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## SUMMARY

This paper wes prepared by Dr. Arno Huth, a consultant to the Unifted Nations. Its purpose is to drew the attention of members of the Sub-Commission on Freedom of Information and of the Press to the problems caused by and related to the reception of radio programmes, the size and structure of the world radio audience, and the different ways and means of receiving programmes and information.

The study leads to the conclusion that listener interest and listener participation in programe operations should be stimulated and encouraged. A more conetructive attitude towerde the "consumer" ehould be adopted in order to ensure that radio conveys information and programmes which are needed and wanted by the audience.

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## I. INTROIUCTION

Six thousand broadcasting stations are on the air, calling the peoples of the world day and night. While some of them operate only for a few hours, many broadcast their programmes during fifteen, twenty and sometimes even all the twenty-four hours of the day. They serve $180,000,000$ radio receivers and 14 15,000,000 wired loudspeakers, in $145,000,000$ homes and tens of thousands of assembly places. In addition, more than 14,000,000 television sets are tuned to 107 television stations in the United States and some 20 (experimental and regular) television stations in Europe and Iatin America. Counting an average of two persons per home receiver in the United States, three persons per set in other countries with a high ratio of radio sets per population - like Sweden, Denmark and Czechoslovakia - four persons per set or loudspeaker in the majority of other Europeen countries, five in most countries of the other continents, and seven to ten in under-developed areas, taking also into account collective reception which considerably increases the size of the audience, we can fairly assume that 600 million people now listen to the message of radio while over 65 million have access to both redio and television programmes.

These figures gain further in significance because of the fact that an important section of the world radio audience cannot be reached, or at least not regularly, by any other means of comunication - either because the listeners live in isolated areas lacking roads and highwas, printing presses and motion picture theatres, or because they are illiterate and less educated, and could not respond to any printed message even if they had an opportunity of receiving newspapers and magazines or of seeing documentary fiims and nerisreels. ${ }^{1 /}$

Four questions arise at the very start of any discussion of audience problems:

1. Do the six hundred million people now reached by radio enjoy freedom to listen or, on the contrary, is the reception and selection of programmes controlled and restricted?
2. Is the listener an active "partner" in radio operations, influencing programe policy and planning, or only a passive "consumer"?

[^0]3. Why do three-quarters of the world's population not have access to information disseminated by radio?
4. What can be done to promote the freedom to listen, and to improve and expand existing radio facilities in order to bring information to areas and peoples not yet reached by any media of communication?

At present, the role, the listening habits and reactions of the audience are frequently ignored, at any rate on the international plane. This is a serious omission, indeed, since the political and educational development of the listeners, or at least the development of their political and culturel interests, larcely depends upon the programes and information they receive by radio. on the other hand, the attitudes and reactions of the radio audience - the lergest audience of all the mass media - certainly influence world public opinion. It should not be forgotten either that radio is a tool of economic development, in highly developed countries where industry and trade make extensive use of radio to inform the public about their activities and products, as well as in less developed areas where radio is called upon to stimulate local industries and to help to create new warkets.

Redio reception gives rise to a great number of problems many of which affect, directly or indirectly, the free flow of information. Consequently, their solution would promote freedom of informetion considerably. It would make it possible to open up new areas which are now isoleted and to reach millions of reople who are anxious to receive information, but who are not in a position to receive any as long as radio facilities are not put at their disposal, and as long as complex problems such as the supply of electricity, the re-charging of battery sets, the increase in power of radio stations or the establishment of radio links and cable connexions between central and local stations, cannot be solved. But even where sufficient radio facilities are available and where it would, in principle, be possible to supply enough radio sets or loudspeakers, large groups of the population have no access to radio, have no possibility to listen to radio programmes in their language, or no opportunity to select their "own" programme. Political, economic and social factors preclude many millions of people from receiving radio brcadcasta - women who are not allowed to enter places where men assemble; minority groups whose needs and interests are frequently neglected by national stations; and, above all, the masses of poor
and under-privileged who cannot afford to buy a receiver and to pay license fees or wire broadcasting subscriptions.

Any discussion of the problems concerning freedom of information would be incomplete without taking into account the reception of information tranamitted by radio. While freedom of information could and should be promoted through measures at the "transmitting end" and through the removal of the many obstacles in the way of the gathering, the selection and distribution of news, much could also be done through practical and effective reasures taken at the "receiving end" - by means of developing and improving reception conditions and facilities, offering more programmes especially adapted to the listener needs and interests, and promoting better listener relations and internationel audience research.

## II. THE WORID RADIO AUDIENCE

Size and composition
The world radio audience has increased a thousand-fold. It has also undergone many structurel changes, and the interests of listeners are today as varied as the interests of the world's population. During the pioneering and experimental period of radio broadcasting, a swall group of radio amateurs formed the enthusiastic and grateful public of the first sta ions, less interested in the content of the programmes than in the phenomenon of radio and the exciting possibility of receiving as many and as distant stations as possible. But with the widening of the audience and with the addition of listeners less familiar with or interested in technical problems, the content of programmes, the presentation of broadcasts and the artists or speakers participating became more and more the chief interest. From then on, the main problem of the broadcasters has been how to satisfy this mass audience without neglecting at the same time the interests and needs of specific groups, the educated, the women, children, students, soldiers, farmers, workers and other professions. Until this day, this problem has not been fully solved: where the masses get whet they want, "minority" listener groups are frequentiy dissatisfied; where radio aims at intellectual and cultural interests, the need for relaxation and entertainment has frequently keen disregarded.

With the spreading of radio from country to country and its universal introduction, different methods of reception had to be developed in accordance with the topography and the climate of a particular region, the technological and economic possibilities of a country, and the living conditions of the people. Consequently, there are today various methods of receiving a prograrme, either wireless or by wire, either direct or indirect, over different bands of radio frequencies and by means of different types of receivers, tube sets or battery sets, loudspeakers and public address systems, and occasionally primitive crystal receivers and headphones. In many ceses the method of reception does not only correspond to the local technical and economic conditions, but also to the political or educational objectives of the authorities, or of the political party in power, which may or may not want certain programmes or certain types of programmes to be heard.

World War II has had considerable influence on the development of radio-commications, in view particularly of military needs. While it caused the destruction of dozens of radio stations and studios, it also caused the establishment of a great number of new and powerful stations some of which are located in areas which never had any before. It also accelerated the improvement of radio techniques, especially in the field of long-distance trensmissions and international broadcasting, connecting countries and continents, linking the homeland with the armed forces overse日s, and governments in exile with their own countries occupied by the enemy. It has thus been possible to develop a system of world-wide information - and a new significence has been conferred on broadcasting activities and on the problem of freedom of information in radiocomunication.

The number of radio receivers and wired loudspeakers reflects the importance of radio broadcasting and its potentialities as an instrument of information, while the constant increase in the number of sets demonstrates radio's increasing power, influence and popularity. Three figures illustrate this point: $56,765,000$ sets and wired loudspeakers were in use in January 1936 ${ }^{1 /}$; more than 120,000,000 in January 19412/; and, despite the extensive deatruction of receivers during the war, there were over 190,000,000 radio sets and loudspeakers at the beginning of 1951 plus $12,000,000$ television sets. 3 /

However, impressive as these figures are, they do not convey a true and complete picture of the world radio audience since they do not reflect the present inadequacies in the distribution of receiving facilities. While some areas have all the communication facilities they need, others are completely devoid of tranemitting and receiving facilities. While in the United Stetes of America "almost every home had a radio in April 1950", according to an official report of the U.S. Census Bureau, in several other countries only one out of one thousand homes is equipped with a receiving set. The same is true for the distribution of sets within the countries themselves, for urban centres as compared with rural

I/ Cf. "Ia Radiodiffusion, Puissance Mondiale" by Arno Huth (p. 72), Paris: Librairie Gallimard, 1937.
2/ Cf. "Radio Today" by Arno Huth (p. 59) Geneva Studies, Vol. XII. No. 6 Geneva Research Centre, July 1942.
3/ The data for 1950 and 1951 quoted in this memorandum are based on licence figures, supplied by government agencies or broadcasting organizations, and for those countries where no licence system exists - on reliable estimates of the number of radio receivers and parts imported and of the number of sets manufactured or assembled locally.
areas, for the high-income groups as compared with lower-income groups. The disparity in this respect is all the more shocking as the countries and population groups which have no radios are those which need them most urgently.

Unfortunately, any study of the problems involved in redio reception is hampered by the lack of essential data concerning the number and the types of sets used. The statistics which heve been published are irequently incomplete or outdated, and the conclusions drawn from these data erroneous and misleading, especially since figures for radio receivers, loudspeakers and headphones are used without much discrimination. I/ As a whole, no information la available with regard to the type of equiprent used by the listener, the age, type and quality of the gets as well as the existence of antenna installations. This is all the more regrettable, as thess data are needed to determine whether or not the listener is capable of receiving many and distant stations and thus information from abroad.

Despite this apparent deficiency, a considerable amount of basic facta and figures is available, both with respect to the number and the density of sets. A fev may be quoted here to illustrate the slze of the audience and the relative importance of radio in different countries and areas. More than half of all radio recelvers in use are in the United States of America. In 1950, according to the censua, $40,930,000$ homes, i.e. 95.6 per cent of the $42,520,000$ occupied dwelling units, had radio sets, and even rurel districts and farms registered high percentages of "radio homes" - 93.1 and 93.2 per cent; the estimated number of sets then was about 85 million. Television sets were installed in 5,120,000 homes, i.e. l2. 3 per cent of the total. Taking into account the number of radio and television receivers manufactured since the census was taken, the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcesters estimated the number of radio sets on I Jenuary 1951 at $91,454,000$ and the number of television sets at 10,664,000, a figure which has further incressed since and reached $13,482,000$ or more than 30 per cent of all the homes by the end of September 1951, 2/ This
I/ Due to the rapid advance of radio broadcasting and television, facta and figures for 1947 and 1948 do no longer reflect the present situation. Unfortunately, most of the books, studies and reports on mass communications published in 1950 and 1951 are based on such "old" data, and do not take into account the technological developents of the last two years.
2/ Cf. "Brcadcasting-Telecssting", Washington, D.C., 24 September 1951.
means that almost every American is within reach of a radio set and in a position to listen daily to the news and comments, broadcest by one or the other of tho 2,935 stations, $1 /$ and that tolevision, which contimes to make striking advancea, now comande an audience of over 60,000,000 people.

The United Kingdom counted 11,708,950 licenoes for radio sets and Ioudspeakers on 31 December 1950 - there were 942,441 subscribers to relay exchanges in Septsmorr 1950 .. and 586,100 for television sets, the number of which excegds 900,000 \&t present. Germeny hes zore then $23,000,000$, radio sets (92 mililion in the German Federal Republic, $3 \frac{1}{4}$ million in the German Democratic Repuolic and about 550,000 in the Western zone of Berlin). Recent information $f$ for the Union of soviet Socialist Republics is not available; the latest offictal figure, dated 1949, inaicates 11,000,000 licences in the European part of the USSR, i.e: 8,000,000 loudapeakers and 3,000,000 radio sets. $2 /$ Considering the increase in previous years and estimating three to four million sets and loudspeakers in the Asian part of the country, it can be fairly assumed that the total number of both receiving sets and loudepeakers emounts to $16,000,000$, to which have to be added about 50-100,000 television sete. Jepen, which lost millions of receivers during the wer, has speedily recovered; 8,958,208 sets were registered by the end of 1950 . France has almost as many seta and perheps even more, but only 6,889,522 were registered on 31 December 1950, with an estimated number of $2,000,000$ undeclared sets.

Then follow Brezil, with about 3,500,000 sets, Canada with 2,145,819 licenced receivers on 31 December 1950 - the actual number of sets in use is about, 20 to 25 per cent higher - Italy with $3,153,630$ sets, Czechoslovakia with 2,412,087 sets, sweden with 2,152,980 sets and Australia with $2,063,506$ sets at the same date. Nine countries had more than one million sets by the end of the year. But there are also twenty countries with less than 100,000 sets and five with less than 10,000 , not to speak of non-self-governing territories many of which have not even five thousend seta.

I/ 2,284 AM (medium wave) and 651 FM (ultra-short wave) stations. Figures eupplied by the Federal Comminications Commiseion, on 19 July 1951. Ci. "Broadcasting" Magazine, Washington, D.C., 23 July 1951, p. 87.
2/ Cf. Information and Documentation Bulletin, International Broadcesting Organization, No. 30-31, of 15 May 1950.

The role radio plays in different countries, in the private and public life of their peoples, and also the full impact of the inequity in the distribution of radio sets is exemplified by the figures concerning the density, i.e. the ratio of radio receivers and other receiving facilities to the population. These data are revealing - there are more then 600 receivers per thousand inhabitants in the United States as compared with less than 1 per thousand in Ethiopia and seven non-self-governing territories. Sweden had, on 31 December 1950, a density figure of 308.2 per thousand, Denmark 305.3, Icelend 249.4, Australia 246.6, Norway 239.7, New Zealand 238.9, Canada 236.2 and the United Kingdom 233.4 per thousand not including television sets. On the other hand, the density in the European territory of the Soviet Union did not exceed 110.7 in 1949; Argentine had 91 in 1949, Italy 67.8 , Brazil 66.5 and Poland 60.8 per thousand by the end of 1950. The density figures for the Midale and Far East reflect the urgent need for development of radio receiving facilities, many corntries there having less then 10 receivers per thousand inhabitants and India, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia and the Fashemite Kingdom of the Jordan only 1 or 2 sets per thousand population.

These data are of particular interest - they indicate whether radio listening, in a given country, has become a common practice, whether radio is accessible to all or whether it is still the privilege of a few. Density figures also reflect the economic and social status of the different countries and the degree of their technological development. There is a relationship between the extent of radio listening and the economic and cultural level of a nation; the density increases with the standards of living and the intensity of intellectual interests. $1 /$

Likewise, the average number of listeners per radio set varles considerably, from three in highly developed countries to seven and even ten in less developed areas, which suffer from a shortage of radio equipment, or in countries where families are exceptionally large. While the "virtual audience" in Czechoalovakia, Sweden and Switzerland, where 2,412,087, 2,152,980 and 1,039,511 sets were registered by the end of 1950 , is estimated by the broadcasting organizations of I/Cf. the report by Dr. Julius Spanik in "Slovensky Rozhlas", Bratislava, 4 July 1943.
these countries at $7,500,000,6,000,000$ and $3,500,000$ listeners respectively, it is believed that the 93,000 sets and loudspeakers in Malaya are being used by 651,000 persons and the 65,398 sets in Tunisia by 600,000 persons. I/ In some countries, receivers are in the hands of a small upper class and the only opportunity for the masses of the population to listen is provided by radio sets in coffee houses or community sets installed in schools and assembly centres of the tem or village.

To obtain a more complete picture of the radio audience, wire broadcasting and collective listening should be taken into account. More than $14,000,000$ homes and tens of thousands of collective listening centres do not have radio sets but are equipped only with wired loudspeakers. $2 /$ Wire broadcasting, favoured by technical as well as economic and political factors, has progressed considerably during the last years and is now being introduced into countries which, like Austria, Finland and Sweden, had never operated relay exchanges before. As stated above, eight out of the eleven million licence-holders in the European part of the Soviet Union (1949) did not use radio sets but only wired loudspeakers. The same was true (by the end of 1950) for 950,000 listeners in the United Kingdom or 8 per cent of the total audience; for 550,584 licences in Foland, i.e. 37 per cent of the total; 485,586 in the Netherlands, or 25 per cent; 171,996 in Switzerland, or 16.5 per cent; and 93,764, or 6 per cent in Belgium.

Wire broadcasting is of particular significance in territories where it has耳et been impossible to establish a sufficient number of radio stations; several British colonies have developed relay systems to such an extent that the majority of the listeners are now receiving their programmes by wire. More than 9,000 of the 11,500 licence-holders in Nigeria and the Gold Coast, and half of the 80,000 licences in Hong Kong are subscribers to relay exchanges.

Wire broadcasting and group listening are closely allied. Many of the wired loudspeakers are installed in schools, hospitals, clubhouses, tractor stations, collective farms and other listening centres - not less than 5,576 in Poland -

[^1]2/ See Chapter III, pp. 16-20.
and thus the size of the audience is considerably increased. Frequently, one loudspeaker system serves a whole factory employing thousands of workers, providing them with the same radio programe and with local information added to the news relayed from central redio stations. A large number of public address systems is also being used in conference rooms and halls, and especially for outdoor reception - in streets and places of the USSR as well as in village centres and public parks in Brazil.

The figures given above clearly indicate the potentialities of broadcasting as a channel of information. It performs a service which cannot be provided by any other means - in many parts of the world, radio alone can reach the majority of the population. Wire broadcasting supplements where wireless does not serve the whole audience, and collective reception where private facilities are insufficient, or where the authorities are interested in conveying a specific message to the masses.

The data on radio reception and in particular the number of sets and loudspeakers or the figures concerning the "density" of receivers prove that radio now reaches a greater number of people than any other media; but they also prove that radio, despite thirty years of remarkable development and growth, is still at an early stage of growth, and that many countries are far from being provided with a sufficient number of sets, that the distribution of radio facilities, and consequently, of information broadcast by radio stations, is very unequal. Many millions of sets, and especially low-cost receivers are needed.

## III. DIRECT AND INDIRECT RECEPITON

## Individual and collective listening

The method of transmisaion - direct, by radio (wireless), or indirect, by wire - determines to a high degree the method of reception. As we distinguish between direct ond indirect transmission we can also distinguish between direct reception of the programes radiated by a radio station and indirect reception through the intermediary of a central receiving system (relay exchange or another form of programme distribution service), from which the amplified radio signel is relayed by wire (telephone lines or others) to the loudspeakers or headphones installed in listeners' homes, in factori6s, schools, or commuity centres.

In turn, the method of reception has a direct bearing on freedom of information and programme choice. In the case of direct transmission and reception, the listener may tune in to any station which his redio set is capable of receiving, thus selecting and composing his "own" programme according to his preferences. In the case of indirect transmission and reception, the listeners' choice is limited to programmes pre-selected by a "third person", usually, a government-controlled agency, and chosen from the offerings of the national and, occasionally, foreign atations. The highest doveloped systeme offer four and even five or six programmes; but frequently a single programme only is transmitted by wire, thus leaving the listener no choice at all. Despite this disadvantage, which is of primery importance with regard to freedom of information, wire broadcasting ${ }^{l /}$ has made considerable progress during recent years.

There are several factors which may cause prospective listeners to prefer this mothod of reception. The first is of an economic nature: there is generelly no initial investrent needed for the purchase of the receiving equiprent, butonly a monthly subscription fee to be paid to the wire broadcasting service in the same way as one would pay for telephone service - and which frequently covers also the licence fee for cadio recepticn, imposed by the govermment, and I/ Frequently, other terms are used such as radiodistribution, telediffusion or rediffusion.
the rent of the wired loudspeakers or headphones. (Few listeners realize that they could buy a high-quality receiver for the amount paid in monthly subscriptions during two or three years; but since in many countries instalment buying is not so common a practice as for instance in the United States, they do not have any alternative). Another reason for the expansion of wire broadcasting is the degree of static or electrical interference of radio broadcasts in mountainous regions or in highly industrialized areas; this explains the success of staticfree wire transmissions in Switzerland as well as in the Netherlands and some parts of the United Kingdom. Moreover, wire broadcasting is a means of increasing the range of radio stations to so-called "fringe areas" which, under the present circumstances, do not get a primary service. Finally, wire broadcasting is of considerable value for collective listening. The reception is stable in volume and generally free from interference; the loudspeaker, once tuned to a specific programe does not need any service. Schools, factories, clubs, thus prefer wire broadcasting for use in class rooms or for collective listening by adults.

Wire broadcasting may, under certain conditions, endanger freedom of information. By using cables and telephone lines for the distribution of programmes, those in control of radio and of public information can bar completely any opinions of which they disapprove, and can impose their own opinions upon the audience. No foreign broadcast will intrude into the listener's home without the permission of the authorities and no message from a clandestine transmitter will ever reach the audience. Moreover, the reception of official programmes cen be planned and "organized", in factories, tractor stations, state farms in clubs and party centres, in schools and libraries, streets and public places. By controlling the consumption of electric current it is even possible to check when a loudspeaker is switched on or off, i.e. "who listens and to what?". Wire broadcasting is certainly the most effective method of limiting or suppressing freedom of information - without even the need for restrictive laws and regulations. This implicit threat has caused public opinion in the United Kingdom to reject as "undemocratic" a much publicized proposal (made in 1941 by P. P. Eckersley, former Chief Engineer of the BEC) to replace wireless broadcasting by a highly developed wire transmission system, using the electric
mains and offering a choice of gix different programes tailored to the preferences of the different groups of the audience.

However, wire broadcasting may also serve to increase the free flow of information. It ray be used, as for example in Sweden, as a channel for an additional programe which, because of the shortage of frequencies available for broadcasting, cannot be transmitted over the air. Likewise, some non-selfgoverning territories, unable to finance the construction and operetion of a sufficient number of radio stations or to provide the netive population with radio sets, have substituted wire broadcesting for wireless transmissions.

Wire broadcasting, which can be used to control the free flow of information or to increase the amount of information available to the eudience, has become an essential part of broadcast activities in six countries - Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the USSR - and in many non-selfgoverning territories. Plans are in hand for the expansion of existing services and the establishment of new ones as well as for the introduction of wire broadcasting in additional countries. Likewise, the distribution of programmes by wire will become more and more important in television.

The difference between listening to brcadcasts at home or outside the home is another important factor to be taken into account in the evaluation of the reception of information by radio, all the more as reception in the open air or at collective listening centres and other assembly places is frequently directed towards a political or educational goal. While individual listening is still, and by far, the most common method of radio reception, collective listening enccuraged by political and educational authorities - has made great progress during recent years. Communtty reception is practised to a large extent in the Middle East and in South-East Asia, both for educational broadcasta and for the distribution of news and information. The radio supplements the press and films which rerely reach these areas, or cannot be understood by an illiterate population.

Governments and political parties are, of course, anxious that their broadcasts should be heard by the greatest possible number of listeners - that they should reach the masses. Stations owned and operated by governments carry
all official news bulletins and statements, and endeavour to inform the audience about the intentions of the authorities, and about new decrees and regulations. Occasionally, however, governments compel even those stations which are owned and opereted by private enterprises to tranemit - in addition to special announcements and emergency appeals - regular official programes. The Government of Brazil, for example, acting through the national news agency, broadcasta a daily information programmel called "Hora do Brasil", which all private stations must relay from Radio Nacional; those stations which, for technical reasons, are unable to pick up the programe, broadcast over medtum and short waves, have to close dow during the time of transmission. ${ }^{2 /}$ Facilities for collective listening have been provided in many countries; commity receivers and public address systems have been installed in public places, in work and recreation rooms. The reception of all politically significant speeches hes been considered a duty of the loyal citizen, and more than once attempts heve even been made to substitute for the freedom to listen, the obligation to listen.

Nass education and collective listening are closely interrelated. Educational broadcasts are preferably received in groups; their effectiveness is considerably increased if the broadcast is imediately followed by a discussion clarifying and exploring the issue, and if the discussion leader is familier with the topic and knows how to hendle his audience. Collective listening is the customary form of reception of school broadcests of lectures, or instructions for agricultural and industrial workers. It is for this reason that the BBC encouraged, as early as 1927, the formation of "discussion groups" and arranged for the broadcasting of apecial programes to these groups. In Sweden, about four thcueard study groups, composed largely of students, listen to educational, programos and discuss their content. Collective reception, on a large scale, Las also been organized in Poland and in the USSR where thousands of listening

[^2]centres and other assembly places have been equipped with radios and loudspeakers, and are now serving as classrooms for fundamental as well as professional and political education.

Listener groups and listener associations have been of great assistance to broadcasters, as proved by the example of the associations in Denmark and other Scandinavian countries, which are co-operating closely with the radio stations. Such relationship between broadcasters and their audience, and the participation of listeners in programme planning and production, certainly promotes the free flow of information. The interest of a large number of listeners who would regularly recelve programmes designed for them car thus be ensured, and the effectiveness of the broadcasts be measured immediately. l/

The importance of direct and indirect reception, of individual and collective listening, and the influence of different methods of reception on freedom of information - on the amount of information received as well as its origin and content - certainly need to be further explored.

I/ The rights of listeners and listener associations, and their functions, are dealt with in Chapter IV, pp. 31 - 35.

## IV. FREEDOM AND CONIROL OF RECEPIION

## Rights and obligations and the listeners

Freedom and control of reception, rights and obligations of listeners - and, in particular, the influence of listeners on radio operations, on programme policy and planning - present many and difficult problems.

Three different aspects have to be considered in this regard: the free access to radio receiving facilities by all groups of the population, regardless of their sociomeconomic status, their sex and political affiliation, or their belonging either to a majority or a minority; the freedom of programme choice; and the role of the listener in the national radio system. The first refers to the right of the people to operate a radio receiver, or at least to listen to broadcast programmes; the second, to the right to tune in to any station, whether ational on foreitn, whether frierdly or hoalile to the goverrsent of the listeners' country; and the third, to the opportunity of the listener to take an active sme participating interest. in broadcasting.

The use of radio sets - or the freedom to listen, to seek and to receive information - may be restricted by rules as well as by practices, forbidding or discouraging the reception of certain foreign stations, or limiting the capacity of radio sets in order to prevent listening to certain programmes. Jamming is another means of intefering with the free choice of programes but, up to now, it has been used only by a few countries. The most effective way to limit and control reception is, as mentioned above, wire broadcasting which precludes the reception of any "undesirable" programme.

The freedom to listen is not necessarily related to the system of broa broadcasting. In many countries where radio stations are government-owned and operated the listener retains full freedom to tune in to any station his set is capable of receiving. However, there are frequently important differences caused by the principle of organization adopted. In the case of private broadcasting, listeners are seldom obliged to pay any licence fee or to make other financial contributions; in the case of government control or operation of broadcasting systems, the listener is generally under an obligation to declare and register his set, to pay for the right to listen - even if most of the time his receiver
is tuned in to foreign stations or if the revenue from the licence fee is used for purposes other than radio broadcasting and only pertly for technical and programe services.

Rules and practices affecting the freedom to listen differ from country to country. They vary from the completely unrestricted ownership and use of radio recelvers - freedom to operate any type of set and to receive any kind of radiocomunication - to the free but licenced reception of radio programmes (with the provision for payment of a licence fee by the listener); to restrictive provisions laid down in the licence; and finally to the interdiction of the reception of certain broadcasts, and the jaming of foreign radio stations.

Radio reception is entirely free in most of the American countries. In reply to the Secretary-General's request for information, made in preparation for the United Netions Conference on Freedom of Information, Brazil stressed that "there is no limytation or restriction of the right to possess redio receiving sets; they ray be operated on any of the bands used by domestic and international stations". I/ Colombia stated: "The possession and operation of radio receiving sets are absolutely free";-2/ Mexico declared: "There is no limitation on the possession or use of radio receiving sets"; ${ }^{3 /}$ and the United States: "There is no limitation (of the right to possess and operate radio receiving sets) or regulation in the United States".4/

Canada, too, stressed the point that "there are no legal or administrative restrictions, limitations or regulations of the right to possess and operate radio receiving sets covering all bands used for domestic and international broadcasts", but the Govermment requires "that each private receiving set be licenced". $5 /$ Sweden replied: 'Every resident is entitled to possess an ordinary receiving set", for which he has to pay an annual licence fee, and underlined: "there is no limitation on the right to listen on any band". 6/ The United Kingdom
1/ Cf.E/CN.4/Sub.1/107/Add.6p.9-Section 5(c).
হ/ Cf. Freedom of Information, Vol. I, p. 157 United Nations Publications 1950, XIV, 1.
3/ Cf. Freedom of Information, Vol. 1, p. 161 United Notions Publications 1950, XIV, 1.
4/ Ibid. p. 174 .
5/ $\overline{\text { Ibid. }}$. 155.
Ibid. p. 162
stated: "Licences, for which a small charge is made, are granted without question to all persons in Great Britain, permitting them to possess and operate radio receiving sets and to receive broadcasts from donestic and foreign stations including amateur stations:. I/

Restrictive clauses are included in the licence granted by Belgium, forbidding the reception of frequencies between 1560 and 6000 kc , and in New Zealand where the licence-holder "shall not, without the consent of the Minister of Telegraphs, commit to writing, or cause, enable or assist any other person to commit to writing, for the purpose of publication in a newspaper or for the purpose of written publication in any form, any matter transmitted from any radio station either in New Zealand or overseas". 2/ Likewise, in the Union of South Africa, "any person who without the permission in writing of the Postmaster General, publishes any news or information in print, or gives any news or information to eny other person for such publication shall, if the only source from which he has received such news or information is by radio, be guilty of an offense". 3/ The Swiss licence "does not authorize the holder to use the receiver for commercial purposes or to make public use of radio broadcasta". 4/ But no licence seems to contain an interdiction against listening to foreign broadcasts, the reception of which is, however, forbidden in Hungary 5 / and made rather difficult in countries where jamming is being used against foreign stations.

The system of licencing all receiving sets and practically all radio equipment including loudspeakers and headphones, constitutes, of course, at leest in principle, a means of controlling the reception of programmes and information. 6/

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I/ C. Ite kut of Information, Vol. 1, p. 164 United Nations Publications
    An, x.
2/ Ibid: \(\mathrm{p} \cdot 161\)
\(\because\) Ibia. 1.16
4/ Ibid. p. 163.
5/ Cf. Monthly Bulletin of the International Broadcasting Union, January, 1950.
6/ Cf. Memorandum on "Radio and Freedom of Information" (document
    E/CN.4/Sub.1/).
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Even where the government never exercises its power and does not restrict or condition redio and television reception, the simple fact that it can deny permission to operate a radio set or withdraw the licence is a potential limitation.

Political and economic reasons cause millions of redio owners not to declare their sets, in violation of the law. Here and there the law is enforced: campaigns are launched in order to detect illegal, "black" listeners who are then subjected to penalties, usually several times the amount of the annual fee, and occasionally also to confiscation of the receiver and imprisonment. According to the radio magazine "amroepgids", agents of the Inspection Service of the Netherlandts Radio, for example, made no less than $1,187,244$ visits during the period of January 1947 to september 1948, and inspected 421,304 receivers. Only 30 per cent of these were operating as prescribed by the law; 44 per cent of the licence holders in 1947 and 55 per cent in 1948 were behind in payment, and 90,623 sets had not been declared at all. Some governments, however, do not enforce the law, either because the collection of the fees and the enforcement of the provisions would require a larger appropriation than the revenue from licences would yield or because they fear to reduce by such measures the aize of the audience for their politically inspired progremmes. This explains that in some countries the number of registered sets and the number of sets in use differ so widely. In one country, for instance, there are 800,000 licenced sets but actually, according to official estirates based on the number of sets imported or manufactured in the country, about $3,500,000$ sets are in the hands of listeners.

Some governments grant free licences to certain groups of listeners. Radio owners who cannot afford payment of the licence fee, are exempted (or allowed to pay a reduced fee) and especially blind, aged and unemployed persons, disabled war veterans or indigent people. The United Kingdom exempts all registered blind persons from paying the annual licence fee of El ; occasionally, soldiers and officers do not need to pay the fee, and the same privilege is granted so sometimes to high government officials axd mabers of the diplomatic corpe. The USSR exempts press agencies, newspapers and radio arateurs ongaged in technical experiments. However, with a few exceptions, the number of free
licences is rather limited; only in one case does it exceed 10 per centiof the total number of licences. On 31 December 1950, there were 348 , 125 free licences in the Germen Federal Republic, 133,859 in Denmark, 106,351 in France, and 91,521 in Japan. In most cases, only a few thousand listeners are exempt: 1,855 out of 723,360 licencees in Finland, 2,801 out of 1,039,311 in Switzerland, and 1,748 out of $2,152,980$ in Sweden. Free licences are sometimes given to hospitals, scientffic and educational institutions, but frequently even the public schools are obliged to pay licence fees, although the use of radio sets and loudspeakers in the classroom is definitely in the public interest. It could be said that all educational and scientific institutions should be granted free licences, in the same way as educational, scientific and cultural materials - under the new UNESCO-sponsored Agreement I - shall be exempted from custom duties and other charges; the amount saved could be used for the expansion and improvement of receiving facilities. Likewise, a substantial reduction of the licence fees, or possibly an exemption for the first two or three years, would stimulate the production and purchase of low-cost receivers and help to bring radio to lower-income groupe.

Few radio laws and regulations contain any restrictions on the right to listen. There is occasionally a clause prohibiting listeners from disseminating private messages and information not intended for reception by the public and transmitted over other than broadcast bands, which however can easily be received with any set covering a wide range of frequencies. As already mentioned, the Belgian law for example provides that "no one may transmit or receive private messages, even by means of licensed radio sets, without the special authorization of the Government. All signals or radio messages, other than those addressed to the public indiscriminately, without indication of the recipient or address, are deemed to be private messages". Under the Ministerial Decree of 28 February 1947 it is forbidden to pick up frequencies of 1560 to 6,000 kilocycles and even to own a radio receiving set capable of picking up these frequencies, without special authorization. 2/ As far as is known, there is only one instance where the

[^3]government, in this case the Government of Hungary, has issued an order "prohibiting listening to certain foreign stations, and asking listeners to have their sets so adjusted that they cen no longer tune in to broadcasts at a certain distance."1/ A decree promulgated by the Ministry of Communications and Posts, dated 23 June 1949, even includes provisions for the prohibition of radio reception and for the confiscation of sets. According to official information, this order authorizes the Ministry to "cancel receiving licences or to forbid the use of a recelver, elther temporarily or permenently, if such a measure is in the interest of public security, and this without any indemnity for the set owner. The recelvers selzed by the Govermment can be put at the disposal of the Administration or its officials". ?/ It seems that there have been several instances where listeners were discouraged from receiving foreign broadcasts; but as long as the reception of short-wave broadcasts from one country is recommended by the authorities, it will be difficult to prevent the reception of short-wave transmiselons from other countries.

To hinder the reception of certain stations, to bar the entry of certain broadcasts into the homes of the listeners, some countries have been using the device of "jamming" or, as it is celled in technical terms, "interference with radio signals". It is beyond doubt that this practice seriously affects the freedom to listen and the right to be informed, but its practical effect has apparently been over-estimated. It is certainly true that this kind of interference prevents a great many listeners from receiving international broadcasta or at least from enjoying them, since listening to jammed. transmissions is a mental and physical torture. But it is also true, and has been proved many times, that jamming excites the curiosity of the listener, and that many listeners who would not have been interested in broadcasts from foreign stations, and in fact would never have listened to them, suddenly became atrracted to this "forbidden fruit". Wartime experience has also shown that the desire of the people to learn what happens in the world is stronger than the fear of imprisonment or death. Millions of listeners in Germany and in German-occupied countries risked their lives and liberty, and endured the suffering caused by

[^4]jamming, patiently trying one channel after another until they received the information they sought from the BBC and other Allied stations, and in particular from the German-language transmitters operated by onti-Nazi groups. In the last issue, jamming thus turned against those who used this device.

Economic barriers are an important obstacle to freedom of information, since they prevent a large part of the population from buying radio sets, from subscribing to wire broadcasting services and, in many countries, from installing electricity in their homes. Very few radio listeners have high-quality sets which are "ears" to the world, which enable them to receive short-wave as well as long and medium wave stations, and to get all the information they wish. The cost of manufacturing is but one reason for the high price of receiving sets; custom teriffs and other taxes, frequently also excessive retail profits of radio dealers, increase the price so that the average listener is unable to buy a better set or to use antennae capable of improving reception. Quite frequently, it would be possible to sell receivers at a lower price and in large quantities than is done today. Quotas, protecting domestic manufacture, and other restrictions concerning in particular the export of hard currency, may bar the mass import of radio sets. It is characteristic that 40 out of 43 countries covered by a recent survey of UNESCO ${ }^{1 /}$ apply custom duties and other charges on the importation of radio receivers; in addition, twenty of these countries also apply sales taxes. In most cases, the tariffs are extremely high, even in countries which are in great need of receiving equipment and where the purchasing power of the population is rather low. To quote a few examples: Peru ask $\$ 76$ per 100 kg , Colombia $\$ 77$ plus 25 per cent ad valorem, Brazil $\$ 91$ plus a sales tax of 6 per cent ad valorem, Czechoslovakia $\$ 180$ and Austria $\$ 390$. The general tariff for the import of radio receivers in Southern Rhodesia anounts to 35 per cent ad valorem, in the Philippines to 30 per cent plus 15 per cent sales tax, in Israel to 45 per cent and 25 per cent sales tax, in India to 50 per cent, in Pakistan to 58 per cent plus sales tax, in New Zealand to 65 per cent plus surtax and 20 per cent sales tax, and in Ireland to 75 per cent ad valorem. It is obvious that these duties and taxes are prohibitive; only a substantial

1/ Cf. Trade Barriers to Knowledge: A manual of regulations affecting educational, scientific and cultural materials. UNESCO, Paris 1951.
reduction would make it possible to improve and increase substantially the receiving facilities in these countries.

A solution has to be found or the free flow of information will continue to be seriously hampered. Here arises the question of a low-cost receiver of good quality, fulfilling the needs of the audience in the different countries of the world and adapted to local transmission and reception conditions, especially to the climate, the supply of electrical current, and the degree of ability of the potential listener to hande a receiving set. The United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information has already called attention to this problem, in its Resolution No. 30 , recommending "that a study be made of all appropriate measures so that the general public can obtain radio recelving sets at low prices."I/ UNESCO is preparing a technical study on low-cost reception, and several governments are considering appropriate measures. Up to now, however, efforts to induce the industry to mass-manufacture low-cost receivers have only been partly successful. One reason for indifference on the part of the manufacturers has certainly been the lack of essential data and of co-ordinated action and planning, which are indispensable for the implementation of the idea and for the solution of the economic problems. How much can be accomplished, how radio can be brought to the people, to all classes of the population, has been proved every time the authorities have been willing to promote such a move and when a so-called "popular" receiver has been produced in appreciable quantities and sold without a large margin of profit.

The "Volksempfänger", introduced by the Nazi régime in Germany in order to strengthen the influence of its political propaganda, has, although of not too good a quality, increased the number of radio sets in Germany by several millions. The "people's receiver" now being manufactured in Hungary and sponsored by both the Government and the broadcasting service, has made it possible to bring radio to rural districts and to classes which, like industrial and agricultural workers, could previously not afford to buy radio sets. The most significant and conclusive experiment has recently been made in Northern Rhodesia where the authorities offered a battery set manufactured in the United Kingdom, the "Saucepan Special", for $£ 5$, plus $£ 1.5 \mathrm{~s} .0$ for supplementary batteries. This action is about

[^5]to transform an isolated territory without sets into an area where radio links the village in the interior to the capital and to the world. Whereas Northern Rhodesia had less then 1,000 sets two years ago, the number of radio receivers had increased to 12,000 by 1950, and thousands of natives are now able to listen to the programes from Lusaka and to international broadcasts as well.

The problem of providing radio sets to those countries and areas where they are in short supply, is further complicated by the fact that radio manufacturing is limited to a few countries. With the exception of the United states, the United Kingdom, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Sweden almost none can satisfy domestic needs and still less those of foreign countries. The United States alone is in a position to export large quantities of radio material without neglecting the domestic market, and even this has temporarily not been possible. Consequently, international action seems to be necessary, co-ordinating z all the available facilities and asking the leading radio manufacturers to devote part of their activities to the mass production of a few standard types of lowcost receivers.

The status of women is an important factor with regard to the composition of the radio audience. Only in countries which grant equal rights to men and women, and where women have access to all places where people assemble, does the audience comprise a large percentage of female listeners. The proportion may otherwise be very small or even non-existent as, for example, in some countries where there are only a few thousand sets, most of which installed in coffee houses or other assembly places where women are not allowed to enter and to sit with the men.

Likewise, equal rights for, or discrimination against minorities plays an important role. In some countries, special programmes are broadcast to minorities In their own language, and care is taken that they are able to receive them. In others, however, the needs and interests of minorities are completely neglected: there is not a single programme except in the official language, and no efforts are made to put radio receiving facilities, not even community sets at their disposal. If they want to listen to broadcasts in their own language, such minority groups must then tune in to foreign stations. If considered as part of the national audience and provided with appropriate programes, minorities would
benefit from broadcasting activities, and so would national unity. Otherwise, minorities constitute an unstable element in the audience, subject to all kinds of foreign propaganda and to broadcasts which are frequently directed against the very interests of the country to which it is beamed.

Radio amateurs and radio listeners have had a large share in the development of broadcasting and are to be credited with many pioneering efforts and achievements. Radio clubs and listener associations set up experimental transmitters which were subsequently converted into regular broadcasting stations and which served as a basis for the first broadcasting organizations. The steady Increase of political and commercial interests, however, caused a decrease in the influence of the listeners. With the exception of a few countries, there are today no important listener groups and associations; even where listeners are organized, they seldom take an active and participating interest in broadcast operations and programe planning.

Most listeners in fact are passive and indifferent; it is, to a large extent, their own fault that they get what others - government authorities, advertisers and broadcasters - believe they like, or consider to be good and necessary for them to hear. Since the masses almost everywhere want to be entertained, first emphasis is put on entertainment; since the party, or parties, in power almost everywhere want to influence public opinion, national programmes frequently serve political interests.

The lack of oo-operation between broadcasters and listeners, the lack of contacts and consultation concerning programme policy and planning is a serious deficiency in present-day radio broadcasting. As a rule, the listener is rather an "object" of radio broadcasts than, as it should be, a shareholder and trustee of the redio services. Commercial broadcasters think of listeners primarily as potential customers of the products advertised in their programmes, official broadcasters consider them mainly as pupils to be guided and educated. In most countries where, the operation of broadcasting services is financed by licence fees and other taxes, the burden to the listeners has increased with the expansion of radio services; but frequently, they are not even getting back any "interest" in the form of better stations and better programmes, but are paying for other activities some of which are not at all related to broadcasting or television.

However, in private broadcasting at least, the listener is sovereign; he is, or could be if he were conscious of his power, the master of the broadcasting service. If he were aware of his rights as well as of his obligations and if, on the other side, the broadcaster, whether official or private, were aware of his responsibilities, radio and television could be developed along lines completely different to those followed so far.

Wherever listener associations are given the right to discuss programme plans with the broadcasters and where their suggestions and proposals are considered, radio services seem to benefit from such comoperation. The listener gets a better understanding and appreciation of the problems and difficulties of radio operations, and the broadcaster a better knowledge of the needs and reactions of his audience. Listener groups and associations help to prepare and to promote programes the production of which they have suggested and which have been especially designed for their members and for listeners with sımilar interests.* The advice of these groups has been of particular value with respect to special programe series - talks and lectures on political, economic and social problems in view particularly of the fact that listeners, anxious to make up their own mind, will in most cases insist on an objective presentation of an issue. Audience research has repeatedly proved that, both in national and in international broadcasts, listeners above all want the facts about events and developments, and that the stations which present factual information and which separate the news from coments and interpretation, are considered "more reliable" than those which mingle news and views. The emphasis of the audience on straight reporting of the facts and the need for basic data should not be overlooked; the free flow of information could be promoted by cultivating this genuine interest. It is certainly not limited to political information only, but extends to the whole range of news about all aspects of life, all kinds of human activities and all kinds of cultural and scientific developments.

The participation of the audience may take quite different forms. The interested listener writes to the station, to the radio service or the sponsor of the broadcasts, requesting information about programes, and contributing praise, criticism and suggestions. Listener mail, althougk not reflecting the attitudes and reactions of the audience as a whole, has reached considerable
proportions. American networks get millions of letters every year - the NBC alone received 914,000 letters in 1950-and even a service like the "Voice of America" has received 237,828 letters in 1950 and as many as 39,741 from 82 countries and territories, in the single month of March 1951. 1/ Another form of co-operation is the interest many listeners take in audience surveys made by broadcasting organizations, advertising agencies and specialized research institutions. 901,368 licence-holders in Italy, i.e. 75 per cent of the total number then registered, participated in the "Referendum" of the Italian Radio in 1940, which thus attained the proportions of a plebiscite.2/ Many thousands of listeners agree to reply to detailed questionnaires, to submit to extensive interviews, and to note their preferences and reactions in programme diarles. Voluntary "listener-correspondents", in the homeland as well as overseas, assist the BBC in the evaluation and development of its programmes; radio amateurs and listeners throughout the world enable the United Nations Radio to check reception conditions in different regions.

The majority of the audience observes, as stated above, a rather indifferent and passive attitude. But it is also true that a great number of listeners manifest their interest and desire to "help" the broadcasters in their difficult task. There is no doubt that the degree and intensity of such participation could be considerably increased by patient and intelligent efforts on the part of broadcasters. Once the listener realizes their willingness to co-operate with him and to fulfil his needs, he would be prepared to assume an active and more reponsible role.

Many stations broadcast musical recordings "requested" by the listeners, even if the programes so composed are void of any artistic or cultural value. But how many would be inclined to answer with the same eagerness requests concerning informative and instructive programmes?

Some broadcasters seem to be ready to give the listeners and their associations a voice in radio operations, others oppose any "interfererde" by the audience. Here are two typical examples of the different attitudes adopted. A listeners: association has recently been formed in Austria, with the declared purpose of establishing contacts between the audience and the broadcasting I/ UI. Report on Audience Mail, March 1951 (AM \#31) ; Department of State, International Broadcasting Division, II. Programe Evaluation Branch 2/ Cf. "Radio-Henkund Morgen" by Arno Huth, Zurich/New York: Europa Verlay, 1944.
organization, of interpreting the listenex's wishes end, if pocsible, of collaborating in programe planning. The association purposes to convene an annual conference, a Parliament of Radio Listeners, and to entrust specielists in audience research with surveys carried out according to the most modern methods of polling. In turn, Radio Vienna has agreed to devote a weekly programme to the association. Similar projects were advanced in Germany, especially in the British Zone served by the "Nordwestdeutscher Rundfunk". But the organization imediately took position against this move, declaring that "the payment of a licence fee merely gives one the right to listen to radio programes but not to dictate on programe composition" and opposed the idea that even an association composed of 100,000 or 200,000 members should exercise any influence on the broadcasting service.?/

Few countries recognize the right of the listener to play an active and responsible role in radio operations, and provide the legal framework for the participation of listener associations and their representation in administrative and advisory bodies. Denmark, one of the leading radio countries of the world, has demonstrated how such co-operation could be established on a permanent basis the Council which is in charge of the management of the State Broadcasting Service comprises, in addition to three representatives of the Government, two of the press and four of the main political parties, not less than six representatives of the audience, proposed by listener associations and appointed by the Minister of Education. Like the Danish Radio, most of the other Scandinavian services maintain close contacts with listener groups and associations, consulting them with regard to programme plans and, in particular, to series of educational broadcasts. The Swedish Broadcasting Corporation is instructed to "co-operate in the best possible manner with public and private cultural and social institutions and organizations, especially those dealing with music, the theatre, science, technology and popular education, and with institutions and persons connected with the conmercial and industrial life of the nation"3/ Similarly, the Radio Committee of the U.S.S.R. frequently invites

1) Monthly Bulletin of the International Broadcasting Union, No. 288, February 1950. p. 107.
2/ Ibid., No. 290, April 1950, p. 291.
3/ Art. I(2) of the Agreement between the Crown and the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation (Aktiebolaget Radiotjanst) on Broadcast Programming of 14 June 1947. Cf. Freedom of Information Vol. II, p. 115. United Nations Publishing 1950 XIV, 1
listeners to discussions of broadcasts and programme plans. According to official information, thoueands of listeners participate in these meetings - about 5,000 attended the six conferences organized in Moscow in April and May 1951. The Netherlands have gone one step further and have entrusted listener associations with the entire domestic programe operations, allowing them to use official transmitters, and reserving for the state only the right of supervision and the technical operation of the stations.

The first requirement for any improvement of the present situation is, as the organizer of one of the principal international programmes points out, "to define the audience which is to be addressed", $I$ the second, to provide radio listeners with better information about radio as a medium, about the stations, their wavelengths, their transmission schedules and in particular, the content of programes. This kind of information is occasionaliy given by the programme magazines issued by different broadcasting organizations; but with the exception of the "Radio Times", published weekly by the BBC in $8,000,000$ copies, not a single one seems to reach more than a small part of the audience. Many international broadcasting services have malling lists of persons interested in getting monthly programme schedules - they frequently receive in addition, whether they want it or not, political propaganda material. However, littie has been done to inform the audience generally, and to bring international broadcasts to the attention of those who are not already on the mailing list.

The volume of information received could be considerably increased if listeners were told which foreign stations are broadcasting special programmes for them, what kind of programes, how and when they may receive them, and how they can derive intellectual satisfaction from listening to programes and information from abroad. Such promotion of broadcasts, which in practice means calling the attention of national audiences to international programes, requires of course frlendly relations between the broadcasting organizations in the transmitting and receiving countries. Fortunately, many of them are anxious to co-operate, ready to assist each other, and to interchange programme raterigi and information.

1/ Cf. "Teaching the World English", by R.J. Quinault, BBC Quarterly, Spring 1951 ( p . 39) .

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Wartime exporionces have demonstratod the offectiveness of a four-page leaflet giving, every,month, some specific date and programme information to listeners. This and other measures, such as information specially designed for listener groups and associations, could increase the radio audience to a considerable cxtent and stir up a new interest for information programes. Likewise, the recoption of international information and the appeal of such broadcasts to listeners could be greatly increased if all international broadcasting services would invest some of the money they are spending for programes, in radio and audience research, in order to inform themselves about developments in their own field of activity and about the needs and interests of the people to whom they broadcast.

There is no doubt that the reception of radio programmes, their value and effectiveness and thus the free flow of information could be greatly increased if broadcasters cared more about listener interests, needs and reacticns; if listeners were more directly concerned with programme planning and operations; and if radio reception were developed on a broader scale and in full consideration of the problems of radiocommunications, of living and listening habits, of traditions, customs and religious beliefs, of social and economic conditions, of standerds of education and secondary languages. Audience research and audience building have frequently failed by ignoring, or not considering, the essertial facts about the media of communication, whether it be press, films, radio or television; conclusions have been reached which were invalidated by practical experience. In most cases, tho broadcaster does not know very much about his audience, erd seldom are the special interests of listeners fully satisfied. All too of ten, listener relations, that is to say close and direct contact between those who are in control of the radio stations and radio programes and those to whom they are directed, are deficient - if existing at all. International broadcasting services, in particular, have with few exceptions neglected to establish relations with the public and little audience research has been done in this field.

## v. CONCLUSIONS

The freedom to listen, and the rights and obligations of listeners, raise many and complex questions. As has been shown, this freedom implies:
(1) Equal rights for all to use a radio receiver and to issten to radio programes, whether man or woran, rich or poor, member of a majority or of a minority;
(2) Freedom of programme choice and in particular, the right to seek and to receive information from any broadcasting station;
(3) Removal of controls ard legal restrictions concening the reception of radio programmes;
(4) Renovel of economic barriers to radio reception, inciuding prohibitive license fees and other taxes;
(5) Representation of the audience in the radio organization and the opportunity to express likes and dislikes and to participate in the planning of radio programmes;
(6) Promotion of the listener's interest in, and understanding of, broadcasting, and the eatablishment of close contact between broadcasters and their audience.

Practical measures, in addition to legislative and administrative ones, could advance the cause of freedom of information, promote and improve the reception of international information. They should fnclude the development of the facilities at the disposal of the audience; the reduction of license fees at least for popular recelvers and other taxes, and in less developed countries; the planning and production of special programes appealing to tinose groups in the audience which have a special interest in international affairs and developments; and, last but not least, better promotion of international broaàcasts, better listener relations and international audience research.

The development of existing facilities is a primary condition for the expansion of information broadcasts. It could be achieved in many ways: through the mass production of low-cost receivers; through the granting of special import licenses for radio and television sets and through economic devices similar to that of the Book Coupon Scheme of UNESCO; through practical instruction of the audience on how to use a receiver and to increase its capacity by simpie technical devices; by takine advantage oi the experience gathered in different parts of the world, and by adapting different reception methods to local needs.

Another step, which could be taken without too great difficuity, would be to ease the burden of listeners and of educational and cultural institutions

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by granting free licences to those who cannot afford to pay them or are active in the public interest. Only in one country does the proportion of free licences exceed 10 por cont of the total. The fact that the country which has adopted this practice (Ienmerk) is one of the most highly developed, clearly indicates how great the need for free licences really is, and that the radio audience could certainly be increased through the adoption of a more generous attitude on the part of the authorities. In any case, the structure of licence fees should be simplified, especially where four, five and more different rates are imposed upon the different categories of receivers and licence-holders. Likewise, it would probably be in the best interests of a country to reduce custom dutios for all low-cost recelvers in order to keep their retail price low, and to mane them accessible to a larger part of the population.

Most effective would be the adoption of a programme policy taking into account - to a far greater extent than is done today - the needs and interests of the gudionce and, particularly, of those groups in the audience who want to learn and to inform themselves. This may require in some cases a very great and difficult effort but special programmes for special audiences have always "paid off" and have made possible the building up of a large audience.

Radio could help to teach the people about the United Nations, about human rights, technical assistance and international co-operation, but certainly not all the people at the same time and in the same way. The story has to be told differently, to different audiences, even within the same country, and on different levels; in a simple way for children, for less educated people, for the masses of the listeners; in a more elaborate and concrete way, with all the facts, for students, for the educated, and for opinion leaders.

Radio reception, and in particular the reception of information, could be promoted if listerers knew more about radio programes. In some countries, programme magazines published by broadcasting organizations, are read by a considerable number of people but with one exception (the BBC "Radio Times") they only reach a limited percentage of listeners. Other means of promotion have to be developed, the most effective of which is probably a weekly one-page sheet distributed free, mailed to every radio owner and giving information about the principal broadcasts.

Ilstener interest and listener participation in programme operations should be stimulated and encouraged; it would help to activate the service and probably
also to increase the interest in international affairs. A programme in which the listener has taken a part, which he has suggested, and which his representatives are producing together with the professional broadcasters, will definitely appeal to the audience and ensure greater interest from the very beginning.

As a whole, it seems necessary to adopt a different and more constructive attitude towards the listener, to expand and intensify audience research and listener relations, and to find out how radio can best serve the people and how much and what can be done in order to convey information which is needed and warted by the audience.


[^0]:    17 According to the United Nations Statisticel Yearbook, 1949-50, illiteracy in some countries is still as high as 65 to 90 per cent.

[^1]:    I/Cf. Documentation and Information Bulletin, European Broadcasting Union, Vol. II, No. 6, p. 134 ( 15 March 1951) and Vol. II No. 7 (15 May 1951). p. 241.

[^2]:    I/ Cf.E/CN.4/Sub.1/107/Add.6.
    হ/ Cf. "Press, Film, Radio" Vol. III, p. 241, Report of the Commission on Technical Needs, UNESCO, Paris, 1949.

[^3]:    1) Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials, algned at Lake Success, New York on 22 November 1950.
    2) Cf. Article 3 of the Act of 14 May 1930 and Article 5 of the Royal Decree of 27 June 1930. Reply of Belgium to the Request for Information. See: Freedom of Information. A Compilation, Volume I, p. 154; United Nations Publications 1950. XIV, 1.
[^4]:    I/ Monthly Bulletin, International Broadcasting Union, January 1950, p. 4. 2/ Article 3 dealing with "Restrictions applied to the Ownership and Operation of Recelvers". Cf. Information and Documentation Bulletin, International. Broadcasting Organization, May 1950, page 52.

[^5]:    1/ Cf. Final Act of the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information E/CONT . $6 / 79$, p. 42.

