vain for followers. Journalism, which is always the feeder for a more permanent kind of writing, had not made much headway. The literary fire kindled by Bharati and V. V. S. Iyer Jay smouldering for want of fuel of the proper variety.

8.2.2 Va Ra's writings

Into this atmosphere of brooding uncertainty *Manikkodi* came as a cloudburst and the lightning streaks of Va Ra's writings roused readers to a sense of extraordinary perception. Left alone for a moment as a highbrow organ of exclusive writing, *Manikkodi* could not be ignored though. Its voice was beginning to be heard above the din of other distracting sounds, not merely because it was outspoken in its views, but mainly because it had a new way expressing itself, which even the average reader could easily understand. Its main contribution to serious reading lay in the fact that it disturbed the mental stagnation of the reader and created ripples of creative thought.

Va Ra who imported into his writings a style, which was direct, forceful and abiding, did much of this work. He could rouse indignation and disgust in dealing with social evils. In *Sundari*, a novel that was an early work of his, he made a crusade against the tyranny of social custom masquerading as religious belief in a community overridden with superstition. The soil in which Va Ra sought to sow the seeds of literary awakening was rich and the fertilising influence of *Manikkodi* soon bore good results. Literary lions hibernating in lairs of their own in mental discomfort scented the new atmosphere and came out in all their majesty. The eternal flame of Bharati's poetry burnt steadily in the verses of Bharatidarsan who used his poems much as Va Ra used his prose. Stalwarts in the field of the short story today, like B. S. Ramiah, whose gift for narration is surpassed by few, the late C. Vriddhachalam (Pudumaipithan), with his passion

for realism, joined the ranks of this *avant garde*. Pichamurthi K.P. Rajagopalan who was building their literary nests on the banks of the Kaveri at Kumbhakonam, responded to the invitation that was inherent in the pages of the journal. The magic initials, Va Ra, induced many people to write for it and many more to read and preserve it for friends and posterity. The telling style of Va Ra, reflecting all the nuances of the language, found for him a successor in T. J. Ranganathan, who today handles Tamil as deftly in the short story as in the essay.

It had become evident within the short period of *Manikkodi's* existence's a magazine that here was the beginning of a literary revival. The diffidence of newcomers to the practice of literary writing was soon dispelled by Va Ra's encouragement. He was generous to a fault in his acclamation of talent. He knew that appreciation was the staple food on which the literary artist thrived; and he saw to it that the beginner got it in good measure. When it came from Va Ra, whose status and authority had been so widely recognized in the literary field, the newcomer was not only heartened but also strove to better himself. Writers with conviction and confidence were drawn to this forum until *Manikkodi* became strong enough to stand by itself. The literary tradition of *Manikkodi* was carried forward by a band of writers whom it had nurtured and the spearhead of this new front was Ramiah, who made it the premier vehicle of the modern short story. Other writers of individual merit, who had not been directly influenced by Va Ra, were also enriching literature with their output. S.D.S Yogi was growing beautiful blossoms with the magic wand of his poesy. K.V. Jagannathan was attempting the herculean task of coordinating scholarship with creative writing. *Kalaimagal*, under his editorship, sought to cater to a variety of tastes maintaining, at the same time, the air of classic propriety its founders had vested it with. *Kalki* was going strong with Krishnamurthi's seemingly endless and delectable tales of historical grandeur and patriotic adventure and kept the mass of readers under the spell of his special brand of humour. Leaders of thought like C.Rajagopalachari embellished mere journalistic writing with their experience and wisdom. T.K.C. was unfolding the beauties of Kampan's poetry, incessantly worked on the job or detecting and removing what he felt interpolations in the immortal epic.

Literary journalism in Tamilnadu had come to be recognized as a factor by this time. Though purely literary journals found it difficult to maintain their level and last long, the dailies began to devote a section of their letterpress to things literary. The weekly supplement to the Tamil daily took on this task in part, and the short story, the sketch and a critical study of some literary masterpiece formed the pattern of this trend. The book review as such was, as it still continues to be, a non-committal description of the binding and the contents.

Parallel with the growth of *Manikkodi* as a short story magazine other vehicles also ventured to sport the story as one of their ingredients. Most of the writers who mattered were either writing in *Manikkodi* or sought its pages later for their expression. The galaxy of names, which today conjures up the image of a golden era for the Tamil short story during these days, forms the index of modern Tamil writing by any standard. Pichamurthi, with his stress on the fundamental human qualities, which ultimately triumph in spite of distracting deviations, endowed his stories with the quality of fables and continues to do so even today. Rajagopalan and Pudumaipithan, whom the Gods loved, have left a rich legacy, which forms the model for many, a young writer now. Rajagopalan's approach to his themes was that of an artist who sets out to carve images out of ivory. The delicacy with which he chiseled them displayed a rare devotion to the material itself. Pudumaipithan dealt with human situations with detachment approaching cynicism. Yet his picture of characters and situations was as human and real as we would like to find them. There were others too like Chidambara Subramaniam, C.S.Chellappa, Ka.Naa.Subramaniam and a score more, who are still practising their craft with individual vigour and outlook. L.S.Ramamritham among them has evolved a technique whereby he achieves the incredible feat of focusing reality through an approach bordering on fantasy. A rare kind of style, which seems to forestall the effect he seeks to create marks out his writings as something unusual. The progress of the short story in Tamil has been almost perennial and it has found votaries in successive phases. T.Janakiraman, whose claim to the hall of fame in the literary field began with his short stories, has contributed a sizable portion in this respect. Among other writers today, Choodamani has developed a manner of writing in which she is able to import the experience of agony in painful retrospect.

The Tamil novel has not had the lush growth the short story was able to attain within a space of two decades. A variety of form and a wide range of technique marked the development of the latter. A growing readership, nurtured by the sprouting of numerous periodicals lent an avid patronage to the short story and discerning writers striving for expression sought to rear a flower-garden among weeds and shrubs. Bright and colourful, these patches border a literary highway, which should be lined with giant trees of vernal foliage. Not that the vista is entirely barren; but the sparse nature of such growth has made the novel a rarity in Tamil. The fact that the longer narrative of a complex pattern, as evidenced in folklore and legend, should be more native to the language only heightens the oddity. Barring a few, very few, exceptions, the Tamil novel after the stalwarts, Rajam Iyer, Madhaviah and Vedanayakam Pillai, has not had the unlimited fresh air and sunlight conducive to the growth of a big tree. The greenhouse-care provided by the growing journals helped only the short story,

while the novel has had to be grown in pots in installments. This resulted in the freak, the serial story, which has for some time passed for the novel. Thriving on the whetted appetite of a reading public whose interest had to be left alive with artificial stimulants of sensational developments in the chapters to be, this monstrosity grew with the space available in the pages of the periodicals. As realism was a poor substitute to the dope of a thrill-providing narrative, would-be followers of this popular brand of writing soon took refuge in pseudo-historical fiction. The dual advantage, this kind of disguise provided, lay in the fact that one can evade the embarrassing necessity of conforming to a dialect which may classify and thereby even condemn, the story as sectarian and that the chronological authenticity of incidents in South Indian history is still a matter for research and debate. The pattern of language, which has, of necessity, to be conventionally literary, endowed the narrative with universality of appeal, to achieve which in a realistic creation of contemporary life, the author has to be a writer of rare merit. Such attempts too there have been in recent years and it is evident that the fact that they had to appear in installments was due more to the absence of an organized venture for publication of novels in book form. The names of those who have spun longer pieces of conventional texture are legion.

A few writers who have succeeded in writing novels at whole pieces, independent of the demands of literary journalism, have achieved a measure of success, which is not very evident in the dull and glare of popular writing. The themes they have handled are different and the mastery they have attained in narration owes much to their skill as distinguished craftsmen in the art of the short story. While a sense of idealism informs their treatment, a hesitancy to grapple with problems of real import is apparent in their composition. To say this is not to detract from the quality of their creation though. Even the boldest Tamil writer is weighed down with inhibitions peculiar to the environment he finds himself in. Attempts at rebellion are imperceptibly modified by a sense of misplaced sincerity in dealing with the foibles of human character. Where a breakthrough is really possible, the immaturity of outlook and an ambition to imitate western masters result in literary bravado and verbal exhibitionism. Confusing vulgarity with realism and sex with feminine anatomy, some of the writers who stimulate revolt have to an extent messed up the content of the short story and the novel in recent years. Fortunately, their number is low and they are sure to be ignored by a discerning public, which can reach out to creations of real purpose across the hurdles of the publishing business. An overdose of merely titillating entertainment, one may hope, is bound to result in a reaction, which will ultimately be favorable to the growth of purposeful writing.

Such a consummation seems to be nearer than one could imagine, for there are isolated attempts, even among those with identity of purpose though with differing approaches, to record for posterity something abiding by way of creative writing. Among novelists of such stature, Ka. Naa. Subramaniam, Chidambara Subramaniam, Shankar Ram, B. S. Ramiah and T. Janakiraman have been responsible for a kind of output rich in quality as well as in quantity.

8.2.3 The Novels of Ka.Naa. Subramaniam

The Novels of Ka.Naa. Subramaniam constitute a deliberate venture into the varied pattern of western technique of narration herein he seems to achieve a certain amount of success in keeping the identity of the themes he sets out to handle. A conscious attempt to import thought-provoking passages intervenes into some of his writings. His *Poithevu*, which has not been surpassed by any of his later writings, is an instance of this planned adventure. An imagery shorn of literary embellishments lends adequacy to style without leaving any permanent impression on the mind. Almost in contrast, Chidambara Subramaniam shows a remarkable capacity for enriching his language with a harmony that fits into theme of his story. The style of writing he employs in his novel *Idhayanadham* is as musical as the theme he has chosen. That the novel is more a dissertation on the ideals of a devout Hindu brought up under the best of traditions leaves something to be desired in the matter of artistic expression, to achieve which a writer must needs use the scalpel of the intellect more than the incense of emotion, which is likely to shroud the angularities natural to a human being. It is purposeful and sincere writing, which may serve as an index of our cultural heritage.

8.2.4 The Casual Approach of T.Janakiraman

The casual approach of T.Janakiraman to the compulsion of circumstances fortunately stops short of studied cynicism. Both in style and content, he follows a path of easy elegance, which makes his writings eminently readable and enduring at the same time. His delineation of characters is less conscious and more in tune with the growth of the incidents he pictures. A close knowledge of atmosphere, almost as inherent as in B.S.Ramiah's, lends an air of delightful verisimilitude to the imagery of Janakiraman. His *magnum opus*, *Mohamul*, which deals with the problem of an idealist trying to escape facts in a world of his own creation, did not concede anything to the demands of periodical journalism, which had to be its vehicle. He might perhaps have been more outspoken about some of the incidents in the story if he were not writing for a public, which was overwhelmingly burdened down with tradition. The curbs resulting from such a situation do not seem to have influenced his expression to

any appreciable extent. One might wish that other writers of immature equipment but unlimited enthusiasm were given the benefit of such journalistic taboos. But the dichotomy in Tamil journalism is so complete that writing without any inhibition is possible of achievement. There is enough variety of media, through which writers can express themselves. In the pursuit of trends which would point to processes of enduring value, one may not be very much disturbed by such distractions; but one has to take note of the fact that impacts from sources of doubtful authenticity lie at the root of such phenomena. If the writer of quality in Tamil persists in focusing his approach to life when contributing to the pages of periodical which have notoriously become family journals, he would have to toe the line in the matter of observing taboos to the extent of truncated expression. Nor can we envisage a situation where the editor of the journal would be ingenious enough to save the situation as in the instance of the *Saturday Evening Post*. The legend is, one particular installment of a serial ended with the secretary of an executive having supper with her boss in his residence. When the next installment opened with a scene which found them both at breakfast, the following morning, angry letters were received finding fault with the journal for the implied impropriety of letting the secretary stay overnight. The journal, being too conscious of its circulation to bother about the course of the story as the author conceived it, found a way out by this explanation: The editors of the *Post*, the journal declared, were not responsible for the activities of the characters between installments.

8.2.5 Ramaiah's Achievement

Ramaiah's achievement was marked with such a remarkable power of narration that one is usually carried away by the fascination inherent in the easy flow of his style. Alike in his short stories, as in his novels, Ramaiah reveals deep insight into the nature of his characters that easily competes with his powerful story telling. He shares with Janakiraman the love for the soil with which they are familiar and is able to create pictures of authentic realism. Akhilan deals with human ideals whose impact on emotions results in situations of intense drama. His experiments with problems of sociological significance point to a generally noticeable trend in the writer trying to rebel against environment.

The richness of literature in the form of the novel or the longer narrative is due, in a large measure, in recent years, to viable contributions by women writers. Among the score of such writers Gowri Ammal seems to have achieved notable success in her story *Kadivalam* which portrays the helplessness of a family whose guiding hand in the person of the mother is no longer available a result of death. Every action and interaction of the members points to the hypothetical possibility of what would have happened if the mother were alive. A

complicated pattern of events is narrated with ease and clarity. Krithika, whose novel *Puhai Naduvil* went almost unnoticed, some years back, indulges in technique of literary psychotherapy whereby she lays bare the deep-rooted causes for the actions of her characters, who have developed attitudes based on childhood complexes.

The quantity of output in the form of novels in Tamil, in book form and through journals, has now become overwhelming. But the persistent attempts of some of the writers referred to seem to bear fruit in that they have not only succeeded in making newcomers emulate them, but have also penetrated through the smoke-screen of popular writing.

8.2.6 Poetry

Poetry, which seemed, for a time, the exclusive creation of a few lone giants, soon began to hold the stage with the growth of Mushairas at literary festivals. Bharatidasan, who after Bharati, wore his mantle only for a short period, soon made use of his power of expression to cavil at social evils. Desikavinayakam Pillai's attempts at pure poetry continued to be the model for aspirants. While Namakkal Ramalingam Pillai remained dutiful to his position of poet laureate, official and unofficial, S. D. S. Yogi enriched modern Tamil poetry with his immortal lyrics of rare excellence.

Writers in other fields soon saw the immense possibilities of poetry as a vehicle of emotional recollection. Their experience in other modes of writing gave them the courage to experiment with the accepted rules of prosody. Rajagopalan, to a little extent, and Pichamurthi, in a very large measure, took to this medium obviously because they found the short story inadequate for their expression. Pichamurthi's infatuation for free verse, however, was not the result of any allergy to prosody itself, though he once described meter in poetry as a fetter to expression: Some of his pieces in this respect are the outpourings of an observant mind which looks at life and discovers patterns not visible to the ordinary writer. Poetry, both rigid and free, has now come to stay and grow in contemporary Tamil letters.

With such a wide range of output, it would be pertinent to enquire about the nature of literary criticism in Tamil. This is generally of two kinds. One is just criticism, the other only literary. The approach in the case of the former is to compare achievement with age-old standards and more often discard it as not conforming to grammar, prosody etc. The other kind is intoxicated with its own knowledge of the literary scene. Between the two, the writer is usually at a loss to know anything about his own work as others see it. Quite often, the talented writer, disgusted with the treatment meted out to his own work, tends to ignore

any opinion as such. Importing foreign standards for the assessment of work, which should be judged by norms native to the language, often confuses the issue, and the critic, however well informed he may be about other languages, often goes off at a tangent. There is thus little chance of the work being assessed on its merits. It is usually argued that since most of the forms of writing were borrowed from English, western standards must be applied in any attempt at assessment. The fallacy will be evident, when it is realized that attempts at creative writing cease to be so when they are accepted as borrowed. When they are so branded, the accusation ceases to be criticism and turns out to be literary slander. In this process, the genius of the language and the nuances inherent in the style naturally escape notice and the writer is put in the dock for sins of omission. The tendency, which has now developed in criticism of Tamil writing, is thus preoccupied in building an ivory tower. The ridicule of the insincere critic is worse than the intolerance of the highbrow and the tyranny of the cynic. The writer is to be pardoned, therefore, if in despair he likens the severity of outlook on the part of such a critic to the antics of a crank. Tamil writing, especially, is facing this change currently and the danger lies in the fact that writers of real worth, who have taken to literary criticism, are indulging in this pastime. It is to be hoped that the attitudes resulting from such a tendency will serve, in the long run, to promote healthy and constructive criticism directed to the assessment of achievement rather than in showing off knowledge of standards.

8.2.7 General Estimate

It would be surprising if one were to point out that the worst obstacle for the Tamil writer is the language itself. For some of the writers of quality in Tamil, it is not even their mother tongue. They have to take note of the countless dialectal shades. To achieve a uniformity of appeal would be a task, which would sidetrack the purpose of writing itself. The writer in Tamil is constantly aware of the possibility of his being charged with using foreign expressions—which, in his case, would largely be of Sanskrit origin. He has also to take note of the movement around him to eschew words, says of Sanskrit derivation. This affects his outlook and attempt in the matter of creating a style of his own.

The movement is inspired both by the scholar and the writer. The reasons are, however, quite different. The scholar in Tamil believes he has rediscovered the genius of the language which was until recently influenced by the Sanskrit style. He sees greater potentialities for exposition and makes attempts to retain the basic character of the language by consciously avoiding Sanskrit vocabulary. He takes pains to discover viable equivalents for terms, which Tamil has been borrowing from Sanskrit. He is motivated by an attitude of purism, which prompts him to streamline the language to its original pattern.

The creative writer in Tamil, who is concerned with the clarity of expression, also discards the Sanskrit style, but does not deliberately avoid Sanskrit vocabulary as such. He is preoccupied with the communication of his experience to his readers and employs the most readily available modes of expression.

The tendency towards discarding the Sanskrit style is thus active not only on the surface, but goes much deeper and affects the fundamental structure of the language whose design has been a composite one until now. The attempt to eliminate forms of expression, which do not conduce to clarity, thus takes on a new turn. This sometimes results in creating a style, which does not appear to be any more concise than the one discarded. Naturally there is a conflict between the two, the scholar and the creative writer, though their attempts seem to be directed towards common goals namely the purity of the language.

8.3 PROMINENT NEWSPAPERS

8.3.1 Dina Mani

Tamil newspaper printed and published from Chennai, Coimbatore, Vellore, Trichy, Madurai, Tirunelveli, Dharmapuri, Bangalore and New Delhi in India. The newspaper was established in 1933 and owned by The New Indian Express Group. The first edition came in 1934 September 11. Dina Mani is a fully developed newspaper with well-separated news, editorial and feature sections.

8.3.2 Dhina Thanthi

In 1942, Dhina Thanthi (Daily Telegraph) was started in Madurai with simultaneous editions in Madras, Salem and Tiruchirappalli. S.P. Aditanar, a lawyer trained in Britain, founded it. He modeled Thanthi on the style of an English tabloid- The Daily Mirror. He aimed to bring out a newspaper that ordinary people would read, and which would encourage a reading habit even among the newly literate. In the past, the daily newspaper that was printed in Madras reached the southern Tamil region after at least one day. Thanthi used the public bus system to distribute the paper throughout the south Tamil region and capitalized on the hunger for war news that arose after Singapore fell to the Japanese.

Dhina Thanthi became one of the largest Tamil language dailies by circulation within a few years; it has been a leading Tamil daily since the 1960s. It has today 15 editions. It is the highest circulated Tamil daily in Bangalore. It issues a book called 10th, +2 Vina Vidai Book, on every Wednesday during the second part of the year. The model question papers of all the subjects of Standard 10 and 12 are provided with answers along with the question papers of board exams that are conducted previous year.

8.3.3 Dinakaran

Tamil daily Dinakaran has regained its No. 1 position. According to the latest ABC results released on March 10, 2010, Dinakaran has widened the gap with its nearest rival, Daily Thanthi, by 43,346 net paid copies. While Dinakaran has a net paid circulation of 1,235,220 copies, Daily Thanthi has a circulation of 1,191,874 copies (Source ABC, July-Dec, 2009). As per the report, Dinakaran has registered a growth of 9 per cent, while Daily Thanthi has a 5 per cent growth.

The No.1 position is not alien to the Kalanidhi Maran-promoted Tamil daily, which had overtaken the long-time market leader Daily Thanthi in 2006 (ABC report for the period July-December 2006). However, last ABC, January-June, 2009, put Daily Thanthi ahead of Dinakaran by 2,998 copies. According to ABC, January-June, 2009 data, Dinakaran had a circulation of 1,134,406 copies, while Daily Thanthi had a circulation of 1,137,404 copies.

However, Daily Thanthi still is ahead of Dinakaran in certain key markets. For example, in Bangalore, Dinakaran has a net paid circulation of 48,719 copies, while Thanthi is selling 55,436 copies. Similarly, in Chennai, while Dinakaran sells 275,397 copies, Thanthi sells 354,642 copies.

In the Mumbai, where both the dailies ventured in 2008, Dinakaran has a circulation of 19,059 copies, while Daily Thanthi has a circulation of 16,899 copies. In Delhi, Dinakaran has a circulation of 1,876 copies. Daily Thanthi does not have an edition in Delhi.

8.3.4 Maalaimalar

Maalaimalar is the famous No.1 Tamil newspaper with the local Tamil news and latest Tamil breaking news and e Tamilnewspaper. Maalaimalar with the sections Cinema News, Sports News, Headlines. Maalaimalar is the famous No.1 Tamil newspaper with the local Tamil news and latest Tamil breaking news and e Tamilnewspaper. Maalaimalar with the sections Cinema News, Sports News, Headlines, Online Tamil songs, Tamil Daily, Aanmeegam, Health news, Videos new film videos and trailer, Historical news and MM application.

Maalaimalar Movie videos and new film trailer show, for the updated news online in Tamil. Get the latest news about the new cinema films and videos of Tamil Movies Gallery, Tamil Movie Stills, Cinema video clips, Tamil Movie Photos, Tamil Film Stills, Tamil Movie Gallery, Kollywood Movie Stills, Kollywood Movie Gallery, Kollywood Movie Pictures, Kollywood Movie Photos, Kollywood Gallery, Movie videos, Tamil cinema videos,. Latest Video, Live news Videos, Celebrity interview videos, Sports Videos, Breaking news videos, Cricket Videos, Tourism Videos, VIP interview videos.

8.3.5 Dinamalar

The first Tamil morning publication to be present on iPhone and iPod, Dinamalar's app has been created with the latest technology to ensure that users have a great experience, accessing news on the go. Dinamalar, World's No.1 leading Tamil Daily Newspaper & No. 1, Indian Publication Portal unveiled its iPhone & iPod app today. The first Tamil morning publication to be present on iPhone and iPod, Dinamalar's app has been created with the latest technology to ensure that users have a great experience, accessing news on the go. Built to offer superior functionality, which promises faster news dissemination, Dinamalar's app gives readers access to news from around the world, India and Tamil Nadu. Covering various fields of interest from business, cinema, sports to astrology, the app also features a NRIs news section, Live and recent Cricket updates and photo and video content, which will ensure rich reading experience, both on the iPhone and iPod Touch. While remaining focused on enabling its readers to have unending access to news when it happens, the key feature of Dinamalar's app remains its ability to support and ensure enhanced interactivity. The app not only allows users to share news and updates on social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter and also through email, but in addition it even provides readers with the option to share their comments.

8.4 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to discuss on the Leaders of Tamil Press and their contribution to the growth of Tamil Journalism. We tried to elucidate the trends of contemporary Tamil Press. We also examined few Tamil periodicals and their contents such as: Ananda Vikatan, Va.Ra's writings, The Novels of Ka.Naa. Subramaniam, The Casual Approach of T.Janakiraman, Ramaiah's Achievement and Poetry. Finally we concluded with Prominent newspapers: Dina Mani, Dhina Thanthi, Dinakaran, Maalaimalar, Dinamalar.

8.5 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Select a topic from your lesson and write an editorial about the trends in contemporary Tamil journalism.
2. Write an article to a house journal about the contributions of Tamil Newspapers.

8.6 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose if you are asked to guide Tamil Students on the topic "History of Tamil Journalism" what are the major points you would keep in mind to guide the students.

Check Your Progress

1. What was the name of the first Tamil magazine was a monthly, started in 1831?
2. What was the name of the daily which was started by the Indian Express group started in September 1934?
3. When was Anand Vikatan started?

8.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Tamil Magazine
2. Dinamani
3. 1924

8.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT – V

LESSON – 9

PRESS AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The invention of the news agency was the most important single development in the newspaper industry in the early 1800s, apart from the rotary press. The early agencies are Reuter, Haves and Wolff carved up the world into spheres of activity in much the same way as imperialist nations parceled out Third World territories between them. Over 60 syndicated are listed in the annual Writers' and Artist' Yearbook. The biggest agencies are the Associated Press, the Press Associated, Reuters and the United Press International.

In this lesson, we attempt to illustrate the News Agencies, Definition and Basic Concepts, Wire Agencies and Financial News Agencies. We elucidate the Development of News Agencies in India and its role towards Press. We discuss the function and origin of Wire Services and their rationale for using Wire Services. Then we defined the concept of international News Agencies and distinguish between international and national news agencies. Finally we conclude with a critique of International News Agencies.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Differentiate the news agencies and organizations
- Understand the concept of wire services
- Distinguish between national and international news agencies
- Explain the origin of news agencies
- Able to be a critique of international News agencies

UNIT STRUCTURE:

9.1 News Agencies

9.1.1 Definition and Basic Concept

9.1.2 Wire Agencies

9.1.3 Financial News Agencies

9.1.4 Development of News Agencies in India

- 9.1.5 Rationale for Using Wire Services
- 9.1.6 Origin Of Wire Services
- 9.1.7 International News Agencies
- 9.1.8 Reuters
- 9.1.9 Associated Press
- 9.1.10 Agence France-Presse
- 9.1.11 The UPI
- 9.1.12 The TASS
- 9.1.13 The PANA
- 9.1.14 The OANA
- 9.1.15 The ASIN
- 9.1.16 The ALAI
- 9.1.17 PACNEWS
- 9.1.18 INDIA ABROAD NEWS SERVICE
- 9.1.19 The IPS
- 9.1.20 The OPECNA
- 9.1.21 The NANAP
- 9.1.22 DETERRIN
- 9.1.23 The DPA
- 9.1.24 The MENA
- 9.1.25 The CANA
- 9.1.26 Critique of International News Agencies
- 9.2 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.3 Lesson-End Exercise
- 9.4 Points For Discussion
- 9.5 Answers To Check Your Progress
- 9.6 Suggested Readings

9.1 NEWS AGENCIES

9.1.1 Definition and Basic Concept

A news agency can be defined as “an undertaking whose principle objective, whatever its legal form, is to gather news and news material the sole purpose of which, is to express and present facts and to distribute this news to a group of news enterprises and in exceptional circumstances, to private (media) industries, with a view to providing them with as complete and impartial a news service as possible against payment and under such conditions as are compatible with business laws and usage.” The UNESCO gave this definition.

The aforementioned definition encompasses the operational gamut and mission of the news agencies of the world. They are also called **Wire Services**. These agencies serve the MNCs, media empires, media businesses with low turnovers etc.

The wire agencies of the new millennium maintain regional, national and global wires for the purpose of disseminating news. They have their representatives or news gatherers spread around the world. These dedicated staff collects information from Ground Zero, a term popularized after the “September Eleven” attacks on the WTC towers in the backyard of the home of Uncle Sam. The CNN covered this event almost live; so did some other TV channels of the United States. The news travelled almost instantaneously to all parts of the world, thanks to the efficient coverage of wire agencies. Small newspapers may get only one wire. Moreover, they may get only limited news content. The news devoted to sports, financial upheavals, visits of international dignitaries wars, famine, draught, global climate etc., are given priority by the wire services of the world. However, the commercial needs of the clients of a wire news agency have taken precedence over the need to disseminate mass-oriented and socially relevant news.

The newspaper publishing industry is a heavy consumer of such wire news. The news editor may or may not use the news sent by the agency, however. Depending upon the content received, he may use it on some other day of the week or in a separate section of the newspaper. The quality of news content would decide how the newspaper would perform in its targeted market niches. As such, newspapers try to get news inputs from the best news agencies of the world.

9.1.2 Wire Agencies

Currently, the six globally known wire agencies are supplying news content to nearly 70-80 percent median around the world. These agencies are as follows: -

- (A) Associated Press.
- (B) Reuters.
- (C) Agency Press France.
- (D) United Press International.
- (E) Tass.
- (F) Xinhua.

We have increased the number of the major agencies to six, keeping our text in tune with the latest developments in the media world. Other authors have defined only five major news agencies of the world. Further, all other agencies are primarily regional or national news agencies; here, the word region means a large geographical area that includes many neighboring countries. **Example:** The nations of Southeast Asia. Text, video images, photographs and data are provided by these news agencies to their clients. In return, these clients pay them hefty amounts of money so that they could regularly publish information (provided by these wire agencies) and retain their own markets. Thus, both the poles depend upon each other. The first pole (wire services) is based in the masses (i.e., the representatives of wire services are stationed where the events would take place). The other pole is the supplier of refined information to the masses, but its targeted markets could be regional, national or global. Thus, the media, wire services and the masses are a part of this complex milieu. In this milieu, every person depends upon another. Because of the impersonality of the mass media and lack of time on the part of people, this relationship is not clearly visible. Nevertheless, all of them are a part of this dynamic complex milieu. This status quo is likely to be maintained in this century.

9.1.3 Financial News Agencies

Major financial news agencies of the world are as follows: -

- (A) Dow Jones.
- (B) Reuters.
- (C) Bloomberg Information Service.
- (D) Bridge Information Systems.

Note: That Dow Jones had sold its market information systems to Bridge Information Systems for US\$ 510 million; the deal was struck in 1998.

9.1.4 Development Of News Agencies In India

The development of news agencies in India can be discussed in a chronological order, as follows: -

- (A) K.C. Roy set up the Press News Bureau (PNB)
- (B) S.Sadanand, one of the finest journalists India has ever produced, set

up a nationalist news agency during the 1930s. It was called **Free Press of India (FPI)**. However, it could not be operated for more than two years.

(C) In 1933, the UPI rose from the ashes of the FPI. It proved successful in its new reincarnation.

(D) Until independence, the UPI and Reuters were the only two news agencies, which supplied news for Indian newspapers. The British were not keen to grant freedom to the Indian news services. They had fears that vociferous journalists like Tilak and Gokhale would incite the masses against the Raj. Hence, controlled the flow of news to and from India. That could be the reason why we won our independence after a long struggle.

(E) Independence of India came as a whiff of relief for the Press and Media of India. New newspapers were started soon after Independence.

(F) The Press Trust of India was set up on August 27, 1947. It started functioning from February 1, 1949.

(G) By 1949, the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society had started its own agency, the PTI. The PTI bought Reuters (in India). In the meantime, the UPI struggled to keep itself afloat. However, it was closed in 1958.

(H) The United News of India (UNI) was set up on March 21, 1961.

(I) Bhasa (of the PTI) was formed subsequently.

(J) During the seventies, there were two multilingual wire services in India, with Hindi their base language. These were Hindustan Samachar and Samachar Bharti.

(K) In 1975, four news agencies (Hindustan Samachar, Samachar Bharti, the PTI and the UNI) were merged to form **Samachar**. Those were the days of emergency.

(L) In 1977, the Congress lost general elections. The Status quo ante of four news agencies was restored. Hence, the new Government revived these four agencies.

(M) The Non Aligned News Agencies Pool (MANAP) was formed in 1976. India was made its first chairman. This pool exchanges news in four languages—French, English, Spanish and Arabic.

(N) Univarta, a Hindi news service, was started in May 1981.

(O) In 1987, the UNI started a Photo Service. It collaborated with the AFP (France) for providing this service. This service has also started providing computer-aided graphics to Hindi and English newspapers.

- (P) Currently, the PTI, Univarta and UNI are covering the entire country for collecting news. They are also in touch with the international news agencies for the purpose of exchanging news and information with them.

9.1.5 Rationale for Using Wire Services

The wire services serve two purposes, as follows: -

- (A) **Gathering the News:** The wire service reporters work just like other reporters, although the news they assemble transcends the interests of a local area. These reporters always try to operate at national or global levels (because the clients of their wire agencies demand such news). The wire service reporters give their copies to editors. The latter send it to regional centers. Regional or unimportant news are eliminated while national news as well as international stories are transferred to regional centers.
- (B) **Distribution of the News and Interpretive Material:** At the regional centers, the news is sorted out and re-channeled across the country, either to all the wire outlets or to selected wire outlets. This routing depends upon the type of the news.

9.1.6 Origin Of Wire Services

These services started during the middle of the Nineteenth century. During the 1840s, some newspapers joined hands to give faster, cheaper and more comprehensive coverage of the Mexican War. Hence, the newspapers of New York, Baltimore and Philadelphia joined hands to collect news. In 1848, six newspapers of New York signed an agreement to share the costs of telegraphing foreign news from Boston, where ships first arrived from Europe. This agreement was the harbinger of formation of Associated Press (AP). These newspapers had formed a co-operative association. This association used to elect a board of directors too.

The AP linked newspapers of east (i.e., the eastern part of the United States). When the Americans moved towards the western parts of the American subcontinent, railway networks increased in terms of track kilometers. Hence, the AP started covering the entire United States. During the Civil War, the AP newspapers covered the great battles with an amazing finesse.

In France, the AFP was set up in 1835. The Reuters was formed in London in 1851. We have given the formation years of all the major news agencies of the world in the text that follows. It is clear from the data appended in this section that the USA and Britain had gained an edge in the gamut of wire services during the middle of the 1940s. Other nations, including India, were only struggling to create news collection and distribution systems during those times.

9.1.7 International News Agencies

There are more than 100 news agencies in the world. Nearly 90 nations of the world have their own news agencies. Forty nations of the world do not have news agencies of their own. The news agencies in 50 out of 90 nations are jointly owned and operated by newspapers and other media. Only a few news agencies are autonomous in the real sense of the word. Most of them are under the influence of the Governments and business enterprises of the countries in which, they operate. The descriptions of major international news agencies are as follows.

9.1.8 Reuters

Paul Julius Reuter in London founded it in 1851. It was a family organization till 1916. In this year, it was converted into a private company and Sir Roderick Jones was appointed as its Managing Director. He worked as MD until 1941. The firm started operating as a co-operative agency or trust owned by the British Press. Some dailies of Australia and New Zealand also held its shares. Then, eleven trustees, eight of whom represented the Press of the UK, governed it. This system of governance has been continuing since then. It is a non-profit organization. Its operating costs are met from the subscribing media. It gives news to the Press and other media around the globe. Its largest offices are located in New York, Paris, Rome, Buenos Aires, Cairo, Frankfurt, Stockholm, London, and Geneva. Its wire service is sans bias or prejudice. Its coverage is serious and insipid. Its only medium of communication is English.

9.1.9 Associated Press

It is the oldest of American news agencies. It was founded in 1848 and known as **New York Associated Press**. It went out of business in 1892 and a new organization Associated Press was founded in the Midwest and incorporated in Illinois. The present AP is, in fact, the same organization. In 1900, it was recognized and incorporated in New York. Its headquarters were transferred to New York in 1900; the same are still in New York. It is a co-operative agency owned by its member newspapers. It provides news to subscribe in more than 100 nations. It has more than 2,500 news gatherers, who are stationed around the world. In the USA, 560 of such news gatherers have been stationed. It has nearly 50 bureaus in foreign nations. It also has exchange agreements with agencies of nearly twelve nations.

9.1.10 Agence France-Press

It was founded in 1835 by Charles Haves as Agence Haves and had its headquarters in Paris. By 1860, the agency had subscribers in most parts of Europe. It also signed contracts with Reuters and German Wolff Agency for

effecting co-operative news exchanges. In 1940, the Nazis became active in Europe. The French Government bought the information branch of the agency and set up a propaganda office in Vicky. When the Germans arrived, they turned it into a part of the official Nazi News Agency, called DNB. France was liberated from the clutches of the Nazis in 1945. Many interim war agencies were merged to form the Agence France-Press (AFP). It was set up in old Haas headquarters and assimilated most of the employees of the pre-War period in its structure.

In 1944, the AFP asked for financial help from the Government. That was because the Paris dailies were not capable enough to finance the AFP. In January 1957, the AFP got an autonomous board of directors. Editors of various French newspapers controlled this board. The agency has a staff of nearly 3,000 persons. The number of its clients is almost 3,000. Transmission of news is done by wire. Nowadays, radio is also being used to transmit news. The agency has 70 bureaux around the world. There are 20 such bureaux of the agency in France alone. Nearly half of the AFP's daily transmission is world news. It has exchange agreements with the agencies of 30 nations and also, with other large news agencies of the world.

9.1.11 The UPI

The United Press International (UPI) was founded in May 1958 in the USA. At that time, the United Press Association, (which was founded by EW Scripps in 1907) and the International News service (which was founded by William Randolph Hearst in 1909) were consolidated to form the UPI. Like its predecessors, this agency is also known for its lively and colorful writings. It is a private profit-making organization. It had faced some economic crises during the early eighties of the last century. In 1982, it was bought by Media News Corporation, which was owned by four newspaper and TV executives from the South and the Midwest. It was bought from EW Scripps Co. At that time, it had nearly 6,000 newspaper and broadcast clients in nearly 80 countries and nearly 2,000 reporters.

9.1.12 The TASS

Its full form is Telegrafnoie Agenstvo Sovetskavo Soiuza. It was set up in 1918 under the name of Rosta. In 1925, it was christened as TASS. It acts both as a national agency and a world agency. The Russian Government controls it. It is the main organization for collecting and transmitting news within Russia and also, across the globe to those nations that need its news. After the fall of the Iron Curtain (1989-90), the TASS has become a free news agency of the CIS States. It sends news in Russian, English, French, German, Spanish and Arabic to its subscribers. It is dependent upon the Government for its economic survival and

growth. It is not fully free to disseminate news, contrary to the popular notion about its operations after 1989. Its headquarters are located in Moscow. It has thousands of part-time and full-time correspondents working for it in Russia and other countries. It maintains correspondents and bureaux in all the major nations of the world. It has made arrangements to exchange domestic news of the CIS States with the news agencies of the world.

Prior to the fall of the Iron Curtain, it was the main source of news for national agencies in nations that were a part of the Communist Block. However, times changed after the advent of Glasnost in 1989. The Russian heaved a sigh of relief after the arrival of democracy. The Press was the natural beneficiary, although the TASS remained under the control of the State. It also gives news to Pars (Iran), Kyodo (Japan) and Bakhta (Afghanistan). It uses mainly ordinary commercial telecommunication channels. It uses voice radio for distributing news. Reforms and forces of liberalization have changed its structure, staff strength, and strategies. Today, it is a leading global agency of the world that shares news with the West without any qualms.

9.1.13 The PANA

Its full form is **Pan African News Agency**. It covers the news of African continent. It has exchange arrangements with several news agencies of the world.

9.1.14 The OANA

The OANA covers the news of the Asia-Pacific region.

9.1.15 The ASIN

Its full form is **Accion de Sistemas Informatius Nacionales**. It handles news exchanges in South America.

9.1.16 The ALAI

Its full form is **Agencia Latinamericcana de Informacio**. It also covers the news of the South American region.

9.1.17 PACNEWS

It is the news agency for the Pacific region.

9.1.18 India Abroad News Service

Also called the IANS, it has its headquarters in New York. It is a link between the news agencies of India and the sources of information of the USA. It primarily caters to the news needs of the NRIs who have settled in the USA and Canada.

9.1.19 The IPS

Its full form is **Inter Press Service**. Its headquarters are located in Rome. It has a bureau in New Delhi. It has a third world approach to social problems and issues. It decries spot reporting and coverage of people-oriented news. It predominantly concentrates on analytical features.

9.1.20 The OPECNA

Its full form is **OPEC News Agency**. It is the news agency of the member's nations of the OPEC. It is a regional news agency.

9.1.21 The NANAP

Its full form is **Non Aligned News Agencies Pool (NANAP)**. It was formed in 1976. India was made its first chairman. This Pool exchanges news in four languages—French, English, Spanish and Arabic. It was primarily an outcome of the efforts of the NAM nations to exchange news without any bias and distortion. The NAM nations had alleged that the West was giving such news to their media as were hurting the cultural and democratic edifices of these (NAM) countries. In order to get a free and fair dealing on the news collection front, the NANAP was formed. It is a regional news agency. Also read **The McBride Commission** in this chapter.

9.1.22 DETERRIN

It is a news agency jointly started by the developed and developing nations. It is a regional news agency.

9.1.23 The DPA

Its full form is **Deutsche Press Agentur**. It is the news agency of Germany. It is connected to the major news agencies of Europe and North America.

9.1.24 The MENA

It is the news agency of Egypt. It has links with major news agencies of the world.

9.1.25 The CANA

It is a nonprofit news agency that was established under the aegis of the UNESCO in 1976. It was the direct response to the call for the NWIO. Its objective was to reduce the imbalance of news flows within the Caribbean and rationalize such flows between the Caribbean nations and the rest of the world. Up to 1976, Reuters dominated news flows in and out of the Caribbean region. The CANA has taken over the task of exchanging the news since 1976. Its ownership

structure and management have ensured its independence, although it was set up regional Caribbean Governments. These Governments are minority shareholders. Twelve private media houses have major stocks as well as the control of ownership in the CANA. Initially, It started as a basic print news service. It generated nearly 3,000 words per day to regional subscribers via Teletype. Today, the CANA generates 20,000 words per day and gives them to regional subscribers. It also sends the news to extra-regional subscribers via satellites. The BBC, The Financial Times and The Miami Herald are some of its clients. It also started **CANA Radio** in 1984. Its original 15-minutes news programme (Caribbean Today) is a hit. Currently, more than 30 regional and extra-regional radio stations carry CANA Radio's programmes that include a thrice-daily five-minute news programme. They also carry a variety of other programmes are-gender, environment, tourism and exports. CANA Radio also broadcasts live commentaries of regional and international cricket events. It has links with World Radio Network, a global nonprofit service that re-broadcasts international public radio programmes. It also supplies a daily 15-minute Caribbean News programme for the purpose of global broadcasting. This programme had 41 million listeners in 2001. CANA Radio has also created infrastructure to begin continuous region-wise broadcasts. Starting with a twelve-hour broadcast a day; it had proposed to become a global 24-hour-a-day news station by the end of 1997. Today, in 2004-05, it is a major news agency to reckon with in the Caribbean region.

9.1.26 Critique of International News Agencies

Global news agencies are being accused of sending only that news to the media that suits their interests. More importantly, they serve western interests, critics aver. Let us study a few facets of the critique in the text that follows: -

- (A) Incomplete Facts:** It has been alleged that international news agencies do not give complete facts to their clients. Moreover, such facts suit the interests of the owners of these agencies or the nations where they originated nearly 40-50 years ago.
- (B) Bias:** These agencies do not cover news with an impartial viewpoint. Their reporters nurture bias towards the subjects of Third World countries and poor backward people.
- (C) Used as Tools to Effect Cultural Homogenization:** The West has to depend upon the markets of the world to grow. Unlike the nations of the developing and least developed countries, the nations of the West are struggling to become the commercial rulers of the world. For this purpose, they have to feed such information and news to the global markets that would generate appropriate purchase responses from the members of these

poor or developing nations. The populations of developed western countries are small whereas those of the developing countries are large. Moreover, these countries have improved (or are improving) their purchasing power in terms of Dollar value and quantity. Thus, these nations are not small buyers by any norm. **Examples:** China and India are one of the fastest growing economies of the world, the former developing at the rate of 10 per cent per annum and the latter, at the rate of seven to eight per cent per annum. Obviously, the nations of the West cannot ignore these vast markets. They would try to indulge in such processes as would affect cultural homogenization in these nations. This would eventually motivate the buyers of the developing nations to buy the products, services and technologies of the advanced nations of the West. In order to sell the products and services to any nation, the pull strategy would work in much better manner than a push strategy. Thus, the nations of the West are using wire services to feed news and information that would affect cultural homogenization and ultimately lead to increased sales of their products and services (in the developing nations and LDCs). Cultural homogenization would be effected only if the news and information of the world are presented to the targeted nations in such a manner that the masses of such nations feel the need to buy the products and services of those nations from which, the news and information flow in. Therefore, this commercial machination of which, the global news agencies are a vital part, would ultimately make the developing nations and LDCs totally dependent upon the rich advanced nations of the world. In fact, it has already happened in many a country. Thus, the role of the wire services is becoming a part of the pull strategy of the western business empires.

(D) Commitment to Professional/Human Norms Creates Troubles: The nations of the West are advanced societies. They have some positive features too. They view humans as humans. They believe in the tenets of democracy and human freedom. They do not believe in the old taboos of caste, creed, color and communalism in which, the nations of the east so desperately believe. The news agencies of the West cover the news and events of the east with a rational devotion. They do not hide facts if the targeted person, community or nation follows hackneyed cultural or social norms. In the news, these deviations are highlighted. Our readers might think that this exposure would help the developing nations or LDCs remote their anomalies. However, this is not happening. Instead of improving their socio-cultural norms, they are sticking to them with greater force (due to their mental inertia). They also allege that their cultures are being attacked or modified by the news content of the West.

Thus, the positive facets of news coverage are also being viewed as pythons of information by the affected developing societies. Inadvertently, western news agencies are exposing the world to the lacunae of the societies of the east, but these societies are not willing to part with these lacunae. Instead, they accuse the western news agencies and media of subverting their aeons-old cultures.

(E) Tools for Promoting and Fighting Cultural Conflicts: Finally, international news agencies belong to such societies as are action oriented, individualistic, I-based and efficient. The affected developing societies are Providence oriented, gregarious, we-based, and inefficient (well, most of them). There is a clash of ideologies between the east and the West. The wars against Saddam Hussein, Osama bin Laden, Muammar Qaddafi, the Taliban, North Korea, Syria, Iran and ultra-organizations are to be viewed as wars of cultures. The cultures of the east and West are totally at daggers drawn with each other. Ironically, no international statesman comprehends this fact, although elite social thinkers and mass communication researchers have insinuated to this trend. If this trend were to continue, the world could soon fall into an abyss of lethal chaos. Today, wars are being fought in every part of the world because there is no possibility of starting World War III. These sporadic wars would continue throughout this century. News and information would be disseminated in all parts of the world by international agencies. Instead of integrating the world through their content, they are helping the masses become adamant on their respective stands. The leaders of these masses would be forced or persuaded to save their respective cultures. Full-fledged wars cannot be fought by many nations. Hence, they would fight guerilla wars. In the modern world, information is everything. It can change the course of history. A news agency is a potent weapon for winning a war. In the initial stage, it is a media war and later, it gets converted into a full-scale combat.

The aforementioned criticism should not lead us to the conclusion that the news agencies of the world are sinister. Our only contention is that they are lackadaisical towards the societies that are not prepared to absorb their avant-garde news onslaught.

9.2 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we attempted to illustrate the News Agencies, Definition and Basic Concepts, Wire Agencies and Financial News Agencies. We elucidated the Development of News Agencies in India and its role towards Press. We discussed the function and origin of Wire Services and their rationale for using

Wire Services. Then we defined the concept of international News Agencies and distinguished between international and national news agencies. Finally we concluded with a critique of International News Agencies.

9.3 LESSON-END EXERCISE

1. Select three international news agencies from your lesson and trace out their origin and their special services.
2. Illustrate the differences between national and international news agencies.

9.4 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose you have taken an assignment for the local newspaper's reports to explain about the national and international news agencies, what major aspects would you keep in mind for this assignment?

9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. A news agency can be defined as "an undertaking whose principle objective, whatever its legal form, is to gather news and news material the sole purpose of which, is to express and present facts, and to distribute this news to a group of news enterprises, and in exceptional circumstances, to private (media) industries, with a view to providing them with as complete and impartial a news service as possible against payment and under such conditions as are compatible with business laws and usage." The UNESCO gave this definition.
2. Major financial news agencies of the world are as follows: -Dow Jones, Reuters, Bloomberg Information Service and Bridge Information Systems.
3. Full form of PANA is **Pan African News Agency**.

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UNIT – V

LESSON – 10

PRESS ORGANIZATIONS AND REGULATORY BODIES

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, we try to discuss on Controlling Influences Of Press especially different forums that are involved such as: All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference (AINEC) Code 1968, Press Council Guidelines, Press Council Code on Communal Writings, Parliament Code International Code of Ethics. The Regulatory Bodies is also explained in terms of Press Council and its composition, its powers and functions. We elucidate on several topics such as: The Civil Procedure Code, Code of Journalistic Conduct etc. Then we defined on concept of censorship and its body such as Central Board of Film Certification. We discuss the role, need and functions of Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC), Indian Newspaper Society (INS), Indian Languages Newspapers Association (ILNA), All India Newspaper Editors Conference (AINEC), National Union of Journalists (NUJ), Press Institute of India (PII) and Indian Institute of Mass Communication. Finally we conclude with the Amendments Of Laws Of Press, Restrictions on Freedom of Press In India, Prasar Bharati, Media Laws In India, Official Secrets Act, 1923, Contempt of Courts, Privileges of Parliament, Working Journalists Act and Copyright Act, 1957.

Quite naturally, the print media have literate audiences. Big industrial houses have a monopoly over ownership of the press. This fact determines the nature of relations between the press and the Government. Newspapers openly take sides for or against the policies of the Government. For instance, the 'Indian Express' has a penchant for writing against the Government in power.

A sort of 'give and take' policy strengthens the nexus between the print media and the Government. The press receives Government patronage in terms of supply of newsprint and advertisements in return for favorable write-ups about the Government. In such situation, violations of human rights by the state are unlikely to surface. The same is the case if the rights of workers in the press industry itself were to be violated.

Personal rapport with the Government is limited to senior journalists. It does not extend to junior journalists at the grassroots level. The regional language press obtains scarce attention in competition with major national dailies. Few individuals attempt to start a newspaper or magazine at a local level, because of

the large amounts of investment and the technology involved. Consequently, the first casualties are the freedom of the press and the standard of journalism. To its credit, investigative journalism has probed human rights issues like the working conditions provided to child laborers, the torture behind prison bars and illegal “encounter” deaths. This unit will explain about the organization, agencies, press laws and amendments and enable you to be critical thinker and reasonable journalist.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss about press laws
- Explain the amendments of press laws
- Understand the limitations of press
- Comprehend the liability of journalistic profession
- Explain the Indian Press Laws
- Understand the reasonable restrictions of the Freedom of Expression

UNIT STRUCTURE:

10.1 Controlling Influences Of Press

10.1.1 All-India Newspaper Editors’ Conference

(AINEC) Code 1968

10.1.2 Press Council Guidelines

10.1.3 Press Council Code on Communal Writings

10.1.4 Parliament Code

10.1.5 International Code of Ethics

10.2 Regulatory Bodies

10.2.1 Press Council

10.2.1.1 Composition

10.2.1.2 Powers and Functions

10.2.1.3 The Civil Procedure Code

10.2.2 Code of Journalistic Conduct

10.2.3 Central Board of Film Certification

10.2.4 Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC)

10.2.5 Indian Newspaper Society (INS)

10.2.6 Indian Languages Newspapers Association (ILNA)

10.2.7 All India Newspaper Editors Conference (AINEC)

10.2.8 National Union of Journalists (NUJ)

10.2.9 Press Institute of India (PII)

10.2.10 Indian Institute of Mass Communication

10.3 Amendments Of Laws Of Press

10.3.1 Restrictions on Freedom of Press in India

10.3.2 Prasar Bharati

10.3.3 Media Laws in India

10.3.3.1 Official Secrets Act, 1923

10.3.3.2 Contempt of Courts

10.3.3.3 Privileges of Parliament

10.3.3.4 Working Journalists Act

10.3.3.5 Copyright Act, 1957

10.4 Audience Contium

10.5 Let Us Sum Up

10.6 Lesson-End Exercise

10.7 Points For Discussion

10.8 Answers To Check Your Progress

10.9 Suggested Readings

10.1 CONTROLLING INFLUENCES OF PRESS

Several codes have been formulated from time to time, to guide journalists in their work. Press, being the conscience-keeper of the public, must be safeguarded and the codes are an exercise in this direction. In the present times, when several forces are up in arms for curbing the press freedom and are trying to malign the press, the codes have gained an added significance. It is in this spirit that different codes were framed. In 1968, the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference (AINEC) formulated a code of ethics. Other codes such as the Parliamentary Code (1976) and the International Code (1991) were also proposed to give direction to the press. Though the Press Council is against cast-iron rules, it has formulated guidelines from time to time.

10.1.1 All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference (AINEC) Code 1968

In 1968, the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference adopted a code of ethics for the press. It is a useful effort, which retains its significance even in present times. It is as follows:

1. A free press can flourish only in a free society. Communalism is a threat to the fabric of our free society and to the nation's solidarity.
2. The press has a vital role to play in the consummation of the fundamental objectives enshrined in our Constitution, namely, democracy, secularism, national unity and integrity and the rule of law. It is the duty of the press to help promote unity and cohesion in the hearts and minds of the people, and refrain from publishing material tending to excite communal passions or inflame communal hatred.
3. To this end, the press should adhere to the following guidelines in reporting on communal incidents in the country:
 - (a) All editorial comments and other expressions of opinion, whether through articles, letters to the editor, or in any other form should be restrained and free from scurrilous attacks against leaders or communities and there should be no incitement to violence.
 - (b) Generalized allegations casting doubts and aspersions on the patriotism and loyalty of any community should be eschewed.
 - (c) Likewise, generalized charges and allegations against any community of unfair discrimination, amounting to inciting communal hatred and distrust, must be eschewed.
 - (d) Whereas truth should not be suppressed, a deliberate slanting of news of communal incidents should be avoided.
 - (e) News of incidents involving loss of life, lawlessness, arson, etc., should be described, reported and headlined with restraint in strictly objective terms and should not be prominently displayed.
 - (f) Items of news calculated to make for peace and harmony and help in the restoration and maintenance of law and order should be given prominence and precedence over other news.
 - (g) The greatest caution should be exercised in the selection and publication of pictures, cartoons, poems etc., so as to avoid arousing communal passions or hatred.

- (h) Names of communities should not be mentioned and the terms 'majority' and 'minority' communities be ordinarily used in the course of reports.
- (i) The source from which casualty figures are obtained should always be indicated.
- (j) No facts or figures should be published without the fullest possible verification. However, if the publication of the facts or figures is likely to have the effect of arousing communal passions, those facts and figures may not be given.

10.1.2 Press Council Guidelines

The Press Council has laid down guidelines, which if faithfully observed by the media and the authorities, will go a long way in helping them perform their respective roles harmoniously in the troubled situations. These are as follows:

- (a) Provocative and sensational headlines should be avoided;
- (b) Headings must reflect and justify the matter printed under them;
- (c) Figures of casualties given in headlines should preferably be on the lower side, in case of doubt about their exactness and where the numbers reported by various sources differ widely;
- (d) Headlines containing allegations made in statements should either identify the person/body making the allegations or, at least; should carry quotation marks;
- (e) Comments and value judgments in presentation of news should be avoided;
- (f) Presentation of news should not be motivated or guided by partisan feelings, nor should it appear to be so;
- (g) Language employed in writing the news should be temperate and such as may foster the feeling of amity among communities and groups; and
- (h) Corrections should be promptly published with due prominence and regrets expressed in serious cases.

10.1.3 Press Council Code on Communal Writings

Today, when communalism and other negative tendencies are posing a danger to the integrity and unity of the country, the Press Council has felt it pertinent to formulate a code of ethics on communal writings. In the present scenario when Ram Janambhoomi – Babri Masjid imbroglio is fast escalating and threatening the

very fabric of the nation, this code has acquired even greater importance. It lays down what the press should avoid.

1. Distortion or exaggeration of facts or incidents in relation to communal matters or giving currency to unverified rumors, suspicions or inferences as if they were facts and basing their comments on them.
2. Employment of intemperate or unrestrained language in the presentation of news or views, even as a piece of literary flourish or for the purpose of rhetoric or emphasis.
3. Encouraging or condoning violence even in the face of provocation as a means of obtaining redress of grievances whether the same be genuine or not.
4. While it is the legitimate function of the Press to draw attention to the genuine and legitimate grievances of any community with a view to having the same redressed by all peaceful, legal and legitimate means, it is improper and a breach of journalistic ethics to invent grievances, or to exaggerate real grievances, as these tend to promote communal ill-feeling and accentuate discord.
5. Scurrilous and untrue attacks on communities or individuals, particularly when, this is accompanied by charges attributing misconduct to them as due to there being members of a particular community or caste.
6. Falsely giving a communal color to incidents in which members of different communities happen to be involved.
7. Emphasizing matters that are apt to produce communal hatred or ill will or fostering feelings of distrust between communities.
8. Publishing alarming news, which is in substance untrue or making provocative comments on such news or otherwise calculated to embitter relations between different communities or regional or linguistic groups.
9. Exaggerating actual happenings to achieve sensationalism and publication of news, which adversely affects communal harmony with banner headlines or in distinctive types.
10. Making disrespectful, derogatory or insulting remarks on or with reference to the different religions or faiths or their founders.

10.1.4 Parliament Code

Rajya sabha, the Upper House of the Indian Parliament, adopted in 1976 a code of ethics for journalists and newspapers, in pursuance of its social and moral responsibility. The code is as follows:

1. In the discharge of their duties, journalists shall attach full value to fundamental human and social rights, shall hold good faith and fair play in news reports and comments as essential professional obligations.
2. Journalists and newspapers shall highlight activities of the state and public; promote national unity, solidarity, integrity and economic and social progress.
3. Journalists and newspapers shall avoid reports and comments which tend to promote tensions or are likely to lead to civil disorder, mutiny or rebellion, Violence must be condemned unequivocally.
4. Journalists and newspapers shall ensure that information dissemination is factual. No fact shall be distorted nor information known to be false, or not believed to be true, shall be published.
5. No sensational report or tendentious report of a speculative nature shall be published. Any report or comments found to be inaccurate shall be rectified by publications.
6. Confidence shall always be respected. Professional secrecy shall be preserved.
7. Journalists shall not exploit their status for non-journalistic purposes or inquiries and shall not allow personal interests to influence professional conduct.
8. There is nothing so unworthy as the acceptance or demand of a bribe or inducement for the exercise by a journalist of his power to give or deny publicity to news or comment.
9. Journalists and newspapers shall not indulge in personal controversies in which no public interest is involved.
10. Journalists and newspapers shall not give currency to public rumors or gossip or even verifiable news affecting the private life of individuals.
11. Newspapers shall refrain from publishing matter (including advertisements), which is obscene or is likely to encourage vice, crime and unlawful activities.

12. Journalists and newspapers shall promote and project the national objectives of democracy, socialism and secularism.
13. Journalists and newspapers shall refrain from giving tendentious treatment to news of disturbances involving caste, community, class, religion, and region or language groupings and shall not publish details of the number or identity or groups involved in such disturbances except as officially authorized.
14. Journalists and newspapers shall not publish information and comment detrimental to the interest of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the State and friendly relations with foreign countries (newspapers include journals, magazines and periodicals)

10.1.5 International Code of Ethics

In 1991, at the Stockholm Symposium, an International Code of Ethics was drafted and adopted. It applies to everyone working for the press and other media. It is not a legal document and some countries may view some matters differently, according to their legal peculiarities and provisions. Various points in the code are as follows:

- (a) The fundamental objective of a journalist is a fair, accurate and unbiased story.
- (b) Unnamed sources should not be used unless the pursuit of truth will best be served by not naming the source.
- (c) In general, the journalists have a moral obligation to protect confidential sources of information.
- (d) Corrections or clarifications should be published for errors of fact promptly.
- (e) Journalists should identify themselves, except in some exceptional cases.
- (f) The use of any obscene or tasteless language should be limited to quote material.
- (g) In principle, journalists should avoid paying for information unless public interest is involved.
- (h) Plagiarism, i.e. using some one's work without attribution, is a serious ethical breach and it should be avoided.
- (i) In general, the race of a person in the news should not be reported.
- (j) Except in rare and justifiable circumstances, journalists should not tape anyone without that person's knowledge.

Check Your Progress

1. At which conference the code of ethics formulated in 1968?
2. What is a threat to the fabric of our free society and to the Nation's solidarity?
3. In which Symposium held at 1991, the International Code of Ethics was drafted and adopted?

- (k) Privacy of an individual should always be safeguarded except in some exceptional cases.
- (l) Sex discrimination should not be done.
- (m) Journalists should avoid offending individual and yet not compromise their reporting of the news.
- (n) Journalists should distinguish clearly between comments, conjectures and facts.
- (o) Children should not be identified in reported cases concerning offences.
- (p) Living victims of sex crimes should not be identified in the news story.
- (q) Journalists should judge no one unheard.
- (r) Journalists should maintain highest professional and ethical standards.
- (s) Acts of violence should not be glorified.
- (t) Publications of photographs showing mutilated bodies, bloody incidents and abhorrent scenes should be avoided.

10.2 REGULATORY BODIES

10.2.1 Press Council

On the recommendation of the first Press Commission and the National Integration Council, the Press Council Act was passed by Parliament in 1965 and the Press Council of India was set up on July 4, 1966. The Press Council Act was repealed in 1976. Subsequently, a fresh legislation providing for the establishment of a Press, the Press Council Act, 1978, enacted Council. The Act came into force on March 1, 1979 and is continuing in operation.

10.2.1.1 Composition

Under Section 5 of the Press Council Act, 1978, the Council shall comprise of 28 members, apart from the Chairman who is nominated by a Committee consisting of the Chairman of the Rajya Sabha, the Speaker of the Lok Sabha and a person elected by the members of the Council. As the Press Council exercises certain quasi-judicial functions, it is desirable that the Chairman should be a person with judicial background. So far, the entire Chairman has been a judge of the Supreme Court. Of the 28 members, 13 are working journalists, 6 from the management of newspapers, one each from news agencies, University Grants Commission, Bar Council of India and Sahitya Academy and 5 Members of Parliament (3 from the Lok Sabha and 2 from the Rajya Sabha).

10.2.1.2 Powers and Functions

To preserve the freedom of the Press and to maintain and improve the standards of newspapers and news agencies, are the main objectives of the Press Council of India. Section 13 of the Act envisages various functions of the Council for attaining its objectives. The important tasks of the Council are:

- (1) to build up a code of conduct for newspapers, news agencies and journalists in accordance with high professional standards;
- (2) to help newspapers and news agencies to maintain their independence;
- (3) to ensure on the part of newspapers, news agencies and journalists, the maintenance of high standards of public taste and foster a due sense of both the rights and responsibilities of citizenship;
- (4) to encourage the growth of a sense of responsibility and public service among all those engaged in the profession of Journalism and also to promote a proper functional relationship among all classes of persons engaged in the production or publication of newspapers or in news agencies;
- (5) to concern itself with developments such as concentration or other aspects of ownership of newspapers and news agencies which may affect the independence of the Press;
- (6) to keep under review cases of assistance received by any newspaper or news agency in India from any foreign source.

The main function of the Council is to hold an enquiry on the receipt of a complaint made to it against a newspaper or a news agency, if it has got reason to believe that any offence against the standards of journalist's ethics or public interest or professional conduct has been committed.

10.2.1.3 The Civil Procedure Code

In the process of enquiry, principles of natural justice are strictly followed. For the purpose of holding enquiry, the Council can exercise the same powers as are given to a civil court under the Civil Procedure Code in respect of following matters:

- (a) summoning and enforcing the attendance of persons and examining them on oath;
- (b) requiring the discovery and inspection of documents;
- (c) receiving evidence on affidavits;
- (d) requisitioning any public record or copies thereof from any court or office;
- (e) issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses or documents; and
- (f) any other matter which may be prescribed.

Under Section 15(3) of the Act, every enquiry held by the Council shall be a judicial proceeding within the meaning of Section 193 and 228 of IPC. It has power to warn, admonish or censure the newspaper, the news agency, the editor or the journalist, as the case may be. The decision of the Council is final and cannot be questioned in any court of law. The Council is not a court of law. Its verdicts are not judicial pronouncements. It is not empowered to impose any punishment nor can it award damages, etc. It is clear that when a newspaper chooses to be recalcitrant, the Council is helpless. The public rebuke that the Council administers along with the moral obligation of the offending newspaper to publish the Council's decisions, operate both as a penalty and as a deterrent.

10.2.2 Code or Journalistic Conduct

Section 13(2) (b) of the Act empowers the Council to build up a code of conduct for journalists, news agencies and newspapers in accordance with high professional standards. The Council is required to 'build up' a code and not 'frame' one. "Such a code could be built up case by case over a period of time".

The Council has been functioning for several years now. The Council acts as a buffer between the press and the public. As an adjudicating body, it has heard cases against the conduct of press and against the conductor the Government towards the press.

10.2.3 Central Board of Film Certification

Films can be publicly exhibited in India only after the Central Board of Film Certification (CBFC) has certified them. The Board set up under the Cinematograph Act, 1952, consists of a Chairman and a minimum of 12 and a maximum of 25 non-official members, all appointed by the Government. The Board functions with its headquarters at Mumbai and six regional offices at Bengaluru, Mumbai, Kolkata, Hyderabad, Chennai and Trivandrum. The regional offices are assisted in the examination of films by Advisory Panels, which include eminent educationists, art critics, journalists, social workers, psychologists, etc.

The Board examines films for certification in accordance with the provisions contained in the Cinematograph Act, 1952, Cinematograph (Certification) Rules, 1983 and the guidelines issued by the Central Government in this regard. Video films and news magazines also need clearance from this statutory body before being released for viewing in the Indian market.

Film Certification Appellate Tribunal (FCAT), constituted in March 1984, hears appeals against the decision of the Central Board of Film Certification. The headquarters of the Tribunal is at New Delhi.

10.2.4 Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC)

The Audit Bureau of Circulations was registered in 1948 as a non-profit making company with no share capital and limited liability by guarantee. Council of Management, half of which retires by rotation and is elected at the Annual General Meeting each year, controls its affairs. Equal representation is given on the Council to nominees of publishers on the one hand and advertisers and advertising agencies on the other. The Chairman is elected alternately from each group. The Bureau's object is to certify the net paid circulation of newspapers and periodicals.

10.2.5 Indian Newspaper Society (INS)

The INS is a representative body of newspapers and periodicals. It was founded in 1939 as Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society (IENS) to promote and safeguard members' business interests' incidental to producing their publications to collect and communicate information of subjects of business interest to members and to hold periodical conferences of members to discuss and determine action on matters affecting the newspaper industry. It grants accreditation to advertising agencies, which fulfill certain conditions.

Since 1940, the IENS (which became INS in 1988) is publishing an annual Handbook containing advertisement rates, circulation and other data for all member publications and relevant information about the accredited agencies.

In 1974 it set up a Research and Publications Division and started publishing journalism monthly, **Indian Press** in March; it died down in early 1980's. However, research pamphlets are published from time to time.

10.2.6 Indian Languages Newspapers Association (ILNA)

To serve special interests of language newspapers, ILNA was originally founded in 1941. This association of proprietors of newspapers and periodicals published in the Indian Languages has been registered under the Societies Act, 1860 and the Bombay Public Trust Act, 1950, in the year 1970.

Any newspaper or periodical published in any of the Indian languages or an organization or society of newspapers is eligible for membership. Language Press Bulletin is an official organ of the Association and is published monthly in English.

10.2.7 All India Newspaper Editors Conference (AINEC)

AINEC is an organization of newspapers and periodicals as represented by their editors. Founded in 1940, it is chiefly concerned with the interests of the editorial section of the newspaper industry.

Any newspaper or periodical published in India qualifies for membership. Those dissatisfied with the functioning of AINEC formed another organization called Editors Guild "because the AINEC, though an organization of editors, is in reality a body representing proprietors". The opponents of Editors Guild call it "an organization of rightist editors".

10.2.8 National Union of Journalists (NUJ)

The NUJ was born on January 23, 1972. Founder President of the NUJ, Mr. L.Meenakshisundaram, explained the formation of the new organization in these ringing words: "The major and the most important reason was that the federation of late had committed itself to a particular political ideology. That was an issue on which there could be no compromise. It cuts at the very root of the professional character of the organization of working journalists. The last four years witnessed the phenomenon of outside elements, which have practically no stakes in the profession, infiltrating into the journalists movement. Rigged elections with bogus membership lists became the order of the day. A large number of members were either removed from the rolls or expelled without rhyme or reason in utter disregard of the provisions of the constitution. The leadership did not come forward to help all victimized journalists. On the other hand, they went out of the way to sabotage the interests of the aggrieved journalists on the sole ground that they refused to toe the line of the coterie."

10.2.9 Press Institute of India (PII)

The PII is a professional body of Indian Newspapers and Journals, set up in 1963. It holds professional workshops and seminars for editorial and managerial personnel at all levels; conducts research into press problems; awards fellowships; arranges an exchange of experience amongst newspapers and organizes the selection of Indian Journalists for various foreign scholarships etc. It is a center for discussion of fundamental problems affecting the Indian Press. It publishes books relating to the mass media and a bi-monthly media journal **Vidura**. It also publishes **DATA-INDIA**, a weekly archive of developmental information about India. The PH edits and produces a feature news service on aspects of Indian developments called **DEPTH** news. There is no individual membership. Newspapers, periodicals, house journals in India qualify for membership and which is a corporate.

In 1990, another professional organization, Research Institute for Newspaper Development (RIND), was merged with PII. It provides information necessary about the press in India through its monthly bulletin **RIND survey**.

10.2.10 Indian Institute of Mass Communication

The Indian Institute of Mass Communication is a center for advanced training and research in communication. It is an autonomous society, receiving grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The Institute maintains close liaison with professional organizations as also with other centers of learning.

The major focus of the Institute has been on conducting orientation courses for officers of the Indian Information Service, conducting training programmes and communication research, holding seminars and workshops. The Institute's instructional courses cover print journalism, audio-visual aids, radio and television, oral communication, traditional media, advertising, campaign planning, public relation and communication research.

Most of the foreign participants receive scholarships from the Government of India under the International Technical and Economic Cooperation Scheme, the Colombo Plan and under the Special Commonwealth African Assistance programme. The Commonwealth Secretariat sponsors under the bilateral cultural exchange programme or a few.

The Institute offers consultancy services, on request, to the Central and State Government departments, and public sector undertakings, and helps in conducting training and research programmes relating to different media of mass communication.

10.3 AMENDMENTS OF LAWS OF PRESS

Freedom of press has always been a cherished right in all democracies. "Growth and development of representative democracy is so much intertwined with growth of press that the press has come to be recognized as an institutional limb of modern democracy".

The newspaper not only presents facts but also gives interpretation of facts and statement of opinions through its editorials and also propagates ideas and ideologies. They are supposed to guard public interests by bringing to fore the misdeeds, failings and lapses of the Government and other bodies exercising governing power. The press has therefore been rightly described as the fourth Estate. And hence it is also very necessary to limit this influential institution's

Check Your Progress

1. When did the Press Council Act come into force?

2. Who would be the Chairman of PCI?

3. What is the extension of RIND?

powers. "Freedom of Press is not absolute, unlimited and unfettered at all times and in all circumstances as it would lead to disorder and an anarchy."

The Indian Constitution provides for this freedom in Article 19(1) (a) which guarantees right to freedom of speech and expression. It has been held that this right to freedom also includes press freedom. It is an implied or deduced right. (The economic and business aspects of the press are under Article 19 (10)(g) which provides for freedom of profession, occupation, trade or business which is restricted by Article 19 (6) which includes provisions for public interest, professional and technical qualifications and state nationalization total or partial).

Freedom granted under Article 19 (1) (a) is restricted by the limitations which are mentioned in Article 19 (2) which provides that the guarantee of the above right would not affect the operation of any existing law in so far as it is related to or prevent the state from making any law relating to libel, slander, defamation, contempt of court or any matter which offended against decency or morality or which undermined the security of which tended to overthrow the state.

Article 19 (2) has been amended twice since commencement of the Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951. This Amendment enlarged the scope of the restrictive clause of addition of three new grounds viz., Friendly relations with foreign states, public order and incitement to an offence.

The term 'deformation' being a generic one 'libel' and 'slander' being its species; that term and the words 'tends to overthrow the state' was dropped by the Amendment. The expression 'security of the state' was meant to cover the ground 'to overthrow the state' also. Another feature of first Amendment was inclusion of the word 'reasonable' before the word 'restriction'.

As a result of the cries and agitation for secession from India by the regional groups Article 19 (2) was further amended. It was amended by the Constitution (Sixteenth Amendment) Act 1963 which included one more ground in the clause, viz., 'sovereignty and integrity of India'.

The clause, Article 19 (2) now runs as follows:

"Nothing in sub clause of (a) of clause (1) shall affect the operation of any existing law, or prevent the state from making any law, in so far as such law imposes reasonable restrictions on the exercise of the right conferred by the said sub clause in the interest of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the state, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence."

Although Article 19 (1) (a) is limited by the above clause the courts have adopted a liberal view while deciding questions pertaining to press freedom of

constitutional validity of an impugned statute. The superior courts discharged the role of *sentinel on the 'qui vive'*.

The Supreme Court has emphasized the great value of the freedom of press in democratic society. Thus from the start the judiciary has vindicated the stand taken in the Constituent Assembly.

In *Romesh Thappar V state of Madras*, the Supreme Court struck down as violative of Article 19 (1) (a), the Madras Maintenance of Public Order Act 1949, whose section 9(1A) sought to impose restrictions on the freedom of press not against undermining the security of the state or its overthrow but for the wider purpose of securing public safety or maintenance of public order as in the opinion of the Court the law fell outside the scope of Article 19 (2).

The Court laid down the following rule that so long as the possibility of a law being applied for purposes not sanctioned by the Constitution cannot be ruled out, it must be held to be wholly unconstitutional and void since it is not severable.

The Court also struck down in *Brij Bhushan v State of Delhi* (9) that was essentially on same lines, the East Punjab Public Safety Act 1949 which, through its section 7 (1) (o), provided for special measures to ensure public safety and maintenance of public order.

Hence Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951 was passed to include the grounds of public order and incitement to an offence to meet the situation, which arose from Supreme Court's decision in *Romesh Thappar's* case.

Brij Bhushan vs State of Delhi also dealt with the question of validity of censorship. It was held that such censorship on a journal previous to its publication would amount to infringement of Article 19 (1) (a).

The Supreme Court held in the *Auto Shanker* case that the Government has no authority in law to impose a prior restraint upon publication of defamatory material against its officials. The Court also observed that to propagate one's ideas every citizen has a right to publish, disseminate and circulate them to reach any class and any number of readers subject of course to the limitations permissible under a law competent under Article 19 (2).

Freedom of press is also both qualitative and quantitative. The view of the Courts regarding press freedom can be summed up as follows:

“The expression ‘freedom of press’ has not been used in Article 19 but it is comprehended within Article 19 (1) (a). The expression means freedom from interference from authority, which would have the effect of interference with the content and circulation of newspapers. There cannot be any interference with that

freedom in the name of public interest. The purpose of the press is to advance the public interest by publishing facts and opinions with responsible judgments. Freedom of press is a heart of social and political intercourse. It is the primary duty of Courts to uphold the freedom of the press and invalidate all laws or administrative actions, which interfere with it contrary to the constitutional mandate.”

The 44th Amendment (1978) of the Constitution also provides for constitutional protection journalists from ‘breach of parliamentary privilege’ as they are allowed to public proceedings of the Parliament and state legislatures. Article 361 – A was incorporated into the Constitution by this amendment and it provides that no person shall be liable to any proceedings, civil or criminal, in any Court in respect of the publication in newspaper of a substantially true report of any proceedings of either house of Parliament or the legislative Assembly or as the case may be either house of legislature of a state; unless publication is proved to have been made with malice. But this immunity does not apply to the publication of a report of a secret sitting of a house. Prior to the amendment this protection was given only by a parliamentary law-Parliamentary Proceedings (Protection of a Publication) Act, 1956.

But the legal implication arising out of the concept of ‘press freedom’ is many and hence they are not confined to the constitutional provisions alone. The different aspects of it infringe *inter alia* on criminal law., law of contempt, Copyright Act, Official Secrets Act, Freedom of Information Act, Law of torts, Prevention of Insults to National Honor Act etc, to name a few.

These laws deal with different issues like those of decency or morality, the issue of privacy vs. right to information, defamation etc. These laws also deal with issues arising due to investigative reporting. There are also exclusive press laws like Working Journalists Act, Press Council Acts, Newspapers Act, Press and Registration of Books Act etc. The Press Councils Act created the quasi-judicial body-Press Council of India.

Article 19 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights is also recognized and followed in India, which states that:

“Every one has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless frontiers.”

10.3.1 Restrictions on Freedom of Press In India

The freedom of press comes within the ambit of freedom of speech & expression. In a democracy, freedom of press is highly essential as it (the press)

acts as a watchdog on the three organs of a democracy viz. the legislature, the executive & the judiciary. But, the freedom of press is not absolute in nature. It is subject to certain restrictions, which are mentioned in Article 19(2) of the **Constitution**. The following are the grounds of restrictions laid down in Article 19 (2) :

1. Sovereignty & Integrity of India
2. Security of the State
3. Friendly relations with Foreign States
4. Public Order
5. Decency or Morality
6. Contempt of Court

The grounds of 'Public Order' & 'Friendly relations with Foreign States' were added by the **Constitution** (First Amendment) Act, 1951. While the ground of 'Sovereignty & Integrity of India' was added by the **Constitution** (Sixteenth Amendment) Act 1963.

10.3.2 Prasar Bharati

After it assumed power in 1989, the National Front Government came out first with a Cabinet Paper and then introduced the Prasar Bharati Bill in December 1989. According to P.Upendra, the Minister for Information and Broadcasting, the Bill borrowed from the Prasar Bharati Bill of 1979 and took into account the changed circumstances and the, present ethos, Many, however, felt that the bill was put before the nation in a hurry. A national debate was initiated, in many cases with the active encouragement of the Government to arrive at a consensus on the framework and the modalities of media autonomy. The Bill, after incorporating some amendments, was unanimously passed in both Houses of Parliament. But following a change of Government in October 1990, the lack of political good will to translate the concept into a working proposition was apparent. While there was no official pronouncement, the interim Government headed by Chandrasekhar continued to maintain the status quo. The dissolution of the Lok Sabha in April 1991 signed the death warrant of the Prasar Bharati Bill, which then had needed only the Presidential assent for becoming Law. The death of Rajiv Gandhi and the advent of Congress rule in June 1991, under P.V.Narasimha Rao, put an end to any hopes about the issue. Meanwhile, the question of broadcasting autonomy has become irrelevant as other sources of information and entertainment viz., STAR TV, CNN and BBC have burst into view in the wake of the Gulf War. The invasion from the skies has begun.

10.3.3 Media Laws In India

The foundation of the Press law in India had been laid even before the first newspaper began publication in the country. William Bolts, a former employee of the East India Company was ordered to leave Calcutta, proceed to Madras and from there take his passage to Europe when in 1776, he had simply expressed his intention to start a newspaper. All he did was to paste a notice on the gates of the Council Hall telling people that he had in his possession "in manuscript" many things to communicate which were of intimate concern to every individual.

Similarly, intolerance was shown to later publishers and editors although they all happened to be British or other Europeans. James Augustus Hicky who started the first newspaper, the '**Bengal Gazette or the Calcutta General Advertiser**,' in 1780, was so harassed that he had to finally close down his paper.

In 1795, censorship was introduced for the first time. The '**Madras Gazette**' was asked to submit to the Military Secretary all the general orders of the Government for censorship before publication. Pre-censorship was one of the three methods resorted to in order to deal with non-conforming editors. The other two are being the denial of postal privileges and deportation.

This continued until 1799, when Marquess of Wellesley promulgated the first Press regulations. The Wellesley regulations required the newspapers to print the names of printers, publishers and editors. They were also required to submit all the material for pre-censorship by the Secretary to the Government of India. Warren Hastings abolished these regulations.

But, in 1823, Governor General John Adams introduced licensing of the Press. His Ordinance required a previous license for printing of all matters, except commercial matter. Similar regulations were introduced in Bombay in 1825 and 1827.

Licensing was abolished in 1835 and replaced by Metcalf's Act, which only required a newspaper to declare the address of the printer and of the publication. In the wake of the first war of Independence of 1857, Lord Canning reintroduced licensing. The Act of 1857 applied even to books and all other kinds of publications.

In 1860 a comprehensive law the Indian Penal Code (IPC) was enacted. It contained offences like defamation and obscenity, which writers, editors, publishers and printers must avoid. Sedition (S.124A) was added to it in 1870, promoting enmity between classes (S.153A) in 1898, outraging religious feelings (S.295A) in 1927 and assertions against national integration (S.153B) in 1927.

The oldest surviving Press Regulation, "Press and Registration of Books Act", was passed in 1867. It regulated printing presses and newspapers throughout India.

The Act, specifically meant to curb the Indian language newspapers, called the Vernacular Press Act, was passed in 1878. This evoked widespread opposition in India and to some extent in England too. It was, therefore, repealed in 1881. This Act empowered the Government for the first time to issue search warrants and enter newspaper premises even without court orders.

The present Criminal Procedure Code (Cr P.C.) was first enacted in 1882 and then consolidated in 1898. The 1898 Code conferred on the Government certain procedural powers against the Press like search and forfeiture of publications, which offended against sections 124A, 153A or 295A of the IPC.

The beginning of the twentieth century saw the enactment of more stringent anti-Press laws to curb the activities of the revolutionaries and the British put various restrictions on newspapers preventing the reporting of and comments upon their activities. In pursuance of this, the Newspapers (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed in 1908, empowering magistrates to seize a press where a newspaper containing matter, which incited murder or any other act of violence or an offence under the Explosive Substances Act, was printed. In 1910, the Indian Press Act was passed. This was a more comprehensive law and was directed against both offences of violence and sedition. It empowered the Government to ask for a deposit of security from the press and where it deemed fit to forfeit it. The Act was made more rigorous in 1913 and 1914. But, following the report of a committee the Acts of 1908 and 1910 were repealed after incorporating some of their provisions in other laws.

In 1923, the Official Secrets Act was prohibiting the publication of any classified official information. After Independence, the Press (Objectionable Matter) Act, 1951 was to be a temporary law for two years but was extended up to February, 1956. This Act provided for a judicial inquiry before demanding security from a printing press or forfeiting it.

Following the recommendations of the First Press Commission, a law was passed in 1955 seeking to ameliorate the conditions of working journalists and other newspaper employees. This was the Working Journalists and other Newspaper Employees (Conditions of Service) and Miscellaneous Provisions Act. It regulates the conditions of service of working journalists, provides machinery for the fixation of rates of wages of working journalists and other newspaper employees. Similarly, the Working Journalists (Fixation of Rates of Wages) Act,

1958 was passed to overcome certain difficulties in respect of fixation of the rate of wages.

An Act seeking to link the number of pages in a newspaper to its cover price was passed in 1956. This Act, called the Newspaper (Price and Page) Act, the Supreme Court in the case of Sakal Papers vs. Union of India in struck down 1956 1962 as unconstitutional.

In 1956, Parliamentary Proceedings (Protection of Publication) Act was also enacted. The Act, popularly known as Firoze Gandhi Act, protected a newspaper from legal action for the publication of substantially true reports of the proceedings of parliament. The Act was later repealed in 1976 during the period of internal Emergency.

In 1961, the Criminal Law Amendment Act was passed imposing certain restrictions on the freedom of the Press on grounds of the security of the State and public order. Defence of India Acts was promulgated in the wake of the external aggression in 1962 and 1971. These placed sweeping restrictions on the Press.

An Act to establish the Press Council was passed in 1965 with the dual objective of protecting the freedom of the Press and raising standards of journalism including self-monitoring. This Act was repealed in 1976 during the internal emergency clamped on the country by Mrs. Indira Gandhi's Government, but was re-enacted with some changes by the Janata Party Government in 1978.

In 1969, Criminal and Election Laws Amendment Act was passed to amend certain sections of the IPC and the Cr P.C. as also to introduce certain new provisions. All these affected the Press.

The Press was brought under strict censorship on the promulgation of internal Emergency in 1975. Issuing the Central Censorship Order on June 26, 1975, under the Defence of India Act, did this. The Order was revoked on March 22, 1977.

Like the Press Council of India Act of 1965, the Indira Gandhi Government also repealed the Parliamentary Proceedings (Protection of Publication) Act, 1956. Simultaneously, a very stringent Act titled the Prevention of Publication of Objectionable Matter Act was introduced. This Act was substantially the same as the Press (Objectionable Matter) Act, 1951. It was repealed on April 9, 1977.

10.3.3.1 Official Secrets Act, 1923

The Official Secrets Act, 1923 is a comprehensive document relating to official secrets and defines a number of offences. The Act is aimed at maintaining the security of the State against leakage of secret information, sabotage and the

like. However, newspapers and journalists, as private individuals, while performing their duties, may commit many of the acts prohibited by this law.

The Official Secrets Act, 1923 broadly has two-part one relating to spying for the enemy (Sec. 3&4). The punishment for spying in relation to the country's defence is up to fourteen years. The other relates to unauthorized communication of any other secret official code or pass words, or any sketch, plan, model, article, note, document or information (Sec. 5)

The provisions of Sec. 5 are more important from the standpoint of the freedom of the Press. The Government, whose administrative culture is secrecy, has an internal system of dividing its documents into 'classified' and 'non-classified' categories. The classified documents are considered Secret under various statutes, such as "Top Secret", "Secret", "Confidential" and "Restricted personal-note for publication". Laws against printing of classified documents are understandable in relation to certain areas like defense and security of the country. But, the Official Secret Act also prohibits publication or communication of any information, which may be directly or indirectly useful to the enemy.

Regarding official secrecy and freedom of information, it is interesting to know about an American case. In the case of New York Times vs. U.S.A. in 1971, the U.S. Supreme Court refused injunction for restraining publication the Pentagon papers relating the US foreign policy on the Vietnam War. By majority, the court decided that no injunction could be imposed upon press freedom on the basis of surmises and conjectures that untoward consequences might result. The court can issue an injunction only when the publication of a matter will inevitably, directly and immediately imperil the safety of the nation.

In India, it has been widely demanded that Section 5 of the Official Secrets Act, which inhibits free reporting, should be done away with. It prescribes a punishment with imprisonment up to five years or fine or with both for a person who voluntarily receives or communicates any official secret. The Act does so without defining an official secret. This means that any official information, which has been deemed by the authorities as secret, can be published only on the pain of punishment.

The law does not recognize the fact that it may be in the public interest to publish certain information, which, in the opinion of the authorities, should not be revealed. Thus, there is a clash of public interest. The question involved here is between the public's right to open Government and Government's need for secrecy. The Second Press Commission and the Press Council of India have recommended that Sec. 5 be scrapped. The Commission has suggested its replacement by provisions modeled on those of the British Freedom of

Information Bill, 1978. The Council has asked for the repeal of the Official Secrets Act, 1923 in to and to enact a new legislation, which may be called Freedom of Information Act. Exceptions or permissible restrictions to this freedom may be specified in the proposed Act.

10.3.3.2 Contempt of Courts

Judiciary is the most important of the three arms of the Government. It interprets laws. The judiciary settles disputes between individuals, between the individual and the State, and among the various constituents of the State. In order that it is effective all must have faith and confidence in its impartiality, fairness and concern for the rights of the individual, interest of the State and the good of the society. For this its independence must be ensured. There must be no interference in its functioning and no attempt to intimidate or influence it. Any such thing shall be done on the pain of punishment.

This is, broadly, the objective of providing for a law of contempt of courts. As we have seen in section 3.4, reasonable restrictions can be placed on the freedom of expression in respect of the contempt of courts. According to Sec. 2 of the Contempt of Courts Act, 1971, contempt is of two kinds, Civil Contempt and Criminal Contempt (C1.2 (2)). Civil contempt means willful disobedience to any judgment, decree, direction, order, writ or other process of a court or willful breach of an undertaking given to a court (C1.2(b)).

Criminal contempt means publication of any matter or doing of any other act whatsoever (C 1.2(c)), which (i) scandalizes or tends to scandalize or lowers or tends to lower the authority of any court or (ii) prejudices or interferes or tends to interfere with the due course of any judicial proceeding; or (iii) interferes or tends to interfere or obstructs or tends to obstruct the administration of justice in any other manner. Scandalisation here means scurrilous attack on the administration of justice or vilification of the entire judiciary, a particular judge or a particular court.

Publication of anything which tends to create in the minds of the people an apprehension about the integrity, ability or fairness of a judge or which tends to deter litigants from complete reliance upon the court's administration of justice, amounts to contempt. Similarly, a publication, which is likely to cause embarrassment in the judge's mind to the discharge of his official duty, is a contempt of court. But, if it is proved that the concerned writing would undermine the prestige or authority of the court or public confidence in the administration of justice by it, then it is contempt even if the vilificatory criticism relates to the judge's non judicial functions like the functions of an administrative judge.

Imputation of improper motives in deciding a case is obviously a contempt of court.

However, the power to punish for scandalizing the court is to be used sparingly and in reference to the administration of justice only. It cannot be used for vindicating personal insult to the judge. Bonafide criticism that is fair and reasonable criticism of a judicial act in the interest of the public good does not amount to contempt. But, if improper motives are attributed to the judges then it ceases to be bonafide. A judgment can be criticized as erroneous, but dishonesty on the part of the judge in delivering the judgment cannot be alleged. If a statement is likely to prejudice or interfere with the due course of justice, then the truthfulness of the facts on which it is based, is no defense. Courts have considered 'Trial by newspapers' as interference with the proper administration of justice in pending cases. These are but a few example of what amounts to the contempt of court.

However, punishment can be awarded for interference with the due course of justice only if the interference is substantial. Similarly, a person will not be guilty of contempt of court for innocent publication or distribution, during the pendency of civil or criminal proceedings, of a matter, which would otherwise deem to constitute contempt.

A fair and accurate report of judicial proceedings, a fair criticism of a judicial act, and a bonafide complaint concerning the presiding officer of a subordinate court do not constitute contempt of court. Supreme Court and High Courts being the courts of record can punish anybody for their contempt; Every High Court has also the power to punish contempt of subordinate courts like their own contempt.

Punishments: A contempt or can be punished with simple imprisonment only for a term extending up to six months or with a fine up to two thousand rupees or with both. If he makes a satisfactory apology, the accused may be discharged or the punishment awarded may be remitted.

In case of civil contempt, the contempt or cannot be sentenced even to simple imprisonment. He can be detained in a civil prison for not more than six months; normally, a fine would be considered sufficient to meet the ends of justice. The time limit for action for contempt of court is one year from the date on which the contempt is alleged to have been committed.

Check Your Progress

7. What are protected by the Copyright Act, 1957 ?
8. What is the most important of the three arms of the Government?
9. Which act is Comprehensive document relating to official secrets and defines a number of offences?

10.3.3.3 Privileges of Parliament

The concept of privileges of Parliament rests on the principle that a sovereign legislature should be able to perform its legislative and deliberative functions independently and effectively. For this it should possess certain inherent or conferred powers to punish for breach of such privileges.

Articles 105(3) and 194(3) of the Constitution empower Parliament and State Legislatures respectively to enact laws codifying their privileges. However, neither Parliament nor any of the legislatures of the States has so far done so. Therefore, according to the Constitution itself, the privileges enjoyed by them are the same as and not more than, those of the British House of Commons. One has to wade through the rulings, customs and practices of the House of Commons and to seek guidance for the Rules of Business and Conduct of Proceedings of the House. Breach of privilege of either House of central or state legislature is usually known as 'contempt of Parliament' like the contempt of courts.

A journalist or editor can be punished with imprisonment or administered a warning, admonition or reprimand for the breach of privilege of the House. His privileges like facilities to enter the precincts of the House and cover its proceedings can be withdrawn. He can be asked to publish an apology. However, no fines are imposed. There are a number of cases on privileges of the Houses. They include Karanjia Case, (1961), Keshav Singh Case (1965) and Eenadu Case (1988).

10.3.3.4 Working Journalists Act

The working Journalists and other Newspaper Employees (Conditions of Service) and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, 1955 is a welfare measure meant to regulate conditions of service of the people employed in the newspaper industry. Its provisions relate mainly to (a) special provisions in respect of certain cases of retrenchment, (b) payment of gratuity, (c) hours of work, (d) leave, (e) fixation of revision of rates of wages, (f) enforcement of the recommendations of the wage fixation machinery, i.e., wage boards and wage tribunals, (g) Employees Provident fund and (h) recovery of money due from the employer.

In order to fix or revise rates of wages, separate Wage Boards for working journalists and other newspaper employees can be set up under the Act. The Wage Board for journalists all consists of a chairman, two representing working journalists and two independent persons. In the Wage Board for non-journalist newspaper employees, two persons representing them shall be included. The Chairman of both the Boards is to be an independent person who is or has been a Judge of the High Court or the Supreme Court.

The central Government may fix interim rates of wages (popularly called interim relief) in consultation with the Boards. Money due to an employees under this Act can be recovered from the employer by the Collector in the same manner as an arrear of land revenue and have it paid to the employee.

10.3.3.5 Copyright Act, 1957

A work of literature, drama, music or art is an intellectual property. It must be protected from illegal copying or reproducing it. The Copyright Act, 1957 accords this protection.

This law is based on two competing considerations. One, the creator's property, that is, the original works need to be protected. Two, for advancement of knowledge in the interest of the society, there should be some amount of freedom to produce parts of other people's copyrighted works. Copyright has been held to be a right, which a person acquires in a work, which is the result of his intellectual labor. The primary function of the copyright law is to protect from annexation by other people the fruits of a man's work, labor or skill.

In respect of the Press, copyright means, under Section 15 of the Copyright Act, 1957, the exclusive right in the case of a literary, dramatic or musical work, to do and authorize the doing in substantive form of any of the following acts, namely:

(1) To reproduce the work in any material form:

(2) To publish the work;

(3) To make any adoption of a work; and

(4) To reproduce or publish translation of the work.

Punishment for knowingly infringing or abetting the infringement of a copyright is imprisonment, which may exceed up to one year or fine or both.

10.6 AUDIENCE CONTIUUM

There is the audience for Newspapers, theatre, TV and cinema; there is the Radio listener. There is the audience for a pop concert or at a public meeting. Communicators shape their messages to fit the perceived needs of their audience: they calculate the level of receptiveness, the degree of readiness to accept the message and the mode of delivery. Audience is readership too and the success in meeting audience/readership needs relies extensively on FEEDBACK.

Sometimes there is an extra factor in the communicator-audience situation. This might be the *client*. An advertising agency for example, is employed by a

client (a company wishing to have its products advertised) to create a commercial whose audience is the television-watching public.

Of course audience needs are not the only criterion for the communicator or the client but they are central to a process which is essentially interactive and subject to a wide range of social, cultural, economic, political and environmental influences. It might be argued that the advertiser's job is to *create* a need, which his or her client's product or service will fulfill.

Increasingly during the 1980s and 1990s when DEREGULATION and PRIVATIZATION have become key ideas in the politics of BROADCASTING, and as TV has come to be seen as the most powerful means of mass communication, it has become necessary to discriminate between target audiences. Two current concepts of audience are the *audience-as-public* and the *audience-as-market*. The first stems from notions of PUBLIC SERVICE BROADCASTING (PSB) the other from COMMERCIAL broadcasting.

The audience-as-public relates to people as receivers of messages-information, knowledge, education and enlightenments as well assenter attainment. The audience-as-market approach is less interested in the transmission of MEANING than in gaining audience attention: stimulate the customer and then sell him a product or service. Instead of a *transmission* model of communication here we have an attention model. In this case the purpose of broadcast communication is deemed effective once the audience's attention has been stimulated and held, no matter the quality of the stimulus. The difference is simple but profound: Broadcasting aimed at audience-as-public defines its function as being to serve, audience-as-market, to *sell*.

The trend in the 1990s has been from one to the other, from audience-as-public to audience defined as consumers. Indeed the 1990s have seen growing crisis in the audience-as-public paradigm as PSB has itself been dragged into the 'market' for audiences.

10.5 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we try to discuss on Controlling Influences Of Press especially different forums that were involved such as: All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference (AINEC) Code 1968, Press Council Guidelines, Press Council Code on Communal Writings, Parliament Code International Code of Ethics. The Regulatory Bodies is also explained in terms of Press Council and its composition, its powers and functions. We elucidated on several topics such as: The Civil Procedure Code, Code of Journalistic Conduct etc. Then we defined on concept of censorship and its body such as Central Board of Film Certification. We discussed the role, need and functions of Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC),

Indian Newspaper Society (INS), Indian Languages Newspapers Association (ILNA), All India Newspaper Editors Conference (AINEC), National Union of Journalists (NUJ), Press Institute of India (PII) and Indian Institute of Mass Communication. Finally we concluded with the Amendments of Laws of Press, Restrictions on Freedom of Press In India, Prasar Bharati, Media Laws In India, Official Secrets Act, 1923, Contempt of Courts, Privileges of Parliament, Working Journalists Act and Copyright Act, 1957.

10.6 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Illustrate the composition, role, and functions of Press Council of India.
2. Discuss the amendments of press laws in India

10.7 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Suppose you are given an assignment to deliver a talk on Press Laws and ethics, what are the major aspects would you keep in mind for your assignment.

10.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference (AINEC)
2. Communalism
3. The Stockholm Symposium
4. March 1, 1979
5. A judge of the Supreme Court
6. Research Institute for Newspaper Development
7. A work of literature, drama, music or art is an intellectual property.
8. Judiciary
9. The Official Secrets Act, 1923

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