

INTRODUCTION TO JOURNALISM HANDOUT

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I. Introduction

I.1. What is Journalism?

Journalism is the discipline of gathering, writing and reporting news, and broadly it includes the process of editing and presenting the news articles. Journalism applies to various media, but is not limited to newspapers, magazines, radio, and television. While under pressure to be the first to publish its stories, each news media organization adheres to its own standards of accuracy, quality, and style — usually editing and proofreading its reports prior to publication. Many news organizations claim proud traditions of holding government officials and institutions accountable to the public, while media critics have raised questions on the accountability of the press. The word *journalism* is taken from the French *journal* which in turn comes from the Latin *diurnal* or daily. The *Acta Diurna*, a handwritten bulletin, was put up daily in the Forum, the main public square in ancient Rome, and was the world's first newspaper.

Journalism is the work of collecting and reporting news for different media organizations such as newspapers, magazines, television, radio, blogs and social media, etc. The product generated by such activity is called journalism. Journalism is a discipline of collecting, analyzing, verifying, and presenting news regarding current events, trends, issues and people. Those who practice journalism are known as journalists. So, journalism is a job done by people called journalists.

Journalism is about telling the right story, the right way.

The subject matter of journalism can be anything and everything, and journalists report and write on a wide variety of subjects such as politics, economics and business, social and cultural aspects at local, regional, national and international levels. Besides, journalists report on anything that news organizations think consumers or audiences will read them.

Journalism is timely reporting of events or occurrences at the local, provincial, national and international levels

It is the investigation and reporting of recent/timely events, issues and trends or previously unknown information to a broad audience through media [print, online and broadcast]

Journalism is about selection and presentation [Framing Theory]

Journalism involves the sifting and editing of information, comments and events into a form that is recognizably different from the pure form in which they first occurred.

Generally speaking journalism can also be defined as:

1. The collection and editing of news for presentation through the media
2. The public press
3. An academic study concerned with the collection and editing of news or the management of a news medium
4. Writing characterized by a direct presentation of facts or description of events without an attempt at interpretation
5. Writing designed to appeal to current popular taste or public interest

As a profession, it is markedly different from other established professions like medicine, law, [accounting, engineering, economy, political science], management or teaching. While the established professions require some specialized educational qualifications and training to be recruited to them, journalism does not make any such requirement essential. There is no bar to anyone entering the profession, no matter what one's educational background or professional experience is. From the very beginning, journalism has been, and still, remain an open profession.

It is sometimes suggested that any communication of information or the relaying of 'real' events is journalism. But this is certainly wrong.

For example:

- The broadcasting of proceedings in parliament, unvarnished and unadorned by any form of editing or commentary, is not journalism- it is merely the relaying of an event.
- The publication or broadcasting of football results is not journalism, it is merely information.
- The field of journalism includes, but not limited to, writing, editing, design, printing, photography or photojournalism, documentary, advertisement, film, etc.

I.2. Who are Journalists?

People who gather and package news and information for mass dissemination are called journalists. Journalists are those individuals working within an editorial board or newsroom (be it full-time or freelance) who perform one of five core journalistic tasks:

- a) Selecting
- b) Researching (or gathering);
- c) Writing (or processing)
- d) Editing
- e) Presenting

Journalists are no great respecters of authority and are very resourceful; most journalists are generalists; journalists rank very low in public esteem; journalists are never off duty.

A journalist is an important unit of the democratic system of every country. A journalist is supposed to gather facts, organize them and disseminate them to the masses. He also explains the significance of the facts and offers opinions on contemporary issues. He is expected to comment on matters of public interest in a fair, accurate, unbiased, sober, decent and responsible manner. Besides, journalists serve as the eyes and ears of their audience, but not their mind. This is because it is left to the reader to draw whatever conclusions are appropriate from the news – not the reporter.

Journalists are daily engaging in recording and interpreting events day-to-day. However, it is important to know that all writers and mass media staff members are not necessarily journalists.

There is a big difference between academic (professional) journalist and the ordinary (amateur) journalist

Features of academic journalists include:

- o Normally they take formal education in schools, colleges and universities;
- o Knows better about the principles of journalism;
- o They are aware about the ethical and unethical journalistic rules;
- o They have better know-how about the laws and rules of the land

Features of amateur journalists include:

- o Being journalists by experience;
- o Enter the field because of their personal interest;
- o Lacks depth and enough knowledge about the guidelines of journalism;
- o Absence of know-how onto the ethical principles of journalism
- o Most of them lacks awareness about the laws and rules of the land

A journalist is anyone concerned with the editorial side of a newspaper, TV or radio program, magazine or any of the new media outlets such as web pages.

In TV and radio news, researchers, producers, radio and TV presenters and reporters are journalists too.

Journalists are attracted by absolutes – words such as best, worst, biggest, dearest, last and first.

Most probably the following are some examples of Journalists: writers, editors, reporters [junior and senior reporters], photographers, videographers, camera crews, broadcast

presenters, producers and others who are the purveyors of information and opinion in contemporary mass society.

What is journalism for you?

Asking yourself the questions below will help you determine whether journalism is a good career choice for you.

- Do you regularly read at least one newspaper?
- Do you regularly watch or listen to television or radio newscasts?
- Is it important to you to keep up with current events?
- Are you interested in other people's lives?
- Are you able to talk to a wide variety of people?
- Do you work well to deadlines?
- Are you persistent and willing to dig for information?
- Have you mastered basic writing skills?

If you answered NO to even one of the above questions, you may want to think again about whether journalism is a good match for your interests and abilities.

I.3. Qualities of Good Journalists

There is no prescribed qualification for a journalist but not everyone can be a good journalist. A good journalist is sometimes born but more often he is fashioned out of the hard school of a rigorous test and training.

Good journalists have the following qualities

- ◆ **Intelligence:** to be able to understand complex issues.
- ◆ **Knowledge:** broad general knowledge and experience in order to understand a number of different areas and have the ability to go from one area to another easily.
- ◆ **Effective:** the ability to get things done; work under pressure; work well with others under pressure; be well organized.
- ◆ **Curiosity:** the need to be curious enough to go beyond the surface; look at things in a questioning manner; to seek information to find out about people, events, activities and to understand them; to be skeptical at times.
- ◆ **Comprehension:** the ability to analyze information, sort the important from the unimportant; understand what you're writing about.

- ◆ **Judgment:** gather information and learn to sort the important from the unimportant effectively; be able to weed out information, determining what readers need to know, what will make a complete, accurate article.
 - ◆ **Persistent (or courage):** knowing when to continue to seek or push for information, when to give up; the need to be energetic; not stopping just because someone says "no" (remember reporters Woodward and Bernstein and the obstacles they encountered unraveling the Watergate scandal, which forced the resignation of U.S. President Richard Nixon in 1974).
 - ◆ **Literacy:** grammatical skills; reading ability coupled with comprehension; acceptable writing skills.
 - ◆ **Motivation (or commitments):** the drive to work beyond the normal 8-hour day; journalists must cover the story when it occurs otherwise news is a perishable commodity.
 - ◆ **Personal Stability:** keeping your head when the world around seems to be falling apart; ability to remain professional and do the job even though you may be witnessing unpleasantness. One still-famous example is the radio reporter who was broadcasting when a large dirigible (blimp), the Hindenburg, exploded just before landing in 1937 in New Jersey. Although emotional, he kept reporting. In addition, the more stable you are, the more apt you are to treat people fairly and write objectively.
- ❖ **Creativity:** there are moments when nothing news worthily happens and this is when creativity comes into picture.
 - ❖ **Dependability:** a journalist should be able to create among the people trust for him. The news sources must trust the journalist completely.
 - ❖ **Skepticism:** a journalist should have the habit and quality to double-check everything before the final presentation.

Reporters are the people who get the story and write it in first draft form and they tend to be generalists. Anyhow, good and responsible reporters are expected to fulfill the following qualities as usual:

- ▶ He should not be biased
- ▶ He should write what he sees.
- ▶ He should follow the ethics of journalism.
- ▶ He should not mingle his own opinion in the story.
- ▶ He should try to provide complete and authentic information.
- ▶ He must have greatest sense of responsibilities.
- ▶ He must exercise care.
- ▶ He must try to find all sides to a story.
- ▶ He must not influence by fear or favor.

The media shape public opinion, but they are in turn influenced and manipulated by different interest groups in society

Media can promote social cohesion, integration and unity

The central purpose of journalism is to provide/cater citizens with accurate and reliable information. In other words, the primary purpose of journalism is to ensure a well informed citizenry for our social, economic and political structures.

The media can promote democracy. However, it can play antidemocratic roles as well. For example: Media can sow fear, division and violence so that in this manner the media instead of promoting democracy, they can contribute to democratic decay.

Examples,

a) Rwanda's genocide of 1994 that asked the lives of at least 800,000 to 1 million people.

b) Adolf Hitler was claimed that the German People as Aryans (Super-race). The Nazi policy of Adolf Hitler's time resulted in genocide, which is a planned killing of people for what they are. It is a form of ethnic cleansing. As a result of the genocide, six million Jews were killed between 1939 and 1945. They were massacred because they were Jews.

❖ Generally speaking the function of media can be list down as follows:-

1. **To Inform the Public** –“Information is the currency of democracy”; and according to Machiavelli “Information is power”
2. **To Educate the Public** – schools, colleges, and universities are not the only tools of educating people but also media plays its own role too.
3. **To Entertain** –the media help the people to escape the pressures of daily living – to avoid boredom, to relax, and to forget their problems.
4. **To persuade-** Attempt to lead rather than follow public opinion
5. **To Stimulate the Economy-** Advertisements for goods and services
6. **To Earn a profit for their owners-** “There is no Free Lunch”
7. **Watchdog role** - The mass media constitute the backbone of democracy. The media are supplying the political information that voters base their decisions on. They identify problems in our society and serve as a medium for deliberation. They are also the watchdogs that we rely on for uncovering errors and wrongdoings by those who have power. Edmund Burke coined the expression ‘the Fourth Estate’ with the quote: “There are three estates in Parliament but in the reporters’ gallery yonder sits a fourth estate more important far than they all”. Journalism has an important watchdog role: journalists are the eyes and ears of the public and help ensure that people, particularly those in public life, are acting properly and honestly.

1.4. Elements of Journalism

As Bill Kovach and Tom Rosenstiel write in their book –“*The Elements of Journalism: What News People Should Know and the Public Should Expect*”- there are some clear principles that journalists in a democratic society agree on and that citizens have a right to expect:

1. Journalism’s first obligation is to the truth

Democracy depends on citizens having reliable, accurate facts put in a meaningful context. Journalism does not pursue truth in an absolute or philosophical sense, but it can--and must--pursue it in a practical sense. This "journalistic truth" is a process that begins with the professional discipline of assembling and verifying facts. Then journalists try to convey a fair and reliable account of their meaning, valid for now, subject to further investigation. Journalists should be as transparent as possible about sources and methods so audiences can make their own assessment of the information.

2. Its first loyalty is to the citizens

While news organizations answer too many constituencies, including advertisers and shareholders, the journalists in those organizations must maintain allegiance to citizens and the larger public interest above any other if they are to provide the news without fear or favor. This commitment to citizens first is the basis of a news organization's credibility, the implied covenant that tells the audience the coverage is not slanted for friends or advertisers. Commitment to citizens also means journalism should present a representative picture of all constituent groups in society.

3. Its essence is discipline of verification

Journalists rely on a professional discipline for verifying information. When the concept of objectivity originally evolved, it did not imply that journalists are free of bias. It called, rather, for a consistent method of testing information--a transparent approach to evidence--precisely so that personal and cultural biases would not undermine the accuracy of their work. Journalism has developed various techniques for determining facts, for instance, seeking out multiple witnesses, disclosing as much as possible about sources, or asking various sides for comment, all signal such standards. This discipline of verification is what separates journalism from other modes of communication, such as propaganda, fiction or entertainment.

4. Its practitioners must maintain an independence from those they cover:

Independence is an underlying requirement of journalism, a cornerstone of its reliability. Independence of spirit and mind, rather than neutrality, is the principle journalists must keep in focus. While editorialists and commentators are not neutral, the source of their credibility is still their accuracy, intellectual fairness and ability to inform--not their devotion to a certain group or outcome. In our independence, however, we must avoid any tendency to stray into arrogance, elitism or isolation.

5. It must serve as an independent monitor of power

Journalism has an unusual capacity to serve as watchdog over those whose power and position most affects citizens. Journalists have an obligation to protect this watchdog freedom by not demeaning it in frivolous use or exploiting it for commercial gain.

6. It must provide a forum for public criticism and compromise

The news media are the common carriers of public discussion, and this responsibility forms a basis for our special privileges. This discussion serves society best when it is informed by facts rather than prejudice and supposition. It also should strive to fairly represent the varied viewpoints and interests in society, and to place them in context rather than highlight only the conflicting fringes of debate.

7. It must strive to make the significant interesting and relevant

Journalism is storytelling with a purpose. It should do more than gather an audience or catalogue the important. The effectiveness of a piece of journalism is measured both by how much a work engages its audience and enlightens it. This means journalists must continually ask what information has most value to citizens and in what form.

8. It must keep the news comprehensive and proportional

Keeping news in proportion and not leaving important things out are also cornerstones of truthfulness. Journalism is a form of cartography: it creates a map for citizens to navigate society. Inflating events for sensation, neglecting others, stereotyping or being disproportionately negative, all make a less reliable map. The map also should include news of all our communities, not just those with attractive demographics. Newsrooms best achieve this with a diversity of backgrounds and perspectives.

9. Its practitioners must be allowed to exercise their personal conscience

Every journalist must have a personal sense of ethics and responsibility – a moral compass. News organizations do well to nurture this independence by encouraging individuals to speak their minds. This stimulates the intellectual diversity necessary to understand and accurately cover an increasingly diverse society. It is this of minds and voices, not just numbers, which matter.

10. It is the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

These values distinguish journalism from all other forms of communication.

1.6. Types of Journalism**1. Fashion journalism:**

Fashion journalism is all about articles or reports related to the fashion world. Journalists are also known as fashion writers or fashion editors. The primary job is to cover the latest in the fashion business or develop lifestyle articles. Such fashion articles can be found in magazines and newspapers. Today, there are many television channels that cater only to fashion, which gives ample opportunity for journalists who have a passion to cover such topics.

2. News journalism

Here, the primary aim of the journalist is to report news in a straight-forward manner that covers all the required facts. The style is direct with focus on the gist of the story with other necessary points; the news style should be concise and precise. The facts must be crosschecked which makes the news item as authentic as possible without any media bias. Such news pieces often cover politics and social movements. News stories based on political suppression, public movements or abuse of human rights have proved instrumental in effecting many a social change, or giving voice to the oppressed. Similarly, cultural events are also covered in news journalism.

3. Celebrity journalism

As the name suggests, the journalist is connected to news and events related to celebrities from the entertainment world and also includes celebrities from other fields such as music, sports, dance, art, politics, etc. The journalism is all about news that is related to their professional and personal life. Reporting gossip is one of the angles of celebrity journalism, wherein journalists are often accused of misconstruing news or quotes in a deliberate fashion. This journalism is particularly popular with newspapers, magazines and television.

4. Investigative journalism

This type of journalism is about unearthing facts and studying cases that may require more efforts, which can take months or even years. Journalists who specialize in investigative journalism create headlines with news that expose scandals. Sometimes, persistent follow-up of a story proves beneficial to uncover some hitherto unsolved cases. This would require in-depth research from the journalist along with evidence.

5. Sport journalism

Here, journalists spend hours reporting on a particular sport event. A journalist has to report the accurate facts and statistics related to that event. Interviews with celebrity sport stars are yet one of the interesting features of sports journalism. Although sports-lovers watch the live coverage thanks to the media, there are many people who still enjoy reading or watching in-depth details about the event.

6. Citizen journalism

Here, it is not the professional journalists who are responsible for the news reports. Any citizen can participate and report news to the media. He/she collects and reports news to the media and participates voluntarily to offer help to the media. They bring to notice issues that may have been missed by media houses.

7. Environmental journalism:

There are many journalists who prefer to cover issues related to the environment and its protection and conservation. Environmental journalists may only report about the news while some work for a cause.

8. Business and finance journalism

Business journalism includes coverage of companies, the workplace, personal finance, and economics, including unemployment and other economic indicators. Here, the journalist or reporter covers in-depth reports about the latest in business, launch of products, stock markets etc. There are many shows dedicated only for business news on television whereas in newspapers, one can find a special section dedicated to this subject.

II. Historical overview of Journalism

2.1 History of Writing

Writing: The history of writing dates back to the various writing systems that evolved in the Early Bronze Age (late 4th millennium BC) out of Neolithic proto writing. The evolution of writing is said to have evolved from **proto-writing** which means pictorial messages /symbols/scribbles that cannot be called "actual -writing".

The Alphabets: The Egyptians were the first to come up with an alphabetical system around 2700 BC which comprised 22 hieroglyphs. Each hieroglyph began with a single consonant of its own language with or without a vowel. Initially, these glyphs were used as a guide for pronunciation of the logograms to mark grammatical intonation and record foreign names. This script passed on to many other civilizations and inspired different alphabetical systems like the Phoenician alphabets, Arabic scripts, Hebrew, Latin alphabets, Italic alphabets, Granolithic alphabets or the Cyrillic alphabets.

The **first pure alphabets** emerged around 2000 BC in Ancient Egypt but by then alphabetic principles had already been incorporated into Egyptian hieroglyphs for a millennium.

Although seemingly alphabetic in nature, the original Egyptian unilateral was not a system and was never used by them to encode Egyptian speech. In the Middle Bronze Age, an apparently "alphabetic" system is thought by some to have been developed in central Egypt

around 1700 BC for or by Semitic workers but we cannot read these early writings and their exact nature remains open to interpretation.

Over the next five centuries this Semitic "alphabet" seems to have spread north. All subsequent alphabets around the world with the sole exception of Korean, Hangul has either descended from it or been inspired by one of its descendants.

Generally, with the emergence of writing two problems had to be solved before a system of writing was invented.

1. The first had to do with what symbols were to be used to represent spoken sounds or ideas, and
2. The second, with what surface the symbols should be written on.

► **The first problem was solved in two ways.**

One early symbol system might be called ideogrammatic (picture based) or sign writing, in which each symbol was based on a picture that resembled the thing it stood for. E.g. Sumerian writing styles, hieroglyphics in Egypt, and sign writings in China. It requires to learn thousands of different pictographs that can represent various objects and actions.

The second type of writing system was based more on sound than signs. A group of letters, called an alphabet, was used to symbolize each of the sound that makes up a word.

► **The problem of a writing surface was solved in various ways.**

- The Sumerians used **soft clay tablets** to record their pictographs. It is inexpensive and durable, but not movable.
- The Egyptians made **papyrus**. It is cheap and easily movable, but not durable.
- Greco-Romains developed **parchment**, which is more durable than papyrus, but much more expensive to manufacture.
- Chinese developed the writing surface it was become the standard one that is **paper**.

The Significance of Writing/Social Impact

- In the first place, it creates a new division of society.
 - Literate Vs illiterate
 - Informed society (informative society) Vs Barbarians
 - Rulers /powerful Vs ordinary / common people
- Second, writing helped make possible the creation of empires.
 - It made organization easier
 - Tax collection and payment became efficient
 - Commodity exchange facilitated
 - Ease to preserve treasuries
- Third, writing made possible to preserve and nourish a permanent body of knowledge.

- ▶ Before writing, the transmission of knowledge from one generation to the next was hampered by the limits of human memory, forgetfulness, and distortion.
- ▶ Finally, writing made it possible to develop a consistent and enduring code of laws.
 - ▶ Before writing, there were no written laws on which decisions were based.
 - ▶ The first great legal document in history, the code of Hammurabi, was written in Sumerian around 2000 B.C.

2.2 History of the Print Media

2.2.1 History of Newspaper

In journalistic terminology, by “press” we mean “print media”. The term ‘Print Media’ in turn refer to Newspapers, Magazines, Periodicals, Books, Newsletters, Pamphlets [brochure, booklet], Minutes [notes, transcript, record], Single printed sheets and any other printed materials.

The advent of a writing system coincided with the transition from hunter-gatherer societies to more permanent agrarian encampments when it became necessary to count ones property.

For centuries, civilizations have used print media to spread news and information to the masses. The first recorded newspaper was a single sheet of news produced by the Romans in 59 BC. It was called *Acta Diurna*, which means ‘daily events’ or ‘daily actions’ or ‘activities of the day’ or ‘government announcements’. *Acta Diurna* was handwritten by slaves. Or, the Roman *Acta Diurna*, appearing around 59 B.C, is the earliest recorded “newspaper”. Julius Caesar, wanting to inform the public about important social and political happenings, ordered upcoming events posted in major cities. Written on large white boards and displayed in popular places like the Baths, the *Acta* kept citizens informed about government scandals, military campaigns, trials and executions.

Julius Caesar orders the major political and social events of the day to be made available to his citizenry. State appointed reporters, called “*actuarii*”, were gathering information on everything from wars and legal decisions to births, deaths, and marriages.

Broadcast radio exploded onto the media scene in the 1920s. Newspapers were forced to re-evaluate their role as society’s primary information provider. Like the new media technologies of today, the development of a low cost, alternative media source produced rumblings that radio would topple the newspaper industry. To respond to this new competition, editors revamped the paper’s format and content in order to broaden their appeal, and stories were expanded to provide more in depth coverage.

The least developed area of the world’s press is Africa. Some scholars hold that the press of Africa will not develop as an information medium as it has done in most other areas of the world. The reasons were

- a) The late start of a national press in most countries of the continent;
- b) The high illiteracy rates;
- c) The 1,000 different languages and dialects spoken in Africa;
- d) The high cost of publishing papers, and other factors.

Challenges to Print Media

- ❖ From its beginning, journalism was seen by the establishment as a threat to its existence, or at the very least those holding power in society were alarmed that their actions might be challenged.
- ❖ That is why the conflict between journalists and the elites has a long and unbroken record in almost every country throughout the globe.
- ❖ The authorities had a major weapon at their disposal to try and avoid unwelcome criticism: taxation, which was imposed on both the price newspapers and, most crucially, advertisements.
- ❖ Newspapers are in some financial difficulty over much of the world. Reasons include increasing production costs, particularly of newsprint, and a loss of advertising to radio and TV.
- ❖ The technological revolution of today is creating new challenges and opportunities for traditional media.

Defining features of newspapers

Both the online and the print renditions of the newspaper share some defining features.

First, the newspaper is made up of diverse content. Newspapers contain international, national and local news. In addition, they carry features, editorials, letter to the editor, classified ads, and a host of other materials. Their range of content is extensive.

Second, newspapers are conveniently packed. There are sections devoted to general news, financial news, sports coverage, and entertainment. In addition each story contains a headline that makes it easy for reader to decide if they want to peruse the rest of the story.

Third, newspapers are local. Reporters cover meeting of the local school board, the city council, and the zoning commission. They cover the local police station and tell about the new story opening in the local mall. Sports sections cover the hometown little league and high school teams. Local people with merchandise to sell use the classified ads. Newspapers are the only medium with the resources to report all the neighborhood activities in a community.

Fourth, more than any other medium, the newspaper serve as a historical record. One writer described newspaper journalism as the “first draft of history.” The typical paper contains a record of daily events, some profound, some not so profound, they influence our lives.

Fifth, as we have seen above, newspapers perform the watchdog role in our society. They monitor the workings of government and privet industry for misdeeds and wrongdoing.

Finally, newspapers are timely. News isn't useful if it's stale; daily publications and largest circulation newspaper recognizing this fact.

Frequency of newspaper

Daily

A newspaper to consider a daily it should be publishing five times a week. Saturday and, where they exist, Sunday editions of daily newspapers tend to be larger, include more specialized sections and advertising inserts, and cost more. Typically, the majority of these newspapers' staff work Monday to Friday, so the Sunday and Monday editions largely depend on content done in advance or content that is syndicated. Most daily newspapers are published in the morning. Afternoon or evening papers are aimed more at commuters and office workers. A daily newspaper also divides into market groups.

National newspaper

Most nations have at least one newspaper that circulates throughout the whole country. And only these are publications whose content is geared not for one particular city or region but for the entire country.

Large metropolitan dailies

Large metropolitan newspapers with also have expanded distribution networks and, with effort, can be found outside their normal area. It is big city paper.

Suburban Dailies

Suburban dailies, located in the areas surrounding the large cities, are experiencing a period of growth. Zoned editions newspapers often refine distribution of ads and news through zoning.

Small Town Dailies

The reader of this category has the papers to be sources of local information, for both neighborhood news and advertisement.

Weeklies newspaper

Weekly newspapers are common and tend to be smaller than daily papers. In some cases, there also are newspapers that are published twice or three times a week. In the United States, such newspapers are generally still classified as weeklies.

Special service weeklies

Special service newspapers are those aiming at several well defined audience segments. These are, for example, many newspapers published specifically for the African community. The African press in this country has a long history, dating back to 1827. Most early papers were stated to oppose discrimination and to help gain equal right and opportunities.

Minority weeklies

Hispanics make up the fastest growing minority group in America, and the Spanish language press has grown along with them. Minority newspapers are ethnic newspaper published in United States.

By format

Most modern newspapers are in one of the two sizes:

Broadsheets: 600mm by 380mm (23½ by 15 inches), generally associated with more intellectual newspapers, although a trend towards “compact” newspapers is changing this.

Tabloids: half the size of broadsheets at 380mm by 300mm (15 by 11¾ inches) and often perceived as sensationalist in contrast to broadsheets. And list common and the third type of format is **Berliner** or **Midi:** 470mm by 315mm (18½ by 12¼ inches).

Newspapers Online

Online papers do not differ from their print counterparts with regard to their primary function. Both gather, evaluate, and organize information. They differ significantly, however, in the way they distribute this news to their readers. Traditional newspapers are transmitted digitally to computers and handheld wireless media.

Online papers have certain advantages over traditional newspapers:

- Printed newspapers are limited by news hole, the amount of news that can be printed in one edition. Online papers have no such limitations. The full text of length speeches, transcripts of interviews, and extensive tables and graphs can be easily accommodates.
- Online papers can be updated continuously. There are no edition deadlines for online papers.

- Online papers are interactive. E-mail address, bulletin boards, and chat rooms allow readers to provide quick feedback to the paper. Many have searchable archives and links to other sites.

Newspaper organizations

Organizational structure of a newspaper

Journalism is not concerned only with writing and editing of newspaper and periodicals. The gathering and transmission of news, business management, advertising and other processes connected with the production of a newspaper also come under the purview of journalism.

The organizational set-up varies from newspaper to newspaper depending upon the size of the newspaper and the different services catered for the readers. Generally speaking, most of the newspapers have three main departments- editorial, business and mechanical.

Editorial wing

The editorial/news department is the heart of a newspaper. It deals with news, features, comments, columns and editorials. At the head of the department is the editor or editor-in-chief. The editor is assisted by the city editor, or chief reporter who has a team of reporters to cover the local events. In some newspapers, there are separate desks for national and foreign news, which are fed by new agencies and also by papers own correspondents. The editor is also assisted by critics in special fields such as theatre, music, films, etc. One important desk and its functionary head, i.e., the copy editor edits the copy and writes headlines.

The editor of a small newspaper combines in himself almost all the functions, i.e., gathering, editing and printing of news. He also solicits advertisements and look after the business side of the paper.

Business department

The second important department in a newspaper is the business department, which earns revenue for the newspaper. It is divided into two main division- advertising and circulation.

The advertisement department may have further sub-divisions such as advertisements for local display, classified advertisements etc. It may also have a research bureau and an art section to help in the preparation of advertisements.

The circulation department deals with the dispatch of copies to the city and beyond the city through road, rail and air. It may also have a promotional wing to boost up the circulation of the paper.

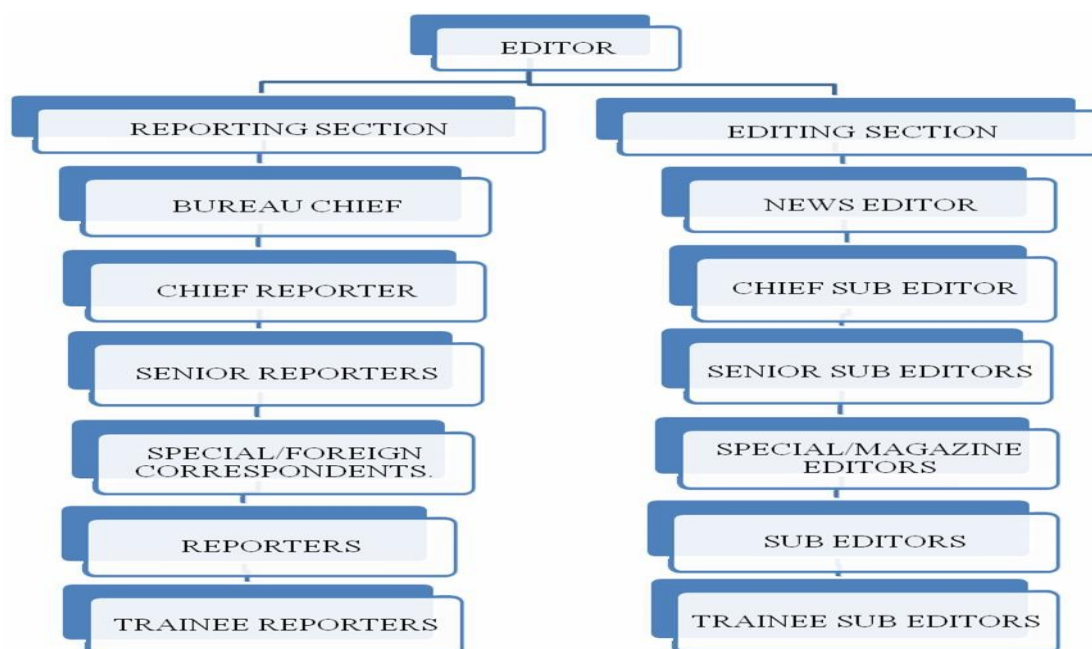
Mechanical department

The mechanical department generally is divided into four parts—composing, engraving, stereotyping and press. In the first, the copy is set into type. The engraving wing is concerned with photos and drawings and makes cuts for printing. In the stereotyping room, the plates for the press are cast in the molten metal from the page form. The papers are printed, folded, trimmed, counted and delivered to the mailing section by the press room.

The bigger newspapers have also separated administrative or coordinating as well as promotional departments. The administrative department looks after administration of different departments while the promotional department deals with all the promotional work in respect of advertisements and circulation. Also it helps to build up the image of the newspaper and endeavours to earn goodwill and understanding of the clientele.

Structure of the Editorial Department

Atop the editorial hierarchy ranks the editor or an editor-in-chief who plans and directs the day to day operations, supported by a team of news editors, chief sub editors, senior sub editors and sub editors. The news desk usually operates in shift and each shift is headed by a chief sub, also called as 'slot man'. Ideally in a newspaper, it is the news editor who plans and directs page making while the chief sub helps implement his decisions. Reporters and sub editors are the pillars of organizational hierarchy. The chief reporter supervises the bureau while the chief sub editor supervises the desk. The hierarchy of authority in the reporting and editing section is given below.



Editor: is responsible for the editorial content of the newspaper including everything from comics to news stories to editorials. It is the editor who can be sued for libel, who can be hauled up before Court, Parliament and legislatures for contempt.

News editor: coordinates the news collection process, the editing and the final presentation of news.

Chief sub editor: ensures that copies are judiciously distributed among the sub editors and also ascertains that the copies are edited properly and that they conform to publication style and editorial policy.

Sub editor: is described as “the mid wife to the story” and “an unsung hero of a newspaper”. Sub editors work on the copy prepared by reporters. They have no direct involvement in news events. Still they make the copy attractive.

Reporters and freelancers: Reporters are people who know how to dig out information whatever the source and no matter how hidden or obscure it is. A reporter gathers news and writes for his/her organization. A newspaper's reputation and credibility depends on the reporters. A reporter should have a nose for news, i.e., an understanding of news and news values and the ability to recognize a story when it comes along.

Reporters should be skilled at:

1. Seeing and hearing.
2. Taking notes.
3. Finding information.
4. Asking questions.
5. Checking and verifying information.
6. Analyzing and interpreting information.

Besides these skills reporters should also possess such qualities as alertness, curiosity, speed, punctuality, integrity, tactfulness, fearlessness and clarity of mind.

Freelancers

Freelance journalists are not attached to any newspapers or magazines. One who writes on all kinds of topics in several newspapers and periodicals without having a regular payroll is known as freelance writers.

Freelancers quite frequently keep in touch with media organizations and do assignments as per their needs. With a view to meeting their needs, freelancers have to complete these assignments as per the schedule of the publications.

Virtually, anybody can be a freelance writer. You must have the grit, determination and willingness to work hard besides possessing a good language.

Strengths of Newspapers:

- o Daily newspapers generally have the larger staffs and offer more depth on a wider range of topics than broadcast media
- o With introduction of online sites, many newspapers have begun to overcome the limitations of their traditional once-a-day publication schedule
- o Newspapers are more convenient, since they can be read at any time or place and provide a permanent record that is easy preserve.
- o Employing more reporters than the broadcast media and having more space, newspapers report dozens of minor stories that the other media ignore and cover local and regional affairs more thoroughly.
- o The print media as a whole tend to be more outspoken and courageous than the broadcast media.
- o A single newspaper or magazine is often passed on to several friends or family members, so many readers can take advantage of one.
- o Readers can read a story many times to confirm their understanding.
- o Some newspapers are published only on the Internet. These are called web newspapers. And they are available worldwide.

Weaknesses of Newspapers:

- o They largely reach only a literate, affluent audience, people who can read and who have enough money to buy newspapers or have access to a computer to read it online;
- o Newspapers cannot compete with the on-the-spot visual coverage at which television excels
- o In most developing nations, newspapers hardly reach the rural people and their circulation is deemed as few.
- o It is difficult to correct mistakes in print media frequently.
- o May be too expensive for some people.

2.2.2 History of Magazine

In different times different writers have been trying to search a definition for the word magazine. During the colonial time, in America the word magazine had its own definition. Magazine means warehouse or depository, a place where various types of provisions were stored under one roof.

The first magazines printed in America were patterned after this model; “the where to be store house of varied literary materials gathered from books, pamphlets and containing a variety of reading matter, it must be observed also that it has a strong connotation of entertainment.”

Also click defines magazine as “a publication appearing regularly and containing stories, articles etc” by various writers this definition clearly fits some newspapers as well as magazines.

Types of magazines

Often numerous ways to classify magazine by its content, it seems best to discuss a small number of basic groups:

Consumer magazines

Magazines sold at retail outlets are consumer magazine aimed at the general reading public. Women's and Home service magazines, Leisure time and Vocational Magazines, Metropolitan and Regional Magazine, Opinion Magazine.

Little Magazine

Magazines that published artistic work that is not commercially acceptable to large circulation magazines are called little magazines or little literary magazines. They claim originality, intellectual honesty, and literary influence, and they protest the smugness and security they believe accompany commercial success. Little magazines usually are more for their writers than for their readers.

Business Publications/Magazine

Magazines that serve a particular business, industry, or profession are classified as business publications. Also it referred to as trade journal. Business publications published four times a year. Many business publications are issued in newspaper format and emphasize news in their content. Some in a magazine format also emphasize news, blurring any distinction between magazines and newspapers.

Public Relations Magazines

Magazines can effectively win and maintain friends for business or nonprofit institutions. Many companies publish a number of magazines. PR magazines published by a sponsoring company or institution for circulation among one or more of its public's employees, dealers, customers, stockholders, or another interest group and usually carry no advertising, unless it is for the sponsor. These magazines are sometimes referred to as company magazines, house organs, or organizational magazines. The airlines in-flight magazines started as public relations magazines but have long accepted advertising and are now listed as consumer magazines by standard rate and date service.

Ownership of Magazine Industry

Magazines operate under a variety of ownerships. Three common structures are:

The multiple magazine publishing companies The multiple publisher issue several magazines and many operate each as a subsidiary, division or profit center it may operate

groups of magazines that way. If a single magazine or group loses money, corporation funds can be used to maintain operation until the magazine make money again or is suspended.

Diversified corporation or media conglomerate Operate in several media fields, such as magazine publishing, cable television, radio, and possibly newspaper publishing is also may have book clubs and direct mail sales operations. There is no big difference between it and a multiple publisher except that, as we describe them, the conglomerate is more widely diversified.

Single magazine publishing company Magazines may be actually only small part of the operation. Under this category single magazine is operated.

Structure of Magazine industry _

Department and staff of magazines

A typical magazine in general headed by a publisher who oversees four main departments: Circulation, Advertising, Production, and Editorial department.

Publisher

The publisher set the general policy for the publication. He or she is responsible for budgeting, maintaining healthy advertising position, keeping circulation high, and making sure the magazine has a consistent editorial direction. Strictly speaking, the publisher directs both the business and the editorial side of the publication, but most publishers tend to pay more attention to the financial operations and generally let the editor in chief make decisions concerning the content of the publication.

The Circulation Department

The department, under the supervision of the circulation director, is responsible for getting new readers and keeping current readers satisfied.

Responsible to the circulation director are the heads of three divisions:

1. The subscription manager, who tries to increase the number of people on the magazine's subscription list.
2. The single copy sales manager, who works with the nation distributors, wholesalers, and retailers and,
3. The subscription fulfillment director, whose division is the charge of making sure that the magazine gets to subscriptions, by taking care of address, renewals, new subscriptions, complaints, and so forth.

The Advertising and Sales Division

Under the supervision of an advertising director, the advertising and sales division is responsible for selling space in the magazine to potential advertisers. Also working in this department are the sales promotion manager, who is responsible for putting together new programs to enhance sales; the sales staff, which does the actual selling; the research directors, who studies the audience and compiles data of interest to advertisers.

The Production Department

The production department is concerned with actual printing and binding the publication. In charge of this department is the production manager, who buys paper, handles contracts with printers, orders new typesetting and computer equipment, and makes frequent visit to printing plants to make sure production is going smoothly.

The Editorial Department

The editorial department handles the non-advertising content of the magazine. The person in charge may be called the executive editor, the editor-in-chief, or simply the editor. Much of the editor's time is spent in supervising the editorial staff, planning topics for upcoming issues, informing the advertising department about plans, and taking part in various public relations activities. The day-to-day operation of the magazine falls on the shoulders of the managing editor. Making sure all articles are completed on time, selecting art-work, writing titles, changing layouts, and shortening stories are all functions performed by the managing editor. Helping the managing editor with these tasks are several editors who handle article, fiction, or other departments that appear regularly within the magazine. An art director designs the magazine, selects typefaces for headlines, and supervisors the display of photos and other illustrations.

Some magazines might have an additional department to handle their online operations. Others incorporate the online function into the traditional departments.

2.2.3 A Brief History of Radio

Like telephony, the origins of radio are embedded in a desire to improve the technology of telegraphy, specifically, a desire to free telegraphy from the wire that permitted the transmission of signals. One of the practical uses for this envisioned process would be to enable connections between geographical barriers. This would allow the connection of the English and French telegraph systems as well as allow users the ability to contact shipping. This embeddedness in telegraphy resulted in a paradigm of point-to-point communications, or a telegraphy paradigm.

Towards the end of the 19th century, there were various experiments with using radio waves to achieve wireless telegraphy. Guglielmo Marconi, an Italian electrical engineer, managed to develop a working model. Much of the initial usage of radio occurred within the telegraphy

paradigm, and was point-to-point, with the communication taking the form of morse code. Some of the early applications were contacting lighthouses, press reporting, military communications, and contacting shipping. Towards the early part of the 20th century, there were efforts made to transmit voice wirelessly. This movement was influenced by the development that were occurring with telephony. There were also early experiments with radio broadcasting, influenced by a broadcasting paradigm.

The broadcasting paradigm was urged along by amateur enthusiasts during a period of time when there was relatively little corporate interest in the technology. Accompanying the adoption and appropriation by everyday users was a great deal of discourse on the potential social implications of the technology. Radio as a cutting-edge technology continued to be adopted by enthusiasts, and the buzz was taken up by hobbyist magazines.

The growing popularity of radio gradually lead to technical issues associated with radio wave congestion, and regulators assigned them to short wave bandwidth. Before World War I, there were a number of amateur radio broadcasts in both voice and morse code. These broadcasts grew followings, showing the demand for content relayed through this technology.

After the War, a US company, Westinghouse, began producing radio sets for a commercial market. A crop of new radio stations rose up and many were staffed and run by former hobbyists. By the 1920s, radio had become firmly entrenched in a broadcast paradigm.

As the technology became further commodified, its general design changed, to ease appropriation into domestic spaces. At the same time, coverage of the medium began focusing on the content instead of the technology. Radio began to have various cultural attributes associated with it, such as a source of comfort in difficult times; an activity for families to collectively enjoy; a recreational pastime, etc.

Government Regulation

Early radio regulation did not anticipate the success of broadcasting. As more and more stations went on the air during the 1920s, interference became a tremendous problem and the government lacked the authority to do anything about it.

Congress finally acted to resolve this situation by passing the Radio Act of 1927. This act set up the Federal Radio Commission (FRC), a regulatory body that would issue licenses and try to clean up the chaos that existed. The commission defined the AM broadcast band, standardized channel designations, abolished portable stations, and moved to minimize interference.

Radio in the Digital Age

Radio has moved slowly into the digital age. Thousands of radio stations have websites, and many now offer streaming radio. Broadcasters got their wish in the late 1990s when an IBOC

(in-band, on-channel) system of digital broadcasting was developed. Digital radio broadcasting has several advantages. First, it improves sound quality. An AM digital signals sounds as good as a traditional FM signal; digital FM signals sound as good as CDs. Further, digital signals are virtually static-free.

Satellite Radio - Digital radio has paved the way for some potentially major competition to over-the-air radio. Two companies plan to start a “direct from satellite to car radio” digital service in 2001. This service will be commercial-free; subscribers will pay about \$10 a month for up to 100 channels of music, sports, and talk programming. General Motors and Ford are major investors in this new venture.

Satellite radio faces some major challenges. The appropriate satellites have to be launched into the proper orbits. Further, people are not used to paying money for radio programming. These facts notwithstanding, the radio industry is somewhat concerned about the potential of satellite radio because it reaches consumers in their cars, a listening situation that analog radio currently monopolizes.

Internet-Only Stations

Another challenge to traditional analog radio comes from the 300 or so Internet-only broadcasters. While satellite radio service target listeners in cars, Internet-only stations are competing for the audiences that listen to radio at work. The web broadcasters offer dozens of specialized music genres (such as reggae and techno-rock) with limited commercials. In addition to the wider variety of music, Internet-only stations also offer chat rooms, e-commerce, and original content.

Defining Features of Radio

Radio is portable. Some radio sets, like the Walkman, are small and personal. Others, like the boom box, are big and public. No matter their size, radio sets are easily transported and go everywhere – the beach, sporting events, jogging trails, the workplace. Car radios provide news and entertainment to commuters on their way to and from work. In fact, it's hard to find a place where radio can't go.

Radio is supplemental. Most radio listening occurs while we are doing something else – driving, working, studying, falling asleep, waking up, cleaning, and so on. Radio is universal. Radio is selective.

Local Stations, Nets, and Syndicators

Local radio stations operate in cities, towns, and villages across the country.

The distinction between a net and a syndication service is that all stations on a network carry the net program at the same time, while syndicated programming is carried at different times

by the stations. In practice, however, much syndicated programming is satellite-delivered and carried simultaneously, and many network affiliates tape net programming and broadcast it later. To make it more complicated, the traditional networks also offer syndicated programs. Consequently, the distinction between the two services may no longer be meaningful.

AM and FM Stations

Broadcast radio stations are either AM or FM. AM stands for amplitude modulation, and FM stands for frequency modulation. Since about 1975 the fortunes of FM radio have been increasing while those of AM stations are on the decline.

All physical factors being equal, radio signals sent by AM travel farther, especially at night, than signals sent by FM. AM stations are further classified by channels. There are three possible channels: clear, regional, and local. A clear channel is one with a single dominant station that is designed to provide service over a wide area. Typically, these dominant stations have a strong signal because they have broadcast with 50000 watts of power. A regional channel is one shared by many stations that serve fairly large areas. A local channel is designed to be shared by a large number of stations that broadcast only to their local communities.

FM signals do not travel as far as AM, but FM has the advantage of being able to produce better sound qualities than AM. FM radio is also less likely to be affected by outside interference such as thunderstorms. Similar to AM, FM stations are organized in classes. Class C FM stations are the most powerful, operating at 100000 watts. Class B and Class A stations are less powerful. A glance at the FM dial of a radio reveals that FM stations operate in a different part of the electromagnetic spectrum than does AM. The AM versus FM distinction does not apply to digital radio signals.

Station Format - Perhaps the most meaningful way we can organize radio stations is according to their format, a type of consistent programming designed to appeal to a certain segment of the audience. A format gives a station a distinctive personality and attracts a certain kind of audience that advertisers find desirable. In fact, the development of radio after 1960 is marked by the fine-tuning of existing formats and the creation of new ones that appeal in distinct demographic and lifestyle categories. Most modern stations can offer an amazingly precise description of the kind of listeners they want their format to attract. The three basic categories of radio formats are: music, news/talk, and ethnic. Music is the largest category and includes many subdivisions and variations. Black and Ethnic formats aim for special audiences that are defined primarily by race and nationality.

Noncommercial Radio

Many of the early radio stations that went on the air during the 1920s were founded by educational institutions. As the commercial broadcasting system became firmly established, many educational stations were bought by commercial broadcasters, and the fortunate of

noncommercial radio dwindled. In 1945, with the coming of FM broadcasting, the FCC set aside several frequencies for educational broadcasting.

Most noncommercial radio stations are owned by educational institutions or private foundations. Noncommercial radio gets its support from the institutions that own the stations. Ultimately, much of this support comes from tax revenue since taxes support most public educational institutions. Other sources of support are endowments (gifts), grants from foundations or the federal government, and listener donations. Noncommercial stations are served by National Public Radio (NPR).

Structure of Radio Station

The departmental structure of a radio station varies according to its size. Obviously, a small station with five or six employees has a departmental setup different from that of a large station with a hundred-person staff.

The two top management positions are the general manager and the program director. The manager has the responsibility for planning and carrying out station policy, maintaining contact with community, and monitoring program content, audience ratings, and sales information. The program director is responsible for the station's sound. He or she supervises the music or other program material that the station broadcasts and is also responsible for the hiring and firing of announcers and DJs.

Most stations are divided into the four departments. The sales department consists of the sales manager and the station's sales force. The news department is responsible for compiling the station's local newscasts and rewriting the wire service reports of national and regional news. The engineering department, under the supervision of the chief engineer, is staffed with technicians responsible for keeping the station on the air and maintaining the equipment.

Sources of Revenue

Radio stations earn their money by selling advertising time. The amount that a radio station charges for time is included in its rate card.

General Expenses

Expenses in radio are divided into five areas: (1) technical, (2) programming, (3) selling, (4) general administration, and (5) news. Technical expenses include the payroll for the engineering staff and the cost of maintaining and replacing technical equipment. Program costs cover salaries paid to talent, cost of tape and CDs, and music fees paid to the music licensing organizations. Sales costs are made up of the salaries of the sales staff and all the other expenses that go with selling. General administrative expenses include the salaries of all management, secretarial, and clerical personnel; the depreciation of physical facilities; the

cost of office supplies; and any interest that is due on loans to the station. News expenses consist of the costs involved in covering local and national stories.

Strengths and weaknesses of Radio

Strengths of Radio

- o Radio, one of the most widely used sources of news in the world, has the advantage of speed and easy availability;
- o Radio is the fastest means of disseminating news. In other words, radio reports the news more quickly than newspapers.
- o It can be received in areas without electricity since it uses batteries
- o Radio brings that world to those who cannot read and helps maintain a contact for those who cannot see.
- o Its production is relatively cheap or inexpensive
- o Live broadcasting of radio news is easy
- o It is versatile - we can listen it in the bedroom, the bathroom, shower, at the breakfast table, when you are waking up, driving a car, talking, doing housework, studying, playing at the beach, shaving.
- o Radio is the most immediate, intimate and accessible
- o Books and magazines can be stopped at national frontiers but radio is no respecter of territorial limits. Its signals clear mountain barriers and cross ocean deeps.
- o Radio news is on the air many times a day, so it is frequently updated;
- o Radio reporters tell stories with sound as well as words, so listeners feel they have experienced some of what the event was really like;
- o Radio is the most important mass medium in Africa now and will continue to play the most important role in information dissemination for many years; only after a far greater proportion of the populace become literate will newspapers grow significantly in importance for the people as a whole.

Weaknesses of Radio

- o Most radio stations provide only a limited amount of time for each newscast, which tends to be a short summary of only the biggest stories; in other words, radio cannot deliver too much information quickly
- o Radio stories lacks depth or breadth unlike newspapers;
- o It relies on sound only
- o It is subject to atmospheric and other barriers over long distance
- o Some people do not have access to a radio.
- o Radio is not useful for teaching people how to perform an activity that requires a demonstration, such as opening a condom packet, putting on a condom, or disposing of a condom correctly.

- o If listeners do not hear or understand the message correctly, they do not have an opportunity to ask for an explanation.

2.2.4 A Brief History of Television

The television is one of the most prominent inventions of the 20th Century. It has become one of the most common ways people view the larger world beyond them, as well as being one of the best ways for people to escape from the world.

In the 1880s a German inventor created simplistic moving images using a filtered light viewed through a spinning disk, laying the foundations for the modern television. During the 1920s a number of scientist began experimenting with sending still images using radio waves. However, it was in 1928 that General Electric first combined the idea of a device that could show moving images with the technology to wirelessly broadcast them.

During the 30s and 40s the technology was gradually improved upon. In America the first regular broadcasts began in 1939 though it was not until after the Second World War that the television as a standard home appliance began to really take off. After 1945 television sales in America skyrocketed. The first colour broadcast was made in 1954.

Throughout the rest of the world, television came years later, and it wasn't until the late 1960s that a television was commonplace in houses throughout the West. By the 1970s, television had become the dominant media force it is today, with 24 hour programming, mass advertising and syndicated shows.

In the 1980s satellite television shrunk the world, making live feeds from other countries and time zones possible. The new millennium brought the advent of digital television, which is the future of television.

The Golden Age of Television

Many broadcast historians refer to the 1950s as the golden age of TV. Many shows aired during that decade became extremely popular. "Toast of the Town," hosted by Ed Sullivan, is still regarded as the best example of the variety series. "Texaco Star Theater," starring ex-vaudevillian Milton Berle, prompted many people to buy TV sets just to see what wacky stunts Berle would pull off on his next program.

Live prestige drama was also in prime time. The growing popularity of videotape, however, put an end to these live productions.

By the end of the 1950s, a new genre, the adult Western, in which character and motivation overshadowed gunfights, dominated TV.

Television in the Digital Age

The digital age for television began on April 3, 1997, when the Federal Communications Commission adopted rules that changed the way television is to be transmitted. The TV pictures on your set at the turn of the 21st century use the same basic technology that was developed during the 1930s – the analogue method. A beam of electrons scans an image and creates electrical signals; at the receiving end, the signal is converted back to an electron beam that bombards a fluorescent screen and creates an image. With digital television (DTV), the image is still scanned but the signals is a binary one, assigning bits of code to each pixel on a TV screen that define the color and the brightness of the pixel and recreate the original image.

Defining Features of Television

Like radio, TV is a universal medium. Although not quite as portable as radios, miniature TV sets make it possible to take TV anywhere. Television has become the dominant medium for news and entertainment for Americans. Surveys have consistently revealed that most people choose television as their main source of news. In addition, in the average American household, the TV set is on for about seven hours every day.

Organization of the Broadcast television Industry

The commercial television system consists of all those local stations whose income is derived from selling time on their facilities to advertisers. Noncommercial television consists of those stations whose income is derived from sources other than the sale of advertising time.

TV industry is divided into three segments: (1) production, (2) distribution, and (3) exhibition. The production element is responsible for providing the programming that is ultimately viewed by the TV audience. The distribution function is handled by the TV networks, cable, and syndication companies. The exhibition of television programs – the element in the system that most people are most familiar with – is the responsibility of local TV stations.

Production

There are basically three sources: (1) local production, (2) syndicated programming, and (3) for some stations, network programs.

Distribution

The three main elements in the distribution segment of television are the broadcast networks, cable networks, and the syndication companies. The network distributes programs to its affiliates by transmitting them by satellite. Cable network beam their programs via microwaves to satellites where they are, in turn, down linked to local cable system. Syndication companies provide another kind of program distribution. These organizations lease taped or filmed programs to local television stations in each local market.

Exhibition

Some TV stations are licensed to broadcast in the very-high-frequency (VHF) band of the electromagnetic spectrum; these stations occupy channels 2 through 13 on the TV set. Other stations broadcast in the ultra-high-frequency (UHF) part of the spectrum; these stations are found on channels 14 through 69. VHF stations have a signal that covers greater distances than UHF stations. Consequently, VHF stations tend to be more desirable to own and operate. These differences will not be as important after the move to digital TV.

TV Online

Promoting their products is the main function of the online sites of TV organizations. Each of the networks maintains at least one website.

Producing Television Programs

There are many different staffing arrangements in television stations. Some big city stations employ 300 to 400 people and may be divided into a dozen different departments. Small-town stations may have 20 to 30 employees and only a few departments.

The general manager, found at the top, is responsible for all station activities. The sales department is responsible for selling time to local and national advertisers, scheduling ads, and selling bills to customers. Maintaining all the technical equipment is the responsibility of the engineering department. The production department puts together locally produced programming. At many stations the programming functions is also handled by this department. Those involved in programming decide what programs should be broadcast and at what times they should be presented. The news department includes the news director, anchor people, reporters, and writers responsible for the station's newscasts. The administrative department aids the station manager in running the station.

Commercial Time

There are three different types of advertisers who buy time on TV: (1) National advertisers, (2) National spot advertisers, and (3) Local advertisers.

National advertisers are those that sell general-consumption items. These advertisers try to reach the biggest possible audience for their messages and usually purchase commercial time on broadcast network programs or cable networks. In contrast, other advertisers have products that are used mainly in one region or local. These companies turn to national spot buying. Finally, there are many local businesses that buy advertising time from TV stations. They purchase time on one or more TV stations or cable system located in a single market.

Strengths and weaknesses of Television

Strengths of Television

- With both sound and pictures, television newscasts can show viewers what is happening, not just tell them about it.
- Its ability to convey emotion and share experiences with viewers.
- TV allows you to show people how to do something
- People can see and hear role models acting out positive behavior on Television

Weaknesses of Television

- The medium's dependence on pictures can be a drawback: Television news sometimes avoids telling complicated stories because they are not visually compelling;
- Television is not generally good at debate or in-depth exploration of issues
- TV may not be available in all areas of the country
- Televisions are too expensive for many people
- Producing a TV programme can be more expensive than radio or print media
- If the listener does not hear or understand the message correctly, he or she does not have an opportunity to ask for an explanation

2.2.5 Web Journalism

About a decade into it, few doubt that Web journalism is distinct from print or broadcast media. The **technical** differences as well as the differences in **presentation** and **content** are obvious. Deeper distinctions are either emerging or are in the process of developing.

When the broadcast media took shape, it adopted many principles and practices of the print media. At the same time, it had its own strengths and limitations that encouraged its growth as distinct media.

Online media heralds the **convergence** of what were seen as components of print and broadcast media= text, graphics, audio and video. It is carried by a new technology that has linked virtually every corner of the world. The synergy helps it to surpass everything that the media world has seen so far.

While the print and broadcast media are constrained by **space and time**, the online media is in possession of seemingly endless space for publication. It has a global reach and the content is online for 24 hours a day and seven days a week.

Apart from convergence, a distinct feature of online media is **hyperlinking**- the technology that culls information from all over the world and bestows the user with a kind of omnipresence. Billions of pages of information, millions of pages of news reports, are now online that the reader can access with the click of a mouse.

As readers become their own storytellers the role of 'gatekeeper' is largely passed from the journalists to them. Thus, the gate keeping functions of media has been eroded with the advent of online media. However, journalism exists only where there is gate keeping and some kind of cross checking and filtering. The new technology definitely has diminished the agenda setting capabilities of media as the readers have direct access to different sources, especially the primary sources on the Web. The hyperlinks allow the readers to leave the narration (of a story) any time and follow different paths.

However, all the readers do not have the skills to be the gatekeepers and online media is not necessarily the portal without guards. Value would accrue to a news site when gatekeepers are present. Journalists can make sense of a barrage of information on a given topic and **add perspective**. This can even be done using hyperlinks selectively and prudently. Better analysis and depth are possible on the Web than radio and television. As technologies improve and mature, news sites can even surpass print with the use of hyperlinks, online data, database driven Web sites and other innovations.

Characteristics of Web Journalism

The last few years of the 20th century saw the rapidly expanding development of journalism on the internet and the World Wide Web. Although there has undoubtedly been much hype surrounding the Internet and news provision, the new media does fundamentally alter the relationship between journalist, news source and news consumer. In the same vein, the impact of the Internet and other new information – and communication technologies on the profession of journalism should not be underestimated. The Internet is changing the profession of journalism in at least three ways:

- A) It has the potential to make the journalist as an intermediary force in democracy superfluous;
- B) It offers the media professional a vast array of resources and sheer endless technological possibilities to work with;
- C) And it creates its own type of journalism on the Net: so-called digital or rather online journalism.

Online (also known as 'cyber', 'wired' or 'cable') journalism is seen as gathering and distributing original news content on the internet. Online journalism can be functionally differentiated from other kinds of journalism by using its technological component as a determining factor in terms of (operational) definition. They further argue that new journalism is not only online journalism, but it can be applied to all media. The literature suggests that the essential characteristics of online journalism (Internet) are:

Interactivity: Interactivity of the Web, including choice before the readers to wander off from a given story through hyper linking, reduces editorial control.

Convergence: The Web has made convergence of text, pictures, graphics, audio and video possible. News sites can now combine all these to present news stories.

Customization of content: Although the literature speaks of 'personalization' or 'individualization', a reflection on the current practices and ideas in online journalism suggests it is better to use customization of content as the defining characteristic here.

Hypertextuality: refers to the specific nature of journalism online, which is the professional aspect of offering information about information – producing 'beyond information' if you will.

Significance and Weakness of New Media

Significance of New Media

- In contrast with especially the broadcast medium, web news user, cannot be passive – they are required to make decisions and choices all the time they are surfing. Similarly, unlike the print medium, the web news consumer is not limited to viewing only what is in the contents of that product.
- The new journalism is a job with multiple skills, formats and employment patterns at the same time –and at once functionally differentiated and more holistic profession.
- The publics are perfectly capable to access news and information for themselves.
- One of the most obvious differences is that the web user can see the primary sources of journalism
- The Internet provides new outlets for journalists to market and present their 'own' work, rather than rely on existing organizations
- Unlike traditional media broadcasting techniques, Internet is 'very cheap' and easy to access. Besides, Internet has all the features that traditional media already has, so this led people to invest in Internet journalism
- The internet was seen as a possible way of cutting newspapers' printing and distribution costs
- Internet (new media) based websites were easier to reach and also did not required any extra payments so these features made it very useful amongst the people
- The speed at which news can be disseminated on the web, and the profound penetration to anyone with a computer and web browser, have greatly increased the quantity and variety of news reports available to the average web user.
- Most news websites are free to their users. But, there are exceptions like the Wall Street Journal website, for which a subscription is required to view its contents.
- The Internet is revolutionizing the way we work
- Newspapers, magazines, TV and radio have recognized the threats and opportunities the Web represents, so have embraced 'New Media' with enthusiasm
- The positive effect of web is that news can be disseminated more quickly and widely than the traditional media. For this reason, the Internet described as a "media bypass".
- Journalists use the web as a source of news in two different ways:

Weakness of New Media

- The web can reinforce prejudice
- The new opportunities of new media will, as always, favour the privileged, while people on the other side of the 'digital divide' will stay to rely on public service oriented mediators
- Online media is the site of Satanist activities such as posting pornography
- New media is serving as new means of cultural imperialism
- "Terrorist" groups and illegal political actors may use it to destabilize countries and especially those in power.
- It kills the golden time of young generation
- There is little room for abiding by the ethical canons of journalism

III. News

3.1 What is News?

News is a noun clearly linked with journalism – and therefore a good starting point for analyzing the whole concept of journalism.

The first point to make clear is that 'News' does not happen. Events happen, and news is produced by reporting some events. Therefore, a single event to become news it must be passed, or the news production process goes, through a number of steps: Relevance and Topicality are the key ones. Resources and budgets are also important.

News is very time sensitive- news is a perishable commodity; that is why many companies fail to obtain publicity because they do not realize this.

News must be new. That is what the word means. New, however, is a relative concept to journalists. It generally means 'new to me', but it may not be new to you.

News is a report of recent events and happenings or previously unknown information

News is economical [short] in its nature.

The answer to the question "What is news?" may seem obvious. News is what is new; it is what is happening. Look it up in the dictionary, and you will find *news* described as "a report of recent events or previously unknown information." However, most of the things that happen in the world every day do not find their way into the newspaper or onto the air in a newscast.

Commonly, news content should contain the "five Ws" and 'H' of an event. There should be no questions remaining unanswered.

Five Ws and H: the primary questions a news story answers –

- o Who?
- o What?
- o Where?
- o When?
- o Why? and
- o How?

Etymology of News

- The term Etymology refers to the study of word origins, or the history of a word.
- Hence regarding the word “News”, one theory is that news developed as a specific use of the plural form of ‘new’ in the 14th century. This means is that the word “News” comes from the plural of the word ‘new’
- On the other hand, A Folk Etymology suggests that it is an acronym, word formed from the initials or other parts of several words, of the cardinal directions: North, East, West, and South.

3.2 Types of News

A) Hard News/Breaking News:-

- Hard news is essentially the news of the day. It is what you see on the front page of the newspaper or the top of the Web page, and what you hear at the start of a broadcast news report.
- Hard news stories deserves a lively lead/intro so as to catch up the interest of the reader
- Hard news are more serious and timely topics
- Hard news are spot news; live and current news in contrast to features
- Breaking news are most immediate
- Hard news stories are short, very timely and focus on telling you what's just happened starting with the most important thing first.
- Most of the time hard news happen out of the blue,
- Some examples of frequent hard news topics, include:
 - ✓ Plane/Train/Car crashes
 - ✓ Earthquakes
 - ✓ Earth slides
 - ✓ Floods
 - ✓ Hurricane [storm, cyclone]
 - ✓ Accidents or emergencies
 - ✓ War:

- o internal instability/civil war,
 - o international war or war between two or more countries,
 - o proxy war or waging a war through puppet friendly governments or countries on a third party (country),
- ✓ Politics:
- o debate of general elections[e.g., the 2005 heated/passionate debate among political parties in the Ethiopian general election then]
 - o political scandals/doing shameful act,
 - o political assassinations/killings/murder,
 - o coup d'état /taking political power illegally via overthrow [you can take what Derg did on Emperor Haile Selassie I in 1974,
 - o death of country leaders:
- ✓ Business [stock markets boom/unexpected profit gain/be suddenly prosperous; or bankruptcy],
- ✓ Crime (e.g., robbery, sedition)
- ✓ A strike announced today by the city's bus drivers that leaves thousands of commuters unable to get to work is hard news. It is timely, controversial, and has a wide impact close to home. The community needs the information right away, because it affects people's daily lives.

B) Soft News/Diary Stories/Features/Human Interest Stories:-

- Soft news are usually lighter topics
- Soft news is a term used in journalism to describe stories that fit the criteria of less time sensitive.
- A story about a world-famous athlete who grew up in an orphanage would fit the definition of soft news. It is a human-interest story involving a prominent person and it is an unusual story that people likely would discuss with their friends. However, there is no compelling reason why it has to be published or broadcast on any particular day. By definition, that makes it a feature story.
- Some examples of Soft News include lifestyles, clothing, home and family, the arts, entertainment, infotainment, pets, food, health and medicine, sports, hobbies and recreation, education, sex and relationships, animal sanctuaries and so forth.

3.3 Values of News

News is what is new; it is what is happening. However, most of the things that happen in the world everyday do not find their way into the newspaper or onto the air in a newscast. So what makes a story newsworthy enough to be published or broadcast? The real answer is that it depends on a variety of factors. News is information that is of broad interest to the intended

audience, so what big news in Lagos may not be news at all in Addis Ababa or Robe. Journalists decide what news to cover based on many of the following “news values”. Despite this fact, however, ‘News value’ is not absolute – it depends on what other stories are around.

1. Timeliness

- Something just happened or is going to happen very soon
- Did something happen recently or did we just learn about it?
- The meaning of “recently” varies depending on the medium, of course. For example, weekly newspaper Vs 24- hour cable news channel

2. Impact

- Are many people affected or just a few?

3. Proximity

- Did something happen close to home, or did it involve people from here? A plane crash in Russia will make headlines in that country, but it is unlikely to be front-page news in Ethiopia unless the plane was carrying Ethiopian passengers.

4. Controversy

- Are people in disagreement about this? It is human nature to be interested in stories that involve conflict, tension, or public debate. People like to take sides, and see whose position will prevail.

5. Prominence

- Is a well-known person involved? Ordinary activities or mishaps can become news if they involve a prominent person like a prime minister, presidents, or a film/music star.

6. Currency

- Are people here talking about this? A government meeting about bus safety might not draw much attention, unless it happens to be scheduled soon after a terrible bus accident.
- Is it relevant, important or interesting to the audience?

7. Oddity

- Is what happened unusual?
- How unusual is it?

- How new or different is it?
- According to John Bogart (1918): “When a dog bites a man that is not news, because it happens so often. But if a man bites a dog, that is news.”

3.4 Where the News Comes From

Journalists find news in all sorts of places, but most stories originate in one of three basic ways: naturally occurring events, like disasters and accidents; planned activities, like meetings and news conferences; and reporters’ enterprise.

Unplanned events

Unplanned events frequently become major news stories. A ferry sinking, a plane crash, a tsunami, or a mudslide is newsworthy not just when it happens but often for days and weeks afterwards. The extent of the coverage depends in part on proximity and who was involved. A fatal automobile accident in Paris might not be big news on any given day. But an accident in Paris in 1997 was a huge news story, not just in France but also around the world, because one of the victims was Britain’s Princess Diana.

Witness

Citizens who witness a disaster will often contact a news organization. Journalists also learn about these events from first responders: police, fire, or rescue officials. In some countries, news organizations are able to monitor emergency communications between first responders and can dispatch journalists to the scene quickly so they can watch the story unfold.

The daily schedule

In many newsrooms, the most obvious source of news is **the daily schedule** of events in town, which includes government meetings, business openings, or community events. Often called a “daybook,” this list of activities is not automatically newsworthy but it provides a good starting point for reporters searching for news. Reporters who regularly cover specific kinds of issues or institutions, also called “beat” reporters, say they often get story ideas by looking at agendas for upcoming meetings.

Press releases

Press releases can be another source of news, but again, they are just a starting point. Dozens of press releases arrive in newsrooms every day, by mail, by fax, or even on video via satellite. Government officials and agencies generate many of them, but other large organizations like private businesses and non-profit groups also issue press releases to let the news media know what they are doing. A press release may resemble a news story but because it is produced by someone with a vested interest in the subject it is not likely to tell the complete story. Press releases may be factually correct, but they usually include only

those facts that reflect positively on the person or organization featured in the release. Even if a press release looks newsworthy, a professional journalist first must verify its authenticity, and then begin asking questions to determine the real story before deciding if it is worth reporting.

Staged events

Staged events, such as demonstrations, also can produce news, but journalists must be wary of being manipulated by the organizers who want to tell only their side of the story. Politicians have become adept at staging events and “photo opportunities” in order to attract coverage, even when they have no real news value. That does not mean journalists should ignore these events, but only that they need to do additional reporting to get a complete story.

Own enterprise

Most reporters say their best stories come from their **own enterprise**. Sometimes story suggestions come from strangers, who may visit, telephone, or e-mail the newsroom with a complaint or concern. Some news organizations actively solicit ideas from people who live in the communities they serve, by providing a telephone number or an e-mail address where suggestions can be submitted. Journalists spend a lot of time building relationships with people who can provide them with information.

What people are talking about?

Journalists frequently find stories simply by looking around and listening to **what people are talking about**. What you overhear at a sports event or in line at the post office could turn into a news story. Ask the people you meet when you are not covering a story what is going on in their lives or their neighborhoods and you might find yourself on the trail of a news story no one else has covered.

Another way to find news is to ask what has happened since the last time a story was in the paper or on the air. Follow-ups often lead to surprising developments that are even more newsworthy than the original report. For example, a story about a fire the day after it happened might tell you how many people were killed and the extent of the property damage. But a follow-up several weeks later could discover that a faulty radio system made it impossible for firefighters to respond quickly enough to save more lives.

Documents, data, and public records

Documents, data, and public records can lead to terrific stories as well. Reporters can use them to look for trends or to spot irregularities. This kind of work requires more effort, but the results are almost always worth the trouble. It’s considerably easier when the data are made available electronically, of course, but reporters have been known to enter data from paper records into computer database programs just so they can search for the most

significant information in a pile of statistics. For example, a list of people who have received speeding tickets might yield a story if it could be sorted by name instead of date. That's how television reporter Nancy Amons learned that one driver in her town had managed to amass a dozen traffic violations in three years and had even caused an accident that killed another driver without ever losing his driver's license. When she investigated, city officials admitted they had failed to do their job.

3.5 GETTING THE STORY

The information a journalist collects should answer questions that are commonly known as the five W's and an H: who, what, where, when, why, and how. Depending on the complexity of the story, a reporter might ask those questions in several different ways.

WHO:

- Who is involved in this story?
- Who is affected by it?
- Who is the best person to tell the story?
- Who is missing from this story? Who has more information about this?
- Who is in conflict in this story? Do they have anything in common?
- Who else should I talk to about this?

WHAT:

- What happened?
- What is the point of this story? What am I really trying to say?
- What does the reader, viewer, or listener need to know to understand this story?
- What surprised me? What is the most important single fact I learned?
- What is the history here? What happens next?
- What can people do about it?

WHERE:

- Where did this happen?
- Where else should I go to get the full story?
- Where is this story going next? How will it end?

WHEN:

- When did this happen?
- When did the turning points occur in this story?
- When should I report this story?

WHY:

- Why is this happening? Is it an isolated case or part of a trend?
- Why are people behaving the way they are? What are their motives?
- Why does this story matter? Why should anyone watch, read, or listen to it?
- Why am I sure I have this story right?

HOW:

- How did this happen?
- How will things be different because of what happened?
- How will this story help the reader, listener, or viewer? The community?
- How did I get this information? Is the attribution clear?
- How would someone describe this story to a friend?

Many reporters use mental checklists like this one to make sure they have covered all of the important elements of a story.

Observation

On-the-scene observation is one of the fundamentals of good reporting. Journalists want to witness events for themselves whenever possible so they can describe them accurately to the audience. Good reporters use all of their senses on the scene. They look, listen, smell, taste, and feel the story so the audience can, too. To do this well, journalists need an accurate record of their observations.

Research

Journalists tend to collect much more information than they can put into a story, but that information always helps them better understand the event or issue they are covering. Sometimes, background information is essential to give a story deeper meaning.

Sources

Reporters use both primary and secondary sources when reporting news stories. A primary source could be an interview with a person who has direct experience of an event or topic, or an original document related to that topic. The journalist as eyewitness also is considered a primary source. A secondary source might be a written report based on the original document. In the case of a fire, for example, the person whose house burned down would be a primary source. So would a firefighter who had been involved in putting out the fire. But the press release issued by the fire department the next day would be a secondary source.

Interviews

“Skillful interviewing is the basis for all good reporting and writing.” An interview is defined as information, opinion, or experience shared by a source in conversation with a reporter.

What makes an interview a little different from an ordinary conversation is that the reporter determines the direction of the questioning.

Setting up an interview is not always easy. People may not want to talk with a journalist, especially if the story is controversial. When dealing with public officials, start from the premise that the public has a right to know what the officials are doing. Experienced reporters have found they can persuade even the most reluctant officials to agree to an interview by anticipating the excuses and roadblocks they may use.

Once you have secured the interview and researched the person and the topic, there is still more preparation to do. Most reporters develop a **list of questions or topics**, which they take with them but do not read from during the interview. Instead, they refer to the list only near the end to make sure they have not forgotten something important. The list also includes other information, documents, or photographs they want to obtain from that source.

Reporters can do interviews in person, by telephone, or online via e-mail or instant messaging. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages.

No matter which way they conduct an interview, reporters usually have some questions they save for the end. First, they may summarize the conversation to be sure they have heard accurately what was being said. Then they will ask if there is anything else the person being interviewed wants to add. They also ask for the best way to get back in touch with the person, especially after hours, and they thank the person for his or her time. And many journalists have one last question they ask at all interviews, "Who else should I talk to about this?"

Ground Rules

"On the record," which means the reporter can use anything that is said and attribute it directly to the person who is speaking.

An interview **"on background"** or **"not for attribution"** generally means the information can be used in a story and the source's words can be quoted directly, although he or she cannot be named.

In some capitals, government officials will talk to reporters on background as well as **"deep background,"** which means the information can be used but not in a direct quote, and the source cannot be identified.

A reporter could write only that officials are known to believe something or another. Information that is offered **"off the record"** cannot be used at all, so most reporters will fight this arrangement unless the source is so important to the story that they have no other choice. Off-the-record information cannot even be repeated to another source, but it can tip reporters off to a story that is worth pursuing.

One other ground rule that is important for journalists to understand is the use of an “**embargo**” on information provided by a source. That means the information is provided on the condition that it is not to be used until a specific time.

3.6 TELLING THE STORY

Focus

The focus of a story is basically the answer to the question, “What is this story really about?”

- What’s the news?
- What’s the story?
- What’s the image?
- How can I tell it in six words?
- So what?

Imagine that you are covering a fast-moving wildfire. You have been out talking to people and observing the damage all day. Now, you need to focus your story before you begin writing. Here is how you might use Scanlan’s questions to find your focus:

Writing

Good news writing is concise, clear, and accurate. That sounds simple enough, but it is actually quite challenging. As we have already mentioned, reporters have a tendency to want to include everything they have learned in their stories. However, stories that get to the point are more likely to appeal to busy news consumers, and a news organization that lets stories run on won’t have much space or time left to cover other news.

Generally speaking, news stories have shorter sentences and paragraphs than most other types of writing. Each paragraph contains one main idea. A new paragraph begins when a new idea, character, or setting is introduced.

Journalists use simple, direct language that is easy to understand, with more nouns and verbs than adjectives and adverbs. Well-written news stories are not vague, ambiguous, or repetitious, because every word counts. One of the basic rules of writing is simply this: “Omit needless words.”

Good writers always make an effort to choose the most appropriate word to convey what they mean. Reporters routinely consult dictionaries and reference books to make sure the words they choose really mean what they think they do.

One key principle of news writing is to show the audience what happened rather than just telling them about it. For example, instead of saying that family members attending a funeral were grief-stricken, a well-written news story would show their grief by describing how they

hugged each other and sobbed. Instead of just telling the reader that a person is tall, a good writer would mention that he has to stoop to enter the front door.

Accuracy is critically important in news writing. An accurate story gets the basics right: grammar, spelling, punctuation, dates, addresses, numbers, and all the other details that go into a news story. Getting someone's name or age wrong is the kind of error that can erode a journalist's credibility. An accurate story also tells a complete story, not just one side or another. That doesn't mean that any single story should include everything there is to say about a topic, but it does mean that reporters must not leave out key information that could distort the story's meaning. For example, writing that a new test makes it easier to detect oral cancer suggests that the old test was unreliable. If the new test is merely faster, the reporter should say so.

Leads/Intro

The beginning of a news story is known as the lead. It is meant to capture attention and to draw the reader, listener, or viewer into the story. There are two basic types of leads: hard and soft. A hard lead summarizes the essential facts of the story — the five Ws and an H discussed in previously — while a soft lead may set the scene or introduce a character. Another way to look at the difference between these types of leads is to consider a hard lead as the answer to the question, "What's the news?" and a soft lead as the answer to the question, "What's the story?"

Either type of lead can be used for a hard-news story. For example, a story about the election of a new prime minister could be written one of several different ways. A hard lead might read like this:

Former rebel leader Joshua Smith was elected prime minister tonight, winning more than 80 percent of the vote in the country's first democratic election since 1993.

A soft lead would take a different approach:

Growing up in Youngtown, Joshua Smith was a little boy with big dreams. Always small for his age, he says the bigger boys at school bullied him. When he told his grammar school teacher he'd be prime minister some day, she laughed.

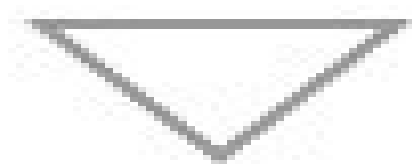
No one is laughing now. Smith won yesterday's election with more than 80 percent of the vote, becoming the country's first democratically elected leader since 1993.

As you can see, a hard lead tends to be shorter than a soft lead — often only one sentence long. While soft leads can be longer, every sentence in the lead supports the main point of the story. And both leads include the most newsworthy elements of the story.

Story Structure

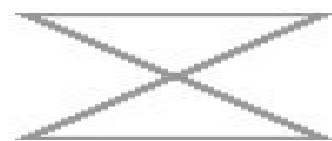
All stories have a structure in the same way that people have a spine, or, at least, they should! Without a structure, stories would be a jumble of facts with nothing to hold them together. Structure is essential for stories to be understandable and meaningful, but not all stories should be structured in the same way. Good writers choose the most suitable shape for the story they are telling.

Inverted Pyramid



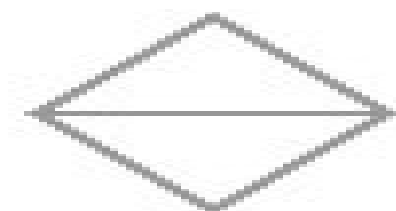
Many news stories begin with the most newsworthy information, following a traditional story structure developed more than 100 years ago. The “inverted pyramid” form puts the most important information at the top, followed by other information in descending order of importance.

Hourglass



A modified form of the inverted pyramid is known as the “hourglass” structure. It begins, in a similar fashion, with the most important information — but after a few paragraphs it takes a turn and becomes a narrative, usually told in chronological order. Sticking with the example of the story about the massive storm, a reporter could start with a hard lead, provide a few paragraphs of support, and then tell the story of the storm as witnessed by one survivor.

Diamond



Still another story form is the “diamond” structure. A reporter using this structure would begin with an anecdote, introducing a character whose experience illustrates what the story is all about. This small story would then broaden out to show its wider significance. Toward the end, the reporter would return to the individual character’s story as a way of concluding the narrative.

Reporters using this structure often use a device known as a “nut” paragraph (or nut graph) to explain why the story matters — the word “nut” signifying the hard center of the story. Jack Hart, managing editor of Portland’s Oregonian newspaper, says nut graphs “can answer any questions raised in leads, explain why stories are significant, and place stories in meaningful contexts.” The nut graph needs to be early enough in the story to make clear to the reader why he or she should bother to keep reading. The diamond form is frequently used in television news and newspaper reports.

Endings

Unless you are using the traditional inverted pyramid style and you expect the bottom of your story to be trimmed by an editor, it is a good idea to have an ending in mind when you begin writing, much as it is helpful to have a destination in mind when you set out on a journey. This is particularly important in broadcast news because of the way it is presented. Unlike print or online news, broadcast news is linear — the audience can’t choose the order in which they’ll receive the information — and research has found that viewers and listeners tend to remember best what they hear last. For that reason, many broadcast stories conclude with a summary ending, reinforcing the story’s main point.

Endings often echo beginnings, in that they return to an important place or a person. In a chronological narrative, the ending is what happens last. If a story has raised a problem, the ending might offer a solution. Endings frequently look toward the future, to what might happen next. And occasionally a story may end with a strong quote or a sound bite. This is rarely justified, however, and should be used only when the quote is so powerful that writing anything more would be a letdown for the audience.

Attribution

A key difference between a news story and an editorial or opinion column is the use of attribution. Attribution simply answers the question, “Who says?” It identifies the source of the information reported, particularly any controversial statements or questionable information. Attribution can be explicit or implied.

Quotes and Sound Bites

News stories are told primarily in the reporter’s words, but most stories also include the words of other people, in quotations or sound bites. When used effectively, quotes make stories stronger by sharing the direct experience of someone involved. Using a quote up high in a story can make it more interesting to the audience, because quotes provide a personal connection to the story.

Numbers

Numbers may look solid and factual, but they are not infallible. Journalists need numerical competence in order to tell the difference between a meaningless number and a significant one, or they risk writing stories that are misleading and confusing, at best, and, at worst, flat out wrong.

Journalists need mathematical intuition so they can tell when the numbers they're looking at just don't add up. They need math mechanics to find the meaning behind figures and data. They need mathematical concepts so they can understand banking and business, bankruptcy and boom times. Simply put, journalists need mathematics skills to make sense of numbers the way they need language skills to make sense of words.

Headlines, Captions, and Teases

Headlines

Besides editing reporters' stories, editors are responsible for additional material that accompanies the stories. A **headline** is both a summary and an advertisement. It gives the audience a quick idea of what the story is about, and tells readers why they should be interested in reading the entire piece. A **caption** is more of a label, telling readers what the photograph or graphic shows. In broadcast newsrooms, producers may write headlines and also what are called **teases**, short descriptions of stories designed to make listeners or viewers want to stay tuned to get the full report.

Online News

Online journalism has certain attributes of print journalism and of broadcast journalism, and other attributes that are unique to the Web. Frequently Web sites offer news articles to be read, just as they would be in a newspaper. At other times, the audience may select a video clip, so the Web site resembles a TV broadcast. An online story that takes full advantage of the new medium allows the reader to become a participant, choosing his or her own path through the information presented. "Only if there is some element of control by the user is it a new story form."

Online journalists must think on multiple levels at once: words, ideas, story structure, design, interactives, audio, video, photos, and news judgment. TV is about showing the news. Print is more about telling and explaining. Online is about showing, telling, demonstrating, and interacting. To make that possible, online journalists present information in layers, using a variety of story forms.

IV. Theories of the Press

IV.1. The Characteristics of the Media

The most important feature of the mass media is that the few who own the medium are addressing the many-the mass and scattered audience. This shows us how mass media are in its crucial position in the society whether to play its basic role for the good of the society or its instrumental function for the few in power or in business. Additional characteristics of the media are: the communication flow being one way; therefore, there is no-direct feedback from the audience; the communication being mediated through technology i.e. TV, radio and newspapers etc. and the information being collected and processed. Let us see the function of mass media within this nature of communication.

IV.2. The Functions of the Media

Sociology scholars have discussed the functions of media within the context of functionalism or structural functionalism paradigm of sociology. In this paradigm the basic notion is that:

...A view of society as being integrated, harmonious and a cohesive whole consisting of different social systems. All parts of society, be it government, welfare institutions, educational institutions, the military, economic institutions and cultural institutions function to maintain equilibrium, consensus and social order...As powerful socialization instruments they [media] should function towards integration, harmony and cohesion, whether it is through the information, entertainment and/or education.

On the other hand, communication scholars, such as Wright, describe the media functions in a simplistic model by saying the functions of media are information and entertainment, but such model is inadequate in that it does not include “other manifest and/or latent functions of the media, especially when it comes to the political functions of the media.”

In a broader sense three media functions have been identified: **surveillance**, **interpretation** and **socialization**. The fourth function of media has been added in this category, i.e. ‘**deliberate manipulation of politics**’. Similar to this Denis McQuail has identified the **mobilization** function of the media. Mobilization refers “**campaigning for social objectives**” in a number of key areas, including politics, war, economic development and work.

IV.3. The Sources of Political Power of the Media

From the very important roles and characteristics of the media in society, media are now powerful institutions in political sphere. Political power of the media comes forth from five sources. **Firstly**, the political power of the media comes from **their information provision function**. In this regard, media prepare the public for the future development by assessing and delivering accounts of politics that include warning signals about dangers. Additionally, they expose individuals to the public.

Secondly, their role of political linkage between the public and the government. Media can define the democratic nature of the governmental system as well as they can help the public's involvement in the democratization process.

Thirdly, their agenda-setting role. With their selective nature, media do not simply transmit what they have gathered; rather they select the most important political issues which have public interest and set it as agenda to the public. For the general population media are the most important source of information about politics directly or indirectly. Therefore, their role of agenda-setting is very important to analyze the political process.

Fourthly, the ideological or editorial view of journalists that means editorial offerings is also the source of political power of the media. Through their editorials, background stories on political issues and their merits, columns by political columnists, interpretative stories and political cartoons in the newspapers; and through commentaries and political interviews in broadcast, journalists can shape the general content of the media. As a result the media can get their persuasion power.

Lastly, the influence of media on political actor is the other source of political power. Politicians need media attention to gain public acceptance by releasing their planned political events and pronouncements.

IV.4. The Nature of Political Power of the Media

In discussing the nature of political power of the media we have to look at the normative functions of the media. What should be the norms of media practices and the behavior of journalists? This and other normative questions of the media, especially in relation with government influence, have been discussed in the following theories. The main focuses of these theories are press freedom, legal and other restrictions and how these things impact the functions of the media in society.

The first four theories are known as "The Four Theories of the Press" which were first introduced in 1956 by three authors: Siebert, Peterson and Schramm (1963). These theories tried to clarify the link between mass media and the political society in a global scene. The next two theories are developmental and democratic-participant which were formulated to address conditions in developing countries and to describe a new kind of media-government-public relationship with their deficiencies, such as corruptions and abuse of power.

In his four theories of the press Siebert et al. (1963), has used some criteria to make comparison among the four political systems of the world in which the press function. The major criteria are

- *role of the press,*
- *freedom of press,*
- *control of the media,*

- *Application of the theories in modern world and the permitted and forbidden subject matters.*

We discuss these issues in accordance.

IV.4.1. Authoritarian

This theory assumes the media as one of instrumentalists of the state in order to promote its objectives and policies. Therefore, the state has the power to test and evaluate the contribution of the media against achievements of its established goals. Questioning the goals of the state or the authorities in power by the media is not allowed, the media are being assumed as having no direct responsibility. The few in government position should be free from any interference.

However, the most headache thing to the authoritarians is controlling the private media. In the authoritarian system private ownership is allowed. As result they have tried to use five mechanisms to influence the works of the private journalists;

- (1) the granting of special “permits” (or “patents”) to the selected individuals to engage in the “art and mystery” of printing,
- (2) the licensing system for individual printed work, in other words using censorship,
- (3) prosecution before the court-the basis for the prosecution are treason as the basic crime against society; and sedition as the attempt to overturn the state, overthrow of the established government and advocate policies which might lead to an overthrow,
- (4) purchasing or subsidizing privately owned media by the government, and
- (5) Taxation has been used to limit the circulation and profit of the newspapers.

Now “most authoritarian states have established complete state monopolies of broadcasting. The operation and programming of radio and television rest with an official government agency which is responsible for carrying out government objectives.” However, it can also be used by less authoritarian societies during war or danger of terrorism. The most important example took place in the past century in Germany, Italy, Spain, and South Africa and in many other African and Communist countries.

IV.4.2. Libertarian

The basic media function in libertarian concept is informing and entertaining the public. Sales or advertising can be considered as additional function. But its main purpose is “to help discover truth, to assist in the process of solving political and social problems by presenting all manners of evidence and opinion as the basis for decisions. The essential characteristic of this process was its freedom from government controls or domination.”

Government in libertarian concept has been considered as the servant of the society. Its main function is to maintain a stable framework within which the free forces of individualism may

interact. And the only way of controlling mechanism in a democratic government is the judicial system. Furthermore, laws defined by the court are the only limitations of freedom of the press. But the problem is getting the formula to define the limit of discussion in democracy, especially during the national emergency. Holmes and Brandies have created their formula which is known as “*clear and present danger test*” and rejected the “*reasonable tendency*” of the Supreme Court of US to judge the discussion [in media] as crime or not.

With these efforts, however, “the question of whether [a free press] is an end in itself, a means to an end, or an absolute right has never been settled” MaQuail. Likewise its application in most countries of the world has getting difficulties with many factors such as nationalistic pressures, internal security and economic conditions. The USA and Britain have had this type of press for approximately 200 years.

IV.4.3. Social Responsibility

The social responsibility theory has been formulated to reconcile “the public’s right to know” and “the public responsibility of the press”. The basic notion of the theory is “freedom carries concomitant obligations; and the press, which enjoys a privileged position under our [US] government, is obliged to be responsible to society for carrying out certain essential function of mass communication in contemporary society”. In this theory, with some dissatisfaction in their interpretation, the main functions of the media are serving the political system, enlightening the society, safeguarding the rights of individual, serving the economic system, providing entertainment and maintaining its own financial self-sufficiency.

A major contributor to this theory in America is the government because the rise of broadcasting makes its role vital in the allocations and regulations of frequencies. Technological and industrial revolution, the sharp voice of criticism, intellectual climate and the development of professional spirit are among the factors. Concerning media freedom and its relation with government, social responsibility theory emphasizes that the government should not merely allowed the free press; rather it should protect it against the private rights of others and against the vital social interests.

MaQuail says the theory provides two ways in which media would accomplish the social responsibility of the society; first using independent regulatory institution for broadcasting industry; and second, the continuing development of professionalism, which should advance and nurture balanced and impartial news presentation.

IV.4.4. Communist

In Soviet Communist theory the media are the instrument to propagate the doctrine and policies of the working class or the militant party. The conception of press freedom in this theory is there is no absolute freedom, and no freedom against the state can be permitted. Freedom and responsibility are inseparably linked; freedom is to speak about the truth of the

Soviet system and access to the media facilities through the Soviet in order to eliminate class control. There is no private ownership in this theory, rather the Party is responsible to control all the press and broadcasting by three mechanisms. The first one is by inserting its own reliable members in all key appointments; second, by issuing a large number of directives and instructions; and lastly by constant review and criticism. Few nations today follow the communist model; The People's Republic of China is the prime example.

Differences among the four regulatory approaches on media

No.	Regulatory approach	Government type	Ownership	Individual Vs Society
1	Authoritarian	Charismatic dictator, Military junta	Often private	Society
2	Communist	The communist party	Mostly state owned	Society
3	Libertarian	Democratic, multi party	Private	Individual
4	Social responsibility	Democratic, multi party	Mixture of private, public funding and sometimes state-owned	Balance between individual and society

Source: Joseph Turow (2009:86)

Key: - The four regulatory approaches typically reflect (1) different types of government, (2) different attitudes toward media ownership, and (3) different attitudes toward whether the media should care about societal or individual needs and interests.

Two more theories were later added by Denis McQuail as the "four theories of the press" were not fully applicable to the non-aligned countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, who were committed to social and economic development on their own terms. The two theories were:

IV.4.5. Development Theory

Development theory was created in 1960s. It gives more emphasis to the ideals of economical developments. Therefore, the media should highlights development projects, provides critical coverage of development planning and programs, and informs readers of how the development process is affecting the society. As a result the media should be subordinated to these ideals with some liberties.

MaQuail has identified its basic assumptions as follows. The first notion of the theory is that the media should make a positive contribution to the national development. Second, journalists have both responsibilities and liberties in obtaining and distributing information. Third, to protect development objectives, the state has the right to intervene by restricting and censoring the media, state subsidies and direct control are justifiable.

Based on this, development journalism has been used by repressive regimes to justify government control of the press. Not only governments are the supporter of this theory, but also some journalists in less developed countries have argued that “there needed to be a new kind of journalism that informed readers about the development process while simultaneously empowering them toward more democratic participation, others were pointing out that there were sharp inequalities in global news flows.”

IV.4.6. Democratic-Participant

By giving emphasis to community-controlled media, democratic-participant theory has blamed the corporate monopoly of private media ownership in libertarian model and too much government involvement and bureaucratization in public broadcasting in social responsibility model. It focuses on the local level information flow. Hence, its major concerns are the multiplicity/diversity of media, the small scale use of media, the local nature of media, the deinstitutionalization of the media, the reciprocal role of communicator and recipient, horizontal communication and interaction and involvement.

Additional assumptions of the democratic-participant theory regarding media ownership is that all groups, organizations and communities should have their own media; and the existence of the media must be justified in terms of the needs and interests of the recipients, and not exclusively in terms of the media organizations, professional media workers or advertisers. In relation with media control it says that there should not be any political or bureaucratic influence on the content of the message of the media and the organization itself.

IV.4.7. The Media, The Public and The Politicians

The press can be considered as “positive communicators” for both the public and government. The media helps the society by defining the political issues and showing how these issues affecting them. Furthermore, they play the watchdog role in order to keep the public interest. They also serve the government as its Fourth Branch in the policy formulation process by linking the bureaucracy, the legislative and executive branches of government, and the people. In general the society as a whole “must have media that are the government’s voice as well as media voices that oppose it. If there are no media that express the government’s goals and that are willing to disseminate explanations and support of them, the government’s policy cannot possibly work and the government cannot function.”

The other aspect of the media is that the “adversary” view of its connection with politicians. For the safeguard of public interest, the relationship between the journalists and politicians should be maintained cautiously. Because journalists and politicians have very close, working relationship and this is also the survival issue for each other. Politicians and journalists cannot live without each other.

V. Free and Unprotected Expression and Professional ethics

5.1 Free Expression

The public's right to know provides the moral basis for the journalists' freedom to get gather and disseminate information. It ranges from coverage of courtrooms and campaigns to investigative journalism.

The Right to Know

The public has legal right to know what its government is doing. The press is the representative of the public in finding that out. It is a basic component of a participatory society. In order for consistently **intelligent social decision** to be made, **adequate information** to the individual produces **greater awareness** of the alternatives. The people's right to know gives the press the duty to print it. Generally it appears that the moral right to know belonging to the public.

Freedom of the Press

Means constitutional or lawful protections pertaining to published material. Protection of any establishment of mass medium activity- any form of print media, electronic- radio &TV, music, films etc.

Freedom of Expression

Any act of seeking, receiving and imparting information or ideas, regardless of the medium used without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers. Expressions such as demonstration, public discussion, through **any** means of mass media etc. (gestures, oral, written etc.) are considered as free expressions.

Freedom of Speech

Is the freedom of speak freely without censorship or limitations. It is a verbal one. This right is only limited if it is pornography or hate speech, there is legal sanction or it harm others etc.

Freedom of Thought and Opinion

It a base of all freedoms in which idea is created. It is called freedom of conscience and freedom of ideas. It is freedom of an individual to hold or consider a fact, view point independent of others' viewpoints. Rests on the individual to believe whatever one thinks is best. The freedom of thought protects prisoners against being compelled through force and violence to reveal what opinions they are suspected to hold.

What Information Do People Need?

The government holds the key to freedom of information in three ways.

Firstly, as the executive power, it holds an immense amount of information without which it is impossible to understand properly what is happening in a country.

Secondly, as the leadership of the country, it sets the note by which official and quasi-official bodies work.

Thirdly, as the legislative body, the government decides on the framework under which state organizations and journalists work.

The Government has direct control over information in the following areas;

Basic information **about the citizens of the country** including census information, the health status of the population, birth rate, death rate, statistics about gender and ethnicity.

- the Government has direct control over information in the following areas;
- about the citizens of the country
- about economic data
- about government itself
- the openness and integrity of president, ministers, MPs and senior officials
- about legislation proposed
- about police, judicial system and the prison service
- about education and social services
- about quasi- government bodies, including industries owned by the state, and their accounts.
- Information from regional legislative bodies and access to their meetings;
- Information held in archives, state and academic,

The government has the power to decide on levels of access by journalists to public officials. Reasonable access to public officials should be allowed. The right to find details of police operations and to question senior police officers is important in a free society. Access should be granted to journalists to see facilities such as hospitals and prisons which are paid for by public money. This should be limited only by the need to protect an individual's privacy or state secrets, or it should not be used to protect public servants or politicians from fair scrutiny.

4.1 How Is Press Freedom Restricted?

Violence and Fear

When there is little respect for law and the protection it can offer citizens. This might be from the state or forces sympathetic to the state, or from those opposed to the government or simply be a product of civil strife and a breakdown in law and order.

Legal Restrictions

Officials Secrets Act or Laws on Sedition

- In practice, an official secret comes to refer to something that embarrasses and inconveniences Government, rather than something that threatens the security of the state.

Restricting Officials

- Putting all official information in the category of state secret.

Restrictions on Receiving Information

- It is an offence to possess official information that has not been officially received.

Protection of Sources

- Few countries allow journalists to protect sources

Bureaucratic Means and Harassment

- Using the law is cumbersome and time consuming
- State officials use administrative means to block information, to discriminate against journalists or media organizations regarded as being unfriendly.
- This in turn makes impossible for journalists to respond quickly, to actual harassment.

Economic Bullying

- The state refuses to place advertisements in certain media, a Ministry can damage chances of survival.
- State owned or approved media are often invited to travel with Ministers to remote parts of the country to report.
- This makes stat favored publications seem more authoritative.
- Journalists who cannot travel may be forced to rely on official information about remote rural regions.
- They are seen as threats to state control of information

Private Business Secrets

- Economic liberalization increasingly raises the issue of secrecy in the private sector-
- exploiting natural resources,
- environmental considerations,
- the rights and safety of employees
- The media are entitled to investigate these issues

Suppression of Distribution

- to prevent or harass distribution of newspapers and magazines- through an order or police harassment of distributors without any legal basis

Censorship

- suppression of any public expression that a governing authority believes to threaten either its power or the accepted social and moral order
- suppression of speech, public communication or other information which may be considered objectionable, harmful, sensitive, politically incorrect or inconvenient
- **Indirect censorship**- soft- for national security, to control obscenity, child pornography, and hate speech,
- to protect children or other vulnerable groups, to promote or restrict political or religious views, and to prevent slander and libel
- **Direct** censorship may or may not be legal, depending on the type, place, and content.
- The censorship may be the result of governmental review or review by a private individual (self) or group

5.2 Unprotected Expression

5.2.1 Legal Principles of Publication

There are three principal legal risks to a journalist in his/her news report content which may contain incorrect information that harms someone's reputation, correct information that invades that someone's privacy, or materials that is subject to someone else's copyright.

Public Officials, Public Figures & Private Citizens

- **Public officials** are people who are paid with your tax dollars, who are elected, have control of government and have access to the media.
- **Public figures** are people whose achievements or notoriety put them in the public spotlight.
- **Private Citizens** include the vast majority of people who are not in the public spotlight. Private Citizens may have an easier time proving they were libeled, because they don't have the same access to media to defend themselves as have public officials and public figures.

5.2.2 Defamation

It is the transmission to a third party, either orally or in writing, of information that tends to damage the reputation of another person.

It is the publication of a statement, which exposes a person to hatred, ridicule, contempt and/or causes him to be shunned or avoided by right thinking members of society.

There are two types of defamation

Libel- by means of writing or by any other permanent form such as video tapes, pictures, was work, effigy etc. it is made in a visible or permanent form -written or printed statements as in books, newspapers, notes, circular, letter, or by way of effigy, caricature, painting, photograph, film, radio, and television broadcasts, any recorded audio – visual material and so forth.

The conditions for libel are the following

- The publication must be in writing
- The publication must be false
- The publication must be published to some other person aside from the plaintiff and the defendant.
- The publication must refer to the plaintiff and must be defamatory of him.
- The publication must be by the defendant.

Slander- is defamation through the spoken word or gesture. It is not generally actionable upon mere publication. Without proof of special damage it might be actionable if the slander includes allegation of

- a criminal offence punishable with imprisonment, such as theft, rape etc.
- a contagious disease which may necessitate the exclusion of the suffering from other members of society e.g. AIDS, leprosy, COVID-19 etc
- Allegation of unchastely against a young woman.
- Imputation of incompetence or unfitness against a workman, which can injure him in his trade, office, trade or profession.

The law of defamation protects the reputation of people resulting from injurious statements, or acts by others- in the good opinion that other people hold of him.

The Five Things a Successful Libel Plaintiff Must Prove

- A defamatory statement **was made**.
- The defamatory statement is **a matter of fact**, not opinion.
- The defamatory statement is **false**.
- The defamatory statement is **about** ("of and concerning") **the plaintiff. Group**
- The defamatory statement was published with **the requisite degree of "fault."**

The Defenses to Defamation

- **Justification or Truth-** entirely or even substantially
- **Fair Comment-** a fair comment made in the interest of the public. It must be an expression of opinion not an assertion of fact by him. It also must be fair.
- **Fair and Accurate Report-** of a public proceeding (such as a city council hearing) or document (such as a pleading filed in court) generally cannot be the basis of a libel

suit. The account must be both substantially accurate and fair. (not verbatim). The comments were made in an official proceeding is newsworthy regardless of whether the statements are actually true.

- **Neutral Reportage-** privilege protects a fair, true and impartial account of newsworthy statements, regardless of whether the reporter knows or believes those statements to be true. If the statements have been made by prominent and typically responsible persons or organizations.
- **Privilege: Absolute-** Head of State, governors, High Court judges, magistrates, even lawyers and witnesses, legislators. **Qualified-** when the person who makes it has a duty, legal, social or moral, to make it and the person to whom it is made has a duty, legal, social or moral, to receive it.
- **Consent to Publication**
- **Death of the Plaintiff**
- **Res Judicata-** the case has come to a logical end and had died a natural death
- **Accord and Satisfaction-** a mutual settlement between the two parties to the satisfaction of both of them
- **Innocent Dissemination**
- **Remedies for Defamation**
- **Publication of Retraction or Correction**

5.2.3 Invasion of Privacy

It is defined as an unwelcome intrusion on a person's solitude or personal affairs, school or medical records cannot be printed in a public forum like a newspaper without your permission. Reporters cannot come onto your property without your consent- you have the right to be left out of media productions.

For public officials and public figures, almost anything can be considered newsworthy. For private individuals, however, it could be tougher to prove, but certain information, such as reports of criminal behavior, could be considered newsworthy. When people become involved in a news event, voluntarily or involuntarily, they forfeit aspects of the right to privacy.

Privacy laws protect individuals from intrusion into their personal lives and from the unauthorized use of their names or likenesses for commercial purposes. Media producers must secure a written release from each person who appears in a production. If the production will include location footage shot on private property, it is necessary to obtain a written release from the property owner.

There are four forms of the "right of privacy"

Misappropriation

Known as the “right of publicity.” It refers to misappropriation of (unauthorized use) the name or likeness of a living person for purposes of trade or advertising (commercial) without that person's consent. It is not generally a concern to reporters because it applies to the commercial exploitation of a person's name and likeness.

Public Disclosure or Publication of Private Facts

Individuals have a right to protection against the public disclosure of (**highly**) embarrassing facts about their private lives (**the law provides less protection for public officials than private citizens**). It requires some element of **widespread disclosure** to the general public, not simply a communication to a single person or small group of people. It also require that the disclosure be "highly offensive" to a reasonable person. Reporting someone's age, someone was a victim of sexual abuse or suffered from an incurable disease. There should be lack of "legitimate public interest" or lack of "newsworthiness" in the report because newsworthiness is a complete defense.

Unreasonable Intrusion

Individuals have a right to protection against unwarranted intrusion on their solitude and private affairs.

False Light

Individuals have a right to protection against disclosures of private facts that place them in a false light before the public. The publicity must be of a kind that would be highly offensive to a reasonable person. It occurs where an opinion or utterance is falsely attributed to the plaintiff. An article with no reasonable connection.

Types of Releases

Releases play an important role in protecting productions from the possibility of invasion-of privacy lawsuits.

Performer Releases- producers should secure written releases from all performers who appear in a production. The only exceptions would be those individuals who show up as faceless forms in crowd scenes or remote shots

Audience Releases- Ideally, each audience member should execute a **written release**, when production logistics prevent this; you should post a notice prominently at all entrances to the production location explaining the taping of the event. Producers may prepare a short-form written release that audience members are required to sign before entering the production site

Location Releases- the right to “zones of solitude” where individuals can reasonably expect to be left alone. It includes places that generally are recognized as private, particularly a

person's home. It may include public places- offices, hotel rooms, restaurants, and parks where there is a reasonable expectation of privacy. If you plan to conduct a shoot in a private area, be sure to obtain a location release- written.

5.2.4 Copyright Infringement

A copyright is the right of an author to control the reproduction and use of any creative expression that has been fixed in tangible form, such as on paper or computer desk. It gives an author or other originator of an intellectual production whereby he is invested with the sole and exclusive privilege of reproducing and selling copies of his work. Copyright law protects intellectual property from being reproduced and sold by unauthorized persons, so that the owner of the work can enjoy the fruit of his labor.

Copyrighted expressions include literary, graphic, photographic, artistic, cinematography, audiovisual, electronic and musical works. Personal letters or diaries and "tangible forms" film, videotape, material posted on the Internet.

A copyright comes into existence the moment an original work of expression is captured in a tangible form. No government approval or filing is required for a work to be protected by copyright.

Limitations on Copyright

The first limitation is ideas and facts are never protected by a copyright. What is protected by the copyright law is **the manner of expression**.

A second limitation of the reach of copyright is the doctrine of "**fair use**." To determine whether it is "fair": the purpose of the use, the nature of the copyrighted work that is being used, the amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyright work as a whole, and the effect of the use upon the potential value of the copyright work should be considered.

The Remedies for Copyright

- **Damages** compensation recovered in the courts
- **Injunction** is a court order requiring a party to a dispute to do or refrain from doing something.
- **Account** the assessment of the gains which accrued to the violator of copyright from the work.
- **Delivery up** the court orders the copyright infringer to give up all the pirated work still in his possession

5.2.5 Professional Ethics

Professionalism

Professions have greater status than other occupation, in part because professionals care about the good of others and of society as well as about their self-interest. They have high ethical standards and greater autonomy from the control of the large, self-serving organization and interest groups that control society. Major criteria that distinguished a nonprofessional occupation to professional one are:

Value- serving others

- Desire to apply specialized skills and knowledge
- Desire for autonomy
- Provision of a valuable and essential service to society
- Recognition (accrediting) from other public relations practitioners

Professional Associations- Has many advantages.

- provide professionals with the contact with other professionals
- accredit professionals, socialize practitioners to the values of the profession, develop professional culture
- Discipline practitioners who violate the values and ethics.
- Support research, publish professional journals and formulate codes of ethics.

Norms/Codes of Professional Ethics- One's conduct determined by societal, professional and organizational acceptance. The added dilemma of making decisions that satisfy:

- The public interest
- The employer (client)
- The professional organization's code of ethics
- Their personal value

Body of Knowledge

A profession must have a unique and well-established body of knowledge. Professionals understand that body of knowledge and apply it to their work. What make professionals different is that they can provide the same service or expertise because they do possess the same knowledge and take an intellectual approach to their work.

Education

Technical skills acquired through professional training. Professionals have the technical skills needed to provide a unique and essential service. They acquire these skills during a long

period of prescribed professional education. The profession is usually a “terminal occupation-” that is professional stay in the occupation their entire lives.

5.2.6 Media Ethics

Most likely media messages are assumed as true. There's nothing more important to a news organization than **accuracy**, which means **getting all the facts right and always seeking the truth**. Consistent accuracy gives the journalist and the news organization **credibility, a reputation for being right**. Credible news organizations and their employees strive to be **fair and independent**; that is, free from the influence of government, businesses or individuals.

Good journalists live in fear of making mistakes, and they work very hard to avoid them. Mistakes do happen, however, so news organizations make an effort to correct them as soon as possible. The willingness to correct mistakes is another mark of credibility.

Some people try to influence reporters, or persuade the journalists to write favorably about certain people or businesses. Small- whether they should let a community leader pay for the lunch they have together. Larger- whether they should take a free trip offered by the resort about which they will write a travel story.

The three basic parts of journalism ethics: eclectic stand

- **Truth telling**
- **Maintaining independence**
- **Minimizing harm**

Ethics deals with principles, values and virtues that guide the morality of journalistic actions. **Principles** are guidelines that serve as a compass to give direction to one's actions regarding what constitutes right or wrong good or bad action. E.g., journalists should report the truth. **Values** are what individuals aim at doing or achieving. E.g., it is good for a reporter to report the truth. **Virtues** are the qualities of a person that help him achieve the values he has set out to achieve by following a principle. E.g., a report or crosschecks information

Ethics vs. Law

Both regulate human behavior and have commanding element. Ethics appeals to the concerns of journalists and has no strong sanctions. Law sets the minimum/bottom line/ below which you should not fall and strong sanction for failure to comply with commanding provisions.

Ethical decision-making might be difficult because the choice is not merely between right and wrong. Moreover, ethical principles sometimes may contradict with each other. Contextuality and subjectivity also make the ethical decision making harder. The gray area between the right and wrong is frightening large or intricate.

With regard to the ethical decision-making, when the media act irresponsibly; some harm come to the public; the media may lose its credibility; the media may lose their watchdog role to the public and the wellbeing of democracy suffers.

Ethical Views

There are two types of ethical views

Objective View

Considered that standards should be applied to all people in all situations at all times to be called ethical a person should practice what the society in. E.g. lying is forbidden anytime anywhere.

Subjective View

Morality of an act depends on the cultures values and belief as well as on the particular circumstances.

Theories of Ethics

Meta-ethics (classical theory)

Meta-ethics is a theoretical field of study which focuses on the nature of ethics and which searches meanings for theoretical abstractions such as goods, justice and fairness.

The most well-known of this kind are:

Teleology- the moral worth of an action is judged by the relative goodness or badness of its consequence. According to this theory, “the end justifies the means.” While **egoists** assumed the good that results from an action must be for self, **utilitarianists** to the contrary said it is for the greatest number.

Deontology- Ethical decisions are made by the principles of duty or according to the principles of duty. Here the important thing is the intention or motive behind the act. “The end can never justify the means.” In **pure deontology**, the outcome of the actions are rigidly ignore as long as they are based on sound principles; whereas, **in mixed deontology**, there is some attention paid to the consequences while the focuses is still on adherence to principles.

The best solution is applying **golden mean or virtual ethics**. On the one hand absolutist tendency leads to a form of **legalism**; on the other hand, On the other hand teleology can produce some form of **antinomianism**- a kind of morality that lacks rules, principles, codes, standards or directive which thus tend to relativism, anarchy and nihilism. Therefore, **virtuous people** will be able to distinguish between two extremes and the ethical action will be the one that occupies the so-called “golden mean” between two undesirable alternatives.

E.g. extreme truth & extreme false are two undesirable alternatives so we should take the average.

Normative Ethics

There are two types of normative ethics

Traditional legalistic - requires people to focus on the rules as a guideline for their action.

Antinomian: this is sometimes known as non-ethics. (Has religious and secular meaning)

Applied Ethics

Consists of the analysis of specific, controversial moral issues such as abortion, animal rights, euthanasia. It must be controversial & distinctly moral issue- gun control, avoiding lying, sexual conduct, medical, environment and etc. Here, contrasting values are often weighed against one another in order to find responsible and practical way forward. Hence, reaching at properly reasoned ethical decision is the concern of applied ethics.

Basic Ethical Guidelines

Accuracy

Accuracy- getting things right, numbers, data, norms, fact correct. Accurate reporting is not the best way of reporting, but it is the only way of reporting. (Don't chance it; check it). Accuracy is a starting point for ethical journalism because journalists are duly bound to all the truth, to report it and honor it.

Why such huge emphasis on accuracy?

Inaccuracy can cause irreparable personal harm. Accuracy prevents the public from making uninformed decision on important matters such as business and election. It also affect the media's credibility and integrity as well as that of the journalists. Lastly the public do need to be served by honest journalists.

Ethical Aspect of Accuracy

- The possibility of changing quotes
- Issues related to rumor, myth and legend
- It issues of plagiarism
- The issue of possibility checking back-sensitive, doubtful, technical- allow to the source for checking back
- The issue lying camera- they are not always supposed to tell the truth
- Production of reconstruction

Accuracy Test- Journalist should ask the following question to check their story of accuracy

- Have spelling, names. Numbers and dates been checked?
- Are the key fact backed up by, independent, sources?
- Are sources reliable who told you?
- Is there enough context to tell the story fully?
- Do headlines, straps, captions, etc. accurately reflect the story?

Fairness

Fairness is getting all sides of the story and has to do with proper balance and context. Being fair is difficult because there are many factors contribute to it, such as word choice (selection) should reflect the reality you are reporting on, selection of elements for the story, perspective of the journalist and mechanisms of newsgathering.

Fairness involves providing sources with equal opportunity. Moderating issues evenhandedness is also fairness. Reporters should not overlook or undermine a certain party in the story. To be fair you need to develop a sense of open-mindedness

- Avoid biased reported
- Avoid stereotyped portrayal (coverage)
- Avoid unsubstantiated allegation
- “I know I have been fair when both parties complain”

The reporter’s justification here is the truth, reporting the truth. Reporters should give coverage to different parties in relation to their importance to the story

Independence

It refers to keeping your distance from anyone who is going to pressure or from yours or others’ interest. We have to prepare ourselves from apparent conflict of interest. There major pressure source are:

- Advertisers:
- Political force
- Employers
- Personal interest and Circle of influence:

Conflict of interest is something that affect credibility what people consider from us

Area of conflict

- Blood relation with subject: Financial Interest:
- Embedded Journalism:
- Citizens’ right:

- Citizens duty (controversial) obligation
- Moon lighting (doing part time job)
- Freebies (gift of any kind)
- Worthy Cause-causing issues which do have positive tendency- The issues may exaggerated- poverty, gender issues, politics in NGO.

Independence: A 3 questions check

- Do you stand to benefit in any way from out of these reports?
- Could anything lead to perception of conflict of interest?
- Are you prepared to disclose any interest?

Impartiality

Journalists are expected to keep their distance from the people and organizations they cover so that they can be impartial when they write about them. In other word, impartiality means being objective, putting aside personal opinions, and not accepting gifts, meals, trips or anything else that could be seen as seeking to influence the news. It also means avoiding any conflict of interest. If ever in doubt about accepting anything from a source or the source's representatives, a reporter should discuss it with editors.

Integrity

Integrity is the quality of possessing an inner sense of knowing right from wrong and adhering to high moral principles or professional standards. Often journalists have to decide the honorable way to handle a source, or the right way to deal with information they get from a source. Reputable reporters do not misrepresent themselves or break the law to get a story. They treat their colleagues, the public and their sources—the people from whom they get information—fairly and respectfully. They live and work with integrity

Privacy

May home is (not always) my castle. Privacy is both ethical and legal concern. Journalist always involved in the base of violating privacy. There are **three kinds of privacy**:

- **Bodily or physical**
- **Mental (communicational)**- completely psychological, ideas, thoughts, feelings, opinion and ideologies
- **Informational**- it prevents the disclosure of personal information hold in place of private and public offices

Why privacy is valuable? Privacy is invaluable for the following reasons

- Others are not entitled to know about us

- It just protect people from being ridicule or scorn
- It helps people control their reputation
- It helps to keep other people at a distance and regulates your social interaction.

Some areas of problems

- Ambush interview (door stepping)
- Trauma
- Reporting on sexual matter

5.2.7 Ethical Violations

Violations of ethical standards of truth, honesty and accuracy by journalists caused great embarrassment for their colleagues and their employers. A breakdown in the trust between a news organization and its audience occurred. It destroy credibility. The common violations are the following.

Propaganda

It is aimed at influencing the attitude of a community toward some cause or position so as to benefit oneself or one's group. It is often biased, with facts selectively presented (thus possibly lying by omission) to encourage a particular synthesis. Propaganda uses loaded messages to produce an emotional rather than rational response to the information presented. It can be used as a form of political warfare.

Media bias

It is the bias of journalists and news producers within the mass media in the selection of events and stories that are reported and how they are covered. It implies a pervasive or widespread bias contravening the standards of journalism.

Types of Media Bias

Bias by omission -leaving one side out of an article, or a series of articles over a period; ignoring facts that tend to disprove liberal claims, or that support conservative beliefs;

Bias by selection of sources - including more sources that support one view over another.

Bias by story selection - a pattern of highlighting news stories that coincide with the agenda of the favored party or group.

Bias by story placement - is a measure of how important the editor considers the story.

Bias by spin - when the story has only one interpretation of an event or policy, to the exclusion of the other; spin involves tone - it is a reporter's subjective comments about objective facts.

Reasons of Media Bias:

- when a journalist or people have a prejudiced opinion about things
- media show a political bias towards certain news events.
- A journalist may add his/her personal opinion to the news report.
- Racial bias and religious bias can happen when the journalist or news reporter gives reports in favor of a particular religion/race.
- Advertisers or corporate companies may also influence the way certain reports are presented.
- when an editor may give importance to a specific story on the page.
- when the publication or news channel wants to sensationalize one particular news event. This is termed as sensationalism wherein one section of the news is over hyped to gain attention.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the unethical practice of lifting information (news, statistics, ideas, passages, etc.) from existing materials and presenting it as if it originated from the writer. It is the same as stealing, and it is never allowed- there are no excuses for it. Journalists also commit plagiarism when they lift ideas from books and other media without attribution- mentioning the name of sources.

Fabrication

It is fiction writing. Covers everything from making up quotes and details to make a story more exciting or interesting, to writing a whole story that did not happen. It can be more difficult to detect than plagiarism.

5.2.8 Code of Ethics

Code of ethics has both characteristics of law and ethics. It is codified ethics. It is a guideline as how to behave. It has a sanction but different from the pure law. Not all ethical issues should be legally codified. Code of ethics is self-imposed duty (responsibility) by the journalists themselves. A code is just a moral compass. It is a roadmap towards ethical behavior. It is an important tool that plays between the public's right to know and the journalists' responsibility, for the people. Code of ethics protect (safeguard) the media from government interference.

Debates in Favor Of 'Code of Ethics'

- Having it by itself is better
- It create ethical consciousness
- It ensure accountability
- helps journalists to not take decision individually
- It helps watchdog role and keeps the profession on its toes.
- It defines some potential probes
- It creates public trust
- It plays an important public relations role

The more responsible the media behave the shorter stick with which the government can hit this particular dog.

Arguments against Journalistic Code of Ethics

- It can work against the independence of free press
- It easily leads to self-censorship
- Being general and vague by definition-
- It can be used against journalists in court of law
- Values cannot be forced upon people

5.2.9 Self-Regulation

In self-regulation, it is the industry or profession rather than the government doing the regulation. The government has formally delegated the power to regulate. The private sector perceives the need to regulate itself for whatever reason- to stave off government regulation

Arguments in Favor of Self-Regulation

- have “superior knowledge of the subject.” it is more **efficient** for government to rely on the industry’s collective expertise than to reproduce it at the agency level.
- is more **flexible** than government regulation to modify rules in response to changing circumstances than for a government agency to amend its rules
- it provides greater **incentives** for compliance. Industry participants are more likely to perceive them as reasonable.
- is **less costly** to the government because it shifts the cost of developing and enforcing rules to the industry. Supervision requires fewer resources than direct regulation.

Arguments against Self-Regulation

- industry may subvert regulatory goals to its own business goals- self service
- inadequacy of enforcement in self-regulatory regimes-unwilling to self-enforcement
- “bad actors” will be unlikely to comply
- it can facilitate anticompetitive conduct