

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **Literature Review**

The following topics and related researches were reviewed in order to develop the conceptual framework of this thesis.

1. Mass Communication Concepts
2. Principles and Roles of Cable Television
3. Operation of Bang Kwang Central Prison Cable Television Project
4. Participation Concepts
5. Related Researches

#### **Mass Communication Concepts**

In broadest sense of the word, a “medium” is a channel through which a message travels from the source to receiver (“medium” is a singular; “media” is plural). Thus, in our discussion, we have pointed to sound and light waves as media of communication. When we talk about mass communication, we also need channels to carry the message. *Mass media* use these channels to carry the message. Our definition of a mass medium will conclude not only the mechanical devices that transmit and sometimes store the message (TV cameras, radio, microphones, printing press), but also the institutions that use these machines to transmit messages. When we talk about the mass media of television, radio, newspapers, magazines, sound recording, and film, we will be referring to the people, the policies, the organizations, and the technology that go into producing and distributing mass communication.

A media vehicle is a single component of the mass media, such as a newspaper, radio station, TV network, or magazine (Dominick, 2001: 24).

From the mass communication takes, it will continue to fulfill a vital role in our lives. Mass communication provides the eyes and ears of society. It provides the means by which society make up its mind and collective voice by which society comes to know itself. It is a major source for the transmission of society's value.

### **The Definition of a mass communication**

One of the changes the new technologies have been bringing about is that the very definition of mass communication is coming into question. The definition of mass communication used to be fairly clear.

Severin and Tankard (2001: 4) defined mass communication as follows:

- 1) It is directed toward relatively large, heterogeneous, and anonymous audience.
- 2) Messages are transmitted publicly, are often timed to reach most audience members simultaneously, and are transient in character.
- 3) The communicator tends to be or operate within a complex organization that may involve great expense

All these definitions are done through mass media. The history of mass media is the story of the human desire (and practical need) to break the prisons of time and distance. We strive to live beyond our allotted years on the planet; we want to move beyond the few miles we can walk in a day – media technology makes this possible (Schrank, 1994:3). Mass media include television, radio, newspapers, magazines, books, recordings, and films. These are media intended for mass audience. In other words, mass communication is simply a process of communicating to the public.

Baren (2000: 33) summarized that social science is often controversial because it suggests casual relationships between things in the environment and people's attitudes, values, and behaviors. In the physical sciences, the relationships are often easily visible and measurable. In the study of human behavior, however, they rarely are. Human behavior is quite difficult to quantify, often very complex, and often goal-oriented. Social science and human behavior make a problematic fit. The situation is even further complicated because social science itself is somewhat schizophrenic—it is many different things to many different people

Nonetheless, social science develops theories—conceptual representations or explanations of phenomena—and tests the hypotheses those theories generate. Mass communication theory can be divided into four categories: social scientific, normative, operational, and everyday theories. The explanatory power of mass communication theory, however, is constantly challenged by the presence of many media, their many facets and characteristics, their constant change, an always-developing audience, and the ever-evolving nature of the societies that use them.

### **Principles and Roles of Cable Television**

**Cable television** or **Community Antenna Television (CATV)** (often shortened to **cable**) is a system of providing television, FM radio programming and other services to consumers via radio frequency signals transmitted directly to people's televisions through fixed optical fibers or coaxial cables as opposed to the over-the-air method used in traditional television broadcasting (via radio waves) in which a television antenna is required (Encyclopedia, 2006).

It is most commonplace in North America, Europe, Australia and East Asia, though it is present in many other countries, mainly in South America and the Middle East. Cable TV has had little success in Africa, as it is not cost-effective to lay cables in sparsely populated areas, and although so-called "wireless cable" or microwave-based systems are used, "direct-to-home" satellite television is far more popular, especially in South Africa.

Technically, both cable TV and CATV involve distributing a number of television channels collected at a central location (called a head end) to subscribers within a community by means of a network of optical fibers and/or coaxial cables and broadband amplifiers.

As in the case of radio broadcasting, the use of different frequencies allows many channels to be distributed through the same cable, without separate wires for each. The tuner of the TV, VCR or radio selects one channel from this mixed signal.

The same program is often simultaneously broadcast by radio and distributed by cable, usually at different frequencies. Other programs may be distributed by cable only; rules restricting content (e.g. regarding nudity and pornography) are often more relaxed for cable than for over-the-air TV.

Traditional cable TV systems worked strictly by way of analog signals (i.e. using standard radio waves) but many modern cable TV systems also employ the use of digital cable technology, which uses compressed digital signals, allowing them to provide many more channels than they could with analog alone.

Many cable television systems were formerly known as CATV (Community Antenna Television) systems as they were originally composed simply of a shared antenna located in a high location to which multiple households could have their TVs connected via coaxial cable. This was designed to provide access to television signals in areas where reception was traditionally poor. As cable-only networks began to appear on CATV systems, picked up via satellite rather than by antenna, the use of the term CATV has largely faded and the term cable television has taken its place (Encyclopedia, 2006)

## Cable Channels

Brown (1998: 255-256) mentioned that a local system offers three tiers of service: *basic* cable—perhaps two dozen or more advertising-supported channels for a monthly fee; *premium* channels—additional monthly fee for each channel of unedited, commercial-free movies and specials (scrambled for non-subscribers on the system); and *pay* channels—pay-per-view specialized programs and ad hoc networks for regional sports, and others.

As with over-air-broadcast strategy, cable operators seek a balance in kinds of programs scheduled on their channels. This helps attract various segments of the total community. Most subscribers find material they like on some channels. Another motive is to sustain a positive image for the cable system. Susan Tyler Eastman, researcher-author of media program strategies, has written:

...One way to balance a system is to bury controversial programming and create an overall image of responsible community service. Consumer promotional materials, for example, can stress the family-oriented content of many channels, even though the system contains adult-oriented programming on other channels. Cultural channels are often marketed more for their balancing effect than for any audience lift they create. News public affairs and community access channels have a positive image effect. A further strategy, adopted by the industry as a whole, has been to locate adult programming only on pay tiers, which make good economics as well as political sense because so many people are willing to pay extra for adult fare....( Estman, Head, and Klein: 273, n.p. cited in Brown, 1998: 256)

A cable television system begins at the head end, where the program is received (and sometimes originated), amplified, and then transmitted over a coaxial cable network. The architecture of the network takes the form of a tree, with the “trunk” carrying signals to the neighborhoods and “branches” carrying the signals closer to the homes. Finally, “drops” carry the signals to individual homes. Coaxial cable has a bandwidth capable of carrying a hundred six-megahertz television

channels, but the signals decay quickly with distance. Hence, amplifiers are required periodically to boost the signals. Backbone trunks in a local cable network frequently use optical fiber to minimize noise and eliminate the need for amplifiers. Optical fiber has considerably more capacity than coaxial cable and allows more programs to be carried (Encyclopedia, 2006).

The tuners of most television receivers are capable of receiving cable channels directly. However, many programs are encrypted for premium rates, and hence a cable converter box must be installed between the cable and the television receiver.

### **Operation of Bang Kwang Central Prison Cable Television Project**

The station at Bang Kwang Central Prison, just north of Bangkok, is the latest in a series of measures to try and ease tension among inmates at Thailand's overcrowded prisons.

Bang Kwang Prison Cable Television, or BKP Cable TV, has begun broadcasting September 5<sup>th</sup>, 2004 and feature news, movies and music, plus sports and entertainment shows. Moreover, there is a weekly one-hour live show with the prison warden talking with inmates about their complaints.

According to the BKP Cable TV program, BKP Cable TV will feature a weekly one-hour live show with the prison warden talking with inmates about their complaints and it will air news, movies, music, sports and entertainment programs. Convicts will be used to introduce programs, and eventually may produce shows for the station. Programs deemed immoral or provocative won't be allowed to be broadcasted, and good-looking prisoners with good personalities will be selected to present the shows. Other programming for the station will come from outside providers, including free-to-air television (3, 5, 7, 9, 11 and ITV) channels and a private cable television operator.

### **Objective of BKP Cable TV Project**

The objectives of BKP Cable TV are:

1. To use new technologies for prison control management.
2. To relay the live TV Program to the 13 separate sections of the controller department.
3. To educate and entertain the prisoners.
4. To improve the prisoners' abilities in several career skills such as actor/actress, producer, electronics technician.
5. To widely communicate with prisoners through cable TV.

### **Expected Outcome**

1. The television project is aimed at easing stress and reducing boredom among the prisoners
2. The prisoners gain the knowledge of occupational skills towards the labor market and get ready to find a job after leaving jail.
3. The prison director and officers communicate with the prisoners through cable TV program.

**Table 1** Bang Kwang Central Prison Cable Television Program (in 2004)

<b>Time</b>	<b>Program</b>
08.00	- Nonfiction (animals, technology, etc.) - 10 minutes news
09.00	- Career Introducing and Practicing - 10 minutes news
10.00	- Films or Sport (Premier League football tournament, tennis, etc.) - Music VDO (Thai or International songs) - Concert (Thai and International) - 10 minutes news
12.00	- Live Program “Director Meets Prisoners” - 10 minutes news
13.00	- Films - 10 minutes news
14.00	- Music Program - 10 minutes news
15.00	- Talk show
16.30	- Closed

Source: Bang Kwang Central Prison (2004)



**Table 2** Bang Kwang Central Prison Cable Television Program (in 2005)

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<b>Time</b>	<b>Program</b>
08.00	Music Station Program (Thai and International)
09.20	Films (Thai and International)
11.00	Talad Nud Pleng Dung by Udom Wongpapien
12.00	Chinese Drama
13.20	Comedy program
14.30	Nonfictions
16.00	Closed

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Source: Bang Kwang Central Prison (2005)

**Table 3** Bang Kwang Central Prison Cable Television Program (in 2006)

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<b>Time</b>	<b>Program</b>
08.30 – 09.30	Music Station Program
09.30 – 11.30	Films
11.30 – 12.30	Talad Nud Pleng Dung by Udom Wongpapien
12.30 – 15.30	Films
15.30 – 21.00	Nonfictions

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Source: Bang Kwang Central Prison (2006)

## **Participation Concepts**

Participation is defined as the involvement of a significant number of persons in a situation which enhances their well-being, e.g. their income, security, and self esteem (Uphoff et al., 1980 cited in Udomsade, 1996:10). In the development process, participation implies motivating individuals to take the initiative and mobilizing people to work for overall social development. It is particularly likely to be achieved not only in the decision-making process for determining societal goals and the allocation of resources, but also in the voluntary execution programs and projects.

Wilcox (1994) noted five levels of participation:

- 1) Information – tell others what is planned.
- 2) Consultation – offer a number of options and listens to the feed back received.
- 3) Deciding together – encourage others to provide some additional ideas, and options, and join in deciding the best way forward.
- 4) Acting together – decides on different interests together and forms a partnership to carry out decision.
- 5) Supporting independent community interests – help others do what they want (such as within the framework of grants, advice and support provided by the resource holder).

## **Participatory theories and approaches**

Participatory theories also criticized the modernization paradigm on the grounds that it promoted a top-down, ethnocentric and paternalistic view of development. They argued that the diffusion model proposed a conception of development associated with a Western vision of progress.

Development communication was informed by a theory that “became a science of producing effective messages” (Hein in Quarmyne 1991 cited in Anonymous, 2003). After decades of interventions, the failure to address poverty and other structural problems in the Third World needed to be explained on the faulty theoretical premises of the programs. Any intervention that was focused on improving messages to better reach individuals or only change behavior was, by definition, unable to implement social change.

Development theories also criticized traditional approaches for having been designed and executed in the capital cities by local elites with guidance and direction from foreign specialists. Local people were not involved in preparing and instrument development interventions. Interventions basically conceived of local residents as passive receivers of decisions made outside of their communities, and in many cases, instrumented ill-conceived plans to achieve development. Governments decided what was best for agricultural populations, for example, without giving them a sense of ownership in the systems that were introduced (Mody 1991, Servaes 1989, White 1994 cited in Anonymous, 2003).

The top-down approach of persuasion models implicitly assumed that the knowledge of governments and agencies was correct, and that indigenous populations either did not know or had incorrect beliefs. Because programs came from outside villages, communities felt that innovations did not belong to them but to the government and thus expected the latter to fix things went they went wrong. The sense of disempowerment was also rooted in the fact that “targeted” populations did not have the choice to reject recommendations or introduce modifications to interventions.

For participatory theorists and practitioners, development communication required sensitivity to cultural diversity and specific context that were ignored by modernization theories (Gumucio Dragon 2001 cited in Anonymous, 2003). The lack of such sensitivity accounted for the problems and failures of many projects. Experts learnt that development was not restricted to just building roads, piping water, and

distributing electricity. Nor was it limited to efforts to increase neither farm yields nor switching farmers over to cash crops. Many of the agricultural projects failed because farmers were reluctant to abandon their traditional ways for foreign and unknown methods. As McKee (1992) writes, “they were also nervous about planting exotic crops that they could not eat but had to sell for money with which to buy food from the market.” Modernization projects undermined the importance of local knowledge and the consequences of the interaction between local cultures and foreign ideas. When piped water arrived, it was frequently used for washing rather than drinking and cooking because the people disliked its flavor. Persuading people of the benefits of healthy practices on the basis of scientific reasons was a tough sell. People were asked to change time-old practices on the basis of a foreign form of knowledge that dismissed their local traditions in the name of “true” knowledge (McKee, 1992 cited in Anonymous, 2003).

The lack of local participation was viewed as responsible for the failure of different programs. In the case of agricultural programs, it was concluded that the issue at stake was not the transmission of information to increase output but rather the low prices of agricultural goods in the market or the absence of a more equal distribution of land ownership. In explaining the failures of family planning programs, it was suggested that mothers were disinclined to follow instructions because fathers believed that having more children meant having more hands to work in the fields and carry out other tasks.

Participatory theories considered necessary a redefinition of development communication. One set of definitions stated that it meant the systematic utilization of communication channels and techniques to increase people's participation in development and to inform, motivate, and train rural populations mainly at the grassroots. For others, development communication needed to be human- rather than media-centered. This implied the abandonment of the persuasion bias that development communication had inherited from propaganda theories, and the adoption of a different understanding of communication.

In stressing the relevance of “other” media and forms of communication, participatory theories lifted development communication out of the “large media” and “stimulus-response” straitjacket and opened new ways of understanding interventions. They expanded the concept of participation that in modernization theories was limited to voting in party and electoral politics and championed a view of democracy that implied different forms of participation at different levels.

They also removed professionals and practitioners from having a central role as transmitters of information who would enlighten populations in development projects. People, not change agents, were central to community participation. It downplayed the role of expert and external knowledge while stressing the centrality of indigenous knowledge and aspirations in development. Communication was a horizontal process, diametrically different from the vertical model that placed knowledge in the domain of modern experts.

Participatory communication identified encouraging participation, stimulating critical thinking, and stressing process, rather than specific outcomes associated with modernization and progress, as the main tasks of development communication (Altafin 1991 cited in Anonymous, 2003). Participation needed to be present in all stages of development projects. Communities should be encouraged to participate in decision-making, implementation, and evaluation of projects. This would give a sense of involvement in their lives and communities, and provide them with a sense of ownership and skills that they can use beyond the timetable of development projects (Kavinya, Alam & Decock 1994 cited in Anonymous, 2003). Community empowerment has become one of the main contributions of participatory theories to development communication. Empowerment is possible only if community members critically reflect on their experiences and understand the reasons for failure and success of interventions (Bradford & Gwynne 1995, Purdey, Adhikari, Robinson & Cox 1994 cited in Anonymous, 2003).

Certainly, participatory communication has not lacked critics. Even though vindicating some tenets of participatory theories, other positions argued that they were

elaborated at a theoretical level and did not provide specific guidelines for interventions.

Participatory approaches usually avoided the issue that people who lived in non-democratic societies might be wary to participate out of fear of retaliation. Moreover, people can be manipulated into participating. This would violate local autonomy and the possibility that members might not be interested in taking an active role. Critics argued that participatory communication, like social marketing, could also be seen as foreign, pushing for certain goals and actions that have not resulted from inside communities. Participatory communication did not offer the chance not to participate, and implicitly coerced people to adopt a certain attitude.

To these criticisms, advocates of participatory models admitted that divisions and conflicts might result but, they argued, the answer should be teaching negotiation and mediation skills rather than opting for interventions that disempowered people in the name of consensus-building. Although advocates of participatory theories viewed their critics as favoring government centralization and leaving power inequalities intact, they admitted that some original premises needed to be revised (White, 1994 cited in Anonymous, 2003).

White noted that participatory approaches needed to:

- 1) Be sensitive to the potential convenience of short-term and rapid solutions.
- 2) Recognizes that recommendations for participation could also be seen as foreign and manipulative by local communities (just like modernization theories).
- 3) Translate participatory ideas into actual programs.
- 4) Be aware that the communities may be uninterested in spending time in democratic processes of decision-making and, instead, might prefer to invest their time on other activities.

Recognize that communities are not necessarily harmonious and that participation may actually deepen divisions. Servaes (1996, 23) admits that "participation does not always entail cooperation or consensus. It can often mean conflict and usually poses a threat to existent structures...Rigid and general strategies for participation are neither possible nor desirable."

Against criticisms that participatory communication leads to the existence of a myriad, disconnected projects carried out by multiple NGOs, coordination plans were deemed necessary. Providing a sense of orientation and organization was required to prevent that development efforts become too fragmented and thus weaker. Because NGOs are closer to communities than governments and funding agencies, they have the capacity to respond relatively quickly to demands and developments. But without a more encompassing vision, projects may only obtain, at best, localized results that fail to have a larger impact.

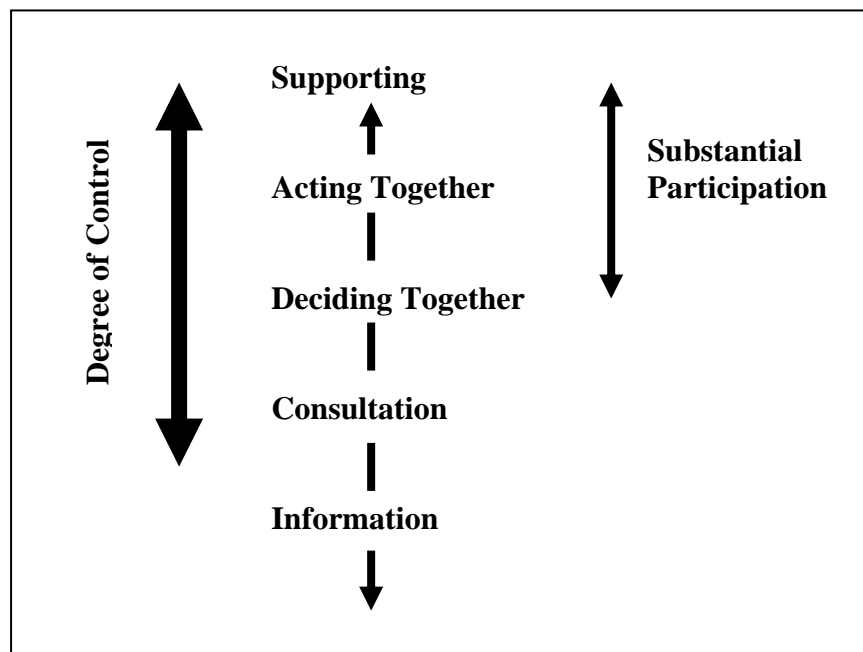
It was also recommended that relying on grassroots media was not sufficient. Populations needed media education to develop skills to be critical of commercial media and to develop alternatives that would help them gain a sense of empowerment and counter other messages. Yet, it was undeniable that local media provided a sense of ownership and participation that was key to sustainable development and could not be replaced by any other strategy.

Responding to critics who were impatient with obtaining "results," participatory approaches suggested that development communication requires a long-term perspective that is usually missing among funding agencies and governments interested in getting quick results and knowing whether efforts pay off. Participatory theorists turned the criticisms about "timing" and "impact" onto their critics, arguing that the so-called problems of participatory approaches in "showing results" did not originate in the model but in how organizations approach development communication (Melkote 1991 cited in Anonymous, 2003). Short-term projects that are prone to be terminated according to different considerations make it difficult to promote participation and examine the results of interventions in the long run. The



interests of donors and politicians, who were urged to prove effectiveness of investments, ran against the timing of participatory development communication projects. For the latter to be possible, NGOs, funding agencies and other actors involved needed to be sensitive to the fact that grassroots projects cannot be expected to "produce results" in the manner of top-down interventions. Neither community development nor empowerment fit the timetables of traditional programs.

Furthermore, Figure 1 illustrates five levels of participation.



**Figure 1** Five Levels of Participation

Source: Wilcox (1994)

### **Related Researches**

Dolkit (2001) reported in a study on Analysis of the management of a community radio program, "Sangsanchanthaburi". The research aims to study the organizational structure, the operational process, and the factors that led to the cancellation of the program. The results show that "Sangsanchanthaburi" was under the supervision of Radio Thailand, Chanthaburi Province.

The organizational structure of the program was divided into 3 phases. At the first phase, the experiment, the program was organized by the community radio broadcasting executive committee, the consulting committee, and the station technical department. At the second phase, the operation, the program was organized by representatives in the executive committee and the station program department. At the final operation phase, only two state representatives plus the station technical department organized the program.

The operational process of the program consists of 3 aspects; the management, production, and public relations. The management organized a number of meetings to brainstorm various management issues. The program production come in 3 stages -- pre-production stage with planning and collecting data, production stage with tape and live program production, and post-production stage with tape quality control. The public relations of the program employed personal media, radio broadcast media, and specific media to persuade public to listen to the program, to supply information and to share opinions.

The program cancellation is the result of 3 factors. The first factor is about the policy of the station that does not support the operation of the program. The second factor is about the management; namely, the absence of sense of belonging, knowledge and skills of radio production and supporter, as well as the lack of financial support. The last factor is about participation, including the absence of teamwork due to the heavy occupational responsibilities of the committee members, and the lack of support and sharing opportunity to other groups.

In Participatory communication via community radio program of radio Thailand at Nakhon Ratchasima province (Saenmuangchin: 2000) defined that the methodology of this qualitative research includes in-depth interviews, documentary research, participant observation and analytical description. The study looked at the interaction of national radio and the local people of Korat and found a dynamic relationship between the two.

In accordance with the 1997 constitution, the government is striving to promote regional radio involving the community at the provincial level. At the moment the existence of two community radio boards is creating some confusion. The official board, composed honestly of high level officials, does not have the time or community involvement to successfully promote local radio. The second board, subsidiary to the first, takes a more hands-on approach and devotes more time to the projects.

In conclusion, a single, democratically elected board would be more efficient. Although interest in local radio programs is strong, the station needs technical and administrative support from national radio.

Yangkitkarn (2002) reported in a study on A participatory process in determining formats and contents of "Community Radio program" in Nan province that this research was a study through a qualitative method covering in-depth interviews, textual analysis, non-participate observation and participatory action research workshops in three communities of Nan province. The study reveals that the formats are magazine and outdoor program. The contents emphasize to local news, agricultural tips, occupation, health, environment, education, local culture, laws and economy.

Two structural factors determining formats and contents are:

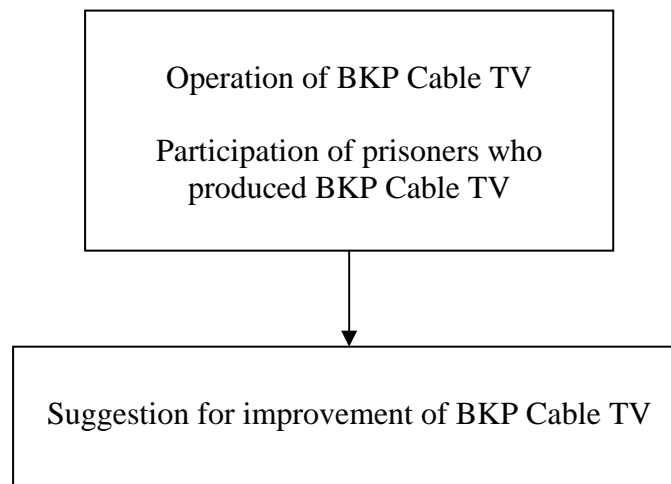
- 1) Internal factor include a policy of Public Relations Department, budget and personnel of the station

2) External factor include geography, population, culture, occupation, religion, economy, society, and ways of life.

The study of community member participation reveals that listeners participate by telephone calls and letters. They also involve step from determining daily topics to program producing and broadcasting whereas the participation in determining policy on Community Radio management is decided by the management committee of "Khon Muang Nan Community Radio Club" for the members to carry out with a framework set by committee itself.

As for the participatory strategy to find out the common needs of community people Participatory Action Research (PAR), the research finds out that the formats and contents of current broadcasting programs response well to the needs of Nan people. But people want to participate more in setting up the committee, budget, and location selection through representatives from each community.

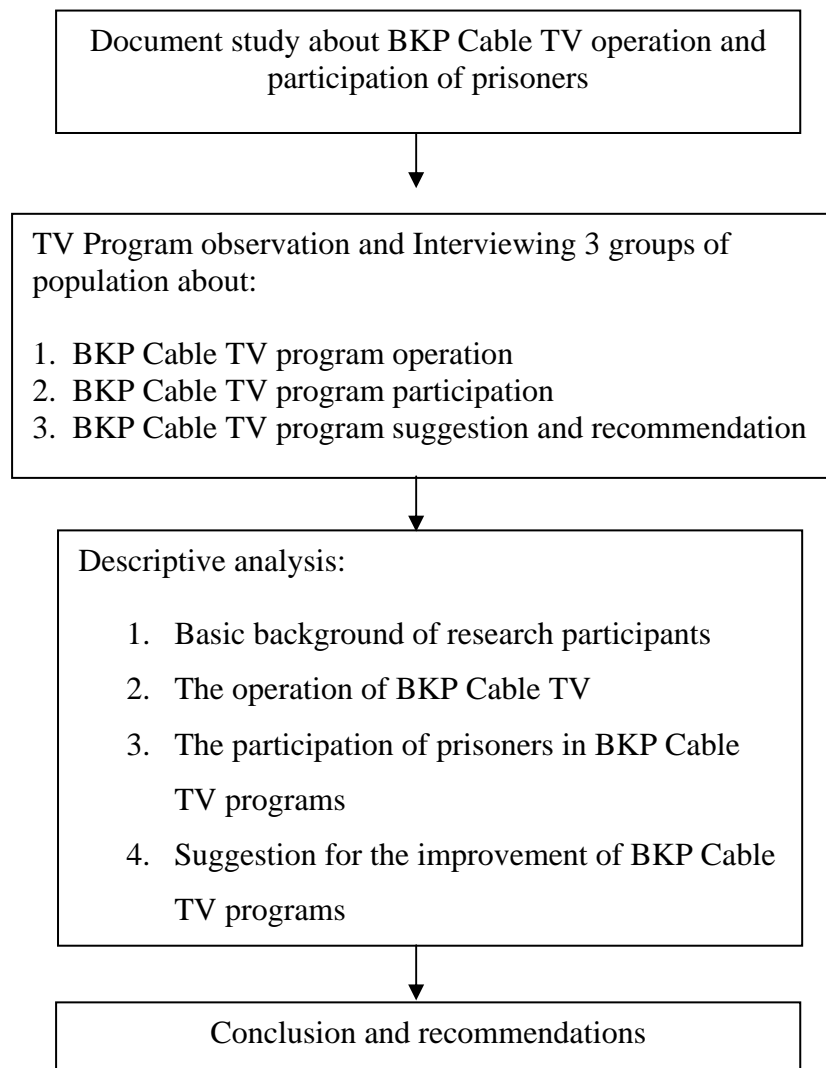
### Conceptual Framework



**Figure 2** Conceptual Framework

### Steps of Research Study

The procedural steps undertaken to conduct this research were shown in Figure 3.



**Figure 3** Sequential steps or activities of research study