Dr. Naaz Bano
Dr. R.L. Meena

HANDBOOK OF JOURNALISM STUDIES

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO JOURNALISM STUDIES

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
Journalism studies offer valuable knowledge and skills for understanding the complex media landscape and contributing to a cultured and informed society. They provide a deeper understanding of media literacy, improving critical thinking abilities, and promoting ethical reporting. Journalism studies also emphasize the importance of moral behavior in reporting, ensuring truthful, impartial, and accurate news coverage. By learning about journalistic values like impartiality, openness, and accountability, individuals can support ethical and reliable journalism. To pursue a career in journalism, students can enroll in academic programs at various universities and educational establishments, which provide in-depth theoretical information, hands-on training, and internship opportunities. Specializations in investigative journalism, data journalism, print journalism, broadcast journalism, and multimedia journalism are available to suit individual interests and career objectives. Practical experience is crucial in journalism courses, as students can participate in student newspapers, radio stations, or internet publications to develop their reporting, interviewing, writing, editing, and multimedia production abilities. Internships and networking opportunities also provide students with the opportunity to meet professionals in the field, attend conferences, workshops, and guest lectures, and apply their knowledge in practical situations. In conclusion, pursuing journalism education is essential for building media literacy, defending moral principles, and advancing media democracy. By acquiring theoretical knowledge, practical skills, and hands-on experience, individuals can contribute to a cultured society and become responsible, ethical, and significant journalists.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Field, Journalism, Media, Study.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism has existed since people realized they needed to exchange knowledge about themselves with others. It is a recent development that has several reasons why it is worthwhile for academics to study journalism. News affects how we perceive the outside world, ourselves, and other people, creating and maintaining our shared realities. By reading articles about recent occurrences, we establish a imagined community of fellow readers. We learn about ourselves as subjects in local, national, and increasingly global contexts through the rituals of reading and discussing journalism materials. Democracy and media are inextricably linked, and news is crucial for forming our identities as citizens by enabling discussions and debates between and among citizens and their representatives [1]–[4]. However, not all academics have a positive outlook on the survival and future of journalism in its structured and professional form. The introduction of interactive communication technologies has led to concerns about the end of journalism and the potential demise of traditional political journalism. It is possible that journalism is not dying but rather being

reinvented. Journalism is the main sense-making practice of modernity, advancing major modernist narratives and serving as a repository for our communal memories. News stories reflect the ongoing drama of the conflicts between dominant ideology and its opponents, as journalism is the major tool for articulating and playing out both consensus and conflicts. Given its vitality to society, it is crucial for anyone who wants to comprehend modern culture to study it.

The field of journalism studies is rapidly expanding, with the foundation of new journals such as Journalism Theory, Practice and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice. The International Communication Association (ICA), the International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR), and the European Communication Research and Education Association (ECREA) have established divisions in recent years. As journalism studies developed into a distinct field, it generated its own body of theories and literature. Recent books have contributed to the development of journalism studies as a field, including Journalism, Key Concepts in Journalism Studies, Journalism: Critical Issues, News A Reader, and Social Meanings of News The origins and subsequent development of journalism research are varied and complex. Four distinct eras in the history of journalism research have emerged: the empirical turn, which was particularly significant in the United States, the sociological turn, which was particularly significant among Anglo-American scholars, and the global-comparative turn to reflect the realities of a globalized world [5]–[7].

Pre-History: Normative Theories

On the stage of scholarly research, journalism studies can be viewed as both a rookie and an experienced player in various ways. The majority of commentators consider that the start of scholarly research in the field coincided with the development of journalism as a profession and a social force in the early 20th century. Some people, though, have discovered even earlier precursors. According to James Carey and Hanno Hardt in 2002, many of the initial ideas for research on journalism and communication originated in Germany in the middle of the 19th century. As a result, the critical German social theorists' writings might be considered the prehistory of journalism studies study, underlining the normative impulses that provided the field with its initial impetus. Hanno Hardt examined the connections, trends, and divergences between and among early German and American philosophers on the press in his now-classic study on Social Theories of the Press [8]–[11].

Similar to Löffelholz, who researched the history of journalism studies in Germany, Robert Eduard Prutz's writings might be seen as the forerunner of modern journalism theory. Prutz wrote The History of German Journalism in 1845, years before newspaper studies became a recognized field of study. Based on the idea that journalism is a trade practiced by more or less competent individuals, the majority of early German theorists approached the subject via a historical and normative lens. The procedures and structures of news production were not as important to journalism experts as what journalism should be in the context of social communication and political debate. In many ways, the macro-sociological approach to journalism has persisted in German communication scholarshipoften at the expense of empirical study. A thorough study of journalists was not conducted until the early 1990s, despite Max Weber's proposal for one in a 1910 speech to the first annual meeting of German sociologst.

The Empirical Turn

It wasn't until the context of journalism training, first and foremost in the United States, that an interest in the structures, procedures, and personnel of news production began to take shape. In this way, the interest in sharing knowledge about their work among professional educators contributed to the beginning of empirical journalistic research as opposed to normative or theoretical work on the subject. There is no doubt that the study of journalism emerged from professional education in the US and was frequently administrative in nature. This new era in journalism scholarship was ushered in by the founding of Journalism Quarterly in 1924. The first issue had, among other things, an essay by Willard Daddy Bleyer of the University of Wisconsin summarizing the main techniques to newspaper study. As noted by Rogers and Chaffe, Bleyer played a key role in launching a new era of journalism scholarship that treated journalism seriously as both a field of study and a practical effort. In the 1930s, Bleyer went on to start a PhD minor inside sociology and political science doctoral programs that already existed.

Other nations, like the UK and Denmark, had journalism education that didn't happen in a university setting. Instead, journalists were trained in news organizations through apprenticeships and skill-based short courses. Under those circumstances, students studied classes in subjects like shorthand and journalism law since the education of journalists was seen as pragmatically important. Due to the separation of journalism training from the academy, a more reflective and scholarly approach was missing from this model, which has resulted in the majority of journalism scholarship coming from social sciences and humanities disciplines that have taken up journalism among many other interests in countries where this has been the model for journalism training. This might be one of the main explanations for why journalism studies have historically been interdisciplinary. When early communication research first appeared in the 1950s, it gave the empirical study of journalism a new lease on life in the United States. Larger-than-life figures like Paul Lazarsfeld, Carl Hovland, Kurt Lewin, and Harold D. Lasswell were at the forefront of this work, which sprang from the fields of sociology, political science, and psychology. The creation of knowledge about journalism was significantly impacted by its roots in the social sciences. This strengthened the empirical turn, which used techniques like surveys and experiments to comprehend how news media function.

While audiences and media effects dominated research during this time, the developing field of journalism studies gradually began to focus on news people and their professional ideals, as well as editorial structures and practices. The gatekeeper model, the professionalization, the theories of news values, and agenda setting are only a few examples of theories and concepts that were developed from and based on empirical study. These researchers' pioneering research is one of the select few studies in the history of journalism studies that can be universally referred to as classics. They have produced real journalism theories that are still vital and influential. They continue to be significant to the field insofar as they have built significant research traditions, even though many of their concepts may seem outdated and have been supplanted by more recent study. Although they may not be the most cutting-edge in terms of theory or methodology, these classic studies capture the imagination.

DISCUSSION

The Sociological Turn

As sociology and anthropology's influence on journalism study increased in the 1970s and 1980s, the field of journalism research began to take on a sociological bent. The emphasis shifted to a critical engagement with journalism's conventions and routines, professional and occupational ideologies and cultures, interpretive communities, and concepts related to news texts, like framing, storytelling, and narrative, as well as the expanding significance of the popular in the news. The adoption of qualitative procedures, most notably ethnographic and discourse analysis techniques, coincided with the growing focus on cultural issues. Sociologists such Gaye Tuchman, Herbert J. Gans, Philip Schlesinger, and Peter Golding, as well as proponents of cultural studies like James Carey, Stuart Hall, John Hartley, and Barbie Zelizer, are among the figures who have made a lasting impact on journalism studies in this discipline. This tradition of scholarship, which frequently concentrated on work in and of national and elite news organizations, paved the way for a view of journalism's role in creating and maintaining dominant ideologies while also allowing for a better understanding of news production processes through descriptive work.

The Global-Comparative Turn

Finally, a global-comparative turn in journalism studies has emerged in the 1990s Even though Jack McLeod invented cross-cultural research in the 1960s, it took until the last two decades for the comparative study of journalism to develop a tradition of its own. Political shifts and new communication technologies have expedited the global rise of international and comparative study. The end of the cold war and growing globalization have made it possible for journalism researchers to connect with colleagues from a distance more frequently. New communication technologies have sparked the growth of organized, multinational scientific networks, and it is now much simpler to secure funding for such projects. The study of journalism is developing into an international and cooperative effort as the field itself becomes a more widespread phenomenon.

DISCUSSION

Journalism Studies Today

Despite the relentless march of globalization, the field of journalism studies continues to be one of the most diversified in academia. Due to the field's unequal borrowing from the social sciences and humanities, this diversity has been significantly shaped by many national traditions. Research in the UK and Australia has developed within a critical tradition influenced by British cultural studies, whereas US scholarship stands out for its strong empirical and quantitative concentration and use of middle-range theories. In contrast, German scholarship has a tradition of theorizing journalism on a macro scale, influenced by systems theory and other theories of social differentiation, while French journalism research heavily draws on semiology and structuralism and is largely invisible to the international academy. Since many journalism researchers in Asia had their education in the US, they have developed strong American affinities. On the other hand, Latin American scholars are currently changing their focus, moving away from reliance on US examples and toward Mediterranean nations, particularly Spain, Portugal, and France.

Despite the field's increasing internationalization, Anglo-American scholars continue to hold a dominant position in the major English-language journals, albeit with a continually rising level of contributions from other countries. Scholarship from or about other nations is a clear exception in Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly (JMCQ), which until recently was the most

significant home for publications in journalism studies. JMCQ largely relies on US contributors. Only two out of the journal's 80 editors and editorial board members are from countries other than the United States, which highlights the strong American hegemony in the field (see Figure 1). JMCQ is produced by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC), however many journalism and communication schools throughout the world rely heavily on the magazine as a source and a reference.

	Editors and EB members from the U.S. and U.K.	Editors and EB members from outside the English-speaking world	Total number of editors and EB members
Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly	78 (all U.S.)	2	80
Journalism: Theory, Practice and Criticism	42	12	58
Journalism Studies	35	18	50
Journalism Practice	16	13	31

Figure 1: International distribution of editors and editorial board of members in Leading Academic Journals in the field of Journalism Studies [Research Gate. Net].

However, some academic associations, such as the International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) and the International Communication Association (ICA), are working hard to increase their international membership and visibility while actively promoting a more equal representation of scholars from all over the world. By increasing the diversity of their editorial boards, new scholarly publications including Journalism: Theory, Practice and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice have purposefully positioned themselves as being more international in scope. Scholars from countries other than the US and the UK are still a minority, and the majority of editors and editorial board members are based in those countries. In light of this, the results of a recent study of contributions to journalism: Overall, the findings show that North America and Europe dominate scholarly output.

This predominance is particularly pronounced in JS, where nine out of ten published papers are written by someone in the US or Europe. The majority of the articles in JTPC are from North American universities, whereas the majority of the articles in JS are from European institutions. Less than one in ten JS authors are from outside the US or Europe. As a result of contributions from Asia and Australia, JTPC performs slightly better, scoring about three out of twenty. Few academics from African and South American institutions have made significant contributions to either journal. Cushion also notes that almost a third of authors in Journalism Studies and close to half of all authors in Journalism originate from American universities. As a result, the activity of US news organizations is quite well mapped, whereas we know pitifully little about what happens in newsrooms and media content in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

The geographical origins of authors are also strongly predictive of the area they investigate. Journalists, their methods, and the writings they create are the subject of most study that has been published in these journals and elsewhere. For instance, a review of articles published in the last ten years in the three top journals can provide insight into the interests of journalism scholars. Much of the recent study on journalistic texts is being driven by the framing research paradigm in the US environment, but scholars in other countries are more likely to rely on discourse and textual analysis. However, the Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly has historically relied

heavily on content analysis, as evidenced by the fact that this technique was applied in one-fourth of the articles published between 1975 and 1995. However, compared to the other journals, JMCQ publishes a lot more study on news audiences due to the frequent contributions that draw on experimental research influenced by the effects tradition. The third-person effect and the use of ideas like salience and attribution have both been the subject of several papers. However, the majority of the essays continue to concentrate on the psychology and sociology of journalism.

The field is strongly influenced by a particular set of moral presumptions that we would do well to reflect on, notwithstanding the power of an empirical tradition that has prevailed since the early years of communication research and the growing significance of global perspectives: We presumptively believe that journalism serves as a fourth estate or serves as a watchdog role by offering a check on the abuses of government authority, as was suggested at the beginning of this chapter. As a result, we also presume that journalists see themselves as independent forces for the public good and as protectors of free speech. The problems that motivated the work of the pioneering German philosophers are shared by scholars of all shades working in the field of journalism studies today.

By relying on these presumptions, we fail to acknowledge the truth that the press has actually been heavily manipulated in many regions of the world outside of the liberal and frequently libertarian Anglo-American tradition. From the employment of journalism to advance national socialist ideology in Nazi Germany to China's watchdogs on party leashes, totalitarian governments around the world have demonstrated a profound knowledge of the power of the press. We shouldn't dismiss the fact that media has been employed to support genocide, spread hatred, and incite conflict. For instance, the situations in Rwanda, Liberia, and Sierra Leone have all received extensive documentation. Relatedly, it has become clear that assertions of free speech universalism clash with cultural and religious sensibilities in a globalized society ever since the contentious publication of cartoons depicting the Prophet Muhammad by the Danish daily Jyllandsposten. Journalism researchers who are cognizant of these complexities are increasingly interested in tracing the effects of significant changes brought about by globalization and political, economic, social, and technological change in journalism organizations, production practices, content, and audiences.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, pursuing a career in journalism is crucial for a number of reasons. People who study journalism develop their media literacy, allowing them to navigate the complicated media environment and differentiate between trustworthy information and falsehoods. Journalism studies also place a strong emphasis on moral principles, encouraging ethical and reliable journalism methods. Furthermore, by enabling people to participate actively in public conversation and contribute to reasoned decision-making, journalism education advances media democracy. People can enroll in academic programs, select specialties based on their interests, receive real-world experience through internships, and network with professionals in the field to pursue journalism studies. In general, journalism studies give people the knowledge, abilities, and ethical framework required to become influential journalists and contribute to a society that is well-informed.

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CHAPTER 2

JOURNALISM HISTORY: EVOLUTION AND IMPACT OF MEDIA

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalism has its roots in ancient civilizations, where early news reporting took the form of oral storytelling, town criers, and handwritten bulletins. Johannes Gutenberg's printing press in the fifteenth century revolutionized journalism, allowing mass production of printed goods like newspapers and pamphlets. Early newspapers emerged in the 17th and 18th centuries, with periodicals like The London Gazette and The Pennsylvania Gazette playing significant roles in dissemination. The 19th century saw industrialization and press expansion, with the telegraph and rotary printing press contributing to the global expansion of newspapers. Radio and television emerged in the 20th century, increasing accessibility and promptness of news. The internet introduced online news sources, blogs, and social media sites, opening new channels for citizen journalism and challenging established news outlets. Today's challenges for journalism include fake news, misinformation, and the shifting nature of digital media. Journalists strive to uphold values of accuracy, objectivity, and accountability in an era of quick information distribution. Journalism continues to play a crucial role in delivering news and influencing public debate through oral traditions and digital platforms, adapting to new technologies and societal requirements.

KEYWORDS:

Century, History, Journalism, Newspapers, System.

INTRODUCTION

Compared to the phrase journalism, the term journalism history is a comparatively new invention. The discussion that is currently referred to as journalism history, however, has a longer history that traces the development of news culture as a subset of first print culture and then media culture. New styles of reporting on news history emerged with each new development in news culture. The line dividing journalism history from other branches of media history has remained leaky and hazy over the duration of this history. Journalism history has been battling an identity crisis since the 1970s, a crisis that in many ways prefigures the more general crisis in journalism's identity today. Because journalistic histories are so varied, historicizing them is the most effective way to map them. This approach also has the benefit of demonstrating how the endeavor of writing histories of journalism has been a component of a more extensive endeavor of defining and regulating news culture [1]–[4].

Today, history is seen by many scholars as an essential instrument for analyzing professional journalism by illuminating its complexities and contingencies. From two sources emerged the history of journalism. The first was a general intellectual interest in the development of communication technologies. Many academics attribute this interest to Plato's Phaedrus, which addresses cognitive problems with writing. The impact of literacy, alphabetic literacy, and finally

the printing press on profound structural changes in social, cultural, and political life caught the attention of many Enlightenment philosophers in Europe. The same philosophy was espoused by 20th-century intellectuals Marshall McLuhan and Harold Adams Innis. This viewpoint frequently manifests as a propensity to overstate the significance of machines in influencing the development of journalism in works of journalism history proper. Journalists' autobiographies frequently focus on the changes in newsroom technology that took place over the course of their subjects' employment, and comprehensive histories frequently use the advent of new technologies, such the steam press or radio, as narrative turning points [5]–[8]. The second source for the history of journalism was more professional. Newswork created a history for itself as it matured and became more professional by projecting its identity into the past. Therefore, journalism history developed alongside journalism, and its historical awareness is a characteristic of its actual growth.

The beginning of the seventeenth century saw the introduction of printed newspapers in Europe. They were a late addition to the so-called printing revolution, which focused initially on expanding and multiplying the types of books that had previously been printed by hand before producing newer formats that more fully utilized the printing press's capabilities. Because printers and their customers were not immediately aware of the needs for newspapers, they were not formed right away. However, with the escalation of religious dissent after the Protestant Reformation, the emergence of new economic institutions, and the emergence of the market society, activists and businesspeople created newspapers as useful medium. Early newspapers targeted certain readers, such as business owners, members of the landed gentry, and Calvinists. Such journals were prevalent in the capital towns of Western Europe by the middle of the seventeenth century. The first English-language newspapers weekly newsbooks called Corantos, which were published there in 1620, were especially significant because Amsterdam was a leading city in both commerce and religious independence.

Generally speaking, it wasn't until the seventeenth century that newspapers started to regularly target a wider public with political issues. The newspaper was once a tool for business and religious controversy, but with the emergence of a bourgeois public sphere, it has evolved into a venue for ongoing political debate and disagreement. In the era of bourgeois revolutions, newspapers emerged as crucial sources. The American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Great Revolution in England all gave rise to vibrant news cultures and printed conflict. Newspaper political reporting standards emerged as political systems in Europe and North America matured. The newspaper evolved into a crucial component of a system for expressing public opinion. Newspaper discourse claimed a set of expectations for rational discourse in keeping with what Jürgen Habermas ascribes to the bourgeois public sphere as it stated its appropriate role. On whether these norms actually reflect the sociology of the news, historians dispute. Many disagree with Habermas' claims that public conversation in the eighteenth century was open, impersonal, and logical.

However, newspapers consistently referred to standards of all-encompassing logical monitoring, despite the fact that they were partisan, passionate, and exclusive. The letters of Cato and Publius, which were often reproduced in newspapers, serve as prime instances of this type of speech. The Federalist Papers are a collection of letters written by a trio of political James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay and published afterwards. According to Furtwang, their moniker refers to a figure from the Roman Republic but is translated properly as public man or citizen, emphasizing a nonpartisan concern with the welfare of society. The revolutions of the eighteenth century established a link between democracy and the media. As a result of the shift in the foundation of

governmental legitimacy from human blood and divine will to the will of the people, the main challenge for good administration has been the ongoing production of consent through public opinion. Public opinion was a major concern for political theorists. They started actively commenting on the need for systems of national communication after getting some experience with the workings of government, and they encouraged what we would call infrastructure development in the form of postal systems and the transportation networks they required.

Regulation and censorship of news culture were frequently seen as appropriate and necessary up until the early eighteenth century. The Thirty Years' War gave rise to the printing of news, which was heavily entwined in the protracted religious conflicts that followed the Protestant Reformation. The governments of Europe believed that policing public discourse was crucial to preserving stability and legitimacy. Together with the Vatican, they created systems of license and ban for the press. In the meantime, copyrights and patents were developed with the help of printers and booksellers. In essence, the government granted monopolies to ensure revenue while promoting moral conduct. The freedom of the press story became a staple of early journalism histories. Stories of valiant propagandists and publicists fighting censorship during the period of revolution were part of the general conversation around debates over the nature of government. A canon of liberal thought would develop over the course of the following century, bringing thinkers like Thomas Jefferson, John Milton, and Thomas Paine into a sustained dialogue. The shared culture of later journalism histories would be mostly artificial speech.

The age of revolution advocated that democratic administration should be founded on the public sentiment produced by a discussion space defined by standards of objective, logical discourse. But the reality of the partisan uses of the newspaper constantly clashed with this assumption. The shady validity of the means of party rivalry, notably the press, contributed significantly to the ferocity of early party politics in all the new democracies. In the majority of Western nations by the start of the nineteenth century, a blatantly partisan kind of news culture had taken hold. Journalism only enters the picture at this moment. It has French roots and was first used to describe the opinion journalism that thrived in the years after the Revolution. By about 1830, the phrase had made its way into English, but it was still used negatively to denote political dysfunction and referred to partisan discussion of public issues. Partisan journalism increasingly gained a favorable justification, while it was never entirely established as legitimate. Politics as a show started to look healthy as democratic administration became the norm. Observers asserted that political conflict served to advance a general societal good, much like the competition in the business. Additionally, throughout the early to mid-19th century, as most of Western Europe and North America eased press laws, a freer newspaper market mingled with partisan journalism to create something akin to a marketplace of public opinion.

Emergence

The first pieces of what would eventually become journalism history began to surface around this time. Early histories that documented the development of printing, including newspapers among other media, are predecessors. These largely jubilant portrayals of the development of the press were frequently also patriotic, inspired by a sense of the victory of democratic democracy and press freedom. The writings fit into what historians have referred to as the Whig theory of history, a broad narrative built around the inevitable conflict between liberty and power that highlights the progressive expansion of liberty. Even though ideas about journalism and press freedom

underwent significant shift, the Whig model of journalism history was to hold sway well into the twentieth century.

Biography dominated Whig history. The model tended to promote narratives of strong individuals as producers of change because it centered on the advancement of a specifically liberal notion of freedom. Additionally, news outlets frequently took on personalities. Early biographies of newspaper publishers are an example. In a well-known memoir, an enamored former assistant would establish a pattern of extolling the publisher, and that perspective would remain, either in later, extended versions of the work or in the background of biographies by authors unconnected to the well-known figure. A mass press began to emerge in the United States and Europe around the middle to end of the nineteenth century, with the time of its emergence being linked to the persistence of taxes or other types of press regulation. Compared to the older, largely political journals, this commercialized press was more dependent on advertising income and hence targeted a wider audience. Newspapers used new types of material to assemble targeted readerships that could then be sold to advertisers. Newspapers segregated these increasingly diverse audiences by gender, age, and class. increased event-oriented news, particularly criminal news, as well as increased reporting on social and cultural issues, or so-called human interest stories, were included in the mass circulation press.

Around that time, journalism started to set itself off from its other and acquired its contemporary definition as a field of news reporting. The popular press developed a reputation for social marginality as it fed readers dramatic news as its broad viewership grew. Yellow journalism, which may have gotten its name from the inexpensive paper made by the new wood pulping process or, more likely, from the yellow covers of earlier inexpensive crime fiction, was a global phenomenon. Additionally, illustrated news gained popularity, first in Britain, then directly descended in France and Spain, before spreading to North America and other European nations. The popularity of the popular press coincided with the emergence of a politics of news quality. Reformers and established elites expressed dissatisfaction with how journalism affected public morality and intelligence. While the widespread thirst for controversy and sensation looked to coarsen public mores, it was said that the episodic nature of newspaper material hindered the people's capacity for sustained or complicated thought or deliberation. Thus, journalism took on the responsibility of fostering and regulating news culture.

Public, who want more decency in news culture, favored this aim. One result of this dynamic was the identification of an implicit constitutional right to privacy in the United State. Other parties engaged supported journalists' efforts to sanitize the news for other reasons. Publishers sought to improve their reputation in order to shield themselves from a public that was beginning to perceive press influence as a threat. Likewise, news professionals wanted to improve the standing of their profession [9], [10]. A specific sociology of newswork was concurrent with the attempt to improve journalism. Reporters scavenged news from beats and recorded meetings and other news events, while editors compiled news and wrote opinion pieces. Correspondents wrote lengthy letters from far-off locations and generally had a voice and expressed attitudes. Adjustments to this sociology were improved by efforts to promote journalism. When the roles of reporter and correspondent were combined, walls of reinforced separation between them and editors on the one hand and business managers on the other were built, resulting in the emergence of a proto-professional type of journalism. The rise of muckraking in the United States and other forms of expose journalism abroad is evidence of the enhanced autonomy that resulted from this redefined journalism.

DISCUSSION

Professionalization

Journalism in the West was prepared to start a professionalization initiative at the start of the 20th century. The process might be seen in widespread occurrences like the establishment of schools of journalism, press clubs, and associations, as well as the creation of codes of ethics. While governments in other locations built credentialing regimes, journalists in some other locations formed unions. The most industrialized parts of the news system, particularly metropolitan newspapers and wire services, developed aspects of monopoly in every developed nation, supporting the forms of control that an autonomous profession might establish. It was necessary for the professionalization effort to use a somewhat different type of journalism background. The new journalism schools desired a teachable past that might serve as moral role models for budding professionals. When the old Whig histories were freed of their mavericks, they became rather useful. More understanding of the business environment was also required while teaching about the journalism industry. The nations with larger commercial news outlets, particularly the US, included a story about market redemption. Independent journalism was viewed as a commercial product that was free of any partisan links in the history textbooks that were most commonly utilized in American journalism schools.

Not only were standard textbooks consistent with this viewpoint, but so were important essays that would go on to become canonical in the history of journalism, such as Walter Lippmann's Two Revolutions in the American Press and Robert Park's Natural History of the Newspaper in the United States. For a number of reasons, this belief in the benefits of market forces appears strange. The mass market press, which had given the professionalization effort momentum at the end of the nineteenth century, seemed to be something that was deliberately forgotten in order to accomplish this. The monopolistic circumstances in the wire services and the new medium of broadcasting, which both contributed to public uneasiness over media power and supplied the levers for enforcing standards on news culture, also appeared to be rendered invisible. Additionally, it appeared to argue against the professionalization project's main goal of creating a wall of separation between the newsroom and the counting room.

In the 20th century, the majority of Western nations institutionalized journalism using the professional model. What has been referred to as the high modernism of journalism was influenced by the initiatives to establish journalism schools, codes of ethics, licensing requirements, and unions. The growth of broadcast journalism, particularly when linked to oligopolistic commercial systems or monopolistic national broadcasting organizations, strengthened the professionalization of news. The conflicts of the 20th century played a significant role in fostering preventative ideas of media duty and igniting concerns about the use of propaganda. Professionalization was also aided by the emergence of the corporate form of ownership. Regarding the institutionalization of professional journalism, there were differences in the West.

Three models or media systems have been identified by Daniel Hallin and Paolo Mancini partisanism in southern Europe, represented by what they term the polarized pluralist system, social democracy in northern Europe, represented by the democratic corporatist system, and market-based systems in the North Atlantic, represented by the liberal system. The preservation of some level of professional journalism's independence from existing authorities as well as from market and political influences, however, was a concern for all three systems. In the meantime, the idea of press independence as well as the autonomous journalism model were exported to the south

and east. After World War II, particularly after the 1970s, another model of investigative journalism imported from the United States supplemented and in some cases, replaced the partisan model, which had emerged in the Americas alongside national liberation movements in the nineteenth century. The idea of independent journalism had a significant role in early nationalist movements in Asia, particularly in China, throughout the first decades of the 20th century.

Alternatives

The media systems of the communist regimes of the twentieth century were influenced by the alternative vision of journalism projected by radical political thought in the nineteenth century, which had a different idea of professionalism. The independence of the intellectual world was contested by materialisms like Marxism. These philosophies view communication, especially mediated communication, as a type of material production, to put it simply. The class structure and class power of capitalist society are reproduced via capitalist communication systems. Class power is mystified by journ alism as a normal job and as an alienated activity. Therefore, post-capitalist media systems should strive to reveal and ultimately defeat class power. Such systems might enable two distinct visions of journalism. Journalism may become a hobby for common people or it could take on the role of a vanguard.

The former scenario would integrate journalism into citizens' daily life an concept to be revisited later, but the latter scenario would result in the complete opposite: a high level of professionalism in journalism practice. As it turned out, Party vanguardism was a tendency in the communist nations' media systems. Evidently, this conception of journalism put forth a different account of how Western journalism came to be a feature of the emergence of bourgeois class relations and a component of the ideological machinery that sustained capitalist rule. The courageous reporters were not the heroes of journalism, but rather the principled partisans who opposed the system from the periphery. One such journalist was none other than Karl Marx. He largely supported himself while living in exile in London by working as a correspondent on European issues for Horace Greeley's New York Tribune.

A new world order that emerged after World War II supported an ambiguous liberalism. All new national constitutions recognized the idea of sovereignty based on the agreement of the governed that was expressed in the UN Charter. The right to communicate and exercise one's freedom of speech are supported by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. However, a wide range of potential interpretations and systems were covered by these formulations. The North Atlantic or liberal model, which Hallin and Mancini refer to, saw the right to communicate as approving the growth of American-style news media, notably the wire services that supported them. Some people believed that the right to communicate applied to people's rights rather than to media, which had a social responsibility to uphold these rights. The Hutchins Commission report from 1947, which echoed but entirely omitted to relate to a worldwide discourse on press accountability, was a text that firmly encapsulated the idea of social responsibility in the United States.

Another compelling framework for journalism history based on a comparative media systems approach was prompted by post-war global realities. The book Four Theories of the Press, which established a simplified schema based on philosophical presuppositions about the nature of mankind, the state, and truth, served as the most important example of this method. Numerous critics have highlighted this approach's flaws, including its uncritical incorporation of liberal presuppositions, its implied narrative of a natural history leading to a neoliberal model, and its neglect of non-Western histories, particularly those of the global south.

The development of a global information system was also highlighted by post-war circumstances. A number of histories of the global wire services have been published, including those by Schiller, Nordenstreng & Schiller, Rantanen, and Hills. The criticism of an unequal flow of information became a component of the political movement for a New World Information and Communication Order, which began within UNESCO in the 1970s and culminated with the MacBride Commission report in 1980. However, this movement was defeated by a Western counterattack and moved on to other arenas, such as the GATT through the 1980s and the WTO in the 1990s. The most influential critical histories of the geography of information in response to these processes were written by David Harvey and Manual Castells. The international aspect is frequently overlooked by journalism historians. Only a few notable works cross national boundaries to engage in historical dialogue. The same may be said of media history in general. Scholars frequently analyze national media systems separately, as the nervous system of the political organism, because of their close ties to polity life. Additionally, it is typically done under national supervision to gather archives and finance academic research.

The high modern moment began to fade around the end of the twentieth century in the Western modern world. Previous iterations of independent journalism have been undermined by factors such as globalization, the end of the Cold War, the emergence of new digital technologies, the abolition of public service models of broadcasting and telecommunications, and the waning of traditional cultural support for rigid national identities. A new pattern of partisan media power associated with broadcast entrepreneurs like Silvio Berlusconi and Rupert Murdoch in the West and with the post-Soviet media explosion in Eastern Europe includes the rise of the 24-hour television news service, of new so-called personal media like talk radio and the blogosphere, of the tabloid form and a hybrid journalism, especially in Scandinavian countries. With the demise of high modernism came calls for a new public journalism or citizen journalism, as well as efforts to reconsider the press's function as an institution within the political system.

CONCLUSION

Journalic history highlights the development of human communication and the desire to share news and information. It has evolved through technological advancements and societal requirements, from oral traditions to the printing press, newspapers, and digital media. Journalism has played a crucial role in educating the populace, influencing public opinion, and creating informed citizens. However, it has faced challenges such as false information, fake news, and the evolving nature of digital media. Despite these challenges, journalists and news organizations continue to uphold principles of accuracy, impartiality, and accountability. The evolution of journalism serves as a reminder of the value of trustworthy news sources, critical media literacy abilities, and journalists' dedication to delivering reliable and accurate news. The history of journalism serves as a lighthouse, reminding us of fundamental ideals and principles that support the industry. To ensure journalism remains a pillar of an educated and democratic society, it promotes innovation, moral behavior, and media literacy.

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CHAPTER 3

JOURNALISM AND THE ACADEMY: BRIDGING THEORY AND PRACTICE

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
The integration of journalism into academia is a process fraught with numerous difficulties. The study of journalism has progressed along an uneven path filled with isolated pockets of disciplinary knowledge while the identifiable forms of journalism assume new dimensions to meet the shifting environments in which journalism exists. As a result, there is little agreement among us regarding the two crucial phrases that are the subject of our discussion. We can just barely agree on what journalism is and how the school should relate to it. This chapter explores the different existential concerns that underlie journalism's coexistence with academia and makes a number of recommendations to improve the uneasy and frequently symbiotic nature of their partnership.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Communication, Journalism, News, Study.

INTRODUCTION

In a time when journalism is studied in fields as diverse as communication, literature, business, and sociology, and ranges from individualized blogs to satirical relays on late-night television, reexamining journalism's place in the academy may seem like an unnecessary effort to raise concerns about the long-term viability of a phenomenon that already seems to be everywhere. Though journalism and its study are everywhere, they are actually nowhere. On the one hand, the evolution of journalism has given rise to a profusion of recurring and unsolved laments about which form, practice, or convention would be better fitted than their alternatives to qualify as newsmaking convention. On the other hand, the scope and frequent unpredictability of its long-term evolution have not been matched by its investigation [1]–[4]. The tension between journalism and the school parallels a larger tension that describes journalism's erratic and sporadic interaction with the outside world. Critics charged George Orwell with turning what might have been a good book into journalism when he included newspaper quotes in his first book.

His collected works were published decades later under the unambiguous title Smothered Under Journalism, 1946. Literary titans like Charles Dickens, Samuel Johnson, John Dos Passos, Andre Malraux, Dylan Thomas, and John Hersey all have journalistic backgrounds that are littered with similar tales. These types of responses are common despite a heavy dependence on journalism to both place ourselves in relation to the greater group and to utilize that position as a springboard for more intricate methods of positioning ourselves and interpreting the world. This is puzzling considering that journalism plays a significant role in much of our situational knowledge. Without journalists, what would history be like? What kind of literature would that be? How might we comprehend how the political system functions? Even though journalism is a phenomenon that

manifests itself in many different ways across all of the ways that we interact as a society, the retort it's just journalism is nevertheless frequently used [5]–[7].

The friction between journalism and academia is one of several existential causes that supports cohabitation. The most blatant doubt comes from the practical concerns that underlie journalism's practice, which causes its definition to change every time alleged intruders blogs, citizen journalists, late-night TV comedians, or reality television get too close to its fictitious boundaries. The pedagogical aspects relating to journalism and the academy are a second source of confusion. There are many options for how we might teach what we believe to be true, especially as journalism's definition evolves. And yet, rather than being in front of its continuously shifting boundaries, those who educate what constitutes and does not constitute journalistic practice and tradition have a tendency to lag behind. Finally, one of the biggest areas of uncertainty is related to the conceptual aspects of the relationship, or what we look at when we consider journalism. Academics have over the years used a number of lenses to view journalism, including its craft, its impact, its performance, and its technology.

However, they have not yet created a scholarly portrait of journalism that combines all of these lenses into a coherent reflection of everything that journalism is and could be. Instead, the study of journalism is still unfinished, fragmented, and imperfect, which leaves its practitioners unsure of what it means to think generally about journalism. This chapter discusses these potential sources of ambiguity and, in doing so, considers some significant difficulties facing the study of modern journalism. It makes the case for a space of reflection on both the historical context of journalism practice and research as well as the extent to which the underlying presumptions are consistent with the entire scope of current journalism. What aspects of journalism and its research have been given special consideration, and what has been avoided? When considering journalism studies in a global context, where variation has not been taken into account or even recognized to the extent that it exists on the ground, these problems become even more important [8], [9].

Interpretive Communities and thinking about Journalism

What academics think depends on how they think and who they think with, and the sociology of knowledge is likely the field where this has progressed the most. The idea that research depends on reaching consensus, on creating shared paradigms that define and characterize issues and procedures in ways that are recognized by the collective, was most clearly attributed to Thomas Kuhn (1964). Individuals supporting opposing viewpoints compete over definitions, frames of reference, and boundaries of inclusion and exclusion as they work to reach consensus. Once a consensus has been reached, new phenomena frequently follow already validated categories. In other words, the way we think is preset and prioritizes power, community, and solidarity.

The social group is crucial for establishing ways of knowing the world, according to Emile Durkheim (1965, Robert Park (1940), Michel Foucault (1972), Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann (1966), and Nelson Goodman (1978). All of these scholars made this claim in their own unique ways. The concept of interpretative communities, which was first put forth by Stanley Fish in 1980 and later expanded in combination with journalism by Zelizer in 1993, Berkowitz in 2000, and others, aids in locating the methods used to share knowledge as being fundamental to the knowledge that is produced. The people, organizations, institutions, and fields of investigation involved in journalism's analysis become crucial in understanding what journalism is because it recognizes that groups with similar ways of processing evidence give light on how problems of worth are settled and resettled. True solidarity is only conceivable, according to the anthropologist

Mary Douglas, to the extent that individuals share the categories of their thought. Therefore, inquiry is not only an intellectual act but also a social one. What this offers for the study of journalism is an opportunity to consider the factors that shaped it. There is no singular, unified view of journalism that can be found, and no one voice in the study of journalism is better or more authoritative than the others. Instead, multiple perspectives provide additionaland more comprehensivemeans to comprehend what journalism is, as each has developed in tandem with its own assumptions about what important and in what ways.

Journalism study has long been a somewhat dubious field of study. The shared concern for journalism that is separately fundamental to each populationjournalists, journalism educators, and journalism scholarshas not remained at the forefront of their joint efforts when it has been negotiated between these three communities. Journalism educators claim that journalists have their heads in the sand and journalism scholars have their heads in the clouds, while journalists claim that journalism scholars and educators have no business airing their dirty laundry. Rather, the centrality and viability of journalism have been sidelined as laments have been voiced contending that the others fail to understand what is most important. The concern for journalism has frequently been put to the side as each has focused on who will be heard above the din of competing voices. Tensions about who has the capacity to speak over others and who is best positioned to uphold that right have therefore been at the heart of the ability to speak about journalism. Each of the alternative viewpoints in the study of journalism forms a sort of interpretive community. Each has defined journalism in accordance with its own goals before establishing tactics on how to approach it in light of those goals.

Journalists

According to Stuart Adam, journalists are people who participate in a wide range of news-related activities, such as reporting, criticism, editorializing, and the conferring of judgment on the shape of things. There is no denying the significance of journalism, and despite the fact that it has been the subject of constant discussion that has both defended and criticized its performance, no one has ever maintained that journalism is irrelevant. Instead, current circumstances have emphasized the importance of journalism and the essential part it can play in assisting people in making sense of both their daily lives and the ways in which they are connected to the greater body politic. But not all of journalism's potential has materialized in reality. Journalists in the modern day are constantly under attack. They operate in a financial climate where dwindling revenues, fragmentation, branding, and bottom-line demands continue to push the news to operate as a precarious for-profit business across an expanding number of outlets. While many journalists have started to multitask the same topic in ways that older generations would not recognize, these venues haven't necessarily resulted in a greater span of coverage.

Every media sector in the United Statesmainstream newspapers, radio and cable news, the alternative pressis losing readers, with the exception of the ethnic press. Today's journalism is no longer a reliable economic endeavor as we enter a new era of shrinking ambitions, according to the Project for Excellence in Journalism's 2007 report.Politically, journalists have been under fire from both the left and the right, who have argued for various definitions of what constitutes journalistic performance in addition to a political atmosphere that has undermined the journalist's ability to carry out traditional functions. While the conflicting and incompatible expectations from the left and right have stifled some aspects of journalism's performance in more stable political regimes, the global decline of the nation-state has brought new concerns about the best ways for

journalism to function. In the United States, journalists have tended to gravitate toward coverage that plays to safe political spaces, resulting in news that is characterized by increased localism, personalization, and oversimplification. As a result, they have found themselves in an untenable situation where they have been caught up in various dubious embraces with the government, local interests, and the military. The different models of practice that journalists have learned to follow have not always been carefully considered and none have been completely matched to the complexity of today's international political contexts.

The technical demands that the blogosphere and other platforms have placed on journalists have weakened the very viability of news reporting. Along with the reality of coverage, how journalists report the news has lost some of its significance. Journalism is becoming a smaller part of people's information mix, with alternative sites like late-night television comedies, blogs, and online publications like Global Voices taking the lead in gatekeeping. In this sense, it has been suggested that viewers of websites like Comedy Central's The Daily Show are better educated about current events than viewers of conventional news . Finally, there have been numerous ethical scandals involving journalists. The Gilligan Affair in Britain and the incidents involving Judith Miller and Jayson Blair in the United States have all sparked concerns about the moral fiber of journalists, paving the way for a focus on alternative media, or citizen journalism, in which the role of journalists is increasingly taken over and carried out by ordinary people. The public may now more readily recognize the limitations of journalism, which has led them to claimat least in the case of the US news mediathat they are less accurate, less caring, less moral, and more inclined to cover up rather than correct mistakes .

All of this shows that journalists have not been as successful as they could have been in spreading the importance and centrality of journalism over the world. There are also issues with evolving definitions of what constitutes a journalist: Does one include the Weather Channel or Sharon Osbourne? There are additional questions surrounding the topic of what technologies are legitimate news-producing tools, such as whether or not reality television or mobile camera phones qualify. Finally, there is no definitive solution to the fundamental question of why journalism exists. Is its purpose merely informational or does it actively combine community and public citizenship? The subject has become increasingly challenging to address due to how journalism functions differently around the world, such as the differences between the partisan models that are popular in Southern Europe and the developmental journalism that is common in some regions of Asia.

This is partially due to the fact that the definition of journalism is based on a number of opposing viewpoints. Is it a trade, a career, a set of habits, a group of people, a sector, an organization, a company, or a way of thinking? Given that it undoubtedly combines some of these characteristics, it is important to understand how they complement and occasionally conflict with one another. This is crucial because there haven't actually ever been any basic inquiries about journalistic tools, and the tools haven't been regarded equally. One component of journalism that has been poorly executed is the use of images, which frequently appear without titles, credits, or any discernible connection to the phrases next to them. However, the uneven standards by which images serve as news relays have been poorly matched to the turn to images in times of crisisby which there are more images, more prominent images, bolder images, and larger images. Two and a half times as many images appeared in the front sections of a newspaper like the New York Times after the terrorist events of September 11 as there did after the start of the US war in Iraq. Therefore, the absence of clear standards growth is significant because, despite insufficient attention, images have

been the main focus of journalism's relays. Additionally, because their alleged correct usage has not been established, the presentation of the image has become controversial, with people raising objections whenever news media uses images that irritate them.

This means that because of the media's hesitation to carry out its duties, othersincluding politicians, lobbyists, concerned citizens, grieving parents, and even militia membershave been able to make decisions in place of the media, albeit without the media's approval. The extent to which crisis has evolved into the default situation for much of journalistic practice has also gone underappreciated. The evolution of crisis as the rule rather than the exception of journalism suggests a need to be more explicit about how such impulses play into newsmaking, as there has been more in the news that takes shape on the backs of improvisation, sheer good or bad fortune, and ennui than is typically admitted. Journalism has appeared to be a lot more predictable and managed than it actually is because crises have been left out of the picture. All of this has caused journalists to become a group that is somewhat disconnected from both its supporters and its opponents. Givens like the audience's needs, the evolving nature of newsgathering, or the peripheral aspects of the newsroomincluding inspiration and creativityhave largely gone neglected. Therefore, it is not surprising that in the US, journalists consistently score poorly in surveys of the people who the public trusts.

DISCUSSION

Journalism Educators

The need to introduce beginners to the craft of journalism has brought together the instructors of journalism. Even though vernacular education has varied depending on the region, it generally displays similar trends. Around 1900, newswriting and the history of journalism went from English departments into the earliest stages of a journalism curriculum in the United States, where it later expanded into ethics and the law. Other initiatives in the social sciences emerged in the late 1920s, where the drive to create a science of journalism positioned craftcommonly referred to as skills classesas one quadrant of a curriculum comprising courses in public opinion, economics, psychology, and survey research. Thus, the debate over which field of study would be more effective in training future journaliststhe humanities or the social sciencescaught the attention of those who taught journalism. This division, which is still prevalent for many people, is reflected in the so-called quantitative/qualitative split in news-gathering methods. A long-standing practice of apprenticeship education and the widespread belief that journalism's technical elements lacked academic rigor were obstacles to journalism education in the United Kingdom.

Practical journalism did not enter the curriculum until 1937, but it was not until the late 1960s that sociology and political science entered, partly thanks to the efforts of Jeremy Tunstall. Academic interest in the social sciences was first apparent in Germany and Latin America, which pushed journalism education toward sociology and ideas of professionalism. In each instance, intellectual curiosity among educators aided in the connection between journalists and the outside world, but it also severely harmed the profession, reducing it to what James Carey called a signaling system. Journalism educators initially provided an old-fashioned apprenticeship, but over time they began to address journalism by breaking it into production technologies and isolating newspapers, magazines, television, and radio from one another. A location where journalism as a whole might be viewed as a sum of many different pieces was lost in this. Additionally, Carey believed that the ensuing curricula frequently lacked historical understanding, criticism, or self-consciousness. In this way, the larger university curriculum was at odds with journalistic education. It eventually

came to be considered a part of the vernacular, the vulgate in the humanities. It came to be viewed in the social sciences as an instrument for directing public opinion but as being unimportant in and of itself.

Journalism Scholars

The last group of people that are of interest to journalism are the academics who study it. Despite the vast amount of literature that has been written about the principles, methods, and effects of journalism, these researchers have yet to come up with a comprehensive definition of what journalism is. However, journalism is actually taught in every university course. As well as the less obvious goals of composition sequences, history, sociology, urban studies, political science, economics, and business, journalism has grown to dominate academic efforts in communication, media studies, and journalism schools. This indicates that the academy has already experienced tenfold much of what has been outlined thus far in terms of developing a distinctive and autonomous interpretive community. Academics sometimes work under the restrictions and confines of disciplinary communities, therefore the perspectives promoted by those groups often assume the form of the subjects they research. These fields, which resemble interpretative communities, have contributed to the definition of what constitutes evidence and how it should be used. They have also determined which categories of study do not count.

How has journalism been taught in all subjects? Each method to journalism has isolated certain features of the phenomenon from the others: Such compartmentalization has impeded efforts to define journalism by focusing on only certain of its components rather than the total. The end result has been a field of journalism study at war with itself, with journalism educators and scholars separated, humanistic journalism scholars and scholars trained in the social sciences apart, and a plethora of independent academic efforts being made in a variety of disciplines without the shared knowledge essential to academic inquiry. In addition to these initiatives, journalists have consistently opposed efforts to closely study their workplace. One of the major ramifications of this has been the reduction in the variety of news. Scholars have not created a body of work that encompasses all of journalism rather, they have defined it in ways that favor a particular kind of hard news over others. The metonymic bias of academic research has therefore widened the distance between what Peter Dahlgren called the realities of journalism and its official presentation of self.

Copy editors, graphic designers, online journalists, opinion journals, camera operators, tabloids, and satirical late-night programs have all gone missing for extended periods of time. In other words, the school has promoted specific focuses for thinking about journalism that fail to take into consideration the full scope of the profession. Most of the diversity in the news has vanished. Journalism as a profession has had a similar fate. The academy's efforts to professionalize journalism, which were largely motivated by its sociological investigation, have told journalists that they are professionals whether or not they want to be, raising the stakes associated with the profession and frequently to the harm of those who do it. The consequences of this are evident in the demise of conventional concepts of craft. For instance, the imposition of codified entry and exclusion criteria has led to a posture against professionalization among many European journalists: In the UK, there has been a shortage of space for the expanding number of recently graduated journalists in France, investigative reporting has become unduly aggressive.

According to longstanding British correspondent James Cameron, we are at our best craftsmen; it is fatuous to compensate for our insecurity by calling ourselves members of a profession. However,

journalism's defining characteristic of skill has been overshadowed by what is essential to know. Diverse foreign kinds of journalism have suffered the same cruel destiny. Although journalism has developed differently in each of the places where it has been practiced, the preponderance of scholarly work has been on the US. These types of journalism practiced outside of journalism's Western core have gone unaddressed because a large portion of this research has been US-centered, serving as a very constrained but honorable gold standard for a wide range of journalistic practices implemented around the world. The numerous questions concerning journalism that dot the global horizon have likewise gone unresolved.

Additionally, despite the fact that much of the history of journalism has been intertwined with that of the nation-state, it is difficult to argue that this connection still holds true in the modern world. What type of alternative drive should guide the new journalistic infrastructure, given that one of globalization's major repercussions has been to undercut the nation state's centrality? Here, the opposing cases of capitalism and religious fundamentalism serve as examples. Both have altered the definition of journalism by gravitating toward journalistic practices that are at odds with the desires for so-called free information dissemination. The implication of all of these facts is that journalism scholars have not done enough to maintain the bonds that attach them to journalism in all of its manifestations. This is crucial because there is a body of information about journalism that primarily preaches to the choir while doing nothing to establish a common understanding of how journalism functions or what journalism is for.

Types of Inquiry

The study of journalism has been influenced by various academic disciplines, including sociology, history, language studies, political science, and cultural analysis. These disciplines have provided a framework for understanding how journalism matters, how it used to matter, language studies how it matters through verbal and visual tools, political science how it ought to matter, and cultural analysis how it matters differently. However, the underlying presumptions that each frame applied to its analysis of the journalistic world reveal an incomplete image of how various lenses on journalism have produced, at best, an incomplete image. Sociology has provided a standard framework for considering how journalism operates, focusing on people rather than documents, relationships, work routines, and formulaic interactions across members of the community involved in gathering and presenting news. This picture is largely based on the ethnographies of news or newsroom studies of the seventies. Sociology has established the notion that journalists operate as sociological agents with norms, practices, and routines, situated within organizational, institutional, and structural contexts. It has also advanced the idea that journalists are professionals, although unsuccessful ones.

Historical inquiry, which relies more on documents than on actual people, can be broken down into three main categories: journalism history writ small, history writ midway, and history writ large. Each varies significantly depending on the nation under consideration. A deliberate twining of the role that writing history serves for both journalists and the academy has been absent from this discussion. Finding out how to better mix the two has not received enough attention. The question of whose journalism history continues to be a major obstacle for historians today. The assumption in the study of journalistic languages is that communications from journalists are not straightforward or overly simple, but rather the outcome of created action on the side of speakers. This region has mostly been developed in the last 35 years and has evolved to cover vocal language, sound, still and moving pictures, and patterns of interactivity by combining formal

language aspects like grammar, syntax, and word choice with less formal ones like storytelling frames, textual patterns, and narratives. Political scientists have long been interested in journalism from a normative perspective, wondering how it ought to function under ideal circumstances. This investigation is driven by a premise that politics and journalism are interdependent and is interested in investigating journalism via a vested interest in the political sphere. As a result, many academics have clarified how journalism can better serve its audiences.

In conclusion, the study of journalism has been influenced by various academic disciplines, but the underlying presumptions that each frame applied to its analysis reveal an incomplete image of how journalism matters. Journalism's political role in making news has been a subject of interest in various studies, including those by scholars of government and politics in the United Kingdom, Latin America, and Eastern Europe. Many studies support the notion that journalism should be in sync with societal political impulses, but normative motivations have led to some recovery. Journalism's cultural analysis has a history of challenging assumptions and investigating cultural symbol systems that help reporters understand their work. The inquiry has followed two strands, focusing on issues with meaning, group identity, and social change. This has led to consideration of the fuzziness of distinctions between various types of newswork, such as tabloid and mainstream, mainstream and online, and newswork and the nonnews world.

There is a need for more clear and thorough collaboration across frames, as each frame for studying journalism has emerged as a unique mirror on the news. This sharing would not only foster an appreciation for journalism but also counteract the shortsightedness with which most journalism scholarship has been established. Concerns still need to be clarified, including how scholars define news, newsmaking, journalism, journalists, and the news media, which explanatory frames they employ, and from which fields of study they borrow to shape their assumptions. Adopting diverse perspectives is required not only because journalism scholarship has not resulted in a body of knowledge that encompasses all of journalism but also because it has not resulted in a body of experts aware of the work being done in all areas of scholarly study. The interaction between journalism and the academy's conceptual, pedagogical, and pragmatic facets leads to existential uncertainty.

CONCLUSION

The development of journalism and the academy depends on their mutually beneficial connection. While the academia acts as a hub for knowledge creation, critical thinking, and the training of future journalists, journalism serves as an essential link between the public and the distribution of information. By getting access to rigorous research, intellectual knowledge, and theoretical frameworks that improve the quality and depth of reporting, journalism benefits from the academy. The focus placed by the academia on moral principles and fact-checking also helps to uphold the integrity and credibility of journalism. Furthermore, academic institutions frequently offer venues for journalists to present their work, participate in conversations, and work together on significant subjects. On the other hand, journalism provides the academy with real-world experiences and useful ideas. Journalists contribute up-to-date information, firsthand accounts, and a variety of viewpoints to academic discourse, enhancing both teaching and research. Their work questions conventional wisdom, promotes critical thought, and aids in the integration of theory and practice. Together, journalism and academia promote a lively interchange of ideas, promoting an informed society and a knowledgeable populace. They safeguard the public's right to obtain accurate

information, promote openness, and the democratic functioning of society by keeping a close contact.

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CHAPTER 4

JOURNALISM EDUCATION: NURTURING THE FUTURE OF MEDIA PROFESSIONALS

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
By enhancing the quality of journalists, journalism education is thought to enhance the quality of journalism. It is viewed as the one way society can intervene to influence the development of journalism. In other words, the type of education that aspiring journalists acquire is important because, among the many components that make up journalism, journalists are important. Journalism, and the educational programs that enable individuals to practice and upgrade their journalistic skills, are essential tools for the underpinning of key democratic principles that are fundamental to the development of every country, according to UNESCO in the foreword to Model Curricula for Journalism Education for Developing Countries & Emerging Democracies. The main components of journalism education will be examined in this chapter, especially the notion of enhancing journalism practice. The history of journalism education in the United States will then be examined during the course of the following century. It will cover current essential texts and look at the professionalization issue, which is thought to be the foundation of tertiary journalism education. The discussion of what should be taught in journalism school and the frequently unrecognized ideological presumptions that underlie journalism teaching will then be outlined in the chapter. The chapter will conclude by highlighting possible future study areas.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Education, Media, School, Training.

INTRODUCTION

The idea that journalism education lays the groundwork for the attitudes and information of future journalists is one of its most important components. There are various opinions on what should be taught to journalists, though. There are numerous techniques to teach journalists. Thus, the broad range of journalism education is a crucial component. One only needs to be aware of the range of educational backgrounds of journalists and the proportions of those who studied journalism before becoming journalists to get the picture. Insofar as recent statistics are available, the findings indicate a clear tendency toward journalists having a university or college education. Only a small percentage of journalists, however, have degrees in journalism, media, or communication studies.If we define journalism as primarily news journalism and examine newspapers, we must also admit that the majority of them are produced in Asia, reflecting the region's steadily growing geopolitical and demographic importance. Newspapers with the largest readership are from Japan. The Asahi, the Yomiuri, and the Mainichi, the most prestigious news agencies, according to Gaunt, exclusively hire graduates from prestigious universities who hold degrees in political science, economics, or the humanities. The bulk of aspiring journalists obtain on-the-job training that takes the shape of a strict apprenticeship system because few colleges offer media degrees [1]–[4].

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, journalism and communication are quickly gaining popularity as fields of study in China. This is a sign of how quickly Chinese culture and the media landscape are changing. Currently, courses are perceived as falling behind market demands since they blend skill-building lessons with studies of Chinese Communist thought. However, despite a rise in higher education options in media, communication, or journalism degrees, as witnessed in the US and Germany, fewer journalists choose these programs as a route to employment. From 1982 to 2002, the proportion of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree graduates who went into mass communication jobs declined sharply from over one-half to about one-fourth, according to Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, and Wilhoit. Due of this, journalism education in the United States has evolved into a more all-encompassing field of mass or public communication. On the other hand, nearly 90% of journalists have a degree. Similar to the United States, only 13 percent of journalists in Germany have a major or minor in journalism, and another 17 percent have studied communication or media.

However, 80.5% of journalists in Germany have a university degree or have attended school at some point. Importantly, 90% of those under the age of 35 completed an internship, and 60% completed the two-year, or one-year for graduates, in-house training program (ibid) [5], [6]. Despite the fact that fundamental journalistic working practices appear to be universal, the above-mentioned approaches to journalism show distinct national preferences. These figures show that there are other ways to become a journalist than through tertiary journalism school. This puts academic literature about journalism education, which is mostly focused on tertiary journalism education, out of step with the reality of primarily in-house training. Making the Newsmakers is a book by Gaunt, who writes in the introduction that Journalism training perpetuates or modifies professional practices and shapes journalists' perceptions of the role and function of the media. This article's discussion on journalism education has the distinct goal of altering practice, enhancing the caliber of information produced, and enhancing civil society's operations with the aid of this caliber journalism.

The History of Journalism Education

In the second part of the nineteenth century, in the United States, the notion that journalists should receive a college or university education to improve their journalism was born. The main location to study journalism at the tertiary level was the United States for the most of the 20th century. Journalism was not widely accepted as a topic field until the 1980s and 1990s, frequently in brand-new universities. The fact that the US pioneered both news journalism and journalism education is one reason why they struck new ground. According to Chalab, Anglo-Americans invented journalism as we know it today. In continental Europe, journalism was strongly related to the literary world, which required distinct talents and writing abilities than a daily rounds reporter. The losing US Civil War general, Robert E. Lee, is credited with putting into practice the notion that aspiring journalists should get a college education. He granted scholarships for journalism studies as part of a liberal arts degree as early as 1869 while serving as president of Washington College, which is now Washington & Lee University, in Lexington, Virginia.

Even back then, there were questions regarding journalism's legitimacy as a field of study. When Lee took the initiative, newspapers were still small businesses where the editor and printer were sometimes the same person. Accordingly, the early courses didn't just focus on reporting but also on writing and editing as well as technical printing abilities. Despite this earlier endeavor, James Carey asserted that the real start of journalism education came when Joseph Pulitzer forced money

into Columbia University's somewhat reticent hands in order to open a School of Journalism. Instead of the undergraduate college Pulitzer had originally envisioned, the Columbia School of Journalism opened its doors in 1912 as a graduate program. At a time when many, if not most, journalists hailed from working-class households, Pulitzer wanted to expand the minds of journalists. In order to accomplish this, he sought to provide them the inadequate liberal arts education.

Different approaches were used by other journalism studies pioneers. The new research was integrated into Wisconsin University's political science and sociology PhD programs by Willard Bleyer in the late 1920s. He believed that journalism research was a crucial component of journalism education. Long-term effects resulted from the decision to include journalism under the social sciences. According to Chaffee, cited in Johansen et al., founders of many major journalism schools elsewhere came from the Wisconsin program and carried its empirical social sciences assumptions with them. The Association of Journalism Education Administrators now also known as the Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass Communication and the accrediting body for journalism programs now known as the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication were both established thanks in large part to the work. Soon, there were three unique forms of collegiate journalism education. These either operated as separate departments within liberal arts or social science institutions, or as standalone graduate or undergraduate journalism schools, like the Walter Williams program at the University of Missouri.

Wilbur Schramm added an additional model. At the conclusion of World War II, Schramm oversaw journalism education at the University of Iowa. He later established communication studies and communication research institutes at the Universities of Illinois and Stanford. Despite Schramm's initial decision to situate his new communication program inside the realm of journalism, communication as a field of study quickly eclipsed journalism education, which was unable to shed its reputation as a vocational training school. Professors Bleyer, Williams, and Schramm, in contrast to Pulitzer, were solely interested in journalism, not journalists. A communication research institute could serve as a source of prestige for a school of journalism that may have been denigrated by academics in other fields because of the perceived trade school nature of journalism training, as Rogers stated. This left journalism education in an awkward position where it now finds itself, and the conversation concerning the professionalization of journalism and the curriculum for journalism education draws attention to how unsettled the argument is.

Although there are other nations with a history of journalism education, none have had the same influence on the field as the United States. L'Ecole Superieure de Journalisme, France's first journalism school, was founded in 1899 and joined the Ecole de Hautes Etudes en Sciences Sociales a year later. The darker side of journalism education was demonstrated in Spain, where General Franco established the country's national school of journalism in 1941 and put it under the Falangist Party's supervision. The most significant training facility in Spain was the national school of journalism, which was managed by the government until the early 1970s. This journalism school was a requirement for employment with the major government-controlled newspapers in Spain. Similar instances of state-run journalism schools can be found in the former Eastern Bloc nations, proving the underlying notion that journalism education is a crucial component, if not a tool, for forming journalists and the media [7]–[9].

DISCUSSION

Key Texts

The lack of significant literature on the subject is hardly surprising given the diversity of journalism education. Deuze was right when she observed that the literature on journalism education is frequently either wildly genericoften featuring case studies of what works and what doesn't in a specific curriculum, course, or classroomor extremely specific. Senior scholars frequently offer more or less historical accounts of their lifelong experiences in doing journalism education in this latter category. The books that take a broad perspective always have a survey element, outlining what is done in journalism education and where. The most comprehensive survey, though no longer current, was offered by Philip Gaunt in 1992. In his book, Making the Newsmakers, which was funded by UNESCO, Gaunt first evaluates the variations in training systems, training demands, and training structures before moving on to examine the efforts made by various nations or regions in journalism education, continent by continent and country by country.

According to Gaunt, the issues and opportunities facing journalism education can be divided into two predictable groups: those impacting the developing world and those affecting industrialized nations. He identifies technological progress as the major threat to the industrialized world while political control and a lack of resources are the two biggest obstacles facing the developing world. The status and salary that journalists earn are mentioned by Gaunt in describing his worries as having a direct bearing on the kind of students and teachers that are drawn to journalism studies: It is improbable that the profession will draw the smartest and brightest students or the most qualified lecturers in nations where journalists are seen as flacks or government employees. Ethics, professional standards, investigative reporting, press history, and various facets of communication theory are not subjects that should be taught in such systems. A decade and a half later, this insight is still relevant in a number of countries, although much has changed politically and in terms of global development. At the time of Gaunt's writing, neither the world nor Central and Eastern Europe had begun to notice the enormous revolution that was occurring in China.

 Today, those nations' media systemsas well as that of South Africaare classified as transitional. These changes have an impact on both their journalism education and their media system. In addition, even nations that are listed as not free in terms of media freedom, like Qatar, the country that is home to Al Jazeera, are now viewed as generating high-quality journalism that is supported by journalism education. The outdated dichotomous idea that the world is divided into regions where journalism and journalism education are either completely unrestricted by the government or are subject to long leashes or calibrated coercion is being replaced by the understanding that countries may use long leashes or calibrated coercion rather than repression, and that the freedom of the media in democracies can be conditional on commercial and ideological considerations. Making Journalists, a compilation by Hugo de Burgh, is influenced by this understanding. This volume's title may be similar to Gaunt's book, but its organization is distinct.

Making Journalists is not a comprehensive analysis of what is done where, but rather a collection of essays on themes. It is definitely stated by the book's editor that there is no satisfactory way to write a global account of journalism education. The method he has selected, in his opinion, exercises homogenization by demonstrating that the old fallacy that all journalisms were at different stages on route to an ideal model, probably Anglophone, is passé. In favor of a more thorough examination of journalism and journalists, journalism and the future, and journalism and

location on most continents including the Indian subcontinent, De Burgh's book forgoes the specifics of training systems. According to the book's editor, cultural differences rather than variations in political and legal systems are to blame for the inequalities in journalism education that de Burgh's book very purposefully embraces and emphasizes. Because he believes that the way journalism operates in a society is the product of culture, De Burgh intends to develop a new culturally oriented paradigm. Carey is used by the author to make the bold claim that communication is most revealingly examined as ritual rather than as transmission (ibid). De Burgh may avoid any inquiries about the ideological influences on the standards and values taught in journalism education by focusing on cultural rather than political, legal, and economic foundations for journalism.

The earlier book by Fröhlich and Holtz-Bacha, Journalism Education in Europe and North America: An International Comparison, which had 14 essays, resembles Gaunt's assessment in several ways. According to their preferences for journalism education, European nations, the United States, and Canada are divided in the book into three groups: those with a long academic tradition, those who favor non-tertiary journalism institutions, and those with a mix of both. Also considered is the potential for new journalism in Europe. Fröhlich and Holtz-Bacha acknowledge a variety of journalism education pathways, despite the fact that there are some common trends across Europe: Although this volume was limited to the Western democracies with an outlook on the developments in Eastern Europe and thus to similar political systems, the chapters revealed an unexpected diversity of educational philosophies. Fröhlich and Holtz-Bacha, in contrast to de Burgh, attribute these discrepancies primarily to political and historical variables.

Journalists for the 21st Century by Splichal and Sparks, research of a different kind, investigates the motives, expectations, and professionalization trends of first-year journalism students in 22 nations across all five continents, from Austria to Tanzania. The book's methodology is flawed in some ways. It is speculative to believe that first-year journalism students, who lack newsroom experience, are socialized and that they can provide definitive responses regarding how their standards and values have been influenced by the political system and the setting of their country. It may be claimed that what was measured instead was the relative influence of professional education in its early years. The findings of Splichal and Sparks in this regard are quite positive for journalism education.

These young people to stress a desire for the independence and autonomy of journalism was the most notable similarity that emerged. In their observation that first-year journalism students are at the precise point in their development when one would expect to find the idealistic conception of journalism as a genuine profession most strongly marked, Splichal and Sparks concede that exposure to more realities of the occupational situation would lead to a moderation of these idealistic view. The book by Splichal and Sparks makes a crucial argument for journalism instruction The fact that a third of these students' native nations are categorized as just somewhat free in terms of press freedom did not reduce the desire for independence and autonomy among the journalism students. As a result, it might be assumed that semi-democratic or autocratic governments teach similar norms and values to democratic ones. Therefore, it is very possible to consider journalism education to be a change agent.

Journalism Trade or Profession?

Whether journalism should be viewed as a trade or a profession remains the central topic in journalism education today. The implicit respect accorded to journalists and the required

educational background are the key differences between the two. A trade is defined as the regular exercise of a profession. If journalism were treated as a trade, only the occupational training necessary to perpetuate practice would be required; no prior education would be necessary. If journalism demands to be a profession, then this claim would need to be supported by at least a defined educational pathway. But as was already mentioned, journalists come from a wide range of educational backgrounds, and the majority of them receive on-the-job training from the media company they join. Due to this, the discussion of journalism education has been framed as scholars versus practitioners, which has resulted in a rift between the academic community and the business community that shows little evidence of resolving.

Journalism education must negotiate rather essentialist self-perceptions of both industry and academy, claims Deuze. The distinction between theory and practice, as noted by Deuz, adds a level of complexity to our understanding of journalism. This duality is also seen as one of the key issues in journalism education at tertiary institutions, with discussion focusing on how much emphasis should be placed on theoretical versus applied content. But this argument hides a bigger, unrelated problem. The deeply held ideological viewpoints of journalism education are made clear when one examines the theoretical topics covered in journalism studies. For the majority of people in the Western world, democracy's political system is intrinsically intertwined with media and, by extension, journalism education. One of the crucial issues in journalism education that is still rarely discussed is the significance of this connection. Journalism researchers and educators will need to challenge the long-held belief that journalism education only exists in democracies as a result of recent developments in global politics and the media landscape.

Professionalization

Since the concept of professions first emerged in the English-speaking world, this is where the professionalization argument is most fiercely contested. Marx, Weber, and Durkheim, who are considered the fathers of sociology, are said to have been relatively vague about the role of professions by Tumber and Prentoulis. The phrase akademische Beruf exists in German, but the understanding of what a profession is is not. This is the cause of this. In other words, different people have different ideas about what professionalization in journalism entails, and this variation is reflected in the literature. According to Jeremy Tunstall, journalist is a designation that persons engaged in a wide diverse variety of activities assign to themselves. Journalism is an ambiguous occupation. It shouldn't come as a surprise that the dean of British media sociology made such a noncommittal statement. In contrast to the United States, the United Kingdom did not establish university-based journalism programs until the late 20th century.

In the UK, journalism has historically been seen of as a craft for which the necessary skills may be learned on the job. Unsurprisingly, the United States, the nation with the largest university-based journalism schools, led the primary push for professionalization. The arguments in Hallin and Mancini's book Comparing Media Systems are based in part on Hallin's earlier chapter Commercialism and Professionalism in the American News Medi, which is one of the most comprehensive attempts to outline what professionalization might mean for journalism. Hallin believes that journalism is very different from the classical professionslaw, medicine, architecture, engineeringin that its practice is not based on any systematic body of knowledge. He is also aware of journalism's lack of objectivity toward commercial and political factors. Nevertheless, despite these negative aspects, Hallin regards professionalizationi.e., formal, college-based educationas having the ability to protect journalists from monetary pressures and political instrumentalization.

In Comparing Media Systems, Hallin and Mancini develop these concepts further by comparing the journalistic profession to the following standards: autonomy, distinct professional norms, and public service orientation. According to these standards, journalists have never attained a level of autonomy similar to that of physicians and attorneys, according to Hallin and Mancini. They are employed by huge businesses when the production process is impacted by numerous factors. However, journalists have frequently been successful in achieving relative autonomy within those organizations. Hallin and Mancini note significant differences in the direction and pace of the evolution of journalistic norms with respect to professional norms. They also contend that norms can only be developed in professions that have some degree of autonomy, and they raise the possibility that journalistic practice is too frequently governed by outside parties.

Hallin and Mancini warn against accepting journalists' assertions that they are there to serve the public at face value, but they do not wish to write this assertion off as mere ideology. In contrast to other professions claiming professional status, journalism lacks esoteric knowledge, so journalists' claims to autonomy and authority are dependent on their claims to serve the public interest to a particularly large extent. This suggests that the ethic of public service may be particularly important in the case of journalism. The American professional ethic of objectivity differs significantly from public service, which is so important to Hallin and Mancini. Being a professional, according to Glasser and Marken, means adhering to certain norms and accepting the uniformity of practice that this implies. They recognize, however, that in a world where ideologies are numerous and frequently at odds with one another, such norms are difficult to come by and that American disdain for any model of journalism that violates the precepts of private ownership and individual autonomy prevents a more widespread consensus.

CONCLUSION

Internet use has also challenged preconceived ideals of professionalism. On the one hand, an increase in the communication autonomy of citizens has framed journalism as a intervention rather than a useful channel for information. On the other hand, confrontational journalism has been viewed as being constrained by the professional norms of objectivity and impartiality. Because of this, some people worry that professionalization will make journalism more exclusive and elitist rather than inclusive. While the professionalization issue is less heated than it once was in the early twenty-first century, discussions about journalism education curriculum have never stopped. To sum up, prospective journalists need to be well prepared for the dynamic and changing media ecosystem. It gives students the fundamental knowledge, moral values, and critical thinking skills they need to succeed in the area. Journalism education makes ensuring that future journalists are prepared to handle the challenges of the profession and uphold the principles of truth, accuracy, and public service by emphasizing research, practical training, and the development of journalistic values. In general, journalism education is crucial for promoting an educated society and upholding the profession's ethics.

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CHAPTER 5

NEWS ORGANIZATIONS AND ROUTINES: INSIDE THE MEDIA INDUSTRY

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

To efficiently gather, create, and distribute news to the public, news organizations rely on established protocols. Various tasks, such as news collecting, verification, editing, and distribution, are covered by these procedures. News companies try to preserve accuracy, efficiency, and consistency in their reporting by adhering to these practices. Journalists conduct research, speak with sources, and observe events to get pertinent information. The risk of spreading false information is reduced through verification procedures, which verify that the information is accurate and trustworthy. It is essential for editors to evaluate and edit news content to ensure its consistency, clarity, and adherence to editorial standards. In addition, news organizations follow procedures for ranking news items according to their importance, relevance, and timeliness. To cover breaking news, investigative reports, and feature stories, they deploy resources appropriately. In order to efficiently reach the target audience, distribution protocols require choosing the right channels, such as print, television, or digital platforms. Regular editorial meetings are another component of routines where journalists debate story concepts, assignments, and ethical issues. These sessions enable team members' collaboration and coordination, resulting in a unified and comprehensive news coverage.

KEYWORDS:

Beats, Journalists, Media, Story, Work.

INTRODUCTION

News is created by journalists and the businesses for which they work. News is thus both an organizational product and an individual product. Up until recently, even freelance journalists journalists who are not hired by a media organization were reliant on those companies to disseminate their ideas. Few people had the resources needed to support the sophisticated technologies used to disseminate media messages. The way news is created and disseminated has changed significantly thanks to the Internet. Today's journalists are capable of carrying out their tasks independently and disseminating their messages. While the majority of journalists still work for news organizations organizations that disseminate newsat the moment, it is uncertain how long this will remain the case. The majority of the literature on news organizations and news building has its roots in a time when journalists were weak and news organizations were powerful [1]–[4]. However, this literature is evolving to reflect the changes in the interaction between news organizations and their employees.

A quick summary of how news organizations have been defined and analyzed opens this chapter. The subject then shifts to a look at news routines, or the recurring actions that journalists take

while carrying out their jobs. The discovery that news organizations and journalists adhere to recognizable patterns when producing the news has had a significant impact on the study of news production. An important theoretical claim made in the literature that news should be understood as manufactured social reality rather than a reflection of actual events has benefited from the identification of these routines. The concept of news routines, however, appears to have a significant restriction after carefully examining the first research on news routines as well as later research in this tradition. Researchers have had a difficult time figuring out which aspects of routines change over time, between settings, between media outlets, and between journalists. We have identified certain routines that do differ in this chapter and have offered a conceptual framework for comprehending them. We have proposed a technique to observe and comprehend the fundamental mandates of news work and to see how those mandates affect routines. We did this by drawing on the historical work on routines and our own, more recent study. We think the analysis shows that routine elements do vary over time, across settings, throughout media firms, and among personnel [5]–[8].

News Organizations

According to Schudson, there have been three approaches to studying news construction. According to the political economics approach, the state and economic systems are correlated with how news is constructed. For instance, Herman and Chomsky suggested that news is produced by the media to further governmental interests rather than those of the individual. Another method, heavily based in sociology, seeks to comprehend news production from the viewpoint of organizational and occupational theory. An illustration is Epstein's seminal study on how television network structure influenced news. From this angle, the majority of the work on news construction has come. A third strategy concentrates on broad cultural restrictions on news reporting. An illustration is Chalaby's examination of the evolution of French and American journalism, which highlights the influence of French literary tradition on its journalism. The three viewpoints are not entirely separate, and some of the important studies in the organizational tradition also include significant cultural and political parallels, as noted by Schudson.

Media organizations are larger entities that contain more than one news organization as well as other types of communication units, such as magazines and publishing houses. Tunstall distinguished between news organizations, which he defined as editorial departments employing primarily journalists. According to Tunstall, the objectives and bureaucracy of these two types of organizations are different. News organizations will have fewer routines and media firms will be more commercially focused. According to Sigal, large news organizations exhibit all the traits of bureaucracies. They have a division of labor based on geography and function. If a journalist is a reporter or an editor, they can be distinguished from one another. There are two types of reporters: general assignment reporters and specialist topic reporters. Geographical organization is also used by news organizations.

In a study of the three major television networks, Epstein (1974) concentrated on how they organized their news gathering and discovered that there were only minor variations in the procedures those organizations utilized to produce national newscasts. The mirror metaphor, according to Epstein, is an inaccurate representation of how television news shows operate. Routines of news production and selection would be irrelevant if television news were compared to a mirror.

According to the metaphor, television news would reflect all significant events. Epstein maintained that network news was a constrained and heavily prioritized news-gathering organization. For instance, Epstein discovered that throughout the observation period, 90% of the NBC national news was produced by ten crews in five large locations as it was where they had news crews. In a prior investigation of television news, Warner (1969) discovered parallels between the organizational structure of television news and that of a newspaper. He came to the conclusion that the executive producer's role, for instance, was comparable to the editor's of a newspaper and that the executive producers' primary selection and distribution criteria for news were space, significance, and political balance, much like it is with newspapers. In their examination of how British national newspapers and television services covered anti-Vietnam war protests, Halloran,

Elliot, and Murdock (1970) discovered a significant commonality between the media. The topic of violence received all of the media attention. The authors argued that it was more a product of what those news companies defined as newsworthy than a conscious attempt to misrepresent the event. The observed disparities in news gathering practices, political stances, and technological capabilities among the media did not ultimately matter much. Shoemaker and Reese (1996) defined media organizations as social, formal, typically economic entities that employ media employees to produce media content in their survey of the study on the characteristics of news organizations. The majority of the time, these organizations' primary objective is to produce profit, particularly through focusing on markets that appeal to marketers. The decisions made by journalists are influenced by economic pressures. The scale of the media company, membership in a network or media group, and ownership are also said to have an impact on the material and routines used to produce it.

DISCUSSION

The Concept of News Routines

News routines are Those patterned, routinized, repeated practices and forms that media workers use to do their jobs, according to Shoemaker and Reese. Shoemaker and Reese argued that these routines were developed in response to the news organization's limited resources and the enormous volume of potential news-making raw material. More specifically, technology, deadlines, available space, and social conventions all influence the routines. According to Shoemaker and Reese, The job of these routines is to deliver, within time and space limitations, the most acceptable product to the consumer in the most efficient manner. Tuchman appears to have been the first to explore routines in the context of journalism, building on studies in the sociology of work. Reliance on routine practices for processing information called news, a depletable product made every day is critical, according to her argument. Theorizing that organizations routinely perform tasks because it facilitates the control of work, Tuchman expanded on this idea.According to her, employees try to control the flow of work and the amount of work to be done since there is always too much work to be done.

Journalists are called upon to give accounts of a wide variety of disastersunexpected eventson a routine basis, according to Tuchman, exemplifying employees who need to regulate their work. She stated on page 111 that news work thrives upon processing unexpected events, events that burst to the surface in some disruptive, exceptional manner. Tuchman compared the classification of news using a system that was devised based on the sociology of labor with a scheme that was routinely utilized by news workers. News is divided into five categories: hard, soft, spot, developing, and continuing. According to Tuchman, news should be categorized based on how it

occurs and the needs of the business. This prompted her to categorize news according to whether it was scheduled or unscheduled, whether or not its transmission was urgent, how it was impacted by news work technology, and whether or not the journalists could decide in advance about future coverage of the event.

Tuchman maintained that her classification of news provided a more thorough explanation of how news organizations actually operate than did the journalists' categorization scheme. She claimed that her plan specifically described how journalists and journalistic organizations manage their work so they can digest unforeseen situations. She stated that the journalistic category approach failed to achieve that objective. Tuchman's early explanation of routines was significant for at least two reasons. First, it proposed that news work could be understood in light of a more comprehensive understanding of the sociology of work in general. Second, it recommended that rather than viewing news as distorting the real world, it might be more valuable to think of news as reconstituting the real world. She maintained that journalists create and reimagine social reality. Instead of concentrating on whether the final result was skewed in any way, researchers who wished to understand news should concentrate on how it was constructed. Tuchman first became interested in journalism because he was troubled by sociologists' use of news articles to gauge community characteristics. She emphasized explicitly that these stories should not be viewed as a reflection of reality in her 1972 paper in the American Journal of Sociology, but rather that news reporting creates its own reality.

Danzger, who utilized newspaper stories to index community conflict, was attacked by Tuchman in a dispute that was published in the American Sociological Review. According to her, news habits like relying on centralized sources systematically assist people in positions of power. In fact, having the ability to make news is frequently a sign of power. Three papers by Molotch and Lester that were published during this time period all center on this idea that news is a product of news organizations and news employees rather than a reflection of any reality. The duo asserted in the first of these articles that the media is not an objective reporter of events but an active player in the constitution of events. Some events are chosen for inclusion in the news above others based on the media's objectives. According to the, news should be seen as purposive behavior, the result of activities carried out by journalists and their employers that meet their respective needs. The journalists transform a perceived set of promoted occurrences into public events through publication or broadcast. They do this by working with the raw materials, which are typically provided to them by event promoters.

This viewpoint is distinguished by Molotch and Lester from what they believe to be the typical viewpoint held at the time by sociologists and other news-focused individuals. The majority of observers, they claimed, assume a set of happenings which can be known, known to be important, and hence reported by competent, unrestrained news professionals. They claimed that when news differs from this objective account of what happened, the conventional explanations are that the reporters were poor, management became involved, or outsiders rigged the system by accepting bribes. This leads to bias. However, Molotch and Lester said that they did not make the premise that there is a objective reality, but rather that they saw news as the end result of the methods utilized to produce it. According to Molotch and Lester, news routines are crucial for comprehending how events are produced into news. It is important to comprehend the media as formal institutions that follow routines for getting work done in newsrooms. Some of these practices were identified by Molotch and Lester in a study of the 1969 Santa Barbara, California, oil spill, which they claim may become so ingrained that they become reified as 'professional

norms' of 'good journalism'. These practices include focusing news workers in major cities, reporting recent events with less attention than those from the past, and covering recent events with less urgency than those from the future.

At least three factors made this early work by Tuchman, Molotch, and Lester significant. It first clarified how ordinary actions assist journalists in reporting news. Second, it concentrated on how news is influenced by power. Thirdly, it made a distinction between the reality that news organizations create and what journalists refer to as reality. These early writers on routines did not perceive these essential aspects of employment as changing over time or between media firms or workers. Instead, these routines were viewed as defining aspects of news reporting. In a study of what she referred to as a oppositional radio station, Eliasoph questioned the supposition that routines are ubiquitous. But she discovered that the routines didn't actually change. The journalists she watched at Berkeley, California's KPFA-FM radio station followed the same procedures as the journalists at other media outlets. Despite using the same methods as the reporters at the other media, the journalists at the oppositional radio station did not create the same kind of news. Routines were used to manage the work of the journalists for the same reason they were used by other media, but the relationship between the station and its audience, the social and political standing of the journalists, and those in charge of the newsroom shaped the characteristics of the news product.

The question of whether the development of electronic news libraries for the archiving and retrieval of previously printed stories had an impact on newspapers' news cycles was investigated by Hansen, Ward, Conners, and Neuzil in 1994. They came to the conclusion that the routines had mostly remained the same. Hansen, Neuzil, and Ward came to the same conclusion in a later study along the same lines, concluding that the formation of teams inside newspaper newsrooms to focus on news subjects had likewise not significantly changed the routines of news generation. The lack of variety in the concept of news routines appears to have been mainly established in more recent study. Cook contends that news routines result in predictable news over time and comparable news across news channels in his research of the function of the media in politics. In a study similar of Danzger's, Oliver and Maney compared newspaper accounts of civic demonstrations with police reports of same events. They discovered inconsistencies between the coverage and the police data that might be accounted for by what they dubbed newspaper routines, such as a predilection for articles about local leaders and those with conflict occurring because counterdemonstrators were present. According to research by Wolfsfeld, Avraham, and Aburaiya published in 2000, Israeli society's cultural and political presumptions drive mostly fixed patterns of news coverage that harm the country's Arab population.

Bennett and Ryfe stated that the media adhere to routines that are the result of organizational and professional rules, which is consistent with the Wolfsfeld et al. study from 2000. The word rules is significant since it denotes something that is constant. These guidelines, in Bennett's opinion, explain why news stories remain relevant regardless of the period or situation. In a similar spirit, Sparrow acknowledged in his writing that the media's routines and practices should change in response to ambiguity in the surroundings of the media organization. However, the variation's nature is not made clear. The notion has limited value in news creation research because there is little variation in news routines. The researcher must be able to recognize variability in the routines themselves in order to comprehend their causes and effects. In order to comprehend why the routines are not followed or differ and to comprehend the effects of the routines, the researcher must identify instances where the routines are not followed or are altered in some other way.

In conclusion, the significance of this early work on routines lies primarily in its contribution to the idea that news is a creation of reality rather than a reflection of that reality. In evaluations of the literature on news routines and news production, Schudson welcomed such contribution while also expressing some worry. According to him, academics appeared to have overstated the idea that real-world events don't really matter when deciding what constitutes news. In his opinion, the incident that prompts the development of news has a greater impact than many of the early writers on news production thought. If the powerful trample on the out there world, their methods for creating reality will eventually fail, according to Schudson. Schudson cited the findings of Livingston and Bennett as one illustration. According to these experts, the industry's technical development from 1994 to 2001 resulted in a sharp increase in the amount of news based on spontaneous events on at least one cable news channel, CNN.

The Concept of Beats

The idea of news beats is incorporated into the study of news routines. In general, news organizations set themselves up to be able to monitor events and gather the information needed to generate news. It is unknown where the term beat came from to characterize the hierarchical structure of news gathering. The phrase might have originated in the police force, where officers are given beats or geographical areas to regularly patrol. In reality, the Webster's New World Dictionary from 1964 defines the term beat as a habitual path or round of duty: as a policeman's beat. Beats have received a lot of attention in the literature exploring how news and news routines are constructed. According to Tuchman, news organizations employ a news net to gather the information that eventually becomes news. According to her, the net was first intended for catching appropriate stories available at centralized locations. It is assumed that news audiences are interested in events occurring in certain places, that they are worried about the operations of particular organizations, and that they have a particular interest in a particular subject. Tuchman claims that the news network is flung through space, focuses upon specific organizations, and highlights topics as a result of these factors.

 Geographic territoriality is the most crucial of these three strategies for distributing reporters. According to Tuchman, a beat is a strategy for assigning reporters to businesses involved in news production and central data storage. The beat system of news coverage was so widely used when Fishman conducted his observational study of news collecting in the late 1970s that not utilizing beats was a defining characteristic of being an experimental, alternative, or underground newspaper. The beat, in Fishman's opinion, is a journalistic idea rooted in the actual working environment of reporters. In the news organization, beats have a history that predates the histories of the people who work them. Reporters are assigned to beats by superiors; yet, despite responsibility and jurisdiction over covering the beat, the reporter does not control that beat. According to Fishman, the beat is a region of activities that take place outside of the newsroom and include more than just a haphazard collection of activities. Finally, the beat is a social environment that the reporter belongs to, according to Fishman. The reporter integrates into the beat, a network of social relationships. Beats have a topical and geographical character, according to Fishman.

Journalists refer to their beats as destinations, people to meet, and a list of subjects they are expected to cover. According to Gans, story proposal is the primary step in the development of news. It is the obligation of reporters to come up with story ideas. In order to accomplish this, they must keep abreast of what is happening in the beats they patrol or in the regions of the country

assigned to their bureaus, and they are evaluated in part by their ability to suggest suitable stories. Gans emphasized that non-journalists are also encouraged to contribute story ideas, as are other staff employees, including the show's senior editors and producers. Gans' conceptualization is instructive since it concentrates on the idea generation that underlies the story and relates this idea generation to beats. According to this perspective, raw material only has the potential to become news if a member of the news construction industry sees it as such. This process of coming up with tale ideas is known as story ideation, a term that is covered in more detail below, according to Bantz, McCorkle, and Baade.

Beats and Television

The majority of the beat literature made the assumption that they existed in news organizations. However, there was evidence of beat and beatstructure heterogeneity in early studies of news production. In particular, early research indicated that television newsrooms either used beat structure less frequently than newspapers or that those beats were generally less well formed in television newsrooms. In his investigation into decision-making in three local television newsrooms in a sizable midwestern market, Drew discovered that certain beats, namely those covering city hall, have occasionally been employed in television. Epstein, however, found that fixed beats, aside from those in Washington, particularly at the White House, did not satisfy the network's basic problem of creating national news, based on a study of newsgathering and production procedures at three major US television national networks. As a result, after the assignment editor determined that the particular event was worthwhile covering, correspondents were switched from one topic to another based on availability and practical requirements.

In his seminal investigation of a local television newsroom, Altheide discovered no proof of a beat structure. In order to find story ideas, the reporters and editors relied on wire services, newspapers, press releases, and phone calls. Their main concern was having enough material to fill the newscasts. Thus, according to Fishman, the majority of the noteworthy occurrences for television journalists are indirectly determined by newspapers and wire agency reporters who mostly cover beats. In a study of three television news operations, McMan discovered that most reporters at the three stations were given specific areas to search for news, or news beats. However, the demands of finding daily stories given by the news managers limited our search for newsworthy events to just a few minutes each day. At one station, the assignment editor habitually claimed the reporters' weekly day off from covering their beats in order to work on a more urgent story. In the process of acquiring information, the station's size is crucial. There will be more highly active discovery on a larger station. However, according to McManus, stories that are discovered largely passively receive significantly more airtime on television channels than stories that are discovered actively.

The Concept of Story Ideation

The idea of story ideation appears to be at least partially responsible for the reason beats are made. The main method of news production, according to Gans, is story suggestion. Story ideation is the phrase used by Bantz, McCorkle, and Baade to describe this procedure for coming up with story ideas. They noticed that something became news as a result of a process that started with the story concept in the television newsroom they investigated. To decide what might be a story, individual news employees evaluated the information that was coming into the newsroom from a variety of sources, including press releases, general mail, newspapers, magazines, reporter tips, police-fi re-FBI radios, and phone calls. The choice as to which of the raw materials will become news was made after these story ideas were considered in the daily story budget meeting. It appears that

television networks have discovered alternative methods of coming up with story ideas. Because of the high production expenses and constrained workforce, television news operations cannot afford to generate more stories than they will air. As a result, assignment editors spread out their staffs to increase the likelihood of producing a story. Since reporters are required to come up with ideas on a particular subject, some of the approaches employed in television news as an alternative to traditional beats are comparable to beat structures. But what all of these methods have in common is that they generate concepts that meet the demands of the media organization. Although the majority of the literature on news production views beats as a technique to organize news gathering, they should actually be considered as a way to come up with story ideas.

CONCLUSION

Finally, routines are crucial to the efficient operation of news organizations. They give the collection, creation, and transmission of news organization, uniformity, and efficiency. News organizations work to respect journalistic standards, guarantee accuracy, and provide the public with timely information by adhering to established procedures. To be relevant in the shifting media landscape, news organizations must continue to be adaptive to technology developments and shifting audience preferences. News organizations can overcome obstacles, maintain credibility, and carry out their vital duty as suppliers of trustworthy and accurate news by striking a balance between routines and flexibility.

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CHAPTER 6

JOURNALISTS AS GATEKEEPERS: MEDIA'S ROLE IN SHAPING INFORMATION FLOW

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
The Internet, newspapers, television and radio news, news magazines, and their sources provide a constant source of information for journalists. Without gatekeeping, it would be difficult for them to choose and mold the limited amount of information that makes it into the news. Information is chosen, written, edited, placed, scheduled, repeated, and otherwise manipulated to create news. Scholars must comprehend the gatekeeping process and how it affects the reality that is presented to the public since gatekeepers provide the rest of us a perspective on the world. Since the 1950s, communication researchers have been applying gatekeeping, one of the earliest social science ideas that has been modified and developed for use in the study of news1, continually. The key components of gatekeeping theory are defined in this chapter, along with the leading authors and works on the subject, the current state of gatekeeping research, important theorizing issues, methodological concerns, and, finally, suggestions for future gatekeeping scholarship.

KEYWORDS:

Field, Gatekeeping, Media, News, Study.

INTRODUCTION

All gatekeeping studies concentrate on items, or those bits of information that are rejected or picked, shaped, and scheduled. Kurt Lewin's social psychological theory of how to alter people's eating patterns is where tracking the flow of things first appeared. According to his theory, things were food items. Not all options are chosen. Some find their way into channels, which are occasionally split into groups that can only be accessed by passing through a gate. By fluctuating in strength and valence direction and acting on one or both sides of gates, forces can help or hinder the flow of objects through them. Three channels and numerous informational bits, but only one of them really travels along a channel and is broadcast to one or more audiences. Some things are prevented from moving through the channels by weak or negative forces, and it's vital to remember that forces exist both before and after gates. A television station's ability to cover live events, for instance, is slowed by the cost of microwave remote equipment. However, once the equipment has been purchased and has passed the gate, the purchase has a positive force that encourages the news producer to frequently use it to justify the expense [1]–[4].

The last element the conclusion of the gatekeeping process. This outcome includes the item's selection as well as the effects of numerous channels, sections, and gates. In Figure 1, there are two hidden crucial components. The gatekeeper decides whether information enters the channel and determines what its final result will be. Gatekeepers can be persons, professional norms of conduct, corporate policies, or computer algorithms, to name a few. While all gatekeepers make

decisions, their levels of autonomy differ. Autonomy can range from a person's peculiar whims to a set of unbreakable rules that computer programs comprehend. The information management business Google selects news stories for visitors to the news website news.google.com using algorithms, which are collections of formulas that translate the organization's gatekeeping policies into computer instructions. The selections made by Google are presented to its many readers as current news, giving the impression that the human gatekeepers have no authority.

However, algorithms are the result of numerous decisions, ranging from the level of management to the selection of code writers. The result of this process is Google News, which presents a supposedly objective view of the day. However, this objectivity is a quality of people and how they perceive the world, not of computer systems. The gate was viewed as an in out decision point with little to no consideration for other components of the gatekeeper's duty in early gatekeeping studies about news events. However, Donahue, Tichenor, and Olien emphasize that gatekeeping is a more complicated process that involves choices regarding the amount of time and space allotted to a news event, where the story is placed within a publication or news program, the use of graphics, the number of stories about the event on one day or across days, and whether the story returns in a cyclical pattern. To put it another way, journalists can shape the narrative [5]–[8].

Early Influences

Although audience and effect-related topics have dominated communication research, gatekeeping has repeatedly shown us the value of institutional, organizational, and professional elements in comprehending the media ecosystem. Gatekeeping is one of the oldest theories in the field and is linked to Kurt Lewin, one of the four founders of the field identified by Berelson in 1959 and one of the important forerunners named by Rogers in 1994. Like any model, the gatekeeping tradition's influence has been to compellingly draw attention to specific phenomena. This key notion has since directed numerous study questions across a wide range of communication activity, going much beyond the original meaning of the one coined by Lewin, a social psychologist but trained as a physicist. By identifying the channels and gates governing what passed through them, he attempted to apply the principles of physical science to human conduct.

This straightforward but effective approach, adaptable to many different fields, helped to explain the seemingly infinite number of influences and actors acting in a communication situation. Lewin, like other early figures like Claude Shannon and Norbert Wiener, believed that psychological forces could be studied mathematically. These figures created unifying engineering models that could be used to analyze both mass and interpersonal communication regardless of channel. Lewin had a significant influence on former writer David Manning White, who was Wilbur Schramm's student and Lewin's assistant at the University of Iowa. According to White, it happened when he came upon a study by Kurt Lewin in which he first used the word gatekeeper. I decided to explore it because I felt it would be interesting to look at the intricate set of gates that a newspaper report has to pass through to get from the actual triggering event to the finished narrative in a newspaper.

White's 1949 investigation of a news editor contributed to the application of Lewin's ideas to a journalistic context and helped establish a tradition of inquiry into media gatekeepers. His research focused on the intuitively clear issue of how news companies handle the issue of having too much information and not enough room. The 'Gatekeeper' A Case Study in the Selection of News, it reads. White's study in Journalism Quarterly from 1950, which was widely republished and cited and was dubbed one of the first studies of its kind, looked at the justifications given by a news

editor for accepting or rejecting a list of potential news items. The approach was extremely influential despite just addressing the decisions of one person.

White noted how highly subjective, how reliant upon value judgments based on the 'gatekeeper's' own set of experiences, attitudes and expectations the communication of 'news' really when reviewing the justifications given for choosing one-tenth of the wire stories for inclusion in the Peoria Star. His application of Lewin was strongly individualistic, emphasizing the gatekeeper above the channel. Subsequent research adopted this approach, citing journalist selectivity as the primary cause of news bias. White had a similar epiphany while reflecting on his own early professional work: I rapidly became extremely aware of my hostility against the arriving articles of Westbrook Pegler, but I tried to edit his vitriol-filled text objectively. However, the managing editor of the newspaper brought me into his office one afternoon and said, David, I've noticed lately that Pegler's columns are considerably shorter these past few weeks I had been deleting sentences or entire paragraphs of old Pegler, sometimes unconsciously or with perceptible awareness. The model strongly implies that the fundamental cause of media distortion is the necessity to reduce a large number of global events to a small number that ultimately make the news. That implies that news selection would be less difficult if that were less the case and editors were better able to make wise decisions.

The gatekeeping model allows for a variety of decision-makers along the path of selection, but many studies, including White's, have a propensity to concentrate on only one stage of that process. Given that he did not have access to the entirety of the day's events, Mr. Gates may have been given too much credit for exercising influence. Additionally, the majority of his duties was selecting news from the major wire services that were basically comparable, so his decisions were first made from a limited pool of options. Warren Breed's study on social control in the newsroom, published in 1955, is a close contemporary of White's work even though it is not a gatekeeping study per se. The two studies are frequently cited together. Breed, a former newspaper reporter as well, conducted interviews with a sample of newsmen at medium-sized newspapers for Social control in the newsroom: A functional analysis to learn how they decided how to handle their story selection. In a sense, Breed described newspaper publishers as the de facto gatekeepers who use covert methods to make sure that only news that is in line with organizational policy is broadcast.

Breed cited the possibility that policy news may be slanted or buried so that some important information is denied the citizenry as the pertinent gatekeeping concern. Breed's contribution was to demonstrate how the most significant gatekeeper might not be the one who is directly involved in the selection but instead might be located at a different level within a more significant level of the organization. The subjectivity of the gatekeeper would seem to significantly problematize the news process if news is what the journalist thinks it is, yet the field was hesitant to act on this important finding. According to Reese and Ballinger, the cause of this was the expectation that the gatekeeper would adequately represent the community by seeing to it even though he may never be conscious of it that the community shall hear as a fact only those events that the newsman, as the representative of his culture, believes to be true. Breed, like White, suggested that the gatekeeping process may be successful to the community's satisfaction through journalistic codes and other guidelines, were the excessive influence of publishers to be curbed as did future interpretations by field synthesizers.

Therefore, according to these viewpoints, the society need not be afraid of gatekeepers' decisions as long as they remained loyal cultural representatives. For many years, this benevolent perspective of gatekeepers suppressed attention to this crucial process, but relative outsiders to the field of communication forced journalistic decisions back under the spotlight. Breed's theory attributed gatekeeping authority to the publisher, White to the editor's subjective opinion, but later work in media sociology, done a decade or more later, positioned it at the organizational level. The extremely influential book by sociologist Herbert Gans identified organizational power sources and the incentives faced by journalists who must adhere to social conventions and practical factors. This method integrates gatekeeping into an organization's ongoing and functioning activities as a beneficial corrective.

Gans believes that the process by which all of the organization's components, routines, and arrangements are engaged in the production of news is where the building of news is found, not in the journalist, publisher, or gatekeeping editor. This helps deflect responsibility for misinformation from certain journalists. According to Gans, the news process involves finding solutions to the issues associated with turning the daily flow of events into a marketable good for viewers. Journalists utilize considerations to help in the decision-making process for the answer, which must be applied without a lot of thought. They must aid in avoiding overconfidence, be adaptable, simple to rationalize or explain to others, and effective, ensuring the best outcomes with the least amount of work. The news equation is predicated on power and efficiency, two concepts that are interconnected. The competitive factors provide the most glaring example of how these principles do not apply automatically. News organizations wouldn't need to rely on one another for information if considerations were automatic. In the murky world of news, journalists try to keep up with what their rivals are doing.

Journalists evaluate their own work through the competition. The way journalists rely on the New York Times is one of Gans's most astute assessments. The networks and newsmagazines require a judge who can operate as a trend-setter and transcend channel considerations. If it didn't already exist, it would need to be created. Gans asserts that the news is not simply a compliant supporter of elites, the Establishment, or the ruling class; rather, it views nation and society through its own set of values and with its own conception of the good social order, which is consistent with the influence gatekeeping ascribes to journalists. This strategy bases gatekeeping judgments on practical problem-solving rather than personal subjectivity. But do these choices consistently provide a spectrum of predictable news products? Gans accurately points out that the final product is the highlight of the highlights, particularly in television due to its space limitations. The question of why the highlighting is done and which aspects of reality are most exaggerated remains unanswered by this, of course.

DISCUSSION

The Gatekeepers

The gatekeeping tradition, despite its allowance for channels and outside forces, has by its very nature drawn scholarly attention to the people in charge of the gates: Mr. Gates. In an effort to better comprehend the choices these people would likely make, a significant area of research has been devoted to identifying the traits of these people. Recent theorizing has struggled to define who is a journalist, but gatekeeping implicitly places that definition squarely with the professionals working for news organizations: those who have editorial responsibility for the creation or transmission of news stories or other information, such as full-time reporters, writers,

correspondents, columnists, news people, and editor. Extending the two categories of neutral and participant proposed by the original work of Johnstone, Slawski, and Bowman to include disseminator, adversarial, interpretive, and, with a nod to the public journalism movement, populist mobilizer, Weaver and colleagues have pursued this track the most thoroughly. Weaver et al. continued two earlier nationwide surveys that described the professional and personal characteristics of these journalists and compared them to the broader population. Thus, these claims are based on the significance of the roughly 120,000 people who make up this professional group, together with the numerous and less scientifi cally detached surveys of journalists that claim to indicate individual prejudice. Because of their ability to influence how we view the world, the authors contend that their makeup matters more.

State of the Art

According to a survey of communication journals and books, empirical studies on gatekeeping research began to pick up again in the last ten years after slowing down in the 1980s. Following the sociological movement in journalism studies suggested by Gans and others, there was a paucity of gatekeeping scholarship in the 1980s. The field has been directed toward analyzing gatekeepers in their organizational context by the sociology of news work. Gatekeeping has lost favor since White's perspective, which stressed the autonomy of individual gatekeepers in selecting news. Since the 1980s, gatekeeping research has advanced by reexamining earlier studies in order to take the evolving nature of journalism into account. Weaver and his colleagues have followed many of the evolving journalistic methods and demographics, as was already mentioned. They're not the only ones. In keeping with the rise of women in journalism, Bleske investigated how gatekeeping changed or did not change when a woman served as the gatekeeper as opposed to a man. According to Liebler and Smith, the gender of the gatekeeper had minimal impact on the news's subject matter. Other people have looked into how race affects the choice and creation of net. The public or civic journalism movement of the 1990s extended notions of the journalistic job, influencing how gatekeepers perceive their own work.

New waves of gatekeeping study have, however, been sparked by the advent of technology and the concomitant institutional changes. For instance, Berkowitz investigated how the gatekeeping process functioned in local television news, whereas earlier research focused on gatekeeping at newspapers. When comparing gatekeeping at print and electronic media, Abbott and Brassfield discovered certain similarities in their decision-making. Recently, focus has turned to the online environment where news is created. The recurring theme in this body of study is that as technology evolves, so will the activities and operations of news organizations. In contrast to print newspapers, the Internet, in the words of Singer, is not a finite, concrete media form; rather, its form is simultaneously fluid and global and supremely individualistic. The earliest research on online news came to a variety of conclusions. While some proclaimed the demise of organizational influences on gatekeeping in the new media environment, others discovered no distinction between gatekeeping duties in older and modern media.

Singer investigates how conventional print-based news organizations have changed to operate in a world of online news and contends that print-based practices are still effective in the new environment. However, some news websites have embraced the online community, providing a platform for reader interaction. Despite the fact that the gatekeeping role is evolving in the context of online news, Singer comes to the conclusion that it seems unlikely to lose all relevance any time soon. Empirical study has emerged to understand how changes in the demographic profile of

gatekeepers, the routines of news work, and the setting of news work have contributed to the news that we see and hear every day. Earlier theories regarding gatekeeping mechanisms have often been the foundation of these studies. For instance, the idea of the news subsidy, developed by Gand and others, has been applied to research new types of subsidy, such as the emergence of video news releases targeted at electronic news organizations. Gatekeeping is vibrant in part because of a corpus of knowledge that has evolved along with developments in journalism. The general acceptance of the gatekeeping notion as it has been more generally defined, however, may have also contributed to the relative paucity of gatekeeping scholarship in the 1980s. As previously said, gatekeeping is no longer viewed as only a question of selection or as the work of a single, strong agent.

A more comprehensive knowledge of gatekeeping has made it possible for gatekeeping study to be incorporated into the field of media sociology and thus to regain theoretical importance. It was more of a bold step backward than a bold stride forward for this drive toward a social viewpoint. In actuality, going back to the beginning has helped gatekeeping remain relevant. The founder of gatekeeping study, Lewin, had stressed the function of the gatekeeper within a field. According to Lewin's fi eld theory, gatekeeping developed as a result of a variety of variables interacting in a social field. Lewin's field theory had its origins in psychological ecology, which he labeled, and which later came to be known as ecological systems theory and human ecology theory. According to Bronfenbrenner, people should be viewed in the context of four different systems the microsystem, the mesosystem nexus of immediate circumstances, the exosystem, and the macrosystem. These systems largely matched the five levels of analysis that Shoemaker and Reese identified.

These five levelsexplained in more detail belowinclude the level of the individual journalist, the level of journalism routines or practices, the organizational level, the level of extra-media, and the level of social systems. wider accuracy and wider scope in reasoning about the creation and selection of news have resulted from this analytical paradigm. To better understand the variables that affect news about federal legislation, Shoemaker, Eichholz, Kim, and Wrigley analyzed variables across levels of analysis. Theorizing about gatekeeping can benefit from fresh looks at field theory. Original gatekeeping study was inspired by Lewin's notion of the field, while more recent efforts have looked at Pierre Bourdieu's theory of the field. The complexity of Bourdieu's theories and a listing of all the ways his field theory applies to journalistic gatekeeping are beyond the scope of this chapter much of that work has already been done by Benson and Neveu. Here, a few significant contributions will be mentioned. First, Bourdieu's field theory discusses how the various levels of analysis relate to one another. Field theory highlights the dynamic nature of power and is concerned with how macrostructures are connected to organizational routines and journalistic practice.

These macrostructures, organizational procedures, and journalistic standards constrain the agency of individuals. However, this is not exactly a hierarchical paradigm where routines and practices are dictated by macrostructures, such as economic structures. Journalism still has some autonomy, anchored in the specifi c capital unique to that field, despite how important economic reasons are to the majority of Western media. In other words, gatekeepers are somewhat protected from the influence of outside influences by the institutional traits and routines of the news media. Second, studying individual components can be difficult because the field is a nexus of interrelated forces. The 'field' brings up a new unit of study for media research: the complete universe of journalists and media organizations acting and reacting in relation to one another, according to Benson and

Neveu's conclusion. Few of the hypotheses put forth by Benson for empirical study seem to address the field itself as a unit of analysis. By way of illustration, he says that a greater reliance on advertising is likely to contribute to more positive coverage of business, more critical coverage of labor unions, as well as a pro-consumerist depoliticization and ideological narrowing of news. In any case, Bourdieu's field theory gives new life to theories about how the various levels of analysis interact in a gatekeeping paradigm.

Critical Issues

Even though gatekeeping research has a long history in the field of media, some important problems persist. How we theorize about the many levels of analysis for the journalistic field is one of those important questions that has already been covered. We must be clear about why it is important to examine other levels of analysis if gatekeeping is ultimately influenced by ideological reasons, as Herman and Chomsky have shown. Here, we'll also take into account another crucial problem the so-called forces at the gates of the gatekeeping system. Lewin , as previously said, believed that influences at the gate control which stories become news and which do not. These factors restrict the freedom of individual gatekeepers and uniformly slant the news. Lewin's gatekeeping theory included metaphors like channels and gates, but it also claimed that force has some ontological substance. At least gatekeepers are under pressure to choose which information to select or not. What, though, are those forces? Gatekeeping research and thinking have largely avoided that issue.

But it is a question worth asking and worth addressing for a number of reasons. First, we should empower practitioners to change institutional practices or alignments if society is dissatisfied with the news that journalistic gatekeepers create. For that, understanding the forces that first molded or empowered certain behaviors and alignments is necessary. Second, Lewin's usage of force may have concealed the nature and application of coercive power in the gatekeeping procedure. Hegemonic elites may control the journalism industry in ways that individuals with less authority are not fully aware of. Thirdly, consistent assertions are necessary for theorizin. However, without defining the nature of the force at the gate, we risk making incompatible assumptions. Take, for instance, our beliefs about the nature of human reason. We might also rely on functionalist presumptions, which are not supported by empirical evidence. Even Gans' own observations were labeled as speculative as he acknowledged the empirical constraints of functional analysis.

The forces at the gate appear to differ depending on the level of analysis, despite the fact that little has been done to systematically examine them. Research has revealed that not all decisions are made at the individual level, for instance, and that some decisions may instead be the consequence of subconscious factors, such as an availability heuristic or a representativeness. Social institutions, on the other hand, create constraints and opportunities to which media organizations and actors respond at the level of the social system. These limitations and opportunities result from the concurrent development of political, media, and economic institutions. Because participants in a social system react rationally to the same limitations and opportunities, news content is comparable. We might anticipate variance even among rational individuals to the extent that the institutional context may provide more than one rational path.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, journalists act as gatekeepers by deciding what information is presented to the public and how it is presented. They set the news agenda as gatekeepers, choosing what stories are

covered, how they are presented, and which viewpoints are emphasized. Accuracy, justice, and the public interest must be prioritized in this gatekeeping function. While journalists are essential in delivering trustworthy information and advancing democratic discourse, it's also necessary to acknowledge how media consumption is changing as well as the growing diversity of viewpoints in the digital age. As gatekeepers, journalists must work through the complexity of their position, value openness, and promote a pluralistic media environment that includes a range of viewpoints and fosters public involvement through critical thinking.

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CHAPTER 7

OBJECTIVITY, PROFESSIONALISM, AND TRUTH SEEKING IN JOURNALISM

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalists are responsible for accurate and trustworthy news reporting, guided by the fundamental values of objectivity, professionalism, and truth-seeking. These values aim to convey facts in a fair, impartial, and unbiased manner, allowing readers to form their own conclusions. Journalists maintain ethical behavior, adherence to professional standards, and high-quality reporting. They uphold honesty, transparency, and accountability, fact-checking information, citing sources, and fixing mistakes. Truth-seeking involves extensive investigation, in-depth analysis, and a commitment to accuracy. While total objectivity may be unrealistic, journalists can reduce their impact on reporting by being aware of their biases and using rigorous techniques. Journalists are essential in guiding people through the sea of information, acting as a compass for the truth, and promoting an informed society. The legitimacy, integrity, and relevance of journalism in the present period depend on upholding objectivity, professionalism, and the pursuit of the truth.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Objectivity, Occupational, Professionalism, Social.

INTRODUCTION

For many years, the field of journalism studies and the subfield of sociology known as the sociology of the professions which investigates professionalization and professional systems have coexisted in a state of mutual indifference. The traditional professions of medicine and law are generally the focus of classic professional studies in the sociology of professions most studies of journalistic professionalism, on the other hand, avoid engagement with the majority of the sociological literature on professional occupations. There would seem to be much to be gained from revisiting questions of journalism and professionalization from an explicitly sociological angle, articulating a deeper understanding of journalism's troubled professional project, the relationship between the objectivity norm and that project, and the way in which professionalization affects the power, authority, and status of the occupation [1]–[4].

We begin this chapter with an overview of Weberian studies of the professions conducted in the late 1970s and early 1980s, including a discussion of Abbott's influential analysis of professional jurisdiction, in order to bring these journalistic and sociological perspectives on professionalization into dialogue. The two main scholarly subfields that have developed in journalism studies are then examined. The first strand, which has its origins in journalism, tends not to be concerned with whether journalism produces reliable knowledge or possesses professional qualities; for researchers in this field, the significance of journalism is self-evident and independent of its position in a hierarchy of occupations. The goal of this line of inquiry is to

assess the extent to which journalism has attained professional status, frequently through surveys of the workforce or academic institutions. The character of journalistic knowledge or claims to knowledgeor, to use Paul Starr's terminology, the standing of journalism's cultural authorityis the focus of a second line of research that draws on sociology of news organizations and media studies. The second strand conflates journalistic objectivity with journalistic professionalism per se, while the first strand suffers from its often unconscious acceptance of the trait perspective on the professions.

According to recent research by Hallin and Mancini, professionalism exists in many non-American media systems even when objectivity is not the defi nitive professional norm. In our conclusion, we make the case that an effective mode of study of journalistic objectivity, professionalism, and truth seeking would embrace a modified form of Abbott's framework while continuing to build on the finest work of the two strands mentioned above [5]–[8]. The basic phenomenon of professional life, which Abbott refers to as jurisdiction, is the connection between a profession and its job. According to Abbott, the study of professions begins with the study of professional activity. A profession's knowledge basis, or, in the specific instance of journalism, knowledge that is real and skilled but in no way, is concretized and displayed in a profession's day-to-day operations. We aim to combine Abbott's theory with the two research strands already described, apply it to the debates that currently surround journalistic professionalism, and lay forth a research agenda for the future.

From Occupational Traits to Occupational Struggle

The trait approach of occupational analysis, which dominated the field for decades and whose more extreme normative tendencies defined a profession as a model of occupational autonomy and self-regulation worthy of imitation, was widely abandoned. This marked the beginning of the most productive period in the subfield of sociology devoted to professionalization research. A key component of the trait method was an effort to isolate certain professional qualities and then assess the extent to which they were met by distinct occupational categories. No one overview stands out as being authoritative, but lists typically include the following characteristics: work based on scientific or systematic knowledge, formal education, self-governing associations, codes of ethics, a relationship of trust between professional and client as opposed to a relationship that is solely based on the market, licensing or other entry-level barriers, and widely acknowledged social status or social esteem. Sociologists abandoned the trait approach in the 1960s and 1970s, taking their lead from Everett C. Hughes and motivated by Max Weber's work on status and authority.

 They moved from the false question 'Is this occupation a profession' to the more fundamental one 'What are the circumstances in which people in an occupation attempt to turn it into a profession and themselves into professional people. The study of the profession as an idealized structural-functionalist category has largely been supplanted in sociology in the forty years following Hughes' challenge by the more Weberian study of professionalization and the professional project. Magali Sarfatti Larson, one of the first overtly Weberian proponents of professionalization theory, contends in her examination of the professional project that ideal typical constructions do not tell us what a profession is, only what it pretends to be. Instead, she suggested that we inquire into what professions actually do in daily life to negotiate or maintain their special position.

According to MacDonald, 'profession' is a lay or folk term, and what the 'people' do is assess whether an occupation is or is not a profession, is a semi-profession, or is more or less professional than other occupations. Sociology is not tasked with solving their problems scientifically. Finally, Freidson succinctly states the issue: If profession can be defined as a folk idea, then

phenomenological research methods are suitable. It is more important to understand how members of society distinguish between those who are professionals and those who are not, and how they make or accomplish professions via their actions. One does not seek to define what a profession is in an absolute sense. The theory of the professional project, which was first put forth by Sarfatti Larso, has remained at the core of much of the most significant research in the sociology of the professions over the past several decades. The idea combines Weber's fundamental study of the attempts made by occupational groupings to link economic class and social standing with Freidson's pioneering early work on the medical field.

Professionals are collective social actors who attempt to translate one order of scarce resourcesspecial knowledge and skillsinto anothersocial and economic rewards, according to Sarfatti Larson, who believes that neither naturally existing occupational categories nor carriers of socially functional traits are what professions are. This endeavor is referred to as the professional project by Sarfatti Larson, who defines it as a group's coherent and consistent intention, despite the fact that the goals and strategies pursued by a given group are not entirely clear or deliberate for all the members. When the professional project was framed in this way, several components of it took on significant roles in the dominant Weberian interpretation of professional conflict in the late 1970s. A profession's attempt to establish an organizational monopoly on a body of technically applicable abstract knowledge; the requirement for a market in which to exchange that knowledge; the connection between a profession's knowledge monopolization and the social status of its members; the interdependence between a profession's desire for social mobility and market control; and endeavors to translate economic power into social influence were some of these aspects.

In fact, sociological studies of education and higher education as a mechanism for the orderly reproduction of a class system and the legitimization of class inequalities were related to and influenced by sociological writing about professions. Neo-Marxist studies highlighted the role of education in preparing people to acquire cultural capital rather than technical knowledge or skills necessary for the modern economy. Early critiques of the notion of objectivity in American journalism were informed by this work or had the same intellectual outlook that was critical of the legitimacy of professions and predisposed to view assertions of neutrality, detachment, or dispassion as a cover for power. It follows from this disciplinary reorientation that any investigation into issues of professionalism, objectivity, and truth seeking in journalism specifically should shift its focus from the debatable issue of whether journalism is a profession to the more intriguing examination of the circumstances under which journalists attempt to transform themselves into professionals. Instead of describing the qualities that define professionals and then evaluating the extent to which journalists possess them, we might examine the social process through which journalists contend for professional status. This research agenda integrates the sociological study of the professions with the study of journalism and can provide new light on many of the traditional institutional histories of journalism, even those that reject or disregard a sociological perspective.

Professional Research and Journalism

What role has the field of journalism studies played in this disciplinary shift from traits to struggle? To suggest that changes in sociology as a field have had no impact on research on journalistic professionalism would be an exaggeration. However, it may be argued that the connection has been indirect. According to Zelizer, despite the auspicious beginnings of sociological inquiry into

journalism, much contemporary work on journalism no longer comes from sociology per se, there has been a general decoupling of sociology and media research tout court over the past two and a half decades. Or, in the words of sociologist Klinenberg, A paradox of contemporary sociology is that the discipline has largely abandoned the empirical study of journalistic organizations and news institutions at a time when the media has gained visibility in political, economic, and cultural spheres, and at a time when other academic fields have embraced the study of media and society.

The movement of sociologists to the expanding communications and media departments helps to explain the paradox, at least in part. Rodney Benson, Todd Gitlin, Michael Schudson, and Silvio Waisbord are only a few sociologists with major or sole appointments in communication departments as opposed to sociology ones. More than sociology, communication and media studies have been the fields where these scholars' work has found an audience. To be sure, there are certain sociologists who continue to speak primarily to a sociological audience, even if it is in the subfields of sociolinguistics and conversational analysisthe work of Steven Clayman and his colleagues stands out in this regard. In the absence of research that explicitly connects journalism to the sociology of the professions, two lines of inquiry have evolved in the field of journalism studies. The first, which is sometimes referred to as institutional research, typically looks for quantitative information on journalists' employment, educational attainment, adherence to ethical standards, etc. Most frequently, the news industry itself or academics with strong ties to professional journalism have started such studies. The Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates in the United States contains frequently updated data on the likelihood that recent journalism school graduates will find employment.

Additional surveys and employment assessments have been carried out internationally as well as in the US to measure the level of professionalization that has taken place in journalism, at least along the axis of higher education credentialing. The data paints a somewhat ambiguous picture. The percentage of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree holders in the United States who took occupations requiring a degree fell from 50% to 25% over the 20 years between 1982 and 2002. At the same time, American newspaper editors advocate for the value of a degree in journalism or communications, despite the fact that a sizeable minority (32%) of respondents to a 1995 survey believe that an entry-level hire's degree is irrelevant. Over 90% of journalists have a degree, thus while the value of a journalism degree may be debatable, the value of higher education is undeniable. Similar circumstances exist in other nations with developed media systems, where employers place more value on general higher education than on the attainment of specific communication degrees.

It is tempting to discuss journalism as a quasi, pseudo, or failed profession in order to support Weaver and Wilhoit's claim that it is of a profession but not in one. In fact, many of the investigations into the professionalism of journalists have come to an end at this time. Basic institutional research mirrors the older body of trait theory and halts the examination before it really gets started. In summary, the fundamental issues raised by journalism's disputed professional position are generally avoided by this first strand of journalism studies. It would be far more fruitful to consider why and how the professions of reporting and news editing attained the professional status they did, as well as how journalism may be attempting to raise that status, as opposed to placing journalism somewhere on the professional spectrum between plumbers and neurosurgeons. This encourages us to think about the history, theory, and practice of journalism and takes us one step further away from the generally dry study of employment data. Most clearly,

writers who fall within the second subfield of journalism studieswhat we might call the cultural histories of professional objectivity subfieldhave addressed these issues.

DISCUSSION

Cultural Theories of Professionalism and Objectivity

Walter Lippmann is described by Schudson in Discovering the News as the most wise and forceful spokesman for the ideal of objectivity. Dissecting slogans and abstract ideas, refusing to withhold the news, and refusing to place moral uplift or any cause before of veracity are all skills that journalists should master, in Lippmann's words. In summary, Lippmann advised journalists to combine their professionalism with assertions of objectivity. The relationship between professionalism, objectivity, and seeking the truth would eventually come to be accepted, not only by journalists themselves as an occupational ideology but also by media researchers and journalism scholars as a related set of issues that could be studied historically and sociologically. In other words, knowing how objectivity emerged would be the key to knowing how professionalism emerged.

One of the most current summaries of the social histories of the American press can be found in Kaplan. We can speak here about at least five orientations to this history, expanding on and following his lead. First, journalism has been portrayed as inexorably heading toward social divergence, occupational autonomy, and professional freedom by progressive historiography, which closely followed the development of journalism's own occupational ideology. This view sees objectivity not as a tool or a claim, but as a goal, a best practice made possible by historical advancement; it is seen not as a tool, but as a normative endpoint, one enabled by modernization and the rising social difference among politics, business, and journalism. Although it is not covered by Kaplan, a second, related interpretation of the connection between objectivity and professionalism is the technological reason for the development of objective journalism. Objectivity is viewed as a literary style supported by technological advancements in this theory, which most contemporary historical scholarship rejects though one may find traces of its return, in an inverted form, in some of the most utopian writings on the Internet.

A third line of research identifies economic trends that support commercialism and implicitly, the ideologically motivated claim of objectivity. The Commercialization of News in the Nineteenth Century by Baldasty is singled out by Kaplan as a particularly persuasive, meticulously documented, and ultimately misguided thesis on the connection between commercialism and professionalization. The [capitalistic] funding mechanism, according to Baldasty's idea, followed from the news content and indeed 'journalistic visions, leading to journalism that viewed the public as consumers rather than citizens. Beginning with Schudson's Discovering the News, which, along with his later work, moved away from viewing the emergence of objectivity as a inevitable outcome of large-scale social processes and changeswhether social, economic, or technologicaland linked the emergence of journalistic professionalism to issues of group cohesion, professional power, and social conflict, a fourth strand of research on the rise of journalistic objectivity in the United States is established.

Instead of looking to technology advancements or natural evolutionary progress, Schudson sought the roots of professional objectivity in the convergence of advances that formed a democratic market society in his book Discovering the News. The early 20th century view of objectivity, which views standards of objective reporting as a set of defensive measures rooted in the

disappointment of the modern gazethe conviction that true objectivity is impossibledistinguishes journalistic beliefs of the 1890snave empiricism, or a faith in the factsfrom a more modern perspective. In examining the creation of a professional class of reporters in the context of the development of professional objectivity, Schudson was followed by a number of authorsprimarily historians of journalis. For these authors and many others, objectivity is still the absolute prerequisite for journalistic professionalization. If you can explain the factors that led to objectivity becoming a profession and pinpoint the time when it did, you will have made significant progress in learning the secret of professional journalism.

However, recent research questions the significant connection between objectivity and professionalism that this work suggests. The occupational standard of objectivity cannot be considered as the only one to support and emerge from the professional endeavor, and in other instances, it may not even be the most significant norm. Journalism has been referred to as a Anglo-American invention by Chalaby since it is a fact-based discursive practice as opposed to a literary, philosophical, or political reflection on current events. Ramaprasad's extensive surveys of non-Western journalism do not even include adherence to objectivity as a major characteristic of newswork in Egypt, Tanzania, or Nepal, and the new notion of contextual objectivity has emerged to explain the editorial policies of non-Western cable news channels like al-Jazeera. According to Donsbach and Patterson, American and European newsrooms still differ in their commitment to objectivity. Their thorough investigation of German, Italian, Swedish, British, and American print and broadcast journalists reveals that practically all US journalists claim that their political beliefs are unrelated to those of their employers. Journalists from national newspapers in Italy and Germany claim that the editorial stance of their publications closely aligns with their political views.

Additionally, Schudson now claims that the journalism he previously regarded as modern is actually more correctly categorized as American, and that some of its distinguishing characteristics have more to do with American cultural assumptions than a general modernism. This is particularly true of the American invention of the interview as a common journalistic technique, which was at the time considered by many European observers to be a particularly unpleasant and presumptuous method of conducting business. However, the best argument for disconnecting the connection between objectivity and professional position in the field of journalism is made by Hallin and Mancini. For them, professionalism is defined less in terms of entry-level educational requirements, a lack of state regulation, or the ideal of objectivity instead, it is viewed primarily in terms of greater control over own work process, the existence of distinct professional norms, and a public service orientation. They contend that the professionalization levels of various media systems vary. The North Atlantic model of journalism, which includes America and Britain, and North Central European model, which includes Germany and Scandinavia, both maintain relatively low levels of professionalization.

However, in democratic corporatist nations, being a professional does not always imply a commitment to neutrality or a lack of affiliation with any political party. Instead, journalists in democratic corporatist states mostly northern European nations believe that journalistic autonomy is compatible with direct and deliberate engagement in politics. In this sense, German journalists are just as professional as American ones. However, the social foundations of their professions and the uniqueness of their ideals are distinct. Schudson has argued that the objectivity norm in American journalism ultimately benefits the group that articulates it, either by promoting social cohesion in a Durkheimian sense or social control in a Weberian sense. This is essentially an

extension and generalization of his thesis in Discovering the News.Ethics and norms serve as a ceremonial means of fostering a group's internal cohesion and solidarity. They can also serve as a means of defining a group in relation to other groups. On the other hand, Weberian explanations for the development of occupational standards assume that they offer some level of hierarchical control over social groups. Within large organizations, the necessity for editors to exert control over their reporters necessitates the use of a overt ethical reinforcement that directs people in a predictable, logical direction.

The objectivity norm in American journalism serves primarily social purposes, but Schudson's book concedes that a variety of moral norms could achieve the ends of providing public support and insulation from criticism. Schudson points out that journalists in Germany or China may employ standards other than objectivity, and in fact they do. If professionalism entails the existence of an occupational autonomy supported by distinct professional standards, as Hallin and Mancini contend, professional journalism may have diverse foundations throughout cultures, across history, and even in the future. Even if it does, the demise of objectivity might not spell the end of serious journalism. Fifth and lastly, Kaplan makes the case that the emergence of objectivity as the professional norm in America was contingent and that it was a result of the unique structure of the US public sphere. Because they neglect the role played by political dispute in American history, Kaplan contends that previous theories of the growth of objectivity in American journalism are insufficient. These theories frequently make the false assumption that the dominant social consensus in press history has been centered on ideas of political liberalism and economic capitalism.

Kaplan's own empirical contribution for Detroit newspapers is to demonstrate how Progressive Era politics, such as the dilution of party power through primary elections and other reforms, and the unique political ramifications of the election of 1896, helped inspire a vision of public service through unbiased and independent reporting among publishers, editors, and reporters. We have observed a fruitful emphasis on how journalists turn themselves into a profession and themselves into professional people in these varied cultural histories of journalistic objectivity in the United States. While the most recent historical surveys have helpfully re-examined the relationship between professional norms, journalistic style, and the authority conferred by the public sphere, the best of these studies, informed by comparative studies of journalism, recognize that a variety of professional norms might provide public support and critical insulation for professional projects in journalism in other countries.

That journalism's authority, status, occupational norms, and claims to expertise can be analyzed as facets of a professional project, of an inter- and intra-group struggle, is a critical insight that Hughes articulated and that was first advanced by the Weberian professionalization theorists, at least in part. What precisely is the nature of this fight is a significant unanswered question. What precisely is the issue at stake in this conflict? And what are the conflict and cooperative dynamics that are driving this conflict forward? In outlining the answers to these questions, we first argue that professional expertiseor rather, a peculiar kind of specifically journalistic expertiseand the connection of this expertise to work serve as a tool by which competing occupational groups can establish and seize occupational jurisdictions. Second, we argue that the dynamics of this conflict are characterized by a peculiar fusion of overlapping networks and sharply defined boundary lines, and that one key strategy in the fight to define who is a journalist is to simultaneously blur and sharpen the distinctions between professional insiders and paraprofessional outsiders.

CONCLUSION

Journalists assert that objectivity serves as a standard that enhances solidarity, creates distinctions, and represents a collective claim to professional knowledge expressed through labor. This knowledge claim is unique in journalism, as journalists do not claim esoteric expertise, unlike most scientific or legal claims. Instead, journalism asserts a grandiose claim of control over gathering and dissemination of information about current events. Ascertaining how objectivity fits into a larger occupational, political, and economic social system is complex and challenging. Professional claims define boundaries between individuals within and outside the profession, but scientific research has cautioned against thinking that rhetorical assertions about borders reflect the actual reality of professional power, expertise, and authority. Assumptions of expertise and authority are often inconsistent and illogical. Empirical investigations into journalism should be sensitive to the significance of journalistic expertise, including the contradictory nature of objectivity claims and other forms of that claim. Additionally, any analysis of journalism should consider the complex and contradictory nature of claims to be inside and outside an occupational system.

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CHAPTER 8

REPORTERS AND THEIR SOURCES: NAVIGATING INFORMATION CHANNELS IN JOURNALISM

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
The interaction between sources and reporters is crucial for accurate news gathering and sharing. Journalists rely on various sources, including specialists, witnesses, government representatives, and actual attendees. The connection is based on mutual respect, confidentiality, and trust. Journalists must maintain relationships with sources through effective communication, active listening, and comprehensive verification. However, they must also navigate potential obstacles and moral conundrums related to sources, such as assessing their objectivity, motivations, and potential biases. Striking a balance between maintaining source confidentiality and upholding the public's right to information can be challenging. In today's evolving environment, sources can remain anonymous online or provide information directly to the public. To combat misinformation and uphold journalism's integrity, journalists must adopt a discerning approach to evaluating and confirming sources.

KEYWORDS:

Bias, Power, Reports, Relationship, Source.

INTRODUCTION

Questions about bias, power, and influence form the basis of the study of journalists and the news sources they use. If reporters or sources have more influence in influencing the news, as was the case in the early literature, which was written in a hostile environment. One extension of this inquiry concerns the manner in which journalists' usage of news sources results in a certain news agenda that either favors or omits certain subjects over others. The ability of source power to subsidize the time and effort needed for reporting is a question that is asked in a second extension [1]–[4]. According to many authors, the relationship between journalists and their sources is essentially a struggle for control over public opinion and consent. Journalists ultimately play the job of defending society against corruption, whereas officials in industry and government are tasked with upholding their own interests at any costs. These kind of power, however, only represent something fleeting, namely the capacity to influence the course of particular issues and policies. The power struggle resumes once the issue has been handled.

This chapter contends that there is more at stake between journalists and their sources than just the ability to influence public opinion in the short term. Instead, their connection constitutes a long-lasting yet dynamic influence on society: the capacity to mold enduring cultural meanings. The Western origins of much of this research are also questioned. What could seem like co-optation from a Western perspective really reflects the pragmatics of journalistic and, more broadly, cultural realities. This is because press systems, political systems, and the social position of journalists all

vary between regions and nations. It is crucial to note that the term source is only used to describe the persons who journalists consult for information, frequently officials and specialists with ties to the major institutions of society. The phrase also refers to companies that give news content to newspapers, broadcast outlets, and websites, such as the Associated Press. This second usage of the term is outside the focus of this article.

In order to grasp the positions of their interaction, the chapter begins with a sociological perspective on the relationship between journalists and their sources. The narrative then shifts from an early portrayal of an antagonistic relationship, founded in efforts to sway public opinion, to a more objective discussion between two parties who are both trying to gain something, and finally, to a negotiation over enduring cultural meanings and ideological dominance. With these components in place, the chapter moves on to situate what is fundamentally a Western research discourse in larger global contexts. The issue of voice and empowerment is then brought up as a crucial mediating aspect, affecting both reporters and sources. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of how changing media technologies have changed the nature of the relationship between journalists and their sources [5]–[8].

A Sociological Perspective on the Reporter-Source Relationship

The fundamental ideas of the professional ideology of journalism influence the interaction between a reporter and a source. Therefore, in order to comprehend the relationship, this ideology must be temporarily removed in order to see what is actually there. The fundamental requirements of the ideology and the processes journalists use to complete their work and produce their product are the two dimensions that need to be addressed. The profession's ideology is a paradigm, or means of going about something in a specific way. The desired outcome is anticipated to occur if journalists adopt this paradigm. Reporters obtain reliable data and then provide it without explicitly taking a position in the discussion, which is fundamentally how journalism operates. Reporters become reliant on experts and officials as sources since they serve as the sources of this information. Even while covering an event, reporters are not allowed to express an opinion of their own, thus the interpretation is constrained to things like crowd estimates, location descriptions, portrayals of how people looked, and what those people said.

By using this source-driven methodology, journalists transform into society's scientists, and the news they produce becomes their scientific reporttheir reality. This paradigm appears to work well on the surface, but that ignores the fact that news organizations typically have a stake in journalists' reporting because it links news content to public opinion and, ultimately, their own success. For those in positions of authority, maintaining popular support strengthens their capacity to hold onto that position. The need for elected officials to positively influence public opinion grows stronger since their capacity to hold onto office and carry out their desired policies is at stake. The media's coverage of business and organization leaders aids in preserving societal approval for them to carry on with their existing course of action. Losing public favor may necessitate a shift in strategy.

Overall, there is a lot at risk for both reporters and sources. Each news item that a reporter writes puts their reputation for trustworthiness and plausibility at risk. Similarly, sources frequently jeopardize their professional success. Combining the two sides of this equation implies that the connection between journalists and their sources is a delicately negotiated one, with each party trying to advance their interests and keep their social and professional standings. According to Sigal, news is mediated by news organizations, journalistic routines, and traditions, which largely obfuscate the personal preferences of individual journalists. News is, after all, not what journalists

think, but what their sources say. This portrayal of news and the relationship between the reporter and the source emphasizes the second challenge faced by journalists that news is a product with organizational expectations. Reporters must devise strategies and procedures to help them produce their product on schedule and in a manner that their peers will deem good. The interplay between reporters and sources is what causes news to become a construction. In the abstract, nearly all jobs and professions face the same challenge: employers must hire staff, employees must strategically use their skills to meet production quotas given their resources, and ultimately, customers must be satisfied with the product they receive in terms of timeliness and quality [9], [10].

Routineizing their tasks helps reporters, in practice, overcome organizational constraints. Although they must speak with numerous sources in order to write tales, their reconnaissance method requires limits. Because sources are not always immediately available, organizing interviews becomes a chore that takes time to complete and reduces the amount of time left until the deadline. This process is made simpler by having a core collection of well-known sources, but occasionally additional sources must be located. Complicating matters further, some sources might not cooperate with certain stories or might not be accessible when required. Reporters must deal with any unexpected input from sources who may also want to get into the conflict. Unspoken corporate policy that has been socially learnt can occasionally specify the routes that reporters must take as well as the sources and subjects that are off-limits, further complicating matters.

A second negotiating process begins when reporters interact with their sources, whether in person or online. There, journalists try to elicit as much information as possible from their sources by leading the conversation in directions that the source may not necessarily want to go. In turn, sources make an effort to keep the information-gathering effort in line with the information they are prepared to supply, which is typically material that is neutral, can advance their own cause, or in certain situations, can harm an opponent's cause. However, sources frequently try to actively influence what becomes news through news releases, news conferences, scheduled events, and leaks that might hasten the reporting process. As a result, reporters do not always take the lead. Even natural events, such crises and disasters involving other people, can be used by sources to draw attention to their cause.

Sources are responsible for a very substantial percentage of news, and they have a better chance of being heard if they can give reporters easily compiled information. Over time, knowledgeable sources who are able to communicate frequently and comprehend reporters' needs have become a significant source of news; yet, most of what sources offer generally has a tendency to fall short and lose prominence in the media. In conclusion, scheduling becomes a regular part of a journalist's job because sources need to be scheduled. Due to tight deadlines or unavailability of sources, some stories' scheduling becomes more challenging. Reporters learn how to identify sources who are easy to schedule and who can give them the information they need in a clear, manageable manner. Once sources have been scheduled for interviews, reporters can transition to a new working mode, analyzing the material they have gathered, giving some sources' information more weight than others, and creating news stories that adhere to the paradigm's norms.

From a Power Perspective to a Focus on Cultural Meaning-Making

The media's role as a watchdog over government and big business is a fundamental component of journalistic philosophy, making reporters' struggles to obtain essential information from sources crucial. This power struggle can be seen as a power struggle between sources and reporters, with high power reporters having the capacity to assemble more information from more sources. The

question of What determines the power of journalists and sources is a component of this power struggle, and what does this power impact? The key factors for reporters and their sources include their organizational characteristics and personal characteristics. Experience, track record for producing impactful stories, and intra-organizational power are three elements that influence their power. Power is also influenced by the reporter's organization, as news organizations with national or international scales typically have more clout when dealing with news sources. Power is strengthened and established by prior reputations for disseminating or airing important news stories.

The most effective sources are typically situated within a power system and have both the authority of knowledge and the autonomy to talk about that knowledge. Under specific conditions, sources with the potential to influence the media could temporarily hold positions of authority, such as after an oil spill when environmentalist positions were promoted to the media. The perceived power dynamics that reporters and their sources bring to a particular interaction have a significant bearing on the conclusion of the news story. The dynamic nature of the connection between journalists and their sources depends on the circumstances surrounding a particular incident and the perceived authority that each party brings to the interaction. This power dynamic also determines who can lead negotiations for information that becomes news reports and how relationships between reporters and sources play out. The power effect is the second question that follows, and the response to this issue has typically been expressed in terms of influence over public opinion and the news agenda. Maintaining a favorable public image is a daily concern for public officials and business executives. Power for a source can be defined most simply as having a voice in a discussion that is currently on the news agenda.

The ability of journalists and sources to shape an ongoing news agenda is ephemeral and subject to the whims of those in command and the social environment in which they interact. The potential of the news agenda to endure when a change in government is in place is up for debate. Some problems might persist, while others would go away. Unless it has any bearing on individuals who have already moved in, public opinion about an out-of-office office becomes basically meaningless. When evaluating the relationship between reporters and their sources, focusing just on public opinion can obscure some of the most significant, long-lasting effects. It is crucial to turn the conversation to culture and the implications it bears as a result. One approach to thinking about how reporters and their sources affect meanings is through the concept of framing. By considering news meanings in this way, it is suggested that topics can be debated in specific ways, with specific bounds imposed on the meanings that fall within and outside of the discussion's purview. When journalists or their sources contain a story in this way, certain portrayals begin to dominate the way people think as the story develops.

The meaning of events and issues is influenced by the reporter-source relationship, which impacts ideology and social order. The interpretive community, represented by various social groups, is a cultural setting where meanings are created, communicated, and rebuilt daily. Both the professional interpretative community of reporters and the interpretive community of their sources have different connotations for reporters. The professional interpretive community of reporters has four main dimensions: professional philosophy, media organization's interpretative community, and socialization through socialization. This community may conflict with the first by suggesting certain sources and groups over others, being lenient with some sources while being hostile with others, and other practices. The interpretive communities of sources, on the other hand, focus on highlighting one dominant interpretation among the many alternatives. Corporate, governmental,

and special interest sectors aim to maintain and bolster their social position and power through interpretations that make their preferred meanings easier to accept. These interpretations are not always strategic actions for reporters or their sources but become implicit understandings, developing through time through group interactions. In conclusion, news content is not shaped by the traditional idea of socially autonomous journalists serving as watchdogs or transient conflicts between reporters and their sources. Journalists are accountable to four aspects of their interpretive community, while news providers react to the favored interpretations, they have learned from existing within their own rival interpretive communities.

DISCUSSION

Placing the Reporter-Source Relationship into a Global Context

Several studies on journalists and their sources have been centered on Western press structures and, more specifically, on how the relationship manifests itself in the United States. However, the question of how far we can carry this understanding to comprehend different press systems needs to be addressed. The underlying question has two extensions, and they lead to polar opposite. A second question asks how much emphasis should be placed on disparities within a single press system. One extended question asks how differences between press systems should be taken into account in our understandings. It would be difficult to claim that there is a global journalism that obscures many of the long-standing differences between countries and their press systems, despite the fact that these are not simple questions to answer. There are several anecdotal examples that demonstrate how the norms of one system can transform into the aberrations of another. It is not immediately clear at what level of study one should approach these situations. Despite the fact that the extra-media or societal levels stand out as the most likely, caution must be exercised to prevent overly decreasing the homogeneity of a single syste,. In the end, we are still left with the same important question: How does the relationship between the reporter and the source affect the news? However, once we leave the convenience of a single home base for study, we find ourselves floundering for specific solutions.

Thus, it can be said that the fundamental relationship between reporters and their sources is portable, meaning that it occurs in all press systems, from the most authoritarian to the most libertarian, even though it takes on diverse forms. Even when looking at the same scenario, what may appear to be a certain amount of flexibility via one journalistic professional lens may appear to be fairly confined through another. Every time, journalists maintain the core conviction that they can't just make up stories rather, they must trust what they've been given by someone with a perceived amount of authority. For instance, while foreign affairs reporters in the Netherlands have a high degree of freedom from official sources because they are not under as much pressure to produce news, the relationship between reporters and officials is tightly regulated at Japanese Kisha clubs. In contrast to the Netherlands, where reporters are essentially in charge and subjective output is the acknowledged norm, news in Japan mostly consists of what officials say. Sources are paid by reporters in other systems, which is highly unethical for American journalists but is accepted as a part of the envelope journalism system by Mexican journalists to subsidize their low wages in a way similar to restaurant waiters.

Other comparisons draw attention to disparities that result from a fusion of society and professional cultures. For instance, although both groups expressed a similar concern for maintaining source confidentiality, American reporters were significantly less likely to negotiate with a source when compared to Israeli reporters in their responses to a series of fictitious scenarios. However, sources

are not attempting to co-opt reporters through friendly interactions in Korea, according to several studies that have found that the relationship becomes more personal than is typical in the West. Instead, this type of close friendship is an important part of Korean culture in general. Although the environment in New Zealand seems friendlier, sources still predominate, playing a function more akin to that of the para-journalist Schudson described as providing favourable facts as opposed to a more objective depiction of the information. According to a study of journalists in Britain and Spain, situations of crisis create a unique situation for the relationship between journalists and sources, with sources attempting to curry favor with journalists in order to advance their own agendas and harm their rivals.

Learning from the Global Base of Research

These instances point to certain international similarities in the reporter-source interaction, with minor and significant differences in the extra-media and society levels. On the authoritarian-libertarian spectrum, where equivalent degrees of reporters' agency define the relationship's boundaries, are where the most obvious similarities exist. In Altschull's vision of press systems, the situation is once again reframed, leading reporters who are constrained by a pro-development posture to self-regulate their demands on official sources in the interest of fostering national development. One stance to take when adapting research from one system to another is to claim that conclusions from one system cannot be applied to another, regardless of how similar they may seem. Adopting the idea of transferability, which identifies contextual and structural similarities and contrasts between two examples, and then modifies the findings from one to better inform the other, would be a second, more productive position.

This second position steers clear of absolutist views that claim that not much can be transferred from one situation to another as well as reductionist approaches that ignore significant differences.Transferability and comparison have the benefit of making the important traits of each instance more prominently highlighted by the contrasting cases. For instance, comparisons of interpersonal connections between cultures can be utilized as a starting point to comprehend variations in the synergistic or conflictual levels between reporters and officials among systems. The power that officials exert over reporters can also be highlighted in subtle and not-so-subtle ways by taking into account cultural perspectives on gender equity, particularly in light of the gender composition of the journalistic workforce. Overall, the key to building a conceptual framework for new research and maintaining an awareness of the limits of interpretation when that current lens is subsequently applied is to keep vigilant to the context of study on reporters and their sources.

Gender, Ethnicity, and The Journalist Source Relationships

One of the main issues with the interaction between reporters and sources is that, if the journalistic paradigm recommends consulting authoritative news sources, people who are thought to be in positions of authority will have a higher chance of being heard in the media. Reporter-source interactions that feature high-profile official sources often serve to legitimize or even reify the social order. This happens because it is the responsibility of journalists to create news content that exudes factuality: reliable sources' assertions can be considered as fact, validating the news without the need for further investigation into the accuracy of that fact. In the majority of cultures, fact-bearers are members of the ideologically dominant mainstream who speak for those institutions and provide their prevailing frame. The majority of sources are typically men who hold positions of authority and do not identify as a member of a minority group in their community.

The subject of Who gets a voice pertains to the connection between the reporter and the source. That is, to what extent do media sources receive information dominated by mainstream voices, and to what extent do women and underrepresented groups have a chance to emerge in the news and influence its interpretation? Although the solutions do not actually have fixed quantitative parameters, they can nonetheless be approached from that angle. It is also necessary to ask a second, less obvious question. How do the gender and ethnicity of reporters affect the types and amounts of facts that can be gathered? Consider the situations where women have a voice and play an active part in the relationship if reporters' preferred news sources tend to be male mainstream officials. The connection between female reporters and female news sources has been researched in great detail. In this sense, the key line of investigation is whether female reporters are more likely to use female news sources when the possibility presents itself. According to this reasoning, female reporters will be less accustomed to the male power dynamic and will feel more at ease interviewing female sources due to a sort of gender-based camaraderie that wouldn't exist with male sources, who may also hold more sociopolitical sway.

Through an analysis of the gender and race of reporters and sources who appeared on network newscasts during the 2000 presidential election, Zeldes and Fico investigated this idea. They discovered a correlation between more diversified source use and stories by female and minority journalists. This discovery was also made in several additional research, though to a lesser extent. When Freedman and Fico looked at sources, particularly source expertise, in news coverage of a state gubernatorial election, they discovered that female nonpartisan sources were more likely to be cited in stories with a female reporter's byline. However, male continued to make up the vast majority of non-partisan sources, while female non-expert sources featured much less frequently than their representation in the general population. Similar findings were found in a research by Armstron, which found that male sources were cited more often and given more prominence. Once more, the use of female news sources was predicted by the bylines of female reporters. When Ross examined the gender issue in the context of regional British newspapers, she discovered that the same trends persisted, with male sources continuing to predominate the news even when the reporters were female.

Broader organizational and professional expectations, as well as newsroom norms and practices, which function as a compliance mechanism, especially at larger newspapers, in part moderate the degree of variance in these findings. In particular where newsrooms are dominated by male leadersh, these expectations from colleagues would limit the scope of reporting by female reporters. However, it's probable that female sources are slightly more likely to be used for particular news genres. A formal strategy advocating a broader usage of a variety of news sources has also been adopted by several news organizations as a counterfore. Use of news sources from non-mainstream racial and ethnic groups is guided by research on source gender. Latinos, Asian Americans, and Native Americans, for instance, are hardly ever used as news sources in the United States. When another source is mentioned in a news story, African Americans tend to show up more frequently. The mix of news sources appears to be quite constant, even in situations where there is an explicit organizational policy to use minority news sources.

Taking the idea of source diversity a step further, certain news organizations view themselves as alternative or oppositional, therefore a higher percentage of sources who are regular people would be expected to be used in their reporting. Surprisingly, oppositional journalism likewise places more of a focus on elites than on common people, even though these elites are from outside the mainstream that is currently in power. This was discovered in studies of an oppositional radio

station in the US and an activist newspaper in the UK. In either scenario, the solution is straightforward: journalists must obtain their data from reliable sources that audiences would accept as genuine bearers of facts. The actual distinction in these situations is that alternative media rely more heavily on reliable sources that share their own ideologies. As a means of ensuring ideological continuity, a mainstream news organization, given the choice between a mainstream official source and an expert from an opposing side, will select the formere.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a key component of journalism is the interaction that exists between reporters and their sources. Reporters are able to produce accurate and thorough news coverage thanks to the vital information, opinions, and insights that sources supply. For reporters to get accurate information from sources, who frequently anticipate anonymity or off-the-record status, trust and confidentiality are essential. To secure the reliability of their sources, journalists must build trusting connections, use critical judgment, and verify facts. Reporters must uphold transparency, accountability, and a commitment to maintaining the public's right to know in order to navigate the difficulties of source trustworthiness, ethical issues, and the changing digital scene. In the end, the collaboration between reporters and sources is crucial for promoting public knowledge and disseminating reliable news.

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CHAPTER 9

GENDER IN THE NEWSROOM: CHALLENGES AND PROGRESS IN JOURNALISM

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
One important factor that affects media representation, content, and workplace dynamics is gender in the newsroom. It covers the duties, encounters, and difficulties that both men and women in journalism work through. While there has been progress, there are still gender discrepancies and biases in newsrooms that affect both how gender is portrayed in media and how people grow in their careers. Although women are now better represented in newsrooms, the glass ceiling phenomena and underrepresentation in positions of power still affect them. The selection of news items, sources, and the general framing of topics can be influenced by gender biases, which frequently reinforce gender stereotypes and inequality. Because of the underrepresentation of women in journalistic leadership, viewpoints and decision-making may continue to be controlled by men. The workplace culture, including concerns of wage fairness, work-life balance, and harassment, is impacted by gender relations inside the newsroom. Women may be discouraged from entering or staying in journalism by unfriendly conditions brought on by discrimination and harassment. To advance gender equality and foster the success of journalists of all genders, it is essential to ensure a secure, welcoming, and diverse newsroom. Proactive steps must be taken to address gender imbalances in the newsroom, including the adoption of equal opportunity policies, the promotion of diversity in senior positions, and the development of inclusive newsroom cultures. In order to dispel misconceptions and promote more fair and representative news coverage, gender-sensitive reporting techniques, diversified sources, and nuanced narrative are encouraged.

KEYWORDS:

Female, Genders, Media, News, Women.

INTRODUCTION

Without necessarily utilizing the specific terminology of gender, discussions of gender in the newsroom stretch back to the late nineteenth century, when a large number of women started working in UK and US newsrooms to support themselves and their families. Our girls will rush into journalism, teaching, or the stage, three professions already overstocked, and neglect really useful branches of employment, by which they might earn a steady, if not luxurious livelihood, a worried reader of a UK woman's magazine. Men claimed that the invasion of women would defeminize and even desex women. These persistent claims, which only ceased during world wars, have little to do with the notion that women are inherently incapable of reporting [1]–[4]. Instead, these assertions exposed the marginalization of female readers and men's desire to maintain their monopoly on high status work. In any event, these rants show that women were able to compete in this traditionally male environment. Despite their frequent complaints that male editors,

colleagues, and sources refused to take them seriously and confined them to the women's perspective, women continued to want journalism jobs.

Working journalists and academics debated gender for the majority of the 20th century with women at the center of the discussion. This highlights the Otherness of women and the remainder of maleness as the unmarked standard. It also relies on the idea that women and males are diametrically opposed, with femininity being the issue. Studies on gendered journalistic practices seldom ever question generalizations about sex or gender disparities. Instead, to assess women's status, gender and women are combined into one separate, fixed, and self-evident category. Men's magazines' involvement in creating or reproducing different forms of masculinity has only recently come to the forefront of discussion. Rarely is the manufactured link between femininity and masculinity researched. Gender has mainly been used to raise one question, regardless of how the newsroom is viewedas a physical location, an organization, or a collection of cultural practices. Could or should female reporters attempt to act like males, or would journalism be better served if women generated distinctive forms?

Newsmen saved their highest praise, at least until the 1950s, for a select few women whose work was just like men's. Ishbel Ross, a crime reporter for the New York Tribune, was hailed as the model newspaperwoman by Stanley Walker for upholding this standard. The first book-length history of female reporters, Ross' Ladies of the Press, admitted that even successful front-page females had not altered newsrooms. The few women who published women's journalism textbooks took a pragmatic approach and urged other women to do the same [5]–[8]. The reality of sex, or the woman's angle, is a writer's tool, but it must never be her weapon, argued Ethel Brazelton, who taught journalism for women at Northwestern University. But since she is a woman, she has a distinct advantage when it comes to seeing, documenting, and interpreting the interests, behaviors, and work of women. On the other hand, since the 1900s, women reporters' memoirs and other self-reports have emphasized more and more how they, regardless of remuneration, avoided becoming sob sisters or agony aunts. So, to put it simply, tracing the evolution of gender in the newsroom involves going from an initial consensus among women and men journalists that women's role was to write with a woman's touch about women for women readers.

Whose interests were seen as dichotomously different from men's interests to a claim by women that they could produce the same unmarked journalism as men, who in turn disputed these claims to protect their status, jobs, and salaries. Women's issues served as the initial entry point for women in media. Pauline Frederick, for instance, first covered women's issues for radio before being hired by ABC to interview political candidates' wives. But it wasn't the aim of women. Women realized that these clearly female forms constituted professional ghettoes rather than socialization or even inclinations at all. Over the course of the twentieth century, the story became more complex and contentious. Consequently, men today claim that gender is immaterial in modern newsrooms, which they perceive as having altered and been challenged by new economic restrictions, technologies, audiences, professional norms, and the overt presence of women. Ironically, recent criticisms of the feminization of newsrooms may be responses to new feminine forms. In contrast, they might reflect how women are overrepresented in media or how people remember them more for their attractiveness than for anything else. It can be related to the backlash against feminism [9].

While this is going on, the majority of female journalists themselves concur with males that gender is a non-issue. Women and other minoritiesdefined by race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and classchallenge job discrimination on the basis of merit and professional position. Scholars continue to see gender as essentially and forever significant despite abandoning naturalized definitions of women based on various logics. Therefore, academics contend that diversity of viewpoints is important, and they make the assumption that women and men who work as journalists should operate differently from one another. They claim that these groups won't be well reported on in terms of quantity or quality because of the actual or perceived absence of women or people of color, or gays and lesbians)in the newsroom. When Susan Estrich, a law professor and independent opinion writer, criticized a male editor for not publishing enough pieces by women, the scandal first surfaced. Even the few female columnists don't count as women because they don't write with 'women's voices,' according to Estrich. Estrich's complaint was deemed bizarre and seriously bad for women by regular Washington Post columnist Anne Applebaum in 2005. Perhaps because I see so many excellent women around me at the newspaper, perhaps because so many of The Post's best-known journalists are women, perhaps because I've never thought of myself as a female journalist. Applebaum also did not believe that other women saw themselves as female journalists with particular responsibilities to report about women's issues.

The Impact of the Women's Liberation Movement

Although sympathetic female reporters were able to smuggle some women's issues, like rape laws, into the women's pages in the 1960s by sounding objective to their sexist male editors, the structure of the US news media and the women's liberation movement both worked against publicity for that movement. The National Organization for Women made a lot of effort to engage the news media and build connections with female journalists. The movement received media attention, whether as a result of the pro-active information subsidies provided by women's organizations or the agitprop attempts of radical feminists. Additionally, the women's movement had a significant impact on newsrooms. First, women journalists challenged discriminatory hiring and promotion practices at some news organizations using regulatory and legal routes after being encouraged and motivated by the movement. Each victory allowed women to advance. Less is known about the effects of content in the long run. According to a Los Angeles Times reporter, this increasing number of female reporters had a significant, favorable effect.

The utilization of more women, feminist organizations, and ordinary people as sources by female reporters, as well as their reporting on social concerns and topics that appeal to women, are claimed to benefit newsroom diversity. Women undoubtedly took action to destroy women's sections, first at The Washington Post and other prestigious publications, then at smaller publications. Since Jane Cunningham Croly founded a women's page for the New York Daily World in the 1890s, both white mainstream and black newsrooms have employed women as editors of these pages. Some women's page editors attempted to broaden these sections' racial, political, and social horizons in the 1950s and 1960s, but their attempts were insufficient and inconsistent. Relative to other sexist expressions that denigrated or condemned women, these portions were once again assailed by newly empowered second-wave feminists. As emphasized in a number of oral histories produced by the Washington Press Club Foundation, removing women's pages had the direct result of removing the one editorial position designated for women.

Similar dynamics were at play in Ireland, where real reporters looked down on women's pages until the Irish Times allowed women to redesign the women's pages to include serious reporting

in the late 1960s. The section was quickly eliminated because Maeve Binchy, who served as its second editor and is now a bestselling author, felt that women didn't need their own section. Ironically, some US newspapers reinstated women's pages in the 1980s to appease advertisers. Both experiments show how commercial considerations drive the sex-binary packaging of news and the depiction of women readers and reporters as interested in lifestyle problems and domesticity, not the individual values of women. The second wave of the women's movement stimulated research on women's culture and work and created a market for that research. It also encouraged women to follow their interests in women's history and enter the university. Long-forgotten women were Up from the Footnote because to Marzolf's revolutionary history from 1977. The next step, according to another title, was full-bore biographies of lone persons and Great Women of the Press.

Theoretically sophisticated histories of women's journalism around the world as well as more specific categories such as black women, war reporters, and sob sisters were eventually explored by historians. More crucially, researchers reexamined the idea that newsroom practices are the direct, unavoidable product of professional routines and socialization, with management defining the abilities and talents they seek in terms of what historically increased circulation and status. The research agenda itself was influenced by new ideas about how journalists' gendered identities matter, as well as the justifications for why newsroom diversity is crucial one can only comprehend someone if one has walked in their shoes. This led to a rethinking of how women react to the dynamics and structures of newsrooms, as well as what constitutes news or newsrooms.

DISCUSSION

Women's Alternative Media

The women-led news medium, which began with periodicals published by young US textile workers in the middle of the nineteenth century and may have been the first sustained efforts by women to make their own news and so redefine themselves, was one of the main research areas for the second-wave generation. Periodicals of the women's movement are still of interest because of their significance in explaining, defending, and preserving women's freedom as well as in arguing new ideals of femininity. In addition to voting, suffrage magazines included more significant topics like politics, law, health, and labor. Their editors established their own group and were involved in various reform organizations and magazines. Their publications can also be examined in terms of newsroom practices, such as how they deal with accommodating family obligations, their dedication to journalism education, and their efforts to change journalism along feminist lines. A gendered community of activists grew as a result of the 150 women-run UK political journals that were produced between 1856 and 1930. These publications persuaded women that they could affect social change by creating a new gender-based political culture that appropriated public space.

Periodicals published by feminists in the 20th century are crucial forums as well. For instance, Time and Tide was founded as a result of anger with both UK mainstream media that denigrated women and advocacy publications that were exclusively focused on women. The numerous feminist periodicals that popped up in the US throughout the 1970s had a more limited audience than the earlier US and UK publications; they were written for, about, and generally by a specific group, including ecofeminists, prostitutes, celibates, older women, Marxists, feminist witches, and a variety of other interests and occupations. They also publicly attacked sexist stereotypes and were more self-consciously experimental in rejecting traditional definitions of newsworthiness and

journalistic structures. Off our Backs has been published since 1970 by a collective that still works by consensus. We intend to be just, but we do not pretend to be unbiased, it states. It rejects traditional ideas. Women who have produced second-wave women's movement organs have largely been activists, reformers, and crusaders with no inclination toward professional careers. The exception that demonstrates the rule is Ms., who has served as the mouthpiece of American popular feminism since 1972. Despite refusing to write complementary copy for advertisers and ceasing all advertising for many years, Ms. has been portrayed as a corrupt hybrid who is always fi rmly enmeshed in a commercial mass media matrix. Otherwise, the heads of feminist newsrooms lacked experience in commercial journalism and did not see themselves as journalists first and foremost. Nevertheless, they offered both industrial and professional opportunities, particularly in journalism.

Amelia Bloomer, for instance, agreed to delay The Lily's publication so that she could teach her own female printers. She started The Lily in 1849 as a medium through which woman's thoughts and aspirations might be developed. They maintained subscription costs affordable for unpaid or low-paid women and restricted advertising to what they judged appropriate. Given their amateurish writing, disregard for aesthetics, lack of long-term business strategies, inefficiency brought on by collective or horizontal organization, and obsession with principle, feminist political papers are therefore certainly subject to the criticisms of alternative media. These criticisms make it possible to conduct study on how new media, such as satellite radio, public access cable channels, and Internet zines, might cover global concerns that are difficult to debate elsewhere. Women's voices were once mostly ignored in commercial and mainstream radio, with the exception of programs geared toward assisting women in the home. The majority of reporters, hosts of news programs, and interviewers nowadays are women. More importantly, feminist public affairs programs and even radio stations controlled by women are active internationally with varied degrees of feminism. WINGS (Women's International News Gathering Service) provides feminist news to radio stations, while Feminist International Radio Endeavor (FIRE) develops an Internet-based worldwide news flow. Third-wave feminists also adhere to what seem to be whole new beliefs.

Empirical Evidence of Gender Differences in Values

According to national surveys, gender is not a good indicator of variations in professional practices. Men and women both have a similar conception of the function of news and assessment of the morality of reporting techniques. Contrarily, feminist theorizing contends that modes of thought and knowledge are profoundly influenced by social identity, which is in turn influenced by experiences that are intrinsically gendered, variations in socialization, and social history. Men and women socialize differently into the workplace because men and women have different values and priorities, according to Rogers and Thorson. They had projected that, like females in other professions, women reporters would have distinctive beliefs, interests, and priorities that would influence how stories are investigated, sourced, structured, and produced. This was because men and women have different identities. However, women at the large paper sourced and framed articles much like their male colleagues, according to Rogers and Thorson's content examination of three newspapers, which revealed that women drew from a broader variety of female and ethnic sources, especially in positive stories.

In general, women journalists, with their particular womanview, tend to be more interested in their audience and more concerned with context, according to Van Zoonen. According to her, women question the objectivity of male journalists because they think that males utilize objectivity as a

defense against the empathy and sensitivity that journalism demands. War reporting is perhaps still the most contentious field for women because to the dangers, potential for deadly injury, and potential for career-making reputation. Audiences often criticize women, especially mothers, for placing their bodies in danger. The question of whether women and men report differently during times of war has also sparked an exceptionally heated debate among readers, journalists, and academics. Women first participated in significant numbers in the Vietnam War. Some women discovered that because of their visibility, they were acknowledged during press conferences and their queries were addressed first. However, women encountered discrimination and mistrust from the American troops, the Vietnamese forces, and male reporterseven when they were paid to write from and about the perspective of the woman. Because they were aware of the preconception that women were more sensitive to the human side of war and that these stories were more likely to be eliminated, some women detested writing human interest war stories.

This means that sexism, not sex differences, was the issue, as evidenced by the number of women who refused to write as women or complained about having their assignments assigned based on sex stereotypes. The first woman to cover Vietnam for television in 1991, Liz Trotta, hypothesized that her male coworkers felt threatened by having to compete with her. In any case, men and women produced stories that were quite similar to one another. Results from smaller gender studies are ambiguous and conflicting. The majority of feminist activists and academics believe that gender matters or that it ought to matter more. Women believe female journalists provide a different, more human perspective to the news, according to informal surveys by the International Women's Media Foundation, while other women said that news is news and ethics are ethics. The 22 women who participated in the advocacy group and answered a questionnaire disagreed on whether or not women report women's issues differently. males still dominate the professions, according to the majority of women, who claimed that they react to stories differently from males because they are more sympathetic toward women and place more emphasis on personal and emotional aspects.

However, 75% of respondents did not include feminism in their reporting, and many participants thought that female bosses were even more masculine than male counterparts. Many of Ross's interviewees, who have accepted male-identified problems as normal and integrated them into what is a male career, are seen as being insensitive to gender issues. Women's significant hesitation and lack of agreement, at the very least, raise doubts about the possibility of a critical mass of women transforming the press. Margaret Gallagher, who published significant comparative studies on the exclusion of women around the world, contends that gender is still a professional issue that has to be addressedin fact, in novel, innovative ways. Her Global Media Monitoring initiatives, however, challenge the notion that the increased participation of women in journalism in most nations will significantly alter the nature of the work. There is no single group of women. Many people are insensitive to the historical changes made by feminists and have no sympathy for the feminism movement as a whole.

In conclusion, women are aware that many of their male coworkers are sexist, but they essentially accept the structures of journalism as a profession and chose to support its compensation structure. Furthermore, the gender socialization theory is unable to explain why some women reject their gender. In large part because it ignores the crucial way to understand gendernot as a role, much less a static and dichotomous set of differences between women and menbut as a performance, a relational act, it neither accounts for the chicken egg debate on the domestic front nor resolves the

issue at the front of battle . Men and women both perform gender, sometimes in a creative way and other times not, and they also inspire others to do the same.

Management

One of the first female network news correspondents, Marlene Sanders, was designated the first female network vice president for news in the 1970s. However, until recently, there wasn't much writing about or by the few women who achieved the highest positions. Since her father had owned the newspaper, Katharine Graham stands apart for her candor in describing how she came to be the publisher of the Washington Post. Prior to her husband's demise in 1963, she had little engagement with the paper and mostly engaged in social activities. More importantly, businesses around the world, including news organizations, have been and still are hesitant to advance women into senior roles. It makes sense that the research by Hemlinger and Linton from 2002 on the gendered glass ceiling in newsrooms was headlined Still Fighting an Uphill Battle. 18% of major newspaper publishers in the US were women in 2006.

In a small number of chains, women occupied 30% of all executive positions at daily newspapers, while 35% of television news managers are female. According to Annenberg's report No Room at the Top, women make up only 12 percent of the boards of directors of news and entertainment organizations and 20 percent of the top executives of network news companies. But while complaining that 46% of female executives in media entertainment companies and 38% of female news executives work in communications marketing PR, human resources, or government relations the woman's sphere), the report also justifies women's executive potential in terms of their unique communication skills and understanding of the female market. The idea that men and women execute leadership in different ways is similar to other dichotomized ideas: masculine management is more authoritarian, competitive, and defensive, while feminine management is more interpersonal, democratic, constructive, and collaborative. Statistically speaking, men lead the majority of papers in both categories.

At the very least, the focus on management suggests discontent with the justification for the importance of female reporters. For instance, women make up nearly half of the reporters but just 19% of the editors in New Zealand's publications. According to Judy McGrege, the first woman to edit a major newspaper in New Zealand and current Equal Employment Opportunities Commissioner, having women in high management is necessary to express women's unique perspectives and eliminate the news' masculine bias. Notably, the Sarasota Herald Tribune carried the same content as other journals and had a comparable number of female sources between the years 1999 and 2003. Its publisher, executive editor, managing editor, and two assistant managing editors were all women. However, the management team of that paper, which was made up entirely of women, was thought to provide, as promised, a climate of openness and transparent decision-making.

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CONCLUSION

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Finally, gender inequality in the newsroom continues to be a problem that affects media representation, content, and workplace interactions. Even while progress has been made, there are still gender gaps and biases that have an impact on how people grow in their careers as well as how gender is portrayed in the news. For the sake of dispelling prejudices, enhancing media representation's accuracy, and promoting gender equality, it is essential to have inclusive, varied

newsrooms. News organizations may aid in creating a more fair and diverse media landscape by addressing gender imbalances, advancing equal opportunities, and developing inclusive cultures.

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CHAPTER 10

CONVERGENCE AND CROSS-PLATFORM CONTENT PRODUCTION

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

In the digital age, convergence and cross-platform content creation have become essential strategies for media firms. This involves blending various media platforms and formats, blurring the lines between print, broadcast, and online media. This allows for creative and engaging content distribution across multiple platforms, such as websites, social media, mobile applications, and traditional media channels. Cross-platform content development acknowledges the diverse tastes and routines of audiences, increasing the reach and impact of content. By utilizing interactive components, audio, and video, media organizations can provide immersive experiences for consumers. User-generated content, interactive elements, and social media integration encourage audience engagement and participation. A two-way communication strategy involving the audience in content development and dissemination can increase user loyalty and confidence. However, convergence and cross-platform content creation also present challenges, such as maintaining content across multiple channels, investing in infrastructure and training, and adapting to rapidly evolving technologies. Media firms must strike a balance between accuracy and speed while upholding quality and ethics.

KEYWORDS:

Convergence, Content, Digital, Media, Newsroom.

INTRODUCTION

The keyword convergence has come to represent quick changes in media markets, production, content, and consumption. Though the concerns go beyond those brought on by the technology itself, the word broadly refers to the blending or merging of formerly distinct media technologies, primarily based on digitization processes. Researchers in journalism have mostly concentrated on newsroom convergence, particularly in relation to changes in work routines and organizational structures related to the production of content across media platforms. The definition of the term has been enlarged to include a convergence of the responsibilities of journalists and audience members inside a networked digital environment as a result of a related and more recent area of research. Convergence is defined at the outset of this chapter, along with some of its general consequences on the newsroom. Then, we move on to a number of important areas of convergence study, including the functions and practices of the newsroom, journalistic output, and user-generated content. We discuss the technological, social, and ethical elements of convergence before offering recommendations for additional study [1], [2].

Behind the Buzzword: Approaches to Convergence

In the last 20 years, profound changes have shook contemporary cultures all across the world. Rapid advancements in computer technology and communication networks, which have an impact

on almost all facets of social life, including the business, politics, science, and arts, have been connected to many of the changes [3], [4]. A particularly significant change has been occurring in the way public communication is organized. Today's multifaceted, ever-evolving information and entertainment sources, which people may access through interactive technologies like computers, mobile phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs), and gaming consoles, pose a threat to the once-stable mainstream mass media system. The definition of convergence has been expanded to include all of these meanings, even if its original meaning was limited to the developing correspondence between two phenomena or entities, such as two media technologies, that might eventually come together.

As early as the mid-1990s, the conclusion that Convergence is a dangerous word! was reached due to the range of conceivable meanings, and the discussion has not gotten any more focused since. The term convergence has been used to describe how lines between fixed and mobile communications, broadcast, telephone, mobile, and home networks, media, information, and communication, and most notably telecoms, media, and information technology, are becoming increasingly blurred. The phrase has also been used in the context of media to describe technological advancements like the incorporation of online video, cross-promotional marketing initiatives involving media partners, and corporate mergers [5]–[8]. All approaches to convergence include the idea of a process, albeit diverging in many ways, and the majority place emphasis on the technological foundation of improvements. This has given rise to the widespread misconception that technology drives media change, which is a form of technical determinism that disregards social influences. Instead, social scientists have emphasized the human dimensions of technical advancement, for example, by outlining how individuals utilize and comprehend new instruments.

The creation of content for various media platforms and the resulting changes to work practices, skill sets, and newsroom culture have received the majority of attention from journalism practitioners and scholars. Thus, the term convergence has a specific, specialized, and socially significant meaning for people working in the field of journalism. However, there are some differences here as well. Converged news organizations have traditionally been defined in the United States as ones in which newspaper staff members produce content for television and vice versa, usually with both contributing to an associated Web site. The partnerships have typically produced less than full convergence, which in an ideal world would comprise developing and producing tales based on the advantages of each medium. As opposed to this, the majority involve cross-promotion of the associated products while still maintaining elements of rivalry between journalists in various newsrooms. Around the world, this fundamental kind of cross-media creation can be seen as a reasonably cautious attempt to deal with technological development and related user expectations.

For large media businesses, who frequently have content for many media platformsfor example, television and print and are interested in finding synergistic strategies for using it, the subject of how to perform journalism in a networked digital context has been particularly relevant. To shovel material from one platform to another is the most straightforward option [9], [10]. Producing parallel content for two media platforms, one of which is digital, has proven to be a more popular and sophisticated convergence strategy. With this cross-platform content creation, journalists are eschewing the practice of writing stories specifically for one medium in favor of gathering information in a content pool and distributing it in a variety of formats, including not only the Internet but alsoand to a greater extentportable devices like cell phones and PDAs. As a result,

journalists now need to develop a more sophisticated lexicon of media technologies to successfully communicate. This convergence model still relies on a central institution to gather and distribute information despite these significant changes in the news producing process. This still adheres to the mass media, top-down publishing model in many ways. The other fundamental aspect of the Internet is that it is a networknot just technologically, but also socially in the sense of connecting communicative agents, both individuals and institutionalized actorsand that it is based on digital information, making it capable of supporting multiple types of content. However, the convergence of media formats around an online delivery platform opens up the journalists' work to this aspect of the Internet.

This latter modification has broad ramifications. Although networks often have central and peripheral components and are subject to power laws that affect information dissemination, their structure is not hierarchical in the conventional sense. Instead, networks can be decentralized. As a result, information in a converged digital news product might also come from consumers, who in the past served as a largely passive audience for journalism. This expansion of the media landscape through user and community involvement reflects a type of convergence that will probably provide journalists with an even bigger challenge than learning new tools and skills. Information can spread from one communicator node to many others without the need of an institutional mass medium because the Internet is both a technological and social network. In turn, this confluence of producers and consumers results in what Bruns refers to as produsage. This change has an impact on how journalists approach their work as well as how they think about those responsibilities in society. There is a chance for increased inclusion of people and communities as the nature of public communication changes.

When each citizen in the network can get a personalized set of information from every possible source without the need for an institutionalized pre-selection authority called journalism, some researchers predict that institutionalized media will play a smaller role in society or even disappear entirely question whether the majority of people actually want such a radical model after all, institutionalized forms of journalism ensure a certain level of product quality. In fact, empirical evidence of the very limited acceptance of participatory forms in many Western nations as well as a long-standing pattern of unfulfilled expectations that new media technologies will significantly increase participation in civic affairs seem to support a critical position. It is unclear whether modern digital technologies will have different social implications. Regardless matter what the future holds, it is certain that journalism is changing significantly, and new advances that emphasize user participation and the importance of communities have only made the problems more difficult. Thus, the academic study of journalistic convergence has been multifaceted. The research on three key aspects of convergenceits effects on newsroom roles and practices, as well as on the content that journalists produce, and the implications of online users' participation in content creationthat directly affect journalists and journalism is examined in more detail in the section that follows.

DISCUSSION

Convergence Research: Studies and Perspectives

Media convergence processes are neither new nor unique to the Internet. Over the years, numerous advancements in media technologies have caused the merger of previously separate media goods and operations. However, because of the current shift's widespread nature and the establishment of journalism studies as a field of study, digital media have been closely examined at every stage

of their growth. As a result, academics have seen something of a paradigm shift, with frames of reference and points of view altering quickly. Continuous change has meant new venues, production structures, and work regulations for journalists who, until recently, generated content for a single media product that they alone controlled and to which they alone contributed. These modifications have had a significant and erratic impact. In actuality, it is better to think of convergence as what Boczkowski describes as a contingent process in which actors may follow diverging paths as a result of various combinations of technological, local, and environmental factors . This section examines scholarly investigation of these developments and elements. We start with research that looked into how cross-platform production affected journalists' jobs and daily schedules.

Inside the Newsroom: Roles and Routines

The effects of convergence on the way journalists make news have received a great deal of scholarly attention. It relies on a substantial corpus of research in the sociology of news that has provided insights into the process by which journalists turn events, and to a lesser extent, ideas and topics, into news products fit for public consumption. A similar area of scholarly investigation has concentrated on the social functions of journalists, notably in delivering the knowledge required by democratic citizens for efficient self-government. Since the Internet and other digital technologies have taken some of the power away from journalists' hands in terms of news collecting and selection practices, the gatekeeping function has possibly been the one that has been most directly impacted by technological advancements. To ensure that the community shall hear as a fact only those events which the newsman, as the representative of his culture, believes to be true, the journalist in a traditional media environment chooses a relatively small number of stories for dissemination and rejects the remainder.

The idea of discrete gates through which information must travel, however, stops being a meaningful conception of how news reaches the public when anyone can publish almost anything. If there are no gates, there can be no gatekeepers. Due to the fragmentation of the mass media audience and the exponential growth in the number of information sources, related media jobs, such as agenda setters, are also hotly debated. Furthermore, in a participatory, networked information environment, the journalistic standards that have developed to protect such responsibilities, most notably the fiercely guarded ethic of professional independence, are vulnerable to challenge. Numerous studies on newsroom convergence have looked at how these roles and practices are affected. The most common research methods have been questionnaires and anthropological observations, usually in the form of case studies of particular news organizations. One of the most recurring conclusions has been that many journalists, though not all of them, have approached convergence with a great deal of anxiety.

Journalists who felt that their unique skills were valued less than before and that the changes that came along with them in the newsroom had disrupted professional status, traditional hierarchies, and career opportunities, among other negative effects, were angered and frustrated by the BBC's relatively early move toward convergence in Britain. Early attempts to converge newsrooms in Germany resulted in professional and occasionally even personal disagreements amongst journalists from various backgrounds. The electronic media ambitions for the national German daily FAZ were one example of how attempts to combine the production for various media in one firm or even an integrated newsroom led to serious organizational issues and subsequent financial failure. Journalists believed that media firms, rather than practitioners or the general public, were

the largest beneficiaries of convergence, according to a national poll of newsroom managers and staffers conducted in the United States in 2002. Convergence provides a viable business model in which multi-skilled journalists produce more material for little to no greater cost to the organization, suggesting a systemic explanation for such challenges with acceptability in newsrooms. In general, journalists, who are taught to be skeptics, have a tendency to distrust organizations when the benefits of the necessary transformation are ambiguous or even, to some, plainly questionable.

It is to be examined whether such critical or even opposing viewpoints signify a persistent issue or are just initial, fleeting suspicion. Singer found that although some journalists were dissatisfied with particular aspects of convergence, they generally supported the idea and even thought that converged operations could strengthen their public service mission in her case studies of converged newsrooms in the United States. Bressers and Meeds propose four areas that might help predict levels of integration, focusing on the convergence of newspaper and online operations: organizational and management issues, communication and attitudinal issues, physical proximity and equipment-sharing issues, and workfl ow and content issues. Together, these point to a potentially significant shift in newsroom culture, and other scholarly research has also highlighted the significance of this change. According to Lawson-Borders, the success of convergence depends on the blending of cultural dynamics unique to individual media. Stereotyping, conflicts over staffing and time management, and difficulties with news flow are only a few of the issues that could arise from different media routines, especially those of print and broadcast journalists.

Singe said that even though many print journalists still saw their online and broadcast counterparts as apart from them and did not interact with them, convergence was forcing them to go through a process of resocialization. Additionally, the practices and organizational structures of newsrooms did not translate perfectly across platforms, and competitive tendencies might thwart even modest demands for cooperation or information sharing across convergence partners. Print journalists believed their professional culture to be superior to broadcast journalists', and broadcast journalists believed their own culture to be superior to print journalists', according to a survey-based study by Filak. Furthermore, these inter-group biases tended to be shared and accepted by members of each news culture. The author stressed the importance of including both groups in planning for news companies looking to converge their newsrooms in order to reduce the possibility that the push will be seen as originating from an outgroup and subsequently rejected.

In order to demonstrate their commitment to convergence, firms must make it a part of their mission and philosophy, as well as the way they conduct business, according to scholars researching these and other challenges of managing this cultural transition. Convergence must be supported and expected by management, and this must be communicated clearly. The need for thorough and targeted staff training, a carefully crafted action plan to foster understanding across all levels of the organization, and open, ongoing conversation to address any value discrepancies and dispel corporate myths were highlighted in Killebrew's overview of issues facing managers of converged newsrooms. Empirical investigations have highlighted these needs and also shown how frequently they are not met. Inclusion of online staff in daily news planning sessions was emphasized in a survey of US newspaper executives, as was the use of a central news desk to handle stories for various platformssomething that the majority of news operations did not yet actually have. A perceived lack of training was cited by Singer as a hindrance to convergence, primarily because it encouraged anxiety over the alleged complexity of the tools required for cross-platform content development. Her research also emphasized the value of open channels of

interpersonal communication, particularly between journalists working in partnered newsrooms, and it described management efforts to allay concerns about motivations and values by letting journalists decide how much involvement they wanted to have in convergence activities.

These efforts generally resulted in relatively low levels of participation in these activities, especially in larger newsrooms. One significant issue that has persisted is pay, or more precisely, the lack of compensation. Unsurprisingly, news staffers in the United States who participated in Huang et al.'s national poll said they should be compensated for creating articles for various media platforms, but their newsroom managers disagreed. Singer's case studies also showed that in certain newsrooms, resentment of what journalists perceived as increased work for no additional pay had an impact on both general morale and receptivity to convergence. In several nations, including the United States and Great Britain, unions that represent journalists have expressed concerns about convergence. In the latter country, the National Union of Journalists has negotiated enabling agreements with media companies and issued convergence guidelines that address, among other things, pay, time demands, and training.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, cross-platform content creation and convergence have become crucial for media companies to adjust to the digital world. These tactics make it possible to combine many media channels and formats, increase audience engagement, and provide content in novel ways. Media companies may produce more immersive and engaging content experiences by utilizing the advantages of each medium and encouraging audience interaction. However, managing information across numerous channels, preserving quality, and negotiating the difficulties of continuously evolving technology call for deliberate adaptation and investment. Media companies may remain relevant, interact with a variety of consumers, and survive in the dynamic and changing media landscape by embracing convergence and cross-platform content production.

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CHAPTER 11

AGENDA SETTING: SHAPING PUBLIC DISCOURSE IN JOURNALISM

Dr.Naaz Bano, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-naaz.bano@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
Agenda shaping in the newsroom is a crucial concept in journalism studies that examines how news organizations influence the public's understanding and perception of events and topics through editorial choices. This theory suggests that the media significantly affects what the public finds essential and deserving of attention. Newsroom professionals, such as editors and journalists, consider factors such as news values, audience interests, available resources, and organizational goals when choosing and prioritizing news topics. Agenda-setting occurs in two phases: selecting news items from a vast array of potential events and problems, and determining the relevance and emphasis of those stories. Newsrooms shape the public's perception of what is important, public opinion, and the boundaries of public conversation through setting the agenda. However, agenda shaping is often a reflection of the news organization's editorial principles and professional judgment, rather than a conscious act of manipulation. Understanding the role of newsrooms in agenda shaping is essential for media users, journalists, and scholars, as it promotes critical thinking, media literacy, and educated engagement with the news.

KEYWORDS:

Agenda, Media, People, Public, Setting.

INTRODUCTION

Agenda setting is the practice of having some issues presented frequently and prominently in the media so that significant portions of the public start to view those concerns as being more important than others. Simply put, a topic is more significant to people if it receives more attention. Agenda setting has evolved since this fi rst straightforward definition of the phenomenon, going from a theory explaining the transfer of issue salience from the news media to the public to a more comprehensive theory that includes a second-level explaining the transfer of attribute salience for those issues and many other objects like political fi gures. Furthermore, inter-media agenda shaping shows how elite media convey to other media their agenda of crucial problems. Discussions about priming and framing, explanations of obtrusiveness and the need for orientation, which defines the circumstances in which agenda-setting effects are enhanced or diminished, and, most recently, investigations of the implications of agenda-setting effects for attitudes and opinions as well as observable behavior, have all been sparked by agenda-setting research. A meaningful theory should be applicable for at least 30 years, yet agenda setting has shown to be a theory that is both broad and deep [1]–[4].

It has been referred to as the mass communication theories' most worth pursuing. One of the few theories developed by academics of mass communication has since been adopted by numerous other fields, including business, political communication, health communication, and more. Journalist Walter Lippmann is credited with providing the theoretical underpinnings for this mass

communication theory in his book Public Opinion, which stated that the news media shape our perception of the outside world. Although this occurred in 1922, it wasn't until Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw gave the phenomenon Lippmann described its now-familiar name that agenda setting emerged as one of the main research areas in our field. The important 1972 Public Opinion Quarterly article by McCombs and Shaw, The Agenda Setting Function of Mass Media, which described how undecided voters in Chapel Hill, North Carolina, used media in the 1968 presidential election, is a must-read for anybody interested in agenda-setting [5]–[8].

Setting the Agenda

The Mass Media and Public Opinion has been compared to the Gray's Anatomy of the theory by John Pavli as a modern introduction to agenda setting. Agenda framing is not the result of any evil scheme by journalists to manipulate the public's thoughts, but rather an inadvertent by-product of the necessity to focus the news, according to a key point in the book. Only a portion of the day's news can be covered because of the space and time constraints on radio, television, newspapers, and magazines. This required editing process, which is driven by established standards for professional news coverage, is what causes the public's focus to be drawn to a select number of issues and other topics as the most crucial of the day. Since McCombs and Shaw's work in Chapel Hill began the ball rolling, several academics from all over the world have contributed to the cause. This article's sources, along with those in McCombs' Setting the Agenda, offer a thorough bibliography of this research's last 40 years of work. The book-length analyses of the 1972 and 1976 US presidential elections, The Emergence of American Political Issues, and Media Agenda Setting in a Presidential Election, as well as Wayne Wanta's innovative studies in The Public and the National Agenda, Stuart Seroka's history of the early decades, Agenda Setting, are additional significant sources [9], [10].

Historical Evolution

Although Lippmann provided the original insight into agenda setting by discussing how media messages influence the pictures in our heads, modern researchers have substantially built on that concept. Ironically, Lippmann was pessimistic about journalism's capacity to disseminate the knowledge required by citizens to properly govern themselves. Twenty years later, studies on the consequences of mass media similarly revealed a bleak image. Numerous studies revealed that the impact of the media on people was little to nonexistent. This was the age of the limited media effects paradigm, which marked a significant departure from past views on the influence of the press and the notion that propaganda could be used as a magic bullet to alter people's attitudes, beliefs, and even conduct. The latter development of evidence for the media's agenda-setting function was a crucial link in a line of inquiry that would usher in a paradigm change in how we view the influence of mass media.

Three successive US presidential elections were used as the natural laboratory for the first studies on agenda setting. This is because campaigns involve a constant stream of political messages that conclude on election day. The initial study, conducted among undecided voters during the 1968 presidential election, demonstrated a virtually perfect link between the media's agenda of topics and the public's agenda of issues. According to Lowery and Defleur, this study is one of the 15 key developments in the field of mass communication research. After establishing strong correlations between media and public agendas, the next stage was to demonstrate a cause-and-effect relationship and the timeline. The Chapel Hill study's noteworthy findings included the high level of correspondence between various media channels. A similar amount of coverage of the

same concerns appeared in newspapers, television, and magazines, which sparked studies on inter-media agenda setting and illustrated the significance of elite news organizations, particularly the New York Times, in determining the media's agenda. Research on inter-media agenda formation is encouraged by the abundance of media outlets on cable and the Internet. The Charlotte study from 1972 also served as a forerunner for studies on how various media outlets influence the public agenda.

Compared to newspapers, TV news had a more immediate impact on Charlotte voters. But this result is hardly constant.Evidence accumulated through time indicates that, roughly half of the time, there is no difference in the influence of TV and newspapers; the other half of the time, newspapers typically have a stronger impact. The restricted number of topics the public deemed relevant at any given moment was another crucial discovery produced by the early research. Due to the public's limited attention span, time, and capacity to concentrate on more than five to seven topics at once, only a select few stand out among the many issues vying for their attention. However, the news media's agenda-setting function is crucial in drawing attention to the issues that the public sector and the government can seek to address. Without consensus on what matters, communities would find it difficult to advance the common good.

Beyond the Election Studies

Beyond elections, Eaton looked at 11 concerns across 41 months in the late 1980s, including unemployment, nuclear disaster, poverty, and crime, and discovered a similar agenda-setting effect. The civil rights movement was one of the first non-election subjects to be investigated. Strong proof that agenda shaping took place in settings other than elections was provided by 23 years of the ebb and fl ow of news coverage and the related shifts in public opinion. The federal budget deficit, the economy, environmental issue, and health issues like smoking and HIV/AIDS are other topics that have an impact on media agenda setting. Not just for national issues, but also for local ones, agenda setting has been studied. Is agenda-setting a phenomenon that only exists in America? In no way.

Around the world, agenda-setting has been confirmed at the national and municipal levels, at elections and other gatherings, and on television and in the press. Spain, Argentina, Israel, and Germany are among the countries included by this research. However, for agenda-setting effects to arise, political and media systems must be somewhat open. Media agenda setting does not take place in nations where one political party is dominant and the media is under government control. This occurred with the broadcast media in Taiwan in 1994; all three TV stations were under government control. But in the same election, this was not the case with the two independent daily newspapers. With all other variables held constant, this comparison of media systems provides a strong affirmation of the general public's capacity to distinguish between news that is true and that that is false.

A Second Level of Agenda-Setting Effects: Attribute Agenda Setting

The idea that the issues highlighted by the media become the issues that the public thinks are essential was the basis for the original notion of agenda setting, which is now referred to as the first level of agenda setting. The second-level of agenda setting examines how the media address these issues or other topics of interest, such as public figures, as opposed to the first-level of agenda setting, which focuses on how much media coverage an issue or other topic receives. Here, the emphasis is on the qualities or traits that describe situations, persons, or other newsworthy topics,

as well as the tone of those qualities or traits. The general outcome is the same: the characteristics and voice that are highlighted in the media's descriptions are those that are most prominent in the public's thinking.The first level of agenda setting is focused on the media's influence over the topics receiving the most attention from the general public. The second level is concerned with how people comprehend the subjects of their attention. First-level agenda setting is concerned with what the pictures in our heads, to use Lippmann's phrase.

The photographs are actually the focus of the second level. The substantive and emotive components of these images make up the two dimensions of the second level. People can distinguish between the numerous facets of issues thanks to the substantive dimension of characteristics. For instance, the candidates' philosophy, qualifications, and personalities are examples of substantive traits when it comes to journalistic coverage of political candidates. Particular traits frequently appear in particular campaigns for instance, corruption played a significant role in the Spanish election of 1996 ability to get things done and tax reform were important issues in the US presidential primary elections of 2000. Even non-election topics might exhibit variations in characteristics over time. When it comes to economic challenges, for instance, inflation can be significant at times, while other times unemployment or budget problems may be more essential. Each of these substantive traits can develop an affective quality, a positive, negative, or neutral affective tone. Not simply how frequently those substantive aspects are discussed in connection with a candidate, it's vital to know if a particular candidate is described positively, negatively, or neutrally on substantive traits like morality and leadership ability. These agenda-setting effects of second-level attributes have received a lot of support.

DISCUSSION

Comparison with Framing

The distinctions between attribute agenda setting and framing are hotly contested in academic circles. Some claim they are unique, while others deny it. The definition of framing according to Reese is the way events and issues are organized and made sense of, especially by media, media professionals, and their audiences. According to Entman, framing entails selecting some aspects of a perceived reality and making them more salient to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral assessment, and treatment recommendation. Both framing and creating an attribute agenda draw attention to communicators' and their audiences' points of view, how they interpret current events, and, in particular, the elevated status that some characteristics or frames may enjoy in a message's content. A frame is usefully delimited as a highly particular case of attributes if it is defined as the dominating perspective on the objecta pervasive description and characterisation of the item.

Takeshita discovered a strong correlation between media coverage and the public's perceptions of Japan's economic difficulties at both levels of analysis using a different method based on a hierarchical conceptualization in which frames are macrocategories that act as bundling devices for lower-order attributes. Other methods to framing, which have minimal resemblance to agenda-setting theory, focus on the history and application of broad cultural and societal viewpoints that can be found in news reports and among the general public. Theoretical attempts to distinguish between agenda setting and framing on the basis of the two aspects of knowledge activationthe concepts of accessibility and applicability have met with only patchy success. By concentrating specifically on the accessibility of issue attributes, Kim, Scheufele, and Shanahan discovered that accessibility did increase with increased newspaper use, but the resulting attribute agenda among

the public did not resemble the attribute agenda presented in the news and did not replicate the attribute agenda-setting effects discovered across four decades by prior studies. What came into existence was a different interpretation of media impacts, where the relative degree of heightened salience for the traits among newspaper readers, when compared to people who were unaware of the issue, largely followed the media agenda.

Consequences of Agenda Setting

Other studies have examined the so what questionthe effects of agenda setting on the general public's ideas, attitudes, and behavior. Scholars have connected agendasetting research with priming studies that look at how media agendas affect public perceptions and concerns as part of this endeavour. Who hypothesized in their 1972–1973 panel study of the effects of Watergate news coverage that the media may also provide the issues and topics to use in evaluating certain candidates and parties, not just during political campaigns, but also in the longer periods between campaigns in addition to teaching which issues are most important. Their hypothesis was confirmed a decade later when Iyengar and Kinder demonstrated what some cognitive psychologists have referred to as primingmaking specific issues or attributes more salient and more likely to be accessed in forming opinions. They did this through controlled experiments that linked television agenda-setting effects to evaluations of the US president. Weaver also discovered that, even after controlling for various demographic and media use measures, growing concern over the federal budget deficit was associated with greater knowledge of the issue's potential causes and solutions, stronger and more polarized opinions about it, and a greater likelihood of taking action on the issue.

Theoretical explanations for these correlations, particularly those between agenda setting and behavior, have not been well developed, according to Willnat, but the combination of agenda setting and priming has strengthened the theoretical underpinnings of these effects by giving us a better understanding of how the mass media not only tell us 'what to think about,' but also 'what to think,' as Cohen put it. Not all academics concur that agenda setting has the side effect of priming. Some have claimed that agenda setting and priming share the same fundamental information storage and retrieval processes, where more current and important information is easier to obtain. Regardless of these arguments, it appears plausible that an increase in the importance of some concerns and specific aspects of these issues does have an impact on public opinionpossibly in an indirect way. Son and Weaver assert that a candidate's status in the polls is affected more gradually than instantly by media attention to him or her, as well as by certain of his or her characteristics. Valenzuela and McCombs replicated this finding using information from Canada and Mexico. Public behavior might be impacted by media attention given to specific situations.

According to the university's dean of admissions, extensive news coverage of crime and violence, including a murder and rapes on the University of Pennsylvania campus, played a significant role in the significant decline in applications from prospective first-year students, mostly women. While other comparable colleges saw an increase in applications during the same time period, this decline happened. Roberts discovered additional proof of a connection between agenda setting and behavior in the 1990 Texas governor election. The amount of problem concern over time, after adjusting for demographics, media exposure, and dependence, was a significant predictor of real votes in this election, accurately forecasting 70% of respondents' actual reported votes for governor. Blood and Phillip conducted a time series analysis of New York Times headlines from June 1980 to December 1993 and discovered that an increase in unfavorable economic headlines

had a negative impact on subsequent leading economic indicators. This finding is one of the most dramatic revelations of the behavioral influence of news media emphasis. The findings of Blood and Phillips suggest that the amount and tone of economic news exerted a powerful influence on the economic environment and further, that the economic news agenda was generally not being set by prevailing economic conditions, they said.

State of the Art

The investigation of elements that diminish or strengthen the impacts of agendasetting was the focus of a second phase of research after the fundamental relationship between the media agenda and the public agenda had been established. The two main categories in the search for these auxiliary factors that change the agenda-setting effects are audience characteristics and media characteristics, such as the distinctions between TV and newspapers mentioned earlier. Here, we underline the unique characteristics of our audience.

Need for Orientation

The 1972 Charlotte presidential election research created the psychological notion of need for orientation, which analyzes individual differences among people in their need to grasp a novel place or circumstance by consulting the media. Relevance and uncertainty are two lower-order ideas that are used to define the need for orientation. Relevance is the quality of having importance on a personal or societal level. When people do not believe they are fully informed about a subject, uncertainty exists. significant levels of uncertainty and significance result in a significant need for orientation and frequently highly potent media agenda-setting impacts. More individuals pay attention to news articles when they believe something is significant yet are underinformed about it. In contrast, there is less need for orientation and less demand for additional knowledge when an issue is unimportant, and as a result, agenda-setting effects of the media are often modest. By explicitly measuring both orientation toward subjects, the first level of agenda formation, and orientation toward characteristics, the second level of agenda setting, Matthe has recently enlarged the idea of need for orientation.

The Bill Clinton-Monica Lewinsky controversy is one instance when agenda setting might have taken place but did not because many thought the matter was unimportant or irrelevant. Press coverage was nonstop when it was confirmed that President Clinton had a sexual encounter with a White House internin actuality, when it was just reported. It was all Monica, all the time, as some people put it. Given the volume of coverage and prominence of this subject in the media, it was reasonable to assume that it would significantly influence public agenda-setting. Despite being interesting, disturbing, and repugnant, the scan-dal did not cause widespread public anger. The agenda of the media does not own the general public. The need for direction is connected to education, a different personal trait. Higher educated people are more likely to need orientation than less educated people. The relationship between formal education and agenda setting consistently appears from the wide range of demographic factors examined. People with greater education are often more interested in public concerns, and they are also more inclined to share the media's agenda.

Obstructive Issues

Of course, there are other ways for people to learn about public events than the media. Two further significant sources are first-hand knowledge and conversations with others. People lack first-hand experience with the majority of the topics that have been explored thus far. You must rely on the media for knowledge about the conflict in Iraq if you haven't served as a soldier there. Not all problems, however, are this out of reach. Anyone who has ever lost a job may understand unemployment without the help of the media. People are considered to have obtrusive experiences with issues when they are directly relevant to them and do not typically require more information from the media. The subjects that are least likely to compel people's attention and with which they have little to no personal experience are those that, if they are prominent on the media's agenda, are most likely to do so.

The unemployment problem, for instance, can be intrusive to some people but not to others. Media coverage has less influence on agenda-setting for intrusive concerns that people see on a daily basis, but it has a considerably greater impact on how significant those issues are to people when they don't directly experience them personally. Some problems are mostly bothersome or unbothered by everyone. For instance, whereas local road maintenance, the expense of living, and taxes are mostly obtrusive for most individuals, foreign affairs, the environment, energy, government spending, and pollution are generally inconspicuous. The strength of agenda setting for other concerns, such as unemployment, relies on whether a person has ever been unemployed or knows someone who has. These moderate problems underline how crucial it is to gauge obtrusiveness as a continuum rather than a binary characteristic.

New Arenas

While political campaigns and elections are popular settings for agenda-setting studies, there is a lot of evidence that agenda-setting effects can occur in many other contexts. Foreign affair, business news religion, and healthcare are a few of these. A agenda-setting influence from news media has been applied in certain research to entertainment media. From an agenda-setting perspective, almost any subject you can imagine can be studied. The majority of agenda-setting research look at media content as defined by words. However, a few have done so and discovered proof of the agenda-setting power of visuals, such pictures or television footage. Readers' judgments of a photograph's value were found to be influenced by its size in Wanta's first-level study. In their study of the second-level effects of the candidates' television images, Coleman and Banning discovered significant connections between the way George W. Bush and Al Gore were portrayed on television and the public's emotional reactions to them during the 2000 election. The 2004 election saw a replication and expansion of this study. Furthermore, the presence or lack of images may have significant consequences. In 1984, there were comparable levels of famine, malnutrition, and drought in Brazil and Ethiopia however, only in Ethiopia were powerful images and videos publicly accessible, and Ethiopia afterwards benefited from widespread media attention and international relief operations.

Agenda Melding

There is mounting evidence that viewers blend or mix the agendas of different media, so being influenced by a variety of agendas. Although scholars have recently made the shift to include audiences and the media choices they make inside the broad agenda setting hypothesis, agenda setting still establishes a relationship between medium and audience. The decisions that audiences

make are influenced by their own preexisting values and attitudes as well as, as we've seen, by their desire for orientation. The general news media are used by audiences, as well as a range of specialized media that fit their individual lives and worldviews, including talk radio or television programs. According to agenda-setting studies, journalists and editors have a significant amount of influence over the key issues that matter to viewers as well as numerous subtopics. However, we are also aware that a lot of people use websites or other news sources to round out their initial impressions and find perspectives on current events that align with their own expectations. From the audience's perspective, this endeavor is known as agenda merging.

How does merging of agendas operate? The Charlotte Observer and the New York Times used different descriptive words to characterize Dale Earnhardt, Sr.'s 21-year career as a NASCAR racer before he was killed in an accident in 2001. Recently, Ericson and colleagues sorted these words. Only a few adjectives remained the same throughout his career, with different descriptive words being employed in the beginning, middle, and end of his career. Early descriptions included terms like the boy, Jaws II, aggressor, and youngster. The terms The Intimidator, ironhead, and dominator were used in the middle and the man in black, carburetor cowboy, and the big E in the latter stages of the career. Following up on this content analysis, an experimental investigation found that individuals were extremely receptive to the variations in this terminology, particularly when it came to the affective aspect of the attribute agenda. This implies the significance of audience participation to convey the message effectively. The message itself and any personal thoughts one may have about certain linguistic components are combined by the listener. The media create the agenda, but the public also adopts it based on pre-existing values and characteristics. Agenda-melding implies that audiences play a significant role in blending, modifying, and absorbing messages.

CONCLUSION

One of the most important aspects of journalism studies is agenda setting in the workplace. It alludes to the media's ability to shape how the general public views issues by selecting the subjects that receive coverage. Public opinion is shaped by this process, which has broad societal ramifications. By deciding which topics to cover, how to frame them, and how much attention to give to each topic, newsrooms are crucial in defining the agenda. Based on a variety of variables, including news values, audience preferences, political concerns, and financial interests, journalists and editors make subjective judgements. As a result, some problems receive priority, while others can be disregarded or ignored. The agenda setting hypothesis emphasizes how the media shapes public discourse and affects the importance of certain problems. The media can sway public opinion, set the agenda for policy, and even have an impact on how political leaders act by focusing on particular issues. It's crucial to recognize that creating the agenda is a two-way affair. The news agenda can also be influenced by political pressure, public opinion, and developing events. The emergence of social networking sites and digital media in recent years has given the agenda-setting process additional actors and dynamics. People now have the potential to influence the news agenda through user-generated content and viral sharing thanks to online platforms. Due to this, the traditional gatekeeping role of newsrooms has been put to the test, and the diversity of voices and concerns that are represented in the media environment has increased.

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CHAPTER 12

NEWS VALUES AND SELECTIVITY: INFLUENCES ON MEDIA CONTENT

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

News values and selectivity are crucial concepts in journalism that influence the content and presentation of news items. News values are the criteria used by journalists and news organizations to determine newsworthy events and subjects. Selectivity, on the other hand, involves favoring certain narratives while ignoring or eliminating others based on factors like timeliness, proximity, impact, prominence, conflict, novelty, and human interest. Journalists use these values to determine which stories to cover and how to order them, drawing the audience's attention and expressing the importance of events or concerns. Selectivity is essential in the process of creating news, as there are limited resources and room in news outlets. Factors such as editorial judgment, audience preferences, financial interests, and political considerations affect these decisions, resulting in bias or information gaps. The selective nature of news reporting can impact society comprehension and public dialogue, as selected and publicly displayed stories can affect social dynamics, policy agendas, and public opinion. However, the exclusion or marginalization of specific narratives may reduce public comprehension of crucial topics. Selectivity has expanded in the age of social networking and digital media, with individuals curating their news intake on online platforms, leading to personalized news diets and potential echo chambers. This self-selectivity can also contribute to the dispersion of the public's understanding of current events and the polarization of viewpoints.

KEYWORDS:

Audience, Events, News, Stories, Value.

INTRODUCTION

Although they frequently speak in quite different ways when discussing the topic, journalism scholars and practitioners alike have long been captivated by ideas about what news is and how it is chosen. For copy editorsthose human sieves of the torrent of news who choose and edit material for publicationa sense of news values is the first quality required, according to renowned newspaper editor Harold Evans. This quality is even more crucial than writing proficiency or linguistic mastery. But according to seasoned television reporter John Sergeant, journalists rely on instinct rather than logic when it comes to defining this sense of news values. The task of choosing from already scarce supplies of information is described by academics as the passive exercise of routine and highly regulated procedures [1]–[3]. In order to better understand the conflict between practitioner and academic definitions of news and news values, this chapter will first describe some of the many practitioner definitions of news and news values before outlining some of the most significant ways that such common sense explanations have been criticized within the academy.

There have been numerous attempts to catalog news values and selection criteria, and these taxonomies of news values will be examined in the following section. Additionally, some of the ways that news values may be perceived to vary across media, across geographical or social contexts, and over time will be taken into consideration. The next section of the chapter will look at some of the ways that academics have questioned the value of this taxonomy approach. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the worth of the news values idea itself, following a quick note that alternative media journalists have themselves questioned mainstream news values [4]–[7].

What is News?

According to Jackie Harrison , news is defined as information that is determined to be newsworthy by journalists, who exercise their news sense within the confines of the news organizations within which they operate. John Richardson described news values as a somewhat mythical concept that is passed down to new generations of journalists through a process of training and socialization. This evaluating method is based on this knowledge. These news values function as a system of criteria which are used to make decisions about the inclusion and exclusion of material and which aspects of selected stories to emphasize, as Jerry Palmer explains. One of the most crucial areas of journalism studies is the analysis of the values and procedures involved in the selection of news, as it gets to the heart of what is included, what is eliminated, and why. As we shall see, it is also asserted that by illuminating the values ingrained in news selection, we might contribute to casting light on debates over the broader function and significance of journalism in modern society [8], [9].

News Values: A Slippery Concept

According to Harold Evans, journalists typically linger about newsrooms long enough to absorb the essentials, which is how they learn about news values. But as David Randall , another seasoned professional, observes, newcomers to journalism may be surprised upon their arrival in the newsroom that they are unlikely to witness many lengthy debates about the relative merits of news stories. Instead, they observe that many news judgments are made quickly, confidently, and appear to be based only on intuition. But the procedure is far more methodical than that. Because many of the calculations that determine a story's strength have been learned to the point where they are made quicklyand sometimes too quicklyit just seems instinctual. Although exhaustive newsroom talks about news values are uncommon, Peter Golding and Philip Elliottnote that this does not imply that journalists cannot comprehend or explain why they chose one story over another: News is information that is fresh, pertinent to the reader, current, and sometimes unusual, according to the National Council for the Training of Journalists, the UK's accreditation authority for print journalism training programs. Numerous practitioner explanations of the journalistic art use similar definitions.

Alastair Hetherington, a former Fleet Street editor, claims that the most important factor in choosing a story is typically pretty straightforward . It all comes down to: Does it interest me? Evans, on the other hand, believes that news is people. Not all individuals, though, just individuals who are acting. What kind of items? Journalist Mark Henderson of the Times responds, The unexpected and dramatic, not the ordinary. However, news can occasionally be foreseen. News is the fresh, unpublished, unusual and generally interesting, according to David Randall. The operation of news values should not be likened to a scientific procedure, and Randall admits that subjectivity pervades the whole process of journalism. Randall also accepts that news selection is

subjective. Although news values are a nebulous term, this hasn't stopped practitioners from tackling it or academics from trying to define it through a series of taxonomical research, as those addressed later in this chapter. Even if such collections of news values may be predictive of a pattern regarding which events will make the news and which will not, they cannot fully account for all the anomalies in news composition.

Additionally, as John Hartley notes, identifying the news values within a story may reveal more about the coverage of that item than the initial decision to choose it for coverage. Even so, Stuart Hall argues that news values are among the most opaque structures of meaning in contemporary society: News values are one of the most opaque structures of meaning in modern society The study of news values is regarded as an important area of exploration within journalism studies scholarship because it is a means of making more transparent a set of practices and judgments that are otherwise shrouded in opacity. Journalists talk about the news as if some events decide to happen. They also act as though knowing which news stories is the most significant and knowing which news angles are the most important are divinely inspired. However, only a small percentage of the millions of events that take place every day throughout the world ever appear as potential news stories, and of these, only a small percentage are ultimately reported as the day's news in the news media. Therefore, it appears that we are dealing with a deep structure whose use as a selective tool is opaque, even to those who are most familiar with it from a professional standpoint.

Galtung and Ruge made the case in their influential research of news valueswhich will be covered in more detail laterthat an event was more likely to be chosen as a news item if it could be understood and interpreted unambiguously, without having multiple interpretations. However, not every occurrence is clear-cut; in fact, a later analysis of the UK press revealed that many news stories were written unambiguously about events and issues that were likely to have been highly ambiguous. Media representations reduce, shrink, condense, and select/repeat aspects of intricate social relations in order to represent them as fixed, natural, obvious, and ready to consume, according to Nkosi Ndlela. By choosing and shaping news, media represent the world rather than reflect it. According to James Curran and Jean Seaton news values enable journalists to translate untidy reality into neat stories with beginnings, middles, and denouements, and as a result, these values tend to reinforce conventional opinions and established authority. Furthermore, they contend that many news stories aren't even 'events,' that is, actual occurrences in the outside world that happen independently of the media.

According to Joachim Friedrich Staal, the definition of events is crucial to understanding news values and depends on how a recognizing subject relates to a recognized object: Events are the consequence of subjective perceptions and definitions rather than existing in and of themselves. The majority of occurrences are interconnected and part of broader sequences; they don't happen in a vacuum. News reports on the same event in different media are likely to cover different aspects of the event and, as a result, place emphasis on distinct news variables because they use different definitions of the event and place it in a different context. Denis McQuail also points out that lists of news values appear to be founded on the assumption that a particular reality exists out there that journalists acting as gatekeepers will either admit or exclude. However, the journalistic selection process used in news reporting is, in the words of Jorgen Westerstahl and Folke Johansson (1994, p. 71), probably as important or perhaps sometimes more important than what'really happens',

DISCUSSION

Taxonomies of News Values

Although such lists probably cannot constitute a systematic basis for the analysis of news, according to Palmer, they can be useful as an ad hoc set of elements with a partial explanatory value, such as those created by Galtung and Ruge and Harcup and O'Neill. John Richardson argues that the issue of ideology is minimized by such lists of news values Illustrating that ephemeral issues are newsworthy, for example, does little to explain why this is the case or to question whether it is in the public interest to pander persistently to what interests the public . The title identity of the news organization, the local environment in which news judgments are made, as well as the medium and by format are all ways in which news values are far from a unifi ed entity. A comprehensive list of news values was perhaps first provided by Johan Galtung and Mari Ruge in a report presented at the first Nordic Conference on Peace Research in Oslo in 1963 and later published in 1965. Despite being published more than 40 years ago, Galtung and Ruge's study is still used as the foundation for discussions of news in many journalism textbooks. Their article was long considered to be a study of news values Bell called it the foundation study of news values, McQuail called it the most infl uential explanation of news values, and Tunstall thought it might be the standard response to the question what is news?

Galtung and Ruge are credited with producing possibly the single piece of research that most cogently advanced a general understanding of news selection processes, according to Barbie Zelizer, and it remains even today one of the most infl uential pieces on news making. Ironically, Galtung and Ruge's study did not focus largely on identifying news values, despite its future influence. In their piece, they criticized how three significant international crises were covered by the Norwegian press and suggested some different ways to cover crises. They inquired as part of this process, How do events become news? Galtung and Ruge outlined 12 criteria that they intuitively identified as being significant in the choosing of news in an effort to address this question. An incident that occurs during the news medium's publishing cycle is more likely to be chosen than one that occurs over a lengthy period of time. Events must meet a certain standard before being recorded at all; the higher the intensity for example, the more horrific the murder or the number of fatalities in an accident, the stronger the impact, and the greater the likelihood that it will be chosen. An event is more likely to be chosen if it can be understood and interpreted without having many interpretations.

The news selector could be able to foresee based on prior experience events that will be newsworthy, producing a pre-image of an event in the process that raises the likelihood that it will be covered by the media. Because it has previously gained familiarity and grown simpler to understand, an incident that has once made headlines is likely to do so again even if its significance has diminished. A newsworthy occurrence may be covered more for its overall composition or balance in a newspaper or news program than for its inherent news value. Elite nation activities are thought to have greater impact than those of other nations. Once more, news selectors may view the activities of elite individualsmany of whom are likely to be well-knownas having greater significance than those of others, and news listeners may identify with them. News that may be presented in terms of specific individuals as opposed to abstract ideas is more likely to be chosen.

During studies of television news, the question of whether news values are common to all news media or whether specific values predominate in particular media types was brought up. For instance, Schlesinger noticed that broadcast news sought to leverage the media values of television

to establish its own set of news values where visuals predominate and the light tail-piece was produced in his 1978 study of BBC news. In addition, Schlesinger emphasized the technological requirements that, according to him, controlled broadcast news selection more so than substantive news judgments. The motivating factors behind news values, in Schlesinger's view, included presumptions about audience interest, professional responsibility, and actuality or a pictorial imperative where picture value is a selection criterion, making TV a powerful news medium by virtue of its ability to depict events as they are or have been.

This strategy was also used by Golding and Elliott, who contended that news values were frequently given more weight and mystique than they deserved. They believed that news values were mostly formed from pragmatism in the workplace and implicit presumptions, which they referred to as audience, accessibility, and fit. This involved assessing whether a story or issue was significant to the audience, would keep their interest, be understood, enjoyed, registered, or perceived as relevant; the degree to which a story or issue was known to the news organization and the resources required to obtain it; and whether the story or issue fit the routines of production and made sense in light of what was already known about the subject. Herbert Gans came up with a definition of newsworthiness that is fundamentally comparable and focuses on the suitability of events. Allan Bellwent further and argued for the significance of predictability, co-option, and pre-fabrication in the selection of stories. Predictability states that events that can be pre-scheduled for journalists are more likely to be covered than those that arrive unannounced. Pre-fabrication refers to the existence of ready-made texts, such as press releases.

Similar standards were reached by Sigurd Allern by separating traditional news values from what he called commercial news values. Traditional news values, according to him, are insufficient to fully describe the selection process since news is literally for sale, and they must be combined with a set of commercial news criteria. Although the market is essential to any news organization's output, it is rarely mentioned explicitly or taken into consideration when addressing the selection and creation of news. This means that news must be chosen and presented in a way that is consumer- and audience-focused by reflecting current trends and being entertaining. But it goes beyond that; one of the three main variables that Allern considers when choosing and producing news is competition. The second relates to the audience type and geographic coverage area. For Allern, this goes beyond simple proximity, whereby events that are close by are more fascinating than those that are far away. The Financial Times and Herald Tribune, two English-language elite journals, have market-based reasons to carry considerably more international politics, etc. than newspapers that address a national readership.

Furthermore, he highlights the importance of advertising in this process: Events that take place outside of a paper's home market, even dramatic ones, may be considered non-events simply because they take place outside the area or social class niche interest]where the medium has its audience and its advertisers ibid, our addition. The budget allocated to news divisions, which is a reflection of the company's financial goals, makes up the third general aspect for Allern. Budget restrictions force managers to prioritize maintaining financial control over earning professional credibility, a fact that is rarely mentioned in journalism curricula. The cheapest news comes from churnalism, a term coined by BBC journalist Waseem Zakir, which entails rewriting press releases, press statements, copy from news agencies, and routinely called-in information from organized bureaucratic sources like the police, fire service, courts, local government, and other public entities. This trend toward cheap and recycled news is likely to continue unless managements adopt an alternative model of investing in journalism, according to a recent academic study of converged

digital newsrooms within the UK regional press, in which newspaper journalists produce audio-visual material as well as text for their company's online presence.

Scholars have frequently found it vital to make a distinction between news that appears in various media markets while studying news. Palmer found widespread agreement about what constitutes the main story or stories of the day in a UK analysis of newspapers, but found less foreign news in popular papers. This is in contrast to Franklin who found that differences in the style and content of, for example, the popular and quality press have eroded in recent years. According to Palmer, the quality press focused on background information, policy, and a wider range of reactions while the popular press focused on human interest issues. The impact of economic, cultural, and social changes that affect the audience and the marketsuch as the promotion of individualism or the rise and rise of celebrity cultureon news values must also be investigated if the audience and market forces are to be considered in any study of news values. Galtung and Ruge's 12 news criteria were applied to 1,200 news articles in an empirical analysis of the UK press by Harcup and O'Neill to determine how relevant they were nearly 40 years later. This study was done to evaluate such changes in news values over time.

Their findings shared some similarities with Galtung and Ruge's criteria, but there were also some significant issues and variances. For instance, the term elite people was very general and failed to distinguish between a pop singer and the President of the United States. Unexpectedly, there were many tales that focused on elite institutions, such as the Bank of England, the Vatican, and the United Nations, rather than elite nations or individuals. Unambiguity or personification may have less to do with the inherent subject matter than how journalists are compelled to write up stories, therefore some of Galtung and Ruge's variables may have more to do with news handling than selection. Contrary to popular belief, there were a surprisingly large number of good news stories as well as tales without a defined timeline or that didn't seem to develop at a rate that was suitable for newspaper publication.

CONCLUSION

The fundamental elements of journalism that affect the content, presentation, and effect of news articles are news values and selectivity. While selectivity refers to the purposeful decisions made by journalists and news organizations over which stories to cover and emphasize, news values offer a set of standards for judging newsworthiness. These choices could have a big impact on how people talk about things, how policies are formulated, and how social dynamics work. However, biases and information gaps may be introduced due to the selectivity in news production, which is impacted by elements like editorial judgment, audience preferences, financial interests, and political considerations. Understanding the interactions between news values, selectivity, and evolving digital platforms is crucial for fostering an educated and varied public sphere as the media environment continues to change.

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CHAPTER 13

NATURE, SOURCES, AND EFFECTS OF NEWS FRAMING: UNDERSTANDING MEDIA INFLUENCE

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

News framing is a crucial component of journalism that emphasizes specific elements of an event or problem to influence how the audience interprets it. It can come from various sources, including journalists, editors, news organizations, politicians, interest groups, and the general public. Media professionals play a critical role in framing news stories through editorial choices, headline selections, and quotes and sources. Press releases and public relations initiatives from outside sources can also influence framing by influencing the material journalists have access to. The impact of news framing on viewers is significant, as it can influence how people feel, think, and behave, as well as how policies are discussed and decisions are made. Different frames can result in divergent readings of the same event, highlighting the importance of framing in influencing public discourse and understanding of news. Both media consumers and scholars must understand the nature, sources, and impacts of news framing. It highlights the role of journalists as gatekeepers and the potential effects of framing on democratic processes and public knowledge. By becoming aware of framing and engaging in critical media literacy, individuals can examine news information, identify biases, and create a more nuanced awareness of complex topics in the media landscape.

KEYWORDS:

Analysis, Framing, News, Political, Public.

INTRODUCTION

One may say that framing is a victim of its own success. In research practice, it has too many implications since academics use a wild assortment of concepts under the framing umbrella to address a wide range of situations and problems. However, framing in political communication research also signifies too little and concentrates on too few issues, probably in part due to the easy availability of opinion effects data from surveys and lab experiments. Although there are several significant exceptions, the majority of the empirical and theoretical framing research suggests that what matters most are the impacts of specific framing messages on citizens' perceptions of a particular candidate or policy. Of course, framing is a psychological process that occurs on an individual level, but it's also an organizational process, a result of that process, and a political strategic instrument [1]–[4].

Accordingly, the fundamental thesis of this chapter is that researchers studying framing should concentrate on the political origins of frames and the whole range of their effects, including the feedback of initial effects on subsequent frame generation. The chapter is structured in the following way to further this argument: We define frames and framing before introducing a

diachronic process model of political framing that broadens the scope of framing theory beyond the emphasis on individual impacts. The chapter then offers a systematic evaluation of the state of scholarship in framing research based on these observations. This section's primary emphasis is on the psychology of framing effects. The study's findings suggest that in addition to improving our understanding of how framing affects people's opinions on a micro level, we also need to make an effort to create an integrated theory of frame construction, circulation, impact, and reaction; one that takes into account the greater flow of communication and influence among elites, media, and the general public [5]–[8].

Clarifying Frames and Framing

It is hardly surprising that there is little agreement among social scientists about what the terms frame and framing actually signify. Many diverse applications of the notion can be found when we look at the framing literature. There are basically two types of definition. In very generic terms, some define framing as the central organizing idea or story line that provides meaning to an unfolding strip of events, approximately following Gamson and Modigliani. However, treating a frame as the main concept or plot line offers insufficient support for reliable measurement or theory. The second type of definition specifies what frames, notably issue frames, typically perform. This entails defining issues, expressing moral opinions, and advocating for solutions. It seems better to draw from functional specifications because it enables analysts to make measurements and inferences that more clearly distinguish frames from themes, arguments, assertions, and other poorly understood concepts [9], [10].

Differentiating between issue-specific and generic frames is a useful tip when employing the more fine-grained genre. Every issue has a unique set of issue-specific frames since they apply specifically to particular themes or events. Examples include the detailed analysis of local television coverage of the Persian Gulf War by Reese and Buckalew in 1995 or the computer-aided content analysis of the Monica Lewinsky discussion by Shah, Watts, Domke, and Fan in 2002. Additionally, issue-specific frames can also be thought of as second level agenda setting features. Given their ability to be recognized across a variety of topics and situations, generic frames transcend thematic restrictions. Iyengar's episodic and thematic frames serve as excellent instances of generic frames. Social issues are built around certain situations and people when news is presented episodically. No greater context is offered in order to deflect focus from public solutions. Iyengar's research, for instance, demonstrate that viewers of episodic coverage were more inclined to blame the individual for their predicament such as attributing poverty to a person's lack of motivation.

Thematic framing, in contrast, highlights wider trends or the context of concerns. Iyengar discovered that viewers of thematic coverage were more prone to attribute social problems, such as poverty to financial difficulties. In their research of European politics from 2000, Semetko and Valkenburg proposed five generic frames conflict, human interest, economic repercussions, morality, and responsibility. Entman distinguished between procedural and substantive framing, with the latter focusing on analyzing political strategy, the horserace, and power struggles among elites rather than the substantive character and impact of topics, events, and players. This distinction is one of the other recommendations. Four levels of framing processes exist: the culture, elite and professional political communicators' brains, communication texts, and individual citizens' minds. Culture is the collection of schemas that people in a society frequently hold in their heads as well as the collection of frames that are used in the system's communications, such as in

literature, entertainment, news, dialogues, and other political speech. These widespread schemas are, by definition, the ones that underlie the majority of people's responses to framing communications. Elites are limited in their autonomy and must choose from this cultural pool, which preserves the remnants of previous framing. Therefore, any larger political theory of framing in politics must be diachronic and account for t-1, t1, t2, and more.

The practice of framing, which is defined as choosing some elements of a perceived reality and creating messages that highlight links between them in ways that support a specific interpretation, is practiced by networks of professional communicators. In contrast to the noun form defined below, framing is the verb form of the notion. Some communicators purposefully frame messages in an effort to influence outcomes by persuading target audiences to accept readings that advance their objectives or interests. Politicians, bloggers, political satirists, editorial writers, and commentators are a few of these. With the exception of some party-affiliated newspapers and government-owned broadcast newscasts in Europe , other communicators, most notably reporters and news editors in mainstream national news media, typically engage in framing without intending to push any particular policy or political goal.

What is a Frame?

What sets a framing messageor frameinside a communication apart from a straightforward persuasive message or a straightforward assertion? A frame is a series of related communications that are concentrated in time and use the same or comparable words and symbols to continually evoke the same things and attributes. These frames serve to support an understanding of a troubling circumstance or actor and implicit or explicit support for a good reaction, frequently accompanied with a moral judgment that adds emotional weight. Again, framing's diachronic nature sets it apart from other forms of communication in this situation. A framing message has unique cultural relevance because it recalls portions of stored schemas from the past that are currently consistent. A politically significant portion of the populace has the opportunity to notice, comprehend, store, and retain the mental association for future use when frames are repeated again in various publications. Thus, framing is diachronic because it increases the likelihood that certain responses will occur in the future while decreasing the likelihood that other potentially relevant objects or features would come to mind.

Finally, once a frame has been widely enough repeated to be stored in the citizenry's schema systems, it no longer needs to be fully elaborated, nor does it need to be repeated in concentrated bursts. Instead, citizens can call up the stored associations in response to a single vivid component years later. According to these criteria, a communication is not a frame if it lacks recurring words and symbols that are connected to the cultural associations of many citizens. This is not to say that components of political communication lacking these characteristics are unimportant; rather, it is to say that for framing research to advance, it is necessary to define what frame and framing mean and to use those terms consistently. The theory advanced in this chapter contends that framing effects affect the political process more broadly than is commonly acknowledged. It draws attention to the prospect, if not the likely, that by time 4, elites will engage in a framing competition, broadening media content and producing significant potential effects on politics and policy. According to this hypothesis, surveys and lab studies may only be able to capture a small subset of real-world framing effects due to their essentially synchronic nature and emphasis on members of the general public.

DISCUSSION

Framing: The Research Literature

After establishing the background for a deeper comprehension of framing, let's take a step back and examine the methodology and literature of framing study. Here is a list of the various political framing techniques that have been studied. After reviewing the study on journalistic framing, strategic framing, frames in media material, and framing effects, we start by discussing the history of framing studies. For most individuals, the world that they have to deal with politically is out of reach, out of sight, out of mind, according to Walter Lippmann, who is considered the father of framing theory. In other words, citizens do not often learn about politics via first-hand experience. They instead rely on the media and the elites it portrays for the majority of their knowledge. The media have a significant impact on how citizens perceive the world and behave because they are the main symbolic conduit for political information.

Gregory Bateson and Erving Goffman, two scholars, gave the modern notion that framing and frames are the key tools humans use to make sense of a complex environment. Definitions of a situation are built up in accordance with principles of organization which govern eventsat least social onesand our subjective involvement in them, writes Bateson. Frame is the word to refer to such of these basic elements. In developing his own definition of framing, Goffman, who frequently quotes Bateson, asserts that frames are cognitive structures that direct how ordinary experiences are represented. It is not surprising that people will respond to framing when it comes to the more distant, complex political events because they utilize frames to order their thoughts on the world's simple daily events. Of public affairs, each of us sees very little, and consequently, they remain dull and unappetizing, until somebody, with the makings of an artist, has translated them into a moving picture, wrote Lippmann.

Strategic Farming

Political leaders attempt to take use of the potential of framing to strategically affect public conversation and understanding, as mentioned above, particularly to advance a future course of action. This point of view contends that framing entails both the strategic expression of one's own frame and rivalry with frames used by other communicators. Framing is essential to professional practice, according to Fröhlich and Rüdiger's research of German political public relations (PR) Bringing their frames unaltered into the media is an indicator of PR success. In most PR research, practitioners' chosen frames are contrasted with frames in the news. Similar to this, social movement theorists regard framing as a tactic used by social movements to inspire popular support. According to Benford & Snow, frames are defined in this context as action oriented sets of beliefs and meanings that inspire and legitimate the activities and campaigns of a social movement organization. Successful frames, according to Snow and Benford, must identify a problem, suggest remedies and strategies, and inspire action. In contrast to individual schemas, frames are seen as the shared patterns of a social group. These widely accepted frames can be recognized by movement documents analysis, member interviews, or media content analysis.

Journalistic Farming

Less is known about the professional frames that inform journalists' information processing and text creation than is the case with research on strategic framing. An expert journalistic frame is a schema or heuristic, a knowledge structure that is activated by some stimulus and is then employed

by a journalist throughout story construction. Such professional frames are more comparable to scripts or menus that guide the selection of problems and creation of news reports. These frames are essential to the tradecraft of journalism and should be distinguished from frames in media texts. According to Tuchman, journalists utilize journalistic frames as practical instruments to deal with the flood of information. According to Scheufele, there are two ways to characterize journalistic frames: on an individual level. According to framing theorists, journalists favor information that fits their journalistic frames. Journalistic frames are applied to incoming material during normal coverage. As a result, it is more likely that frame-consistent information than inconsistent information will be used to build news reports. However, important events have the power to change or even completely replace preexisting journalistic frames. Because of this, journalistic frames can be altered and updated following the occurrence of important events, in contrast to other influences on news selection and construction.

Frames in Media Content

Frame analysis has developed into a very important and active methodology. Essentially, frame analysis explores pictures, stereotypes, metaphors, actors, and messages to evaluate the selection and relevance of specific components of a problem. However, how each study extracts frames from the media material varies. According to Matthews and Kohring, four major approaches can be roughly distinguished: a qualitative approach, a manual holistic approach, a manual clustering approach, and a computer-assisted strategy. Qualitative Methodology. By offering an interpretative account of media texts, a number of studies attempt to pinpoint frames . These studies, which have their roots in the qualitative paradigm, are founded on comparatively small samples that ought to reflect the conversation surrounding a problem or occurrence. Usually, frames are thoroughly explained with little to no quantification. The frame analysis method developed by Pan and Kosicki can be regarded as a subclass of qualitative investigations. By examining the choice, placement, and structure of particular words and phrases within a text, frames are identified in these linguistic studies.

The paragraph, not the article, is typically the unit of analysis. Each news text must have its own data matrix, which must be created by researchers. The signifying components for each unique proposition are examined in this matrix. The fundamental tenet is that particular words serve as the structural constituents of frames. Metaphors, instances, key words, and visuals are the four structural dimensions of frames that Pan and Kosicki distinguish. Hands-on, comprehensive approach. This method's key component is the manual coding of frames as holistic variables in a quantitative content analysis, whether done inductively or deductively. Frames are first created by a qualitative examination of a few news texts in inductive manual-holistic research, and they are afterwards coded as holistic variables in a manual content analysis. For instance, in the first step, Simon and Xenos thoroughly analyzed a sample of newspaper articles to produce six functional frames. Then, in a codebook and in a quantitative content analysis, these frames were defined. Similar to this, Husselbee and Elliott coded a number of frames for their investigation into the reporting of two hate crimes. Iyengar's episodic and thematic frames and Pfau et al one-item assessment to gauge how much an article included episodic framing are two examples of deductive manual-holistic measuring.

Using a manual clustering method. In the conventional quantitative content analysis used in these investigations, single variables or frame components are manually coded. Then a factoror cluster analysis is performed on these variables. In other words, it is recommended to break the frame up

into several variables or pieces rather than just coding the entire frame. A factor or cluster analysis of those components after this procedure should identify the frame. Each news story in a research by Semetko and Valkenburg was assessed using a set of 20 questions to which the coder had to respond yes or no. These twenty items yielded five components, which were regarded as frames, after being subjected to a factor analysis. A frame analysis method that codes the single frame elements as defined by Entman in a conventional content analysis was proposed by Matthes and Kohring.

The frame is then revealed by a cluster analysis of these components. Method assisted by computers. The computer-assisted studies do not manually code holistic frames, single frame elements, or variables, in contrast to manual clustering and human holistic approaches. Frame mapping is a prominent example of computer-assisted frame analysis, according to Miller, Andsager, and Riechert. The authors base their attempt to discover frames by looking at specific vocabularies in texts on the idea that frames are manifested in the use of specific words. With the use of a computer, words that frequently occur together in texts are identified. For instance, the charity-frame is made up of the words charity, charities, charitable, and money. There is actually no manual coding at all. Other research that go beyond word grouping have progressed computer-assisted content analysis. For instance, Shah et al. developed somewhat complex syntactic rules that capture the meaning of words using a computer program. In other words, their research made it possible to analyze the meaning that lies beneath word relationships.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, news framing is an effective journalistic strategy that impacts how news stories are presented and comprehended. It entails picking particular elements, views, and angles to emphasize in order to affect audience perception and feelings. Journalists, news organizations, outside sources, and public opinion can all be the source of news framing. Its consequences are extensive, influencing societal perceptions, mentalities, policy discussions, and individual choices. To develop critical thinking skills and navigate the complicated media ecosystem, it is crucial for media consumers to understand the nature, origins, and implications of news framing. Understanding framing enables people to become more informed and critical news consumers, supporting a diverse and democratic public dialogue and helping people grasp issues in more depth.

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CHAPTER 14

NEWS, DISCOURSE AND IDEOLOGY: UNRAVELING MEDIA'S SOCIOPOLITICAL IMPACT

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Discourse, ideology, and news are interconnected concepts that impact how information is presented, debated, and interpreted in society. News, shared by media outlets, influences public perception and debate by providing information and understanding about current affairs. Journalism techniques like reporting, interviewing, and editorial judgment are used to create news material. Discourse involves the use of language and communication to create and transmit meaning in a specific social, cultural, or political environment. It includes the choice of themes, framing of problems, and narratives that influence public perception. Ideology is a set of principles, ideals, and ideas that direct people's behavior and influences the choice, presentation, and interpretation of information in the context of news. Media companies and journalists may work within specific ideological frameworks that may influence the tone and support of news coverage. News, discourse, and ideology are interconnected, with the content of news being created using discursive techniques influenced by ideological underpinnings. Ideologies can influence how news is reported by deciding which stories are prioritized, how they are framed, and which information sources are used. News coverage can support or contest preexisting ideologies through the narratives and perspectives provided to the audience.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Discourse, Ideology, News, Social.

INTRODUCTION

The theory and study of news is one of the areas where discourse and communication studies intersect. Communication studies research has come to understand that its study subjects should also be analyzed as socially situated texts or talks. The study of press news has benefited greatly from the use of this new perspective. Despite the fact that linguistics, semiotics, and discourse studies have been interested in news discourse since the 1970s, their focus has historically been restricted to news structures, ignoring many of the contextual aspects of communication that are pertinent, such as the sociology and economy of news production, as well as how readers comprehend, retain, and integrate information and knowledge from the news. This chapter will cover some prior research on news while also outlining how other advancements in the humanities and social sciences may benefit this crucial cross-disciplinary approach to news. Since there are many other aspects to this comprehensive study of news as discourse in communication, this chapter will focus on one in particular: the ideological nature of news in the press. This viewpoint will be developed within the broader context of a fresh transdisciplinary method for social science research on ideology [1]–[4].

Discourse Studies

Let me quickly recall the theoretical and disciplinary backdrop as well as some fundamentals of a discourse analytical approach to news before we discuss news and ideology. Since the middle of the 1960s, most humanities and social science fields have formed a new cross-disciplinary field called discourse studies. This development occurred roughly at the same time as and in close connection with the emergence of a number of other new cross-disciplinary fields in the humanities, including semiotics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. However, although discourse analysis, like semiotics, was initially founded on ideas from diverse schools of structural and functional linguistics, fresh breakthroughs in the social sciences served as inspiration for its later developments. As a result, anthropology started to pay attention to complex components like communicative events, a line of inquiry known as the ethnography of speaking, which is especially important within linguistic anthropology. Sociology had a significant influence on the ethnomethodological paradigm of discourse analysis, paying particular attention to the analysis of conversation and other types of everyday interaction. And last, as we will see in more detail below, discourse studies have been used more and more in the field of mass communication in particular since the 1980s [5]–[8].

Sequentially is a fundamental tenet of these analyses, according to which every unit of discourse at every level is created, interpreted, and analyzed in relation to previously understood units. This also holds true for the evaluation of news reports, as we shall demonstrate. Discourses do not only have a verbal dimension; they also have paraverbal and non-verbal dimensions, including intonation, gestures, and facial expressions, on the one hand, and other semiotic dimensions, including sounds, music, images, film, and other multimodal features, on the other. To put it another way, discourse is today recognized as a sophisticated multimodal interaction and communication event. In addition to cognitive components of production and comprehension, discourses as language use also entail numerous types of mental strategies, knowledge, mental models, and other representations in memory.

Discourses are examined in reference to numerous situations, such as interpersonal, social, communicative, political, historical, and cultural frames that are viewed as pertinent contexts by the participants. The social sciences are also studying discourses as social practices that are vital to the reproduction of society in general and of social communities or groups, as well as their knowledge and ideas, in particular. As a result, discourse analysis has aided in the study of how racism and other forms of social injustice are reproduced in society. In fact, a number of discourse genres and communicative events are present in many large societal areas, including politics, the media, education, research, and the law. As a result, social science researchers frequently examine text or speech, sometimes without being aware of the discursive nature of their sources. We observe that over the past few decades, the range of the objects of discourse studies has gradually expanded from words to sentences to discourses from syntax to semantics to pragmatics; from microstructures to macrostructures; from monological texts to talk in interaction; from verbal text and talk to multimodal communicative events from text to con-text; from social discourse and interaction to underlying cognitive processes and representations [9], [10].

Ideology

The idea of ideology likewise requires a multidisciplinary approach, and many of the remarks noted above for the complex object of speech also apply to it. The following statements best describe this strategy:

1. Destutt de Tracy's original description of ideology as a science of ideas towards the end of the 18th century quickly acquired a negative connotation, which was reflected in the nebulous term false consciousness adopted by Marx and Lenin. As we know from the works of Mannheim, Lukács, Althusser, Hall, Thompson, and Eagleton, among many others, this negative connotation has dominated both the study and the political applications of the term of ideology up to this point.

2. Despite the fact that ideas beliefs and therefore ideologies are mental representations and that ideologies are predominantly reproduced through text, conversation, and communication, traditional approaches to ideologies largely overlooked the discursive and cognitive dimension of ideology.

3. A new, interdisciplinary approach to ideology should incorporate theories of ideology as a social cognition as is also the case for knowledge, the function of discourse in the expression and reproduction of ideology, and the functions of ideology in society, such as the reproduction of social groups and group relations.

4. This approach should not categorize beliefs as intrinsically harmful because, as demonstrated by the socialist, feminist, and pacifist movements, ideologies that are socially held by communities are also employed to support resistance.

5. Ideologies are not just any type of social beliefs rather, they are the fundamental, axiomatic beliefs that underlie the social representations that a group shares. These representations feature fundamental norms and values such as those of freedom, justice, equality that each social group may use or abuse to impose, defend, or fight for its own interests.

6. Ideologies can be viewed as the foundation of a group's self-image, and they are typically categorized by fundamental elements such the desired (preferred, valued) identity, behaviors, standards and values, resources, and relationships to other groups. Such ideological frameworks are characterized by their polarization between Us, the ingroup, and Them, the outsider, which is both positive and bad. Thus, journalistic ideologies are defined in terms of common newsgathering practices, ideals like press freedom, objectivity, fairness, or the protected information resource, as well as the relationships to readers, sources, news players, and the government.

7. Groups' more specific socially accepted opinions are governed by ideologies a racist ideology may govern racist attitudes toward immigration, racial integration, law, and other topics.

8. Attitudes are general and abstract and may be more or less known and shared by their members, who may apply them to construct their own personal judgments about particular social events. Attitudes include those on immigration, divorce, abortion, the death penalty, and other significant social issues. However, these ideas may also be influenced by a variety of philosophies and by individual experiences. Personal beliefs are therefore distinctive and situational, in contrast to the generally stable social group attitudes, and they always depend on the individual and the current situation.

9. Individuals' personally experienced, ideologically influenced beliefs regarding actual events such as the Iraq War or a terrorist bombing are stored in episodic memory, a component of long-term memory.

10. Ideological discourse is based on these ideologically biased mental models, which may influence all levels of such discourse, from its sounds or visuals to its syntax, themes, meanings, speech acts, style, rhetoric, or interactional methods.

11. Ideological discourse is frequently structured by highlighting the positive representation of Us and the negative representation of Them, as well as its corollary mitigating the negative representation of Us and the positive representation of Them. This is because the underlying ideologies and the social attitudes and personal opinions they influence are typically polarized. This collection of generic discursive techniques is known as the Ideological Square.

12. Typically, discourse does not directly express ideologies, but rather does so through particular group attitudes toward social issues and individual opinions regarding particular events, all while being influenced by the communicative situation as subjectively defined by the speakers or writers, or by their individual context models. When language users adapt to the situation, the audience, and other factors, such context models may block or change underlying ideological beliefs. This explains why ideologies are often difficult to identify in particular circumstances.

DISCUSSION

News as Discourse

There are some similarities between the study of ideology and the analysis of news today: The modern study of news was initially primarily focused on social dimensions of news, such as news gathering practices and journalistic interactions, as well as the organization of newspapers, rather than by cognitive and discursive approaches. This was after and in addition to the more anecdotal accounts of news making and journalistic experiences. The 1980s saw the emergence of the first systematic discursive and cognitive approaches to news structures, news production, and news understanding. Van Dijk thus proposed a multidisciplinary theory of news based on his past work on discourse structure and discourse processing, which included a theory of news schemata defined by traditional categories of news discourse as a genre and social practice: Context, Commentary, New Events, Previous Events, Summary, and other categories that broadly classify the subjects of news reporting in the press. Some of these categories were adopted by Bell in his book on the language of news media, but he addedcorrectlythe Attribution category, where the author or source such as the reporter and his or her byline, the newspaper department, an international agency, or a correspondent may be mentioned, along with the date and location. Additionally, he refers to the Follow-Up category as the category that arranges the details of events that take place after a significant news occurrence.

Additionally, he draws parallels between these news schema categories and the well-known categories of traditional conversational storytelling, which Labov and Waletzky examined in their key article. Even while news stories appear to be stories, they lack the same superstructuralarrangement as commonplace stories shared in conversation. Everyday stories follow a roughly chronological order, however news items are arranged according to different criteria like relevance, importance, and recency. As in many conversational stories, the headline and lead, which contain the most crucial information of the discussion, are presented first. However, the news report's story is presented in installments, with the most crucial information from each category appearing first and the least crucial information from each category following. Additionally, it is important to distinguish between the formal categories of a news schema such as Summary or Commentary and the semantic categories of news discourse as doing so would imply that news discourse has a segment in which only information about an actor is given, which is typically not the case since such information is typically provided along with information about

events or actions. Bell's contribution to the study of the ideological component of news in the press, such as his methodical investigation of how the news may misreport or mis-represent events, is particularly pertinent to this chapter. He underlines that these studies should create more explicit linguistic discourse analysis, moving beyond earlier content analyses, critical linguistics, and semiotic analyses.

He recalls a previous investigation on climate change reporting, in which news stories were forwarded tosources with the request that they flag any accuracies. Only 29% of the stories were determined to be completely true, 55% to be only somewhat false, and 16% to be false. Overstatement, which belongs to the same broad category as overgeneralization as we know it from stereotypes and prejudices or extreme case formulations in talks, is one typical transition. Such a structural relationship between source discourse and news discourse may also be referred to as rhetorical since rhetoric deals with how information is highlighted or de-emphasizedfor a variety of reasons. This is in addition to a shift in semantic content or meaning. When scholarly discourse tends to hedge, media discourse tends to be much more categorical and exaggeratedwith the tacit assumption that readers will be more interested in, or will better remember, the exaggerated news. This may be done to emphasize the negative characteristics of outgroups or the positive ones of ingroups, as we shall see below, but it may also be done for dramatic effect. Along with deception, Bell discovered numerous instances of incorrect attributions, misquotations, and editing.

News as Ideological Discourse

The research of news structures reveals the best places and ways for ideology to appear in news stories. As we saw above, our new sociocognitive approach explains how underlying ideologies shape more specific group attitudes and how journalists' personal mental models of news events shape news-related tasks like assignments, news gathering, interviews, news writing, editing, and final product. The specific, ongoing context model that journalists have regarding the pertinent elements of the social and political situation ultimately governs these news-making operations. Such context models of news production take into account the current environment and their responsibilities as well as the current objectives. They also take into account the participants' social knowledge and beliefs. This implies that, regardless of the other professional and social ideologies that might be shaping news production, the participants' definition of the context's current relevance serves as the fundamental determinant of whether or not news is suitable for the social and political climate in which it is produced.

Ideology in Classical Studies of News

One could anticipate a sizable body of work on the ideological nature of news given the predominance of social approaches to news discourse. Nothing is less true, which is surprising. Only a dozen titles currently contain the news and ideology out of the many thousands of publications on media and news in the Social Science database. Even the few papers whose titles allude to ideological news analysis rarely go into great length about ideological news structures. Then there are books. However, in those studies, such accounts of ideology are more generaltypically summarizing Marxist approaches and their influencesrather than integrating the idea in thorough and systematic ideological analyses of news in the press. Some of the classic books on news and newsmaking published since the end of the 1970s do include sections on ideology. This is not surprising considering that traditional ideologies have never been established to explain language use, discourse, and communication, either theoretically or practically.

Interestingly, the first book in critical linguistics, edited by Roger Fowler and his colleagues, came out around the same time as these groundbreaking theoretical and empirical studies of news. This book could be regarded as the pioneering investigation of what would later come to be known as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in its broadest sense. In addition, Fowler wrote one of the few books that later dealt explicitly with news and ideology. In other words, both in communication studies and language and discourse studies, the end of the 1970s seems to be a rich moment for innovation. The more socially scientific and critical approach to language, discourse, and communication that had been developed in the 1970s is now being solidified. The works of the Glasgow University Media Group regarding television news on industrial strikes and later on other topicsmay be the most thorough, methodical, and influential studies of news and ideology of the last few decades. This extensive empirical effort created a connection between communication and discourse studies from the beginning. As a result, the authors in their More Bad News study stress the significance of recent advancements in linguistics, discourse, and conversation analysis News discourse should be investigated as a specific instance of talk generally, and language should not be studied in abstract terms, as is the case with Chomskyan grammars, but should instead be viewed as an integral component of social life.

The authors correctly point out that formal linguistics at the time was ill-equipped to study ideology; as a result, they advise that we look to sociolinguistics, particularly as it was developed by Bernstein, as well as Sinclair and Coulthard's seminal book on discourse studies from 1975 for inspiration. According to the authors of the Glasgow Group, news production is built on cultural customs and professional norms that are implicit and difficult to directly monitor because they are taken for granted. Thus, a study of news speak might shed light on the journalist's ideas, which are frequently hidden or unintentional. The authors emphasize that industrial news, however, is frequently subject to different interpretations and does not just repeat ruling class propaganda. Despite this ideological ambiguity, a preferred reading of events and acts that is hostile to labor interests typically manifests itself. Such preferences are a component of a general framework, or restricted code, for reporting social conflicts that suggests an ideological justification for the validity of the existing quo. The study looks at many aspects of television news to see how they reveal underlying societal ideologies and professional habits.

The owners and managers of the major media are committed to the maintenance of the going system in its basic outlines. They are committed to private property relations that honor the prerogatives of capital, to a national security State, and to the reform of specific transgressions of the moral code through selective action by Stat. This commitment is a result of socialization, bonds of experience and relationships, or, in other words, by direct corporate and class interests. Gitlin discovers, like Gans, that editors' and reporters' ideologies are relatively similar, as is the case for journalists and the majority of their sources. Hegemonic boundaries are not crossed during conflict: The work of hegemony, all in all, consists of imposing standardized assumptions over events and conditions that must be covered by the dictates of the dominant in news standards, as he claims. Gitlin's study places a focus on the routines of news making that make reporting less onerous, just like the other traditional studies on news from the same era. However, journalists may need to cover different groups and so be partially dragged in an alternate ideological direction in order to stay credible and responsible during times of social upheaval.

If such coverage seeks to be plausibly compatible with how the world is perceived, hegemonic frames may gradually transform in this way. This brief analysis of the accounts of ideology in some of the classic books on news from the late 1970s and early 1980s leads us to the conclusion

that while they do pay attention to ideology, it is primarily limited to a relatively brief account of ideologies among journalists and in the newsroom as opposed to the characteristics of the coverage itself. Such a description is also offered in very basic terms and is not supported by a thorough examination of the ideologies of journalists. The account of the overall ideological agreement in the newsroom and the limits of potential variation under the hegemonic influence of the newspaper as a bureaucracy and a business operation are based on fieldwork observations. These newsroom findings are still rather broad and don't really delve into the ideological underpinnings of things like news values, news beats, interactions with sources, news formats, styles, and contents, among other things. In this regard, the majority of investigations are current studies of the sociology of organizational and bureaucratic practices as well as commonly held beliefs and values. They don't offer sociocognitive and discursive analyses that go into the specifics of professional and other social ideologies and how those ideologies affect news production and debate.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there is a complex and important interaction between news, speech, and ideology. News acts as a forum for discussion, affecting societal discussions and influencing public perception. The construction and framing of news, however, is ideologically motivated, whether intentionally or unconsciously. Ideology affects how news is chosen, presented, and interpreted, and news coverage can support or contradict preexisting ideas. Understanding this interaction is essential for media literacy because it enables people to critically evaluate news, take into account many viewpoints, and participate in educated conversations. We may work toward a more inclusive and nuanced public discourse that encourages a varied variety of ideas and perspectives by recognizing the linkages between news, discourse, and ideology.

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CHAPTER 15

RETHINKING NEWS AND MYTH: THE POWER OF STORYTELLING IN JOURNALISM

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Rethinking news and myth as storytelling involves examining how storytelling shapes public perceptions and challenging conventional media scope and goals. In the age of digital media and changing audience preferences, news stories should be viewed as narratives that engage, inform, and resonate with viewers. Myth as storytelling is a form that communicates universal truths, values, and cultural beliefs, often connected to folklore and legends. It should not be interpreted as lies or fabrications in the context of news, but rather as the ability of narrative structures and archetypes to convey intricate concepts and elicit strong feelings. Incorporating storytelling elements into news stories can increase its potency and impact, captivate listeners on both an emotional and intellectual level. This approach can help break through information overload and foster deeper connections with news consumers. Rethinking news as storytelling and utilizing myth's influence encourages writers to use narrative strategies, create gripping stories, and establish rapport with readers. It also emphasizes the value of ethical storytelling, which guarantees truthfulness, impartiality, and accountability in the presentation of information within a narrative structure. News media can go beyond simply relaying information and interact with people on a deeper level by rethinking news as narrative and recognizing the relevance of mythic themes. This strategy fosters a more powerful and meaningful interaction between news media and the general public, promoting empathy, understanding, and critical thinking among news consumers.

KEYWORDS:

Journalists, Myth, Narratives, News, Story.

INTRODUCTION

We looked into the idea that news is a sort of storytelling with mythological overtones in 1988 . News is not only impartial reporting of facts. We claimed that journalists employ conventional patterns to shape occurrences into stories, much like traditional storytellers do, and as a result, define the world in specific ways that reflect and support viewers' perceptions of reality. However, we claimed that in order to completely understand the ideological way in which news operates in any culture, we must first understand the story construction and mythological function of news. Journalism, more than myth, is part of rational discourse that supports informed citizenry. We built on past research by journalism experts like Schudson, who questioned the fundamental idea of objectivity in journalism. Here, we discuss how journalism has been used as myth and narrative over the years, trace the history of scholarly interest in it, and make recommendations for further study. It should be highlighted that rather than following the legacy of journalism scholars working in the social scientific tradition, such studies has consistently employed an interpretive approach, drawing on anthropologists like Geertz [1]–[3].

The Context

We investigated the notion that news is a form of mythological storytelling in 1988. News is more than just the unbiased reporting of events. We argued that journalists, like traditional storytellers, use customary patterns to mould events into stories, and as a result, define the world in particular ways that reflect and support viewers' ideas of reality. However, we argued that in order to fully comprehend the ideological manner in which news functions in any society, it is essential to first comprehend how news is constructed and has a mythical purpose. More than myth, journalism contributes to the logical debate that helps informed citizens. We drew from earlier work by specialists in journalism, such as Schudson, who cast doubt on the core notion of objectivity in reporting. Here, we examine the historical development of scholarly interest in journalism, trace its usage as myth and narrative, and offer suggestions for further research.

It should be noted that such studies have consistently used an interpretive approach, drawing on anthropologists like Geertz, rather than continuing the legacy of journalism academics working in the social scientific tradition [4], [5]. Became known as the crisis of representation, which contended that ethnography is a manufactured story rather than a scientific explanation of culture. Although Lippmann had already examined this idea, post-modernist theorists attempted to deconstruct truth and reality in the 1980s and 1990s. In this environment, journalism scholars seriously considered news as a sort of created reality. With this ferment came a growing interest in mythology as a specific category of narrative. Campbell's writings, which were influenced by Jungian theory and centered on universal archetypes, sparked a great deal of public attention and gave rise to a wide range of phenomena, including the cultural icons Star Wars and video games. While Barthes , who bridged popular and academic discourse, brought much-needed attention to myth's ideological role, scholastic work on myth flourished in the pioneering writing of Eliade and Lévi-Strauss.

News as Myth

We make a distinction between the two, very closely related concepts of news as myth and news as storytelling. Numerous definitions of myth exist, but they all focus on the functional function of myth in offering enduring narratives that support continuity and order in the world, whether or not these narratives depict fantastical gods and creatures or real people. Individual news articles don't act like individual myths, but news as a body might function like myth as a communication process. Myth comforts by providing narratives that explain phenomena and provide acceptable answers, as we stated in 1988 . Myth does not always reflect an objective reality, but rather creates a world of its own. One use of myth is to explain things that are difficult to understand, such as the ups and downs of the stock market, the state of the economy, or even the weather, as well as more ethereal concepts like morality, appropriateness, and fairness. We contended that this was a result of people's intolerance for ambiguity, inexplicability, and randomness. Today's journalists and their audiences are motivated by the same motivations that led shamans to invent stories to explain occurrences and people to demand such stories. News gives a sensation of power and comforts in the same way that myth does [6]–[10].

The key work of Carey showed the necessity to understand news as a whole, with significant ceremonial functions, rather than considering each story as distinct, while Knight and Dean examined the mythical structure of news in the 1980s. Later, Kitch convincingly illustrated the function of news in civil religion, where journalists and the public congregate on ritualistic occasions, such as the period of grief following September 11, 2001. According to her examination

of news magazines published after September 11, the narrative took on the three-stage structure of a funeral, in which millions of Americans took part via national news media, making it an 'American' story in symbolic ways that went beyond the fact of war. The discussion of the mythical frame places an emphasis on universals, which advances knowledge of the social, celebratory function of news. By employing recognizable, recurring narrative structures that assist to explain why it looks simultaneously original and reassuringly predictable, news performs a cultural role similar to that of myth. We believe that one issue, at least in Lule's instance, is the reliance on well-known intellectuals like Campbell.

We concur with Levi-Strauss and others that there are nearly universal elements in folklore and myth that appear in various historical periods and geographical locations. However, academics rarely consult these indexesnot even those who specialize in folkloreother than to notice when a well-known motif appears in yet another story. While theoretically intriguing, this no longer adds to the conversation. We believe that this can be done by focusing on how a particular narrative speaks to and about the particular conditions in which we currently find it. The universalist perspective gives little consideration to the distinctions in time and place that give rise to specific cultural moments and narratives that are grounded in specific histories. According to Scherr, Lule's mythic model often employs generalities that obscure as much as they explain. For instance, how is it helpful to think of Mike Tyson as the typical trickster when, as Coman notes, he might just as readily be viewed as the archetypal scapegoat? According to Coman, the investigations into the relationship between myth and news story are often persuasive and exciting but they have not generated a complete theory or an intense and homogenous current of research. We concur with this statement.

DISCUSSION

News as Storytelling

If we ground investigations in the particular, seeing news as myth offers a framework for achieving a deeper cultural knowledge of news. In today's culture, the innate desire for narrative or storytelling appears to be as strong as ever. Consider professional wrestling, which increased its appeal and sparked lively discussion among viewers by incorporating occasionally complex plotlines into the typical conflict between two simplistically good or evil protagonists. Massive Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs), which have gained enormous popularity, and video games, which originally only tested players' abilities to search and destroy, now let players take part in often sophisticated plots that usually draw from cultural stocks of legendary ideas. Reporters also frequently use story in journalism, even though the traditional inverted pyramid still predominates, especially with the common anecdotal lead or in more deliberate narrative writing that draws on the traditions of new or literary journalism and fiction. Reality television, which evolved from tabloid TV news, aims to captivate viewers by telling a succession of short stories that, like news, exude an air of truth.

A story seeks consistency and significance in contrast to a straightforward chronological report; it also has a purpose and fits into a cultural lexicon of relatable themes. News has long been studied by academics as a storytelling genre. According to several authors, the news genre owes a debt to oral traditions, well-known ballads, broadsheets, and other forms of popular culture. Hughes' groundbreaking research of the human interest story, which she noted that specific stories, such as that of the lost child, reoccur, each feeding into those that follow and shaping perception and development of the story, was one of the earliest attempts to examine these concepts. When I

needed such quotes I used to make them up, as did some of the others for we knew what the bereaved mother and the mourning father should have said, and possibly even heard them speak what was in our minds rather than in theirs, wrote Darnton in a widely cited essay from 1975 about his experience working in a New York Times newsroom and illustrating how journalists used mythic themes.

Many authors were examining the notion of news as narrative by the 1980s, both in academic and professional journals. For instance, Sibbison came to the conclusion that prominent media outlets like Newsweek, the Los Angeles Times, and the Boston Globe routinely publish medical issues in accordance with the conventions of the medical breakthrough story even when the claims are not supported by the evidence. The fundamental assertion that journalists are bardic storytellers was outlined by Barkin. According to Ettema and Glasser , who used Mink and White's theories in their analysis, investigative reporting upholds traditional virtue by exposing heinous vice.Investigative reporting applies common understandings of right and wrong, innocence and guilt to the issue at hand, maintaining and occasionally updating these understandings while rarely questioning or challenging them. The work of Ettema and Glasser was crucial in establishing the notion that news is a moralizing type of speech that can actually be detrimental to the thoughtful and logical analysis of significant societal issues. In the same year, we made an effort to compile the majority of the literature on news as narrative. We provided what we hoped was a cogent theoretical framework for the understanding of news as storytelling, and we made the similar argument to Ettema and Glasser that the desire to tell stories may cause journalists to frame the world in ways that frequently reinforce preexisting ideologies.

The idea of journalism as story found resonance across academic fields. Golden examined the effects of a news report of a bartender refusing to serve alcohol to a pregnant lady on public health. Large narrative arcs concerning victims and were evolving, with a focus on the duties of women and society toward fetuses. She extended the study of myth and tale beyond the identification of overarching themes to assessments of how those themes function in particular situations and how this impacts people's lives and governmental decisions. Similar to this, Bird examined the progression of a rumor about a putative mystery woman purposefully giving men AIDS. The tale echoed archetypical elements that have appeared throughout historythe exotic and dangerous lady, the power of the seductressand had a significant impact at the height of AIDS dread in the mid-1990s. It did active cultural work at that moment, in that place, speaking to that time period's fears about race, gender, and sexual practices. Much of its power came from old stereotypes and fears, but the immediate circumstances of the early 1990s attributed just as significantly to its impact.

When the query is changed from the conventional: How are we all the same to: How are the stories of one culture different from one another, cross-cultural comparisons benefit from detailed research of narrative technique. Theodore Kaczynksi, dubbed the Unabomber in the US, and David Copeland, dubbed the Nailbomber in the UK, were both identified as paranoid schizophrenics and tried for the same crimes in extensively publicized trials. Wardle examines various journalistic narratives about them. According to Wardle, whereas US press focused on the story of the trial, British news coverage prioritized the story of the crime, and neither country's news coverage examined any significant issues with mental illness that the cases presented. Without posing the next logical questionWhy the difference between the two cultural contextsWardle's model research transitions from the in-depth analysis of individual stories to the interpretation of the story of the events. There is a lot of room for narrative analysis in this domain, which could explore key ideas unique to specific cultural contexts.

The difficult task of defining news in other cultures and connecting it to well-known cultural themes prevents scholars from frequently analyzing news across cultures. Anthropologists occasionally discuss these issues. In a comparison of national television news from Brazil and the US, Kottak demonstrates how each country emphasizes civics, the nation-state, and international issues, but does so in a different way. Brazilian news frequently emphasizes reports about US technologies such reproductive technology, which are seen as opposed to traditional local norms. This topic, according to him, confirms for Brazilians the stereotype of American society as developed but flawed American culture sometimes carries its know-how and inventiveness to inhumane extremes. These kinds of analyses could go even farther by connecting the identified themes to the more pervasive traits of particular civilizations.

Whose Story

Whose tale is it anyway? Because it presume that they are all our stories on some level, archetypal and mythic analysis cannot provide an answer. News that effectively engages the viewer uses compelling storylines. By using historical figures and themes, news and myth unify people around common principles. By definition, mythological analyses support the current quo since that is what myth does. Herein lies the risk of journalists acting like bards, who themselves served people in positions of authority. Journalistic tales of a homeowner shooting and killing a trick-or-treating Japanese exchange student who he mistakenly believed to be an intruder are covered by Ettema . The tale struck a chord in Japan as an illustration of horrifying American violence, while in the US it raised concerns about gun rights. Ettema contends that eventually, the US government and press normalized the assassination by incorporating it into pre-established moral narratives.

Stories contribute to the construction of the world, and those in positions of authority profit from doing so in particular ways that captivate the audience while obscuring or eradicating opposing narratives. We don't want to imply that the government intentionally distributes bread and circuses to distract us from thinking about significant issues, as did the Frankfurt School. However, some massive and possibly trivial tales that predominate in the media could be argued to accomplish that. Stories of the runaway bride, Anna Nicole Smith, or the trials of Britney Spears or Paris Hilton generate enormous quantities of enticingly open-ended speculation that makes such narratives compelling. And despite invoking time-tested tropes, these stories can challenge morality. These stories are simple, affordable, and well-liked by editors. The cheap, simple, and popular story frequently triumphs over the expensive, challenging, and less popular one in this competitive, digital climate when news companies strive to retain independence and profit levels.

However, some articles actively further the goals of those in positions of authority, and a greater threat stems from individuals who intentionally manipulate journalists by providing the motifs on which they base their tales. High-quality accounts of terrorism and conflict offer vivid examples. Defining the tale of the hotly fought Iraq war through the use of recognizable, evocative motifs considerably improves the odds of success for those in positions of power. With carefully designed narratives of freedom, scientific superiority, and courage, as well as widely repeated comparisons of Saddam Hussein to Hitler, the first Bush administration was successful in winning the first Gulf War. At least in the beginning of the conflict, the US government was successful in framing the Iraq War similarly.

According to Aday, Livingston, and Hebert, For American viewers the vision of the war given by the networks was a sanitized one free of death, dissent, and diplomacy, but full of fascinating weaponry, splashy graphics, and heroic troops. Even when states purportedly supported the war,

the story was presented differently in other countries. When comparing news coverage in the United States, the United Kingdom, India, and Pakistan, Ravi draws the conclusion that newspaper coverage seems to reflect notions, values, and ideas that resonate within particular societies. Dimitrova and Strömbäck make a similar observation when contrasting Sweden and the United States. When Baghdad was first bombed, news organizations in various nations adopted the US government's shock and awe strategy, though not in the same way. For instance, the British press portrayed the strike as devastating, damaging, and ultimately obscene after the first bombs were dropped in Baghdad on March 22, 2003. US media exaggerated the attack's mesmerizing force, and both TV and print journalists seemed to delight in the aesthetically pleasing sight. TV journalists utilized the term we in their reports and portrayed the event with frantic tales of unreserved adoration, openly soliciting audience participation.

After the initial barrage, the accounts kept changing. The majority of human interest stories in the US media, up until the Abu Ghraib scandal, focused on soldiers and the families they leave behind, while some coverage highlighted growing issues with the Iraqi police and military's inability to maintain order. The focus of European and Arab media articles has consistently been on civilian casualties, with graphic photos of children who have been burned and tragic narratives of families who have been torn apart. Following government orders, the US press only occasionally depicted US or Iraqi losses. While just one major news company in the United States, Knight-Ridder, consistently produced articles that questioned the justifications for going to war with Iraq, the European media frequently appeared to contradict their governments' declared support for the war. Even the New York Times apologized for not being more critical after covering the war's development as the administration reported it.

The US government's skill in giving journalists language and context that they found intriguing played a part in creating the story of the conflict. They were utilized by the press so frequently that they started to seem natural and thus true. First, there was the wildly popular weapons of mass destruction scare, which effectively established its own narrative of fearnot just that Iraq possessed such weapons but also that it might and would use them against the United States. The phrase and the tales it conjured up proved to be so captivating that it was frequently utilized by almost all mainstream news outlets, effectively living together with the administration to further the war. The government's other popular phrase, shock and awe, was used a lot in news reports and on television, and journalists based their accounts on it. This, combined with government-provided ideas of smart bombs from the first war and a reluctance to show images of collateral damage, led to a specific and limited story of a successful and clean war that was started in early 2003 and carefully developed since.

In fact, the press frequently adopts government-defi ned narrative frames, particularly during wartime or in the wake of catastrophic events like the September 11 attacks, where journalists experience intense pressure to pull together and fix well-worn myths. They may appear seemingly out of nowhere, as in the widely reported tales of the girl who rode the wreckage down through one of the Twin Towers as it collapsed. Not all information is provided by official government sources. Even if they didn't exist, the media readily praised heroes since everyone needed them. On the other hand, we saw the rape, mayhem, and social collapse news stories that were later debunked that were reported in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina. These stories drew on much older stories of the out-of-control racial other and they also seemed incredibly natural. The issue is exacerbated, though, when those in positions of authority feed preexisting narrative inclinations. For instance, it took some time before the truth regarding the heroic death of former National

Football League star Pat Tillman on April 22, 2004, in Afghanistan came to light. According to a military spokesman quoted in the majority of articles, Tillman was killed in a fi refi ght at about 7 p.m. on a road near Sperah, about 25 miles southwest of a US base at Khost (NBC, MSNBC News Services).

The football and war cultural resonance that permeates American society made news of Tillman's patrol participating in a valiant combat widely welcomed. Later, the story revealed itself to be a tale of military negligence and a cover-up by the bureaucracy of a regrettable friendly fire occurrence. The Jessica Lynch story, which was initially told as the account of the young girl soldier, who was imprisoned while fighting like a man, but was ultimately saved by gallant soldiers, had a similar unraveling. Later, Lynch herself disputed the story's heroic aspect. Lynch was framed as a hero and became a symbol of the West's enlightened attitude toward women, supporting the claim that the United States was liberating the people of Iraq, according to Kumar (2004, p. 297). The storyline also referenced the cultural canon of captivity narratives, which feature fair, gorgeous young ladies who are either brutalized or at risk of being attacked by dark, threatening savages. In other words, the myth was particularly potent because it properly juggled the needs of the US administration to fabricate certain heroic tales with the wants of the people to have such tales. These incidents highlight the risk of cliched storylines, which give lazy journalists quick narrative frameworks. Media coverage today is described by Compton as a integrated spectacle, and he goes into great detail to explain how journalists eagerly latch onto the verbal and visual cues that those in authority provide them.

Outside of war reportage, certain frameworks exist. For instance, since at least the early 1900s, US press coverage of China has consistently reflected official US policy toward China. The majority of news on China is unfavorable, however the US press tends to write more favorably and more unfavorably depending on the state of US-China relations at the time. China's underlying reality fluctuates less than the narratives that are written about it. The story is captivating for both readers and the press. Any government administration finds it simpler to spin information to their favor than to convince the public and the media with logic and analysis. Governments engage in politics, which is what it is. Although one may argue that the press has a responsibility to reject them, this does not explain why the press frequently adopts those framings without question.

But for both journalists and audiences, the draw of weapons of mass destruction, shock and awe, surge, or a homegrown hero is profoundly fascinating and consoling. Having said that, the media occasionally offers refutations or alternatives, generally after the fact. The Washington Post uncovered the more accurate Pat Tillman account, and several media outlets investigated Jessica Lynch's tale as well as the more significant claims of WMD and the US involvement in the second Iraq War. Press reports and narratives offered by the government aren't always accurate. When emerging narratives collide with more established ones, substantial swaths of the public accuse the press of providing comfort to the enemy, demonstrating the persuasive strength of the comforting narrative. A more recent tale of incompetence and dishonesty in government has cultural relevance as well, but it is in no way consoling.

CONCLUSION

Finally, reevaluating news and myth as storytelling offers a novel viewpoint on the function and presentation of news media. The intrinsic potential of compelling and evocative storytelling approaches is acknowledged by the inclusion of storytelling components in news tales. News stories can convey difficult concepts, elicit strong feelings, and create stronger connections with

audiences by including mythic aspects. With this strategy, journalists are encouraged to create engaging stories while upholding accuracy and moral standards. News organizations may forge deeper and more lasting connections with the public by reinventing news as storytelling, encouraging empathy, comprehension, and analytical thought among readers. In the end, this strategy may change how news is ingested and experienced, boosting its relevance and impact in a changing media environment.

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CHAPTER 16

THE COMMERCIALIZATION OF NEWS: BALANCING PROFIT AND JOURNALISM ETHICS

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The commercialization of news is a growing issue in the media landscape, with news organizations under financial pressure to attract readers, advertisers, and investors. Commercial factors, such as advertising revenue and profit optimization, significantly impact editorial choices and news coverage. This can lead to a focus on sensationalism, entertainment, and celebrity news, which may overlook public interest issues and investigative journalism. The commercialization of news can also affect the values and objectivity of reporting, as business interests may overshadow journalistic standards of objectivity and impartiality. News content may also be shaped by advertiser influence, corporate ties, and profitability, leading to prejudices or conflicts of interest. The commercialization of news can constrict the variety of voices and opinions in the media, as smaller or independent news organizations may struggle to compete with larger, economically motivated organizations, resulting in limited access to diverse opinions and information sources. This can weaken informed public discourse and citizen involvement in democratic processes. To address the negative consequences of commercialization, initiatives are being taken to diversify news ownership, support independent journalism, and encourage openness and accountability in the media. People can actively participate by supporting media that preserves journalistic values and the public interest by searching for trustworthy, independent news sources.

KEYWORDS:

Commercialization, Journalism, Media, News, Public.

INTRODUCTION

One day in the first week of March 2005, Anna Ayala's husband brought home the severed tip of a coworker's finger after a workplace accident. The rotting digit was quickly put to use by Anna, who dropped it into her boiling bowl of chili at a Wendy's in San Jose, California. Anna pretended to be disgusted and threatened to file a lawsuit against Wendy's, alleging that the fast food restaurant was using subpar with carne in its chili. She argued that she hadn't placed a second order for food [1]–[4]. The San Jose Mercury News, which was once rated among the top ten newspapers in the country in an editors' poll, ran developments in the fi nger-in-the-chili-bowl story 11 times on its front page over the course of the story's 33-day run, even though it initially appeared to be a scam rather than a public health threat. From the time the fraud was initially discovered until Ms. Ayala's arrest, the newspaper only published one article on 1A about the US war in Iraq. Some could argue that the story of a small-bore grifter didn't deserve the front page as much as the cruel war that killed hundreds of thousands of Iraqis and forced millions more to flee their homes, cost thousands of American lives, and consumed more than a billion dollars per week at the time. However, they would view journalism as a public trust instead than a profit-maximizing enterprise.

The commercialization of news is briefly examined in this chapter, including its historical context, how scholars have portrayed it, what they have discovered about its causes, processes, and impacts, the strengths and flaws of their studies, and some suggestions for further research [5]–[7].

Defining Commercialization

Nearly as old as the business of generating money by selling news are claims of commercialization. The majority have happened in the United States, where news has been created by commercial organizations for more than 150 years and where nearly all news is created to make a profit. Commercialization is a recent issue in Eastern Europe, a region where the state formerly had control over the media. It might become a future issue in China. Commercialization was perceived as contributing to a greater evilclass dominance or hegemonyin Western Europe, where Karl Marx's ideas were absorbed into media research by Antonio Gramsci, the Frankfurt School scholars, and later the Cultural Studies movement. In more recent times, the neo-Marxist presumption that all media are instruments of class dominance has been challenged by post-modernism and active audience theories.Over the past two decades, as European governments have started to enable commercial broadcasting, commercialization has elevated to the top of intellectuals' concerns [8], [9]. Commercialization is the process of turning anything into a business. However, the word has a corruptive connotation and is defined as to emphasize the profi table aspects of, especially by sacrifi cing quality or debasing inherent nature.

To worry about commercialization assumes that professional news media can act in the public interest in the absence of such taint. Therefore, a definition of commercialization includes the contentious premise that, under certain circumstances, business-based media can in fact benefit the public. On the basis of that supposition, I would define the commercialization of news as any activity intended to increase revenue that gets in the way of a journalist's or news organization's best efforts to promote the greatest possible public awareness of the topics and events that influence the community they claim to serve. Priorities for The Mercury News' most popular page during March 2005 appear to be far more focused on maximizing profits than on fostering public understanding. No matter how weird or funny, the war in Iraq was a problem and a set of events that had a far greater effect on the South San Francisco Bay area than one woman's botched con. It is helpful to have some knowledge of market economics and the logic of commercial enterprises in order to put this definition to use in practice. In fact, I would contend that it is impossible to understand the development of journalism in the final quarter of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st without taking economics into account, especially as it interacts with government policy and technological advancements like the Internet. Economics is crucial for both diagnosing and resolving the problems with modern journalism.

Historical Context

The conflict between the public service objectives most news media declared to be their mission and the demand of their owners for the greatest return on their investment has existed since the early days of the Penny Press in the middle of the 19th century, according to Marion Marzolf's lively history of American press criticism. At that point, corporations took over political parties and small printers' sponsorship of the news. Over the course of the 20th century, commercialism decreased as ethics rules were implemented, journalists' educational attainment increased, and their desires for careers in journalism increased. Commercial meddling, however, appears to be increasing, at least in American news media, over the past two decades, and especially over the last few years as competition for readers and advertisers on the Internet has intensified. Mass

audiences have fragmented as a result of consumers taking advantage of new news and entertainment options made available to them first by cable and satellite television, then later by the Internet.

This economic rationalization of journalism has been made worse by this. In a paradoxical way, these new technologies undermine the financial viability of the news organizations that democracy, particularly in the United States, depends on while simultaneously opening up a cornucopia of content ranging from comedy to Congressional hearings and democratizing expression by giving almost everyman a chance to express themselves to almost everyone. Consequently, we are experiencing the most changeor, more accurately, turmoilin journalism since the start of the Penny Press more than 150 years ago. An economic analysis of news predicts a temporary decline in journalism's costly but essential watchdog function, less diverse professional-caliber coverage as fewer owners exercise greater economies of scale over more newsrooms, and an erosion of ethical standards as public relations copy and advertising are repurposed as news as we enter the 21st century with fewer paid journalists. But if we comprehend how market factors impact news, we may suggest solutions to guarantee a consistent supply of the journalism that participatory government demands.

DISCUSSION

Highlights of the Literature of Commercial News Bias

The Social Critics

Despite the Hutchins Commission's warnings about newspaper ownership concentration, the news media would grow significantly in the second half of the 20th century, incorporating broadcasting, book publishing, and non-media enterprises in sizable global conglomerates like Disney, News Corporation, and Time-Warner. They would also start to look for funding for expansion from Wall Street investors around this time. Ben Bagdikian, a former ombudsman for the Washington Post, documented the growth and danger of these conglomerates in his book The Media Monopoly, which has seen seven editions since its initial release in 1983. The number of international corporations in charge of the majority of informational media decreases practically every time. Bagdikian contends that ownership is crucial because many firms assert to grant tremendous flexibility to the journalists, producers, and writers they employ. Some do offer a lot of flexibility. The parent firms, however, hardly ever abstain from exploiting their control over the public's perception when their most delicate economic interests are at issue. Doug Underwood, a different ex-journalist, issued a warning about the economic rationalization of newspapers in the 1980s. In When MBAs Rule the Newsroom, he discussed the changes in newsroom management and news content as green eyeshade journalists were replaced by managers with business degrees. Underwood conducted interviews with hundreds of journalists and found multiple instances of journalists catering to readers rather than providing them with information, of new advertiser-friendly policies, and of a greater reliance on public relations to find and report the news.

The Media Economists

Although each of these social critics looked at economic influences on news, none of them created theories of commercial bias or employed economics as a weapon. We must look on campus for those. As communication programs grew on college campuses in the second half of the 20th century, its staff started to analyze news using methods from the social sciences, particularly

economics. However, the majority of their economic study was intended to help and train managers for the sector, not to assess media performance. In fact, until recently, most people did not consider economics to be a viable instrument for examining journalistic accountability. James N. Rosse, a former media economist at Stanford, expressed it succinctly in 1975: Although I have studied the economics of mass media seriously for more than ten years, I have studiously avoided the topic of media responsibility until now. The problem generates issues that are difficult to analyze economically.

Media Economics, a helpful tutorial written by Robert Picard in 1989, applies fundamental economic ideas to media, notably newspapers. Additionally, it gave more attention to management issues than to how markets and monopolies impact journalistic quality. As more newspaper firms collected money on the stock market and attempted to appease investors' demands for increased profits, Picard has turned to the commercialization of news in more recent times Newspapers today mostly consist of commercialized news and features made to entertain, appeal to a wide audience, be cost-effective, and keep readers whose attention may be bought by advertisers. As a result, news that could offend readers are downplayed or avoided in favor of those that are more palatable and entertaining to bigger audiences, stories that would be expensive to cover, and tales that pose financial risks. Stephen Lacy is arguably the most influential media economist, at least in the US. His research is highly statistical and focused on newspapers. Over the past 15 years, Lacy has evaluated newspaper quality, its impact on readership and ad sales, and whether increasing newsroom spending improves financial performance.

His most recent study, conducted in 2005 alongside René Chen and Esther Thorson, is particularly pertinent. They looked at information from hundreds of small and mid-sized publications between 1998 and 2002. Bigger papers did not provide enough data to include. The research team discovered that newspapers with higher newsroom investments outperformed other publications in terms of pre-tax profits as well as revenues per copy from circulation and advertising. Lacy and his colleagues contend that the failure to invest in the newsroom could be a form of slow-motion suicide, where a company's disinvestment gradually alienates core readers and reduces the attractiveness of newspapers as advertising outlets. This argument is supported by an earlier study of the failed Thomson newspaper chain, whose CEO boasted about cutting newsroom costs.

Lacy identifies three trends that have fueled commercialism during the previous 50 years. The development of public ownership of news media. The decline of newspaper competition. The expansion of other information and advertising sources, such as cable television and the Internet. Local markets have been impacted by Trend 1. Both local and national markets have been impacted by trends two and three. Beginning in the late 1980s and early 1990s, trend three put pressure on local businesses to maintain high, stable profits. The counterbalance impacted a smaller and smaller number of markets as competition direct, umbrella, and intercity and clustering ended competition within counties, first between dailies and later between dailies and weeklies, and competition disappeared in most larger cities.

The Political Economists

A fresh perspective on news commercialism was developing in the 1970s. It became known as the political economics of the media because it concentrated on the nexus between politics and media. From Gramsci in 1971, through Frankfurt School theorists Theodor Adorno and Max Horkheimer in 1972, to Stuart Hall and Raymond Williams' cultural studies perspective, European scholars were perplexed as to why the underprivileged and working classes would support politicians whose

policies kept them in poverty. The media was cited by political economists as the main suspect. The role played by the media in cementing the consensus in capitalist society is only occasionally characterized by overt suppression or deliberate distortion, Murdock and Golding stated in a seminal study from 1974. Instead, the routines of news reporting result in systematic distortions that characterize anything posing a threat to the status quo as untrue or fleeting. They contended that journalistic impartiality reduced the range of most discussions to only two options, neither of which threatened preexisting class relations.

The authors stated that most generally, news must be entertainment; it is, like all media output, a commodity, and to have survived in the market-place must be vociferously inoffensive in the desperate search for large audiences attractive to advertisers. The transformational thinking of the German social philosopher Jurgen Habermas was reinterpreted in the UK by Garnham. Habermas stated in 1989 that bourgeois society in Western Europe had established a public sphere in the 18th century through newspapers and other publications, coffee shops, and social gatherings. This public sphere influenced government policy and resulted in parliamentary rule. This public arena was distinguished by reason, a diversity of opinions, and a commitment to the common good. However, in Habermas' opinion, the public sphere was undercut by contemporary corporate and state-controlled media. By using Habermas' ideal of the public sphere as a blueprint for democratic media that might be attained by state-sponsored media like the BBC and even by corporate newspapers and broadcasters under the right circumstances, Garnham contributed to the popularization of Habermas.

The State of Art

The current state of knowledge in comprehending commercial pressures on news is comprised of numerous academics from throughout the world. It might be more logical to focus on the key contributions of the four researchers who have dedicated their careers to studying the commercialization of news rather than offering a few paragraphs to each. I decided on Edwin Baker, Leo Bogart, and Robert McChesney. I brazenly inserted theoretical components to my own work because I am the expert on it. McChesney analyzes the global media landscape via the lens of political economics. Bogart avoids using any formal procedures. He offers a corporate perspective on the monetization of news as a newspaper advertising executive. Despite being a lawyer, Baker ingeniously uses microeconomics to demonstrate the shortcomings of the news media. My research blends my training as a social scientist with my expertise as a journalist. To explain the daily operations of reporters and editors, it creates a dynamic tension between the standards of socially conscious journalism and those of fundamental market economics.

The Political Economy Critique

Robert McChesney is the person who has assumed the mantle of Ben Bagdikian as he has transitioned into retirement. He mixes the literary style of Bagdikian with the love of history for the little things and supporting evidence. Additionally, McChesney has turned into an activist, helping to launch the liberal government monitoring website FreePress.org. In Rich Media, Poor Democracy, McChesney discusses two opposing trends on the one hand, the growth in size and popularity of media giants like Disney, GE, and Bertelsmann, and on the other, the fall in political engagement. Globally, he contends, the prospects for participatory democracy have grown poorer as the corporate media giants have grown wealthier and more powerful. He claims that one key contributing factor is the global expansion of neoliberalisma market knows best mindset that minimizes the importance of non-market institutions like government and leaves as much power

as possible in the hands of markets and companies. According to McChesney, the media is both a byproduct and an advocate of this style of thinking. As a result, we believe that there is no shortage of information because the market offers thousands of publications, books, and websites in addition to hundreds of television channels. But of all these ostensibly independent sites, the majority of those drawing the biggest crowds are owned by a small number of multinational corporations and exist for profit by selling audience eyes to advertising.

It is not unexpected that there is little content that informs readers about their rights as citizens and casts doubt on the influence of corporations and the government. According to him, media outlets rarely disclose their own concentrated ownership and hypercommercialism. The Internet won't end the media oligopoly, in McChesney's opinion. He draws a comparison between how radio, a revolutionary new technology at the turn of the 20th century, ended up being dominated by a small number of powerful commercial interests despite its multiple channels, democratic potential, and early adoption by citizen-broadcasters. Similar to radio, there is little public discussion on the best use for the new technology. He claims that the corporate interests that controlled radio and later television have such sway in the US Congress that a consensus has already been reached that businesses, not governments, colleges, or other non-profit groups, should run the Internet. Making money must therefore be the main priority.

He contends that the political left, particularly organized labor, must provide the solution and that media reform must be a top priority. According to McChesney's prescription, the general public should be taught news literacy, broadcasters should be charged for the existing unrestricted use of public airwaves in order to support public broadcasting, and labor should establish its own news channels. McChesney expands on his claim that media reform is largely a political issue in The Problem of the Media. He contends that exploitative media have flourished as a result of government policies, and that new policies are required to produce media that serve democracy. In order to accomplish this, he must debunk the prevalent neoliberal illusion that profit-seeking businesses engaged in free markets are the ideal, necessary, and even inevitable producers of news in a democracy. Because it might use this authority for censorship and propaganda, the government shouldn't be engaged in the development or regulation of the news media. The First Amendment, which protects press freedom from

Congressional authority, was written by the American Founding Fathers in recognition of this conflict and outlawed it. Therefore, news media should be run by free enterprise with little to no regulation. Since businesses must compete in open markets, they must satisfy the public's demands or risk losing customers to competitors who will. In response to the first assertion, McChesney argues that while the First Amendment's creators were worried about government suppression of news, they did not intend to limit access to news to the private sector. He points out that political parties and small printers controlled the press at the time. He claims that the early republic was almost entirely devoid of the notions of entrepreneurs and free markets, as well as the notion that the press was or should be a commercial activity set up solely to meet the needs of press owners. The First Amendment was not intended to grant businesses the right to do whatever they like, but rather to safeguard spirited public debate about significant concepts and events.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the integrity, variety, and public interest functions of news media are severely impacted by the commercialization of news. Market dynamics and profit-driven factors may have an impact on news values, news content, and the diversity of viewpoints reflected in the media

environment. A focus on sensationalism, entertainment, and celebrity news may result from commercial demands, which may push out serious journalism and topics of public interest. The diversity of voices and opinions in the media may be constrained by the concentration of media ownership and the emphasis on profitability. Concerns are raised about how this may affect democratic discourse and the public realm. Diversifying ownership, fostering independent journalism, and encouraging accountability and openness are among strategies being used to combat the problems caused by commercialization. Finding trustworthy news sources and supporting journalism that preserves journalistic ethics and the public interest are responsibilities of informed media consumers. Recognizing and reducing the detrimental consequences of commercialization is essential for preserving an active, independent, and informed media environment that meets the needs of democracy in society.

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CHAPTER 17

JOURNALISM AND DEMOCRACY: ROLE OF MEDIA IN SOCIETAL GOVERNANCE

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalism is a vital component in creating and maintaining democratic societies, demonstrating the close relationship between the two. It provides information to the public, ensuring transparency in government, holding individuals accountable, and exposing corruption, misuse of power, and misconduct. Journalism also facilitates public discourse, providing a forum for diverse viewpoints and voices, promoting open discourse and inclusivity. Journalists act as gatekeepers, selecting stories, framing them, and selecting important facts. To maintain accuracy and public confidence in the media, journalists must follow ethical standards, provide fair coverage, and avoid bias or sensationalism. However, journalism and democracy face challenges such as the spread of false information, political division, economic pressures, and threats to press freedom. These issues undermine journalism's contribution to democracy and emphasize the importance of strong media literacy, viable economic plans for news organizations, and the defense of journalists' rights. The interplay between democracy and journalism is crucial, as a thriving, independent, and accountable news sector helps democratic processes.

KEYWORDS:

Democracy, Emergence, Journalism, Public, Media.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism and democracy both have long histories. Journalism's early development parallels the tumultuous emergence of the first democratic countries around 400 years ago. The English Civil War and its aftermath served as the backdrop for the first formation of the modern idea of a political journalism that is adversarial, critical, and independent of the state in the early seventeenth century. While the concepts of news and the role of the correspondent as a professional dispatcher of newsworthy information predate the bourgeois revolutions of early modern Europe. Journalism played a significant role in that conflict, which pitted supporters of democratic reform and the sovereignty of parliament against those of absolute monarchy. It did so once more in the American War of Independence as well as during the French Revolution of 1789. Since then, democratic political and media cultures have been defined by the existence of a particular type of journalism in a functioning public sphere. This chapter examines the function of journalism in democratic nations both past and present from a normative and practical standpoint, and it critically evaluates how it has helped to create and preserve democratic political cultures [1]–[4].

Journalism Before Democracy

Journalism was viewed by the authoritarian feudal administrations of Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries as a helpful, if possibly hazardous, tool for better managing and controlling society. The rulers of Tudor England as well as the Papacy in Rome realized the power of information to upend and destabilize the authoritarian order of things as early as the development

of print in the late fifteenth century. In the late sixteenth century, restrictive license and copyright rules were also introduced, along with early libel laws, with the intention of policing information and reducing its potential to undermine feudal power systems. The first English copyright law explicitly stated that the goal was to forbid heresy, sedition, and treason, whereby not only God is dishonoured, but also an encouragement is given to disobey lawful princes and governors, whether in journalism or other forms of printed public expression. In 1632, foreign news was outlawed in England because it was unfit for popular view and discourse [5]–[8].

The conflict between the crown and parliament in the seventeenth century, which resulted in the English Civil War and subsequent steps toward democratization, laid the groundwork for contemporary political journalism. Prior to these events, journalists, like everyone else in a feudal society, were obedient to the demands of the church and the state and subjects of the absolute king. Early magazines covered politics, military events, economic trends, and other topics, but they were always subject to tight content limitations imposed by the feudal state. One such monthly was Mercurius Gallobelgicus, which was published in 1594. However, as capitalism advanced and a growing bourgeoisie started to question the legitimacy of feudal control, journalists began to take sides in the escalating class conflict. Press content restrictions were relaxed as the conflict between the crown and parliament in 1640s England descended into civil war, and titles multiplied in response to the growing need for news and commentary. The news books of this era, the forerunners of the contemporary newspaper, were as more than just informational sources they also served as bitter and aggressive instruments of literary and political faction. Instead of being neutral observers, journalists choose sides, becoming partisans and players in the creation of political reality.

The Intelligencer, a newspaper in which journalists mediated between political actors and their publics, was another example of how journalism codified the division between news and remark, or truth and opinion, in the 1640s. By the conclusion of that decade, strong interpretation and passionate persuasion were concurrent with the detailed reporting of news. The publication of John Milton's defense of press and intellectual freedom, Aeropagitica, in 1644 solidified the burgeoning tradition of devoted, critical political journalism and gave the early public sphere it created ideological legitimacy. Since then, there has been a growing demand for political reporting that is free from the constraints of state and religious authority, as well as technological means of delivering such reporting through print media and an increase in the number of literate readers who are equipped as citizens to use this political reporting in both individual and group decision-making [9], [10].

Following Charles 1's execution in 1649, the fight for democracy in England underwent a number of twists, turns, and setbacks. While advanced capitalist societies did not achieve universal suffrage until the twentieth century, by the early eighteenth century, the principle of constitutional monarchy had been established, a recognizable multi-party democracy was operating, and a recognizable modern political media system was operating alongside it. The Daily Courant, the first daily publication in English, debuted in 1703. Launched in 1704, Daniel Defoe's Review was referred to by Martin Conboy as the first influential journal of political comment. The normative standards for political journalism in a democracy had already been established by that point. Here, I'll list them under four headings. According to universal consensus, democracy only helps create good governance to the extent that voters have access to trustworthy information and make informed decisions at elections and other occasion. Of course, in actuality, a lot of democratic

decisions are based on prejudice and ignorance. Voting is a democratic right, and people exercise it for a variety of reasons, not usually based on reason or thorough consideration.

However, from a normative standpoint, the democratic ideal is one of making informed decisions, and political journalism's outputs play a significant role in this. The material that allows voters to compare competing candidates and parties is provided by journalists. In other words, even while they will have their own political opinions, journalists must be objective observers of political reality, trying to maintain the greatest degree of objectivity and detachment. Political journalism can be partisan, but when it does, it shouldn't pretend to be objective reporting or exclude the kind of objective, balanced reporting that is associated with outlets like the BBC, the Financial Times, or US TV networks from the public eye. According to Peter J. Anderson in a recent study, high-quality, independent news journalism is crucial to the creation of an enlightened citizenry that is able to participate meaningfully in society and politics.

Journalism as Watchdog and Fourth Estate

The job of critical examination of the powerful, whether they be in government, business, or other influential realms of society, is an extension of the information function of political journalism in a democracy. The journalist serves in this capacity as a watchdog, joining what Edmund Burke referred to as the Fourth Estate. In democracies, journalists are tasked with keeping an eye on the exercise of power in order to prevent the abuses that typified the feudal past. Are governments capable, effective, and trustworthy? Are they meeting their obligations to the voters who chose them? Are their decisions and plans supported by reliable data and created with the interests of society at large in mind? Political journalism monitors the actions of our governors in its function as a watchdog, with our consent and on our behalf.

Journalism as Mediator

On behalf of the populace, journalism performs the watchdog role. In this sense, the journalist is portrayed as the go-between between the voter and the politician, the latter's voice before authority, who makes sure that the public's voice is heard. There are numerous ways to carry out the duty of representative or mediator. First, political media can give people direct access to the public sphere through reader letters to newspapers, phone calls to talk shows, and participation in studio debates on current events. The advent of quick, interactive technologies, such as email, text messaging, and blogging, all of which offer new avenues for individuals to contact with political elites and take part in public discourse, has improved the representative function of political journalism today. With more citizens now regularly having access to political communication tools than at any previous point in democratic history, these technologies have fueled the growth of an unprecedentedly participatory democracy. But from a journalistic standpoint, the representative-mediator role still essentially functions as it did when readers' letters were the only practical way for the vast majority of citizens to participate in public life: to act as a buffer between the general public and the political establishment and make sure that the voice of the people can be heard in the democratic process.

Journalism as Participant

The political journalist is positioned as the people's defender or champion in the representational role. Additionally, journalists may support specific political viewpoints and engage in partisanship in the public discourse in an effort to convert readers to their point of view. As we've seen,

journalism's partisanship roots may be found in the English Civil War, when journalists both took part in and covered the conflict between the bourgeoisie's ascent and the aristocracy's decline. Adversarial politics engendered a partisan and often acrimonious press in the eighteenth century, according to Conboy, while the newspapers played an increasingly strident role in opinion formation and in the polarization of popular political debate in the nineteenth century. Political media have taken sides ever since, although doing so in a way that attempts to maintain the illusion of neutrality and factual accuracy in reporting. In the framework of the separation of truth and opinion that is a structural aspect of political journalism in a democracy and of the divide that exists in many countries between public and private media, it is feasible to reconcile these seemingly incompatible goals.

DISCUSSION

The Critique of Liberal Pluralism and Objectivity

The freedom of the press and the bourgeois notion of freedom in general, according to the Marxian critique, developed in the nineteenth century and still influential in media scholarship around the world, are essentially an ideological hoax, a form of false consciousness that only serves to legitimize the status quo and divert the masses from examining a system that exploits and oppresses them. The media rarely provides objective coverage of anything that poses a real threat to capitalism's social order since they are structurally biased in favor of the system. The objectives of impartiality and independence from the government are guises for the media's construction of bourgeois hegemony or prevailing ideology, both in the context of political reporting and elsewhere. This thesis was developed by Marx and Engels in the 1840s and later in publications like The German Ideology . The Bolsheviks later used it in Soviet Russia, where journalists were pressured to reject bourgeois objectivism and support the communist revolution, in particular the dictatorship of the proletariat, by acting as its propagandists.

On the basis of this, the Bolsheviks created a theory of journalism that was completely distinct from that which was prevalent in the capitalist world and exported it to other states with Communist Party governments. For a look back at the Four Theories book, see Journalism Studies. The classic Four Theories of the Press outlined the key distinctions between what it characterized as liberal pluralist theory on the one hand, and the authoritarian approach of the Communist-led states on the other. Even though the Soviet Union no longer exists, authoritarian methods nevertheless guide political journalism in ostensibly communist countries like Cuba and China. In these nations, journalism is formally a component of the state's ideological infrastructure. The censorial media laws of Islamic fundamentalist nations are justified by analogous justifications to those typically used by the Soviet communists and like-minded parties. In Saudi Arabia and Iran, for instance, it will be argued that secular, liberal notions of pluralism and objectivity do not reflect Islamic beliefs and truths, and that CNN, the BBC, and others are promoting ideologically charged accounts of international political events that should be censored in favor of state-approved journalism.

Once again, as in Cuba or China, the ruling political faction is calling for journalists to actively defend a dominant ideology that it has imposed, although one that is founded on religious affiliation rather than ideas of class dominance. A sizable body of research has examined how liberal journalism can support the development and upkeep of democracy in these nations as well as in post-Soviet nations like Russia, which have a history of vacillating between the authoritarianism of the past and the stated goal of establishing democracy and free media. In their 2003 study,

Kalathil and Boas analyzed the media's influence in eight nations, including China, Cuba, Singapore, and Egypt. They also compared the impact of emerging technologies, particularly the Internet. They come to the conclusion that overall, the Internet is challenging and helping to transform authoritarianism, which is consistent with Atkins' comparative analysis of the function of journalism in Southeast Asia from 2002. However, Kalathil and Boas write that information technology alone is unlikely to bring about its destruction.

Scholars like Chomsky and Herman have consistently contested the veracity of liberal journalism's claims to freedom and objectivity in advanced capitalist societies, accusing journalists of maintaining a national security state that is supported by propaganda and brainwashing efforts that are no less crude, in their opinion, than those made by Pravda in the former Soviet Union. The fundamental idea that political journalism is more about providing the necessary illusions that sustain an unequal and exploitative capitalist system than it is about democratic scrutiny and accountability of the political elite is still pervasive in media sociology. This idea has influenced a significant body of research devoted to describing the ways in which journalism continues to be used as a tool for social change. Scholarly work of this nature has increased since 9/11 and the invasions of Afghanistan and Iraq, as evidenced, for instance, in Philo and Berry's Bad News From Israel. According to this critical content analysis of British TV news, there is a consistent pattern on TV news in which Israeli perspectives tend to be highlighted and sometimes endorsed by journalists and that Israeli views receive preferential treatment in coverage of the Israel-Palestine conflict.

Although the BBC denied claims of deliberate bias, its managers acknowledged that it was challenging to provide TV news viewers the context and history necessary to understand current events given the format's limitations and the nature of the medium. Public service journalism has been the subject of similar disputes both in Australia and overseas. David Miller's edited collection of critical essays about news coverage of Iraq, Tell Me Lies , and work by Howard Tumber, Jerry Palmer, and Frank Webster, which draws less critical conclusions on the subject of TV news alleged biases, are other post-9/11 studies of news coverage of international politics. The function of journalism in post-9/11 conflict scenarios is examined from a number of views, both scholarly and practitioneroriented, in a recent edited collection. The performance of the political media in the post-9/11 world continues to be the subject of debate and contention, with accusations of bias, propaganda, and other deviations from the normative ideals of objectivity and balance being a rife. This is despite the fact that the end of the cold war, and with it the global ideological division between communism and capitalism, which dominated the twentieth century, has marginalized the Marxian critique of concepts such as pluralism and objectivity.

The political media continue to be a hotbed of ideological debate, not least on the question of whoor which mediumis reporting political events with objectivity and if such a concept as objective truth is even conceivable. Naturally, there is bias in blatantly partisan media, like Fox News and many newspapers, and this is typically clear. As was already mentioned, the blogosphere and online journalism in general have increased the amount of space available for politicized, opinionated journalism to circulate, and this has prompted at least some of the old media to more explicitly display their ideological views. Every observer can agree on this and select their biases accordingly. Individual findings tend to be predicated on one's ideas on the nature of capitalism itself, its viability as a system, and the potential for real alternatives. This is true of the larger question of political journalism's independence from the state and the political elite, as well as its ability to be objective.

Journalism's outputs are viewed with comparable skepticism by those who believe in the essentially oppressive nature of capitalism and its impending doom. Journalism is seen as a component of the ideological machinery that would prevent capitalism from failing without it. Others are attempting to comprehend the effects of a public sphere that is becoming more globally connected and where elite control over the flow of information is eroding on politics, both nationally and internationally. A number of authors that contributed to the Maltby and Keeble collection mentioned above interact with what I have referred to as a chaos paradigm in my most recent research, building on the work of Castells and others on the network society. For instance, Maltby observes in the introduction to the book that the numerous and varied methods that information is disseminated in the public realm have compromised the ways that states are able to control what is revealed, or concealed about their activities. As the Internet continues to grow and real-time news channels like Al Jazeera proliferate and build audiences, scholarly focus on the relationship between globalized journalism and democratic processes is increasing. In the same collection, Tumber and Webster discuss the chaotic information environment which currently confronts political elites and observe a growing awareness of human rights and democracy on the part of the global audience. Several edited collections have been written about Al Jazeera alone.

Commercialization, Dumbing Down and the Crisis of Public Communication

The idea that competitive pressures on the media and the subsequent commercialization of journalism have lowered the quality of political journalism, weakening democracy itself, is another source of scholarly critique on the relationship between journalism and democracy. The political media have been accused of deviating from the news agendas and styles necessary for democracy ever since the seventeenth century. It is asserted that the recent rising commodification of media has supported the development of political infotainment, an emphasis on sensation and drama in politics, and the public's perception of democratic politics as being similar to a soap opera. This tendency is known as dumbing down, but this term refers to more than just a criticism of the political journalism's intellectual content; it also refers to the field's growing emphasis on topics that are seen as unimportant from a normative standpoint. It is asserted that political media should focus on issues of substance rather than the love lives of politicians or their capacity to appear attractive on television.

The Crisis of Public Communication by Blumler and Gurevitch, Packaging Politics by Bob Franklin, and other important 1990s publications serve as illustrative examples of this line of reasoning. More recently, Anderson and Ward's edited volume on The Future of Journalism in the Advanced Democracies bemoans the prevalence of soft news as opposed to hard news, leading them to the pessimistic conclusion that it is increasingly unlikely that much of the future news provision in the UK will meet the informational needs of a democracy. In addition to commercial pressures, they argue that the blogosphere and other developments brought on by the development of the Internet. Hard news is defined by Anderson and Ward as journalism that can be recognized as having the primary intent to inform and encourage reflection, debate, and action on political, social, and economic issues, as well as journalism that covers the issues that significantly affect people's lives. John Hartley, Catharine Lumb, and others have defended the evolving news agenda of political journalism in response to these criticisms and warnings of a degenerating public sphere as an understandable and appropriate reflection of a popular democracy in which human interest issues have a role to play.

Politics coverage's integration into the larger category of celebrity culture, which places a strong emphasis on personalities and image, has also drawn criticism . However, it is still conceivable to make the case that politics in the twenty-first century will ultimately revolve around personality, its projection, and the assessments that the public has of the kind of individuals that rule them. Arnold Schwarzenegger's election as governor of California in 2004 was cited as an example of this tendency at the time and was denounced by some as proof of the trivialization of politics and its colonization by the ideals of Hollywood and the entertainment sector. The political media in the United States and elsewhere eventually grew accustomed to Schwarzenegger's governorship and even the remote possibility of a future presidential campaign by the former action movie star remote due to his Austrian roots, rather than his celebrity history, which was, The Terminator, rather than Terminator 2 after the first wave of concern about the dire implications of Schwarzenegger's success, but in face of the fact that the world did not end and life went on more

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, journalism and democracy are fundamentally related and interdependent. By informing the public, holding authority figures responsible, fostering public conversation, and preserving democratic norms like inclusivity and openness, journalism acts as a pillar of democracy. For the purpose of developing educated citizens, advancing checks and balances, and preserving the viability of democratic institutions, a strong and independent journalistic sector is crucial. However, hazards to press freedom, division, economic pressures, and misinformation pose serious dangers to the function of media in a democracy. Maintaining the integrity of democratic societies and enabling citizens to take part in decision-making depend on upholding the ideals of journalism and fostering a vibrant and responsible media ecosystem.

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CHAPTER 18

JOURNALISM, PUBLIC RELATIONS, AND SPIN: EXPLORING MEDIA MESSAGING

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalism, public relations, and spin are three interrelated components of the media landscape, each with unique responsibilities and dynamics. Journalism focuses on acquiring, verifying, and distributing information to the public, while PR focuses on strategic communication initiatives to sway public opinion and maintain connections with stakeholders. PR specialists aim to promote positive narratives, manage crises, and preserve reputations, often seeking to sway media coverage and public opinion on behalf of clients or groups. Spin, on the other hand, involves the intentional manipulation of information or messaging to sway public opinion, often used by political players and public relations specialists to shape stories, manage media coverage, or sway public opinion. Journalism ethics prioritize accuracy, fairness, and objectivity, while public relations professionals follow ethical rules but prioritize their clients' interests. Spin, on the other hand, employs manipulative strategies that go against accountability and transparency. Journalists must evaluate the facts offered by PR experts, spot spin, and uphold their position as impartial watchdogs. To ensure the public can evaluate spin, read news critically, and create well-informed opinions, media literacy is essential.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Corporate, Journalism, Media, Spin.

INTRODUCTION

The role of public relations (PR) in the modern media landscape is growing and becoming more significant. Despite the public's and academia's interest in propaganda, particularly during armed conflicts, knowledge of domestic PR and spin is very limited. According to common wisdom, modern PR was developed in the United States at the beginning of the 20th century and then spread all over the world. The challenge posed by the enlarged franchise and organized labor, according to a closer historical perspective, led capital and the state to adopt spin as a strategic reaction . Following corporate globalization and other neoliberal systems of governance, such as deregulation and privatization, the public relations sector experienced rapid growth. By critically analyzing common theories of spin in the context of the evidence and trends at hand, this chapter will present an argument for reconsidering the function of PR in modern society. This chapter, in particular, criticizes the way PR defenders have appropriated Habermas and makes the case for a new synthesis of theories of communication, power, and the public sphere that draws on Habermas. This approach challenges the idea that source studies are just concerned with the communication between sources such as spin doctors, the media, and the general audience. We contend that public relations, which aims to appeal directly to certain publics like elite decision-makers and power brokers, frequently bypasses the media [1]–[4].

To be clear, we are not saying that the media are irrelevant; in fact, we consider the media's role in amplifying and legitimizing systematically distorted communication to be a problematic function of journalism. Elite communications have their own requirements for existing and results, yet, it is also obvious. We focus on how journalism is changing in the US and the UK, and we contend that this could lead to the dissolution of independent journalism in the midst of commercial values, fake news, and source-originating information. We could refer to this trend as the neoliberalization of the public sphere given the tendencies visible in the commercialization of news creation and the ways in which professional public relations tends to serve strong interests. While the US and UK, which are home to the largest PR industries in the world, are where the tendencies we examine below are most developed, we also feel that there is ample evidence that the same procedures and tactics are in use elsewhere over the world [5]–[8].

How did we get here?

The twentieth century was marked by three significant interconnected changes, according to Alex Carey the development of corporate propaganda as a strategy for defending corporate authority against democracy, along with the increase of corporate power and corporate influence. Modern spin emerged in the 20th century and has continued to rise ever since. Intellectuals and elites on both sides of the Atlantic began to be concerned about the crowd and how the newly enthroned masses might affect advanced liberal democracy as a result of the promise of a broader franchise. For example, Walter Lippmann wrote that Within the life of the generation now in control of affairs, persuasion has become a self conscious art and a regular organ of popular government, demonstrating how elites could manufacture the consent of the masses to ensure the best functioning of democracy. The captains of industry and their chosen propagandists were at the center of this operation. In the United States, Edward Bernays, Carl Byoir, and Ivy Lee were a few of the early PR pioneers who may be most well-known today. They have less well-known British counterparts in figures like Charles Higham and Basil Clarke.

These individuals were brought together by their shared belief in the necessity of controlling public opinion and their work on behalf of political and corporate elites attempting to obstruct or manage democratic progress. For British propagandists, this meant their experiences suppressing Irish nationalists during and after the 1916 rising and the efforts to defeat the Germans in the First World War; for the founders of the US PR industry, this meant their experiences inside the Creel commission which sought to promote the US entry into WWI and the subsequent war efforts. These propagandists left the war with a strong confidence that the lessons learned from managing democracy during more tranquil times could be applied to the administration of propaganda during times of war and an acute awareness of how propaganda may influence public perceptions and behaviors [9], [10]. Propaganda techniques were used extensively and again during World War II. Edward Bernays' book, Crystallizing Public Opinion, served as an inspiration for Joseph Goebbels, the head of the Nazi propaganda machine nevertheless, Bernays remained silent about this fact until much later in his life. After World War II, people working in intelligence and propaganda also left the services with a great understanding of the influence of propaganda.

According to conventional belief, the development of Nazism was evidence of the effectiveness of propaganda. However, the history of PR and publicity demonstrates that the Nazis learned a lot from the Western powers . What day is it now? According to McChesney, the modern media ecology is characterized by the growth of media outlets and the amalgamation of the media sectors. With the advent of several mega businesses like Omnicom, Interpublic, and WPP, each of which

owns numerous international public relations consultancies and networks, these changes are also visible in the promotional sectors . Over the past two decades, professional PR has experienced rapid expansion. For instance, according to Tunstall, there were perhaps 3,000 PR professionals in Britain in 1963. According to a conservative estimate from 2005, there were around 47,800 persons working in public relations in the UK.Press releases, video news releases, briefings, trails, and exclusives provided by spin doctors to more and more under pressure journalists are examples of information subsidies that media outlets are relying on as they reduce their investment in journalism. The US and the UK are where these tendencies are most pronounced, but the same dynamic is at work all around the world. The idealized concepts of the investigative journalist, independent news gathering, and the institutional function of the press as the crucial fourth estate are increasingly untenable given the size and scope of the modern PR business. Therefore, it may be necessary to revisit a few public communication theories in order to more accurately identify the current communication crisis.

The Death of News

The pressures brought on by the market change starting in 1979/80 have had a significant impact on news. According to Nick Cohen , in the UK, the size of newspapers has doubled, but the number of national newspaper journalists has stayed constant since the 1960s the same number of people are doing twice the job. News is the main casualty. The vacating of Fleet Street as newspapers relocated to Docklands in East London was a metaphor for how many journalists were cut off from first-hand exposure to the political process. The majority of journalists are currently located, according to Cohen , in the compounds of Canary Wharf and Wapping, where barbed wire and security patrols underscore their isolation from a public whose lives they are intended to record. The Press Association, which has already reduced the scope of its formerly comprehensive coverage, or the passing fancies of a metropolitan media village are the two main sources of news.

Particularly in businesses like United Business Media, which owns CMP, a provider of events, print publications, and online publications, the convergence between the media and PR industries is evident. In addition, Independent Television News (ITN) and the Press Association are both heavily owned by UBM (United Business Mediq). UBM also owns PR Newswire, a company that provides publicity services to businesses and the PR sector and distributes articles to news organizations like ITN and the Press Association. Another subsidiary of PR Newswire, eWatch, a contentious internet surveillance company that offered a service to snoop on activist organizations and corporate opponents, is also parent to PR Newswire. The page supporting this was taken down from the eWatch website after Business Week in 2000 uncovered it, and PR Newswire even asserted that it never existed. 117. The PR and media businesses are just beginning to integrate. However, this tendency threatens the viability of independent media. This trend is made worse by the growth of infomediaries and fake news. The trend toward direct corporate domination of the information media is one of the changes.

The partnership between ITN and Burson Marsteller, one of the biggest and least ethical PR firms in the world, was an early example of this. Corporate Television News produced films for Shell and other corporate clients while based within the ITN offices and having full access to the ITN archives. One of the top lobbyists in the UK at the time, Graham Lancaster then of Biss Lancaster, now a part of the global communications conglomerate Havas, expressed his opinion in 1999 that PR firms will increasingly possess their own channels for consumer delivery, superseding media.

PR outlets will develop into infomediaries. However, the crucial need is that they appear independent in other words, they must be false news sources.

DISCUSSION

The goal of Hobsbawm's argument is to level PR and journalism by arguing that none is necessarily better than the other. Conflict amongst journalists' sources is useless, and editorial intelligence acts as a kind of bandage for the wound. According to Hobsbawm, ei will incorporate the consulting and analysis of a think-tank with the precise data of a directory and the inside information of a newspaper. By bringing the two together at lunches, dinners, and speaking engagements, it hopes to remove the traditional antagonism between journalism and PR. Cynicism is so passe, she declares. 2005's Jardine. Some mainstream critics of the project voiced their disapproval. Christina Odone wrote PR meets journalism in Caribbean giveaways, shameless back-scratching, and undisclosed interests, alluding to the ei strapline, Where PR meets journalism.

A journalist's career should end with a link to a PR firm, not a spot on a pretentious advisory board. Journalists should approach PR with a hostile attitude, seeing the information shared as questionable, questioning potential intentions, and looking for any connections. Politicians, hacks, and PR professionals currently congregate in the Westminster village, creating an often toxic, if casual, intimacy. An organized network like EI's, when more than 1,000 hacks and PR figures publicly join forces, runs the risk of institutionalizing a clique where it's impossible to predict who will influence who writes what. In the domestic arena, the United States, which has vast networks of think tanks, lobbying firms, and front groups linked to neoliberal and neoconservative tendencies, is where efforts to manipulate the information environment are most advanced. Tech Central Station (TCS), which initially appears to be a hybrid think tank and online magazine, is one innovative example.

Upon closer examination, it becomes clear that TCS has taken aggressive positions on one side or another of intra-industry debates, somewhat like a corporate lobbyist. The DCI Group, a well-known Washington-based public affairs firm with a focus on PR, lobbying, and Astroturf campaigning, publishes TCS Many of DCI's clients are also'sponsors' of the site it houses. TCS actively promotes the sponsors' policy viewpoints both on TCS and elsewhere, in addition to running their banner ads. 2003's Confessore. Washington has given birth to something incredibly novel: journalism-lobbying It's an invention that's mostly driven by the IT sector. Formerly focused on developing personal relationships with influential decision-makers, lobbying firms have expanded. The new strategy entails supporting everything from think tanks to issue ads to phony grassroots pressure groups in order to control the entire intellectual environment in which officials make policy decisions. But the institution that has the biggest impact on Washington's intellectual climatethe mediahas also been the most difficult for K Street to influenceuntil now.

The Public Sphere and Forms of Political Communication

An influential and widely used model for analyzing political communication is the public sphere. The fact that the concept is elastic and sufficiently flexible to allow for a range of applications may contribute to its appeal. By emphasizing the connections between institutions and practices in democratic polities and the necessary material resource base for any public sphere, Habermas' theory tries to hold liberalism to its emancipatory ideals, as suggested by Garnham. Since it frequently focuses on how the media shapes public discourse, much of the discussion of the public sphere is media-centric. Habermas, on the other hand, has a more nuanced understanding of

political communication, and the model allows for both public and private communications, indicating a conception that goes beyond the role of mass media and takes into account elite communications as well as online and virtual communications as well as lobbying processes. The latter is a key component of our case for the continued usefulness of the public sphere concept.

Theories of the public domain are frequently criticized for their idealized picture of public communication. Habermas supports rational-critical discourse in which participants are sincere and seek consensus while argument and reason are given priority. Strategic communication and the portrayal of corporate interests as universal public concerns have no place in this idealized vision. Therefore, a large portion of PR activity has no place in an intelligent, deliberate democracy. Of course, PR plays a bigger role in political and public communication in the real world, thus the model of the public sphere needs to be updated to take this empirical fact into consideration. Political parties, their news management, and spin strategies are currently the subject of political communications study that is most advanced. It frequently ignores corporate social responsibility (CSR), think tanks, and policy planning efforts as well as commercial and non-profit media interactions, which are less visible forms of communication for these organizations.

This gap is partly explained by a propensity to concentrate on media rather than communication as a whole. This implicit paradigm, in our opinion, should be reversed and begin with economic, social, and political institutions, focusing on how they try to further their own interests including through communication. From this vantage point, news and political culture can be seen as a subset of larger communication techniques. All too frequently, starting with the media leads to a tendency to forget or disregard larger issues and a predisposition to focus on media discourse as if it were isolated from other kinds of communication, most significantly from social interests and social outcomes. The neoliberal public sphere model that is put forward here takes into account the wide range of communication techniques used by opposing interest groups and coalitions that coalesce to pursue social and political objectives. Political communication and lobbying power and resource advantages are publicly acknowledged, along with how they fit into a larger power and resource environment. It emphasizes political communication elements that are specifically targeted at decision-making, or strong, publics rather than the media and the wider public, recognizing strategic communication.

According to Eriksen and Fossum, a strong public is a sphere of institutionalised deliberation and decision making. They can also be seen as harming democracy by shielding decision-making from public pressures, in contrast to certain discourses that see such publics as enabling democratic deliberation. Mass media, intra-elite communications, and policy making are just a few of the overlapping fields where social interests can concentrate their communication efforts. But the argument holds true across all spheres of communication and socialization, including those of science, religion, and education. A quick scan of the extensive literature on organized interest group politics and collective political action reveals the importance of business, especially major businesses, as key players in public policy debates. Even the literature on the collective action of new social movements, which claims a more fluid conceptualization of political organization, issue contestation, and agenda setting, frequently demonstrates the presence of organized private sector actors be they individual corporations or collective business lobbies in opposition to the demands and agendas of social movements, an example of which is the boycott of the United States by the However, journalism studies have frequently turned a blind eye to these players and their communicative agency.

We can use parts of Habermas's model to achieve our goals of theorizing the function of spin as strategic political communication, emphasizing interpersonal communication and those actors who are the main architects of systematically distorted communication and allowing for questions of strategy and interest. However, it is required to provide an interpretation of the public sphere that moves from a broad framing of the notion to a more concentrated application of the theory to issues of PR and really existing democracy before examining these aspects of political communication. Thus, Habermas' most recent redefinition appears to be a good place to start: Although the public sphere is a social phenomena, it defies the traditional sociological notions of social order and is just as fundamental as action, actor, association, or collectivity. It cannot be thought of as either an organization or an institution. It is not even a set of standards with distinct responsibilities and competencies, rules for membership, etc. It doesn't even remotely resemble a system.

The best way to describe the public sphere is as a network for exchanging ideas and information. The public sphere distinguishes itself through a communicative structure connected to a third characteristic of communicative action: it refers not to the purposes or the contents of everyday communication but rather to the social space created by communicative action. Habermas is rightly highlighting the significance of the networks and interactions of political actors by focusing on the significance of social spaces created through communicative activity. According to Garnham, one benefit of a Habermasian framework for the public sphere is the opportunity it provides to avoid disputes over the relative merits of market and/or state regulation of public discourse. The questions highlighted by Habermas and his detractors, such as What new political institutions and new public sphere might be necessary for the democratic control of a global economy and polity, are in fact urgent at the moment.

Promotional Culture, Spin and Systematically Distorted Communication

The ability to create an open and transparent political system is a key aspect of the idealized public sphere. The democratic demand for publicity is emphasized by Habermas as being essential to a responsible and democratic democracy. The idealized model in this case makes the traditional watchdog function of the press as the fourth estate abundantly plain. As observed through the lens of critical publicity, the communicative practices of persons involved in politics have a significant impact on the accessibility of the political arena and, consequently, its participatory potential. How does Habermas see PR as political communication in this case? It is noted that in class conscious societies, the public presentation of private interests must take on political dimensions; as a result, economic advertisement achieved an awareness of its political character only in the practice of public relations. Initially, public relations is understood as a specialized subsystem of advertising, part of a larger promotional culture.

An understanding of the function of PR, especially its early and persistent deployment by commercial interests, clearly informs the theory of the public realm. On behalf of corporate America, Habermas highlights PR pioneers and observes that PR practices have come to dominate the public sphere in the advanced countries of the West They have become a key phenomenon for the diagnosis of that realm. The idea that the public sphere is governed by force and wealth, as well as the claim that people in the developed west live in generalized public relations societies, highlight the systematic ways that corporations, governments, and interest groups slant discourse to their own ends. This analysis essentially agrees with previous critical historical analyses of the rise of corporate political power.

Corporate PR aims to cover up the narrow, personal interests of influential people. Therefore, the more PR is involved in public affairs, the more likely it is that sophisticated opinion-moulding services under the aegis of a sham public interest will undermine rational-critical debate. As consent coincides with good will evoked by publicity, such actions have significant negative effects on democracy. Publicity used to entail exposing political dominance prior to the application of public reason today, publicity is defined as the responses of an unbiased friendly disposition. Therefore, Habermas views PR as being crucial to the neoliberalization of the public spher. The integration of mass entertainment with advertising, which in the form of public relations already takes a political character, drives political discourse toward the lowest common denominator and subordinates even the state to its code. The state must address its citizens like consumers because private businesses lead their customers to believe that they are acting in their role as citizens when they make purchases. Public power thus engages in publicity competition.

The historical research on the entry of business interests into the realm of public policy is supplemented by this line of analysis. It implies that changing governance to prevent systematically distorted communications from improperly influencing the processes of deliberative democracy is necessary to put liberal democratic theory into practice. The kinds of tangible actions required to provide such conditions for policymaking must, at the very least, be founded in openness and transparency principles. The role of journalism in this model is crucial because it serves as a watchdog, defends and articulates the public interest, and stands in for disorganized publics. The sociologist Pierre Bourdieu views the lobbyist examplea significant and understudied field for communication studiescritically as problematic for the implementation of participatory democracy. The neoliberal vulgate, an economic and political dogma that has been imposed and accepted by all to the point where it seems insurmountable to debate and challenge, was not created by accident.

It is the outcome of extensive and ongoing labor from a sizable intellectual staff that is focused and organized in what are essentially production, distribution, and intervention operations. Undoubtedly, systems of information gathering, assessment, and communication serve as the foundation for such interventions. Opening up both the activities and the associated informational exchanges to democratic accountability systems is the issue. It is evident that this model of the public sphere and political communication does not only apply to developed liberal democracies under the conditions of neoliberal, or corporate-led, globalization. Worldwide, the promotional impulse and its agents are becoming more prevalent. Today, a well-established field of research in political communication studies examines the function of PR in election campaigning. However, academics and detractors are starting to focus on the function of spin in standard corporate communications and governance.

CONCLUSION

As a result, while each has unique responsibilities and dynamics, journalism, public relations, and spin are interwoven components of the media environment. Through unbiased and moral reporting, journalism seeks to educate the public, hold the powerful accountable, and advance the common good. For the benefit of clients or organizations, public relations aims to manage connections and influence public perception. Information is distorted in the name of spin, a manipulative technique used to support an agenda or viewpoint. Public relations and journalism can have a complicated connection because journalists must rely on PR sources while still exercising critical judgment and upholding their independence. Because it erodes accountability and transparency, spin raises

ethical issues. Media literacy and information evaluation are necessary for navigating this environment. For the sake of a well-informed populace and a thriving democratic dialogue, upholding the standards of journalism and using discernment when spinning are essential.

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CHAPTER 19

ALTERNATIVE AND CITIZEN JOURNALISM: REDEFINING NEWS IN THE DIGITAL AGE

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The rise of citizen and alternative journalism has significantly disrupted the media landscape, offering alternative viewpoints, voices, and storylines. This independent, non-mainstream journalism aims to balance dominant narratives and highlight disadvantaged or underrepresented concerns. Citizen journalism involves citizens gathering, reporting, and distributing news and information using digital technologies and social media platforms. It encourages local reporting and diversifies viewpoints. Alternative and citizen journalism play a crucial role in democratizing information flows, supporting media pluralism, and creating a more welcoming public sphere. They focus on investigative reporting, social justice issues, and upending the existing quo. They also serve as watchdogs by providing critical analysis of established news media and contesting established narratives. However, alternative and citizen media face challenges such as scarce resources, questions about legitimacy, and ethical negotiation. Verifying information, ensuring accuracy, and maintaining journalistic standards are crucial in citizen journalism. Financial limitations and a smaller audience than mainstream media may hinder the viability of alternative media sources. In the future, alternative and citizen journalism will significantly contribute to democratic engagement, public conversation, and media variety. However, overcoming issues with credibility, sustainability, and ethics is still crucial for their continued influence.

KEYWORDS:

Amateur, Alternative, Media, Public, Political.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses journalism created by individuals outside of traditional media outlets rather than by professionals. The majority of amateur media creators have little to no formal training or credentials as journalists; instead, they write and report from their perspectives as citizens, members of communities, activists, and fans. This chapter will demonstrate how influential authors in the field have conceptualized the work of these amateur journalists. The chapter divides these pursuits into three groups: citizen journalism and social movement media; fanzines and blogs and local alternative journalism. It looks at the key research to demonstrate how various theoretical and ideological viewpoints have impacted the nature of those studies. Examples will be taken from Atton, Downing, Ford, Gil and Stein, and Rodriguez, which are some of the important texts in the field [1]–[4]. These and other studies' strengths and limitations will be reviewed. Methodological holes will also be noted, such as the virtually total lack of audience research and the absence of any thorough, global comparative studies. Finally, suggestions for further research will be made, particularly for studies that deal with citizen journalism and alternative journalism as professions

and that look at how alternative and traditional news production cultures might be understood in ways that are complementary rather than merely antagonistic.

Definitions and Concepts: Social Movements and Citizens' Media

What distinguishes this journalism from professional sources? What distinguishes it from established, formalized practices? The range of labels used to describe its ideas and activities, such as alternative journalism, citizen journalism, democratic media, and radical media, graphically illustrates the numerous attempts to define and comprehend it. This section will demonstrate how each term embodies a structuring philosophy that makes an argument from a unique and ideological viewpoint. But their amateurism provides a common ground for them [5]–[8]. Three communication-related factors are highlighted by Raymond Williams and serve as the basis for this foundation. According to Williams, the process of skills, capitalization, and controls is the only way to understand public communication thoroughly. James Hamilton contends that we must discuss deprofessionalization, decapitalization, and deinstitutionalization in order to apply this theory to alternative media. In other words, alternative media must be accessible to ordinary people without the need for specialized expertise or high start-up costs, and it must occur outside conventional media institutions or other similar systems.

The practices of decentralized, directly democratic, self-managed, and expansive networks of everyday-life solidarity that Alberto Melucci finds at the core of social movement action could then be more accurately reflected by such media. Similar to how John Downing views radical media, which is created by political activists for political and social change, radical media is the product of social movements. Insofar as media directly alter political consciousness through group effort, this denotes interest in understanding media as radical. The media of these movements, according to Downing and Downing et al., are significant not only for what they say but also for how they are organized. In addition to questioning the political status quo in its news stories and commentary, what Downing refers to as rebellious communication also questions the methods by which it is generated. This viewpoint is similar to Walter Benjamin's contention that it is not sufficient for political propaganda to merely duplicate the radical or revolutionary content of an argument in a publication. The medium itself needs to change; the relationship between the work and the method of production needs to be reevaluated critically. This necessitates not only a radicalization of production techniques but also a reconsideration of what it means to be a media producer [9], [10].

According to Downing, radical media must put their principles into action if their goal is to bring about social or political change. According to Downing et al., he refers to this as prefi gurative politics or the attempt to practice socialist principles in the present, not merely to imagine them for the future. Downing offers a number of alternatives in principle that are based on anarchist thought in order to accomplish this. Due to the multiple realities of social existence oppression, political cultures, and economic situations, he emphasizes the value of promoting contributions from as many interested parties as possible. As a result, radical media start to play a significant role in an alternative public sphere, or, as the variety of initiatives shows, multiple alternative public spheres. Indymedia, a global news organization based on the Internet, can be seen as a multiplicity of local alternative public spheres that collectively make up a 'macro' public sphere which offers geographically dispersed participants opportunities to debate issues and events and to collaborate on activist initiatives of a global reach.

Media created by amateurs or by organizations primarily dedicated to progressive social change are given preference by Downing. He uses a very diverse spectrum of styles that span two centuries of political engagement. While the most in-depth examples come from leftist newspapers and radio in Italy and Portugal as well as American access radio, there is also mention of British political cartoons from the 18th and 19th centuries, German labor songs from the late 19th and early 20th centuries, and African American public festivals from the 19th century. For their radical techniques and messages, woodcuts, flyers, photomontage, posters, murals, street theater, and graffiti are all discussed.

Clemencia Rodriguez makes the same case as Downing that independent media allow ordinary persons to gain political power. According to her, people are better able to represent themselves and their communities when they produce their own media. These citizens' media are initiatives for self-education, in her opinion. She specifically references Chantal Mouffe's idea of radical democracy as well as Paulo Freire's theories of conscientization and critical pedagogy. Both Rodriguez and Downing contend that alternative media play more than just a counter-informational function. A specific definition of citizens according to Rodriguez is someone who actively participates in actions that reshape their own identities, the identities of others, and their social environment, through which they produce power.

Downing and Rodriguez show how these actions might establish neighborhood public spheres that are enlightened. Forde, Foxwell, and Meadows make a similar argument in their study of Australian community broadcasting, suggesting that we should view alternative journalism as a process of cultural empowerment content production is not necessarily the prime purpose and what may be as or more important are the ways in which community media outlets facilitate the process of community organization. Such actions, according to Carroll and Hackett, are a refl exive form of activism that treats communication as simultaneously means and ends of struggle. This explains the development of identity individual or collective, counterpublics, and the targeting of larger audiences. However, they do agree that media activists are especially prone to 'getting stuck' at the fi rst stage with its own inherent satisfactions. What can we infer about journalism from these studies? The methods and goals of many of the media initiatives examined by Downing and Rodriguez appear to be so dissimilar from those of traditional journalism as to be unrecognisable. In terms of journalism technique, we learn very little about these projects.

What actions do participants take? What is their method? How do they acquire their techniques? Do they even regard themselves as reporters? Hamilton is correct to claim that amateur media creation is not dependent on formal education, significant financial investment, or a institution, but this does not mean that amateur journalism practices will automatically develop into the independent, free spaces envisioned by Melucci. The usage of amateur media is always ingrained in routine activities; as a result, it is already situated in larger political, economic, social, and cultural settings. Because of this, I refer to these techniques as alternative media and alternative journalism. Alternative serves as a comparative term to denote that whether indirectly or directly, media power is what is at stake, according to Nick Couldry and James Curran.

DISCUSSION

Alternative Journalism and Media Power

For examples of how naturalized media frameworks and ideological norms may be broken, we can look at amateur media practices. According to Nick Couldry, alternative media initiatives lead to

the de-naturalization of media spaces, inspiring aspiring media creators to balance the media's varying levels of power and take into account how the media themselves are a social process organized in space. According to Pierre Bourdieu, the ability to create reality through symbols is symbolic power. Alternative media create a reality that seems to contradict the norms and images of the mainstream media. Participatory, amateur media production challenges the media's monopoly on developing symbolic forms as well as the concentration of institutional and professional media power. Speaking of alternative media and journalism, then, is acknowledging the connection between mainstream, professionalized media activities and fringe, amateur ones. They are competing with one another for the position of media powe. In addition to embracing media techniques for the sake of self-education and community empowerment, alternative journalistic methods offer ways to reimagine journalism. Through their very acknowledgment of those activities, they provide a threat to professional standards.

Adopting the term alternative journalism has another benefit. Amateur journalism is no longer only considered to be political endeavors with the goals of radical organizing, social movements, and elevating individual or societal consciousness. In my own work, I've tried to investigate the ramifications of amateur journalism, which is both a more narrowly focused and enlarged definition of amateur media. I contend that any model of alternative media should take into account both processes and products, while keeping in mind any specific social relations that may develop through amateur media production it should view media content as journalism, rather than just as accounts of self-refl exivity. Not only may social interactions be changed via organization, but also the media forms themselves. Additionally, concepts like professionalism, competence, and expertise may change. Therefore, alternative journalism may include cultural journalism, such that seen in fanzines, as well as journalism that is published by individuals rather than communities and movements. But what occurs when regular people create their own media? What characteristics distinguish alternative journalism? I investigate this subject in the next section by looking at significant research in three fields: fanzines, blogs, and local alternative journalism. Together, they demonstrate the nature of the problems that alternative journalism poses for traditional journalism.

Characteristics and Challenges of Alternative Journalism

Local alternative journalism studies will always depend on specific geographic and demographic circumstances. They must be adaptable to particular social and cultural environments. Given the limitations of the theories outlined previously, such empirical research can offer important insights into the practice of journalisminsights that may be overlooked if radical citizenship and self-empowerment are overemphasized. In general, official sources are used by the commercial press as expert comments on news events and issues as well as representatives for organizations and institutions. According to a hierarchy of media access, persons who lack the social and political clout necessary to be considered deserving of accreditation as sources are frequently marginalized. These ordinary people are frequently employed as vox pop interview subjects and their perspectives are sought for human interest topics in mainstream media. On the other hand, the neighborhood alternative press actively seeks out these individuals as reliable sources.

This questions more than just common sourcing techniques. It is morally right to place local community voices at the forefront of journalism. In addition to elevating these voices from below to the top of the hierarchy of access, this choice recognizes regular people as authorities on their own lives and experiences. The commercial local press already asserts the importance of the local

community. Examples of this can be found all throughout the world. The importance of participatory media production in highlighting the rights of workers in a politically marginalized region of a country is highlighted by a study of the Bolivian miners' radio stations that operated from 1963 to 1983 but which fi rst appeared in 1952, the year of the National Revolution. Similar to this, the Movement of Popular Correspondents, which emerged in post-revolutionary Nicaragua in the 1980s and 1990s, published non-professional, volunteer reports from underdeveloped rural areas alongside those of professional journalists in local and national newspapers.

The Revolutionary Association of the Women of Afghanistan produced audio cassettes, movies, a website, and a magazine to document the mistreatment and killing of women under the Taliban's authority. These were made and circulated covertly by Afghan women, who, for instance, secretly filmed abuse camera footage. On its website, the South Korean news outlet OhmyNEWS has chosen a mixed strategy. Although its editorial office is operated by a small professional staff, the site, which was founded in 2000, depends on the contributions of its network of hundreds of citizen journalists. An alternative public realm, where agendas are formed and dialogue is developed through the journalism of social movements and communities, might be seen of as being provided by participatory media production. Downing makes the case in his study of the German anti-nuclear media of the 1980s that these outlets, together with bookstores, bars, coffee-shops, restaurants, food-stores, are forums where a different public sphere of discussion and debate may develop. The author places special emphasis on social movement media that foster activity, movement, and exchange an autonomous sphere in which experiences, critiques, and alternatives could be freely developed.

Similar to this, Jakubowicz applies the idea of the public realm to a vision of communication and media that is more inclusive. In his analysis of Poland in the 1980s, he distinguishes between an oppositional public sphere and an alternative public sphere. Alternative refers to the activities of the Polish Roman Catholic Church, as well as its journals and periodicals, whilst oppositional refers to the samizdat publications of the Solidarity movement. These organizations collaborated to oppose the Soviet-backed government of the time. It is demonstrated by Mathes and Pfetsch how alternative news agendas can permeate mainstream media. In their investigation of counter-issues from the middle of the 1980s in the former West Germany, they discovered a significant intermedia effect: the mainstream liberal press in West Germany frequently adopted the alternative press's perspective on the issue as well as its focus. Die Tageszeitung, a widely circulated alternative daily newspaper established in 1978, played a crucial role in this process. By the middle of the 1980s, taz had a much wider audience than any alternative public sphere: notable intellectuals and several mainstream journalists read it. It specifically aimed to initiate a multiplier effect by bringing attention to issues that were being ignored by the media and actively promoting them in forums outside of the activist left.

This mindset has two journalistic effects it makes many stories novel and gives sources the chance to start their own publications. First, Harcup demonstrates that many stories in the regional alternative press are exclusive to that outlet. Because the alternative press has access to such a wide range of expertise, stories frequently develop. These specialists could be employees of factories, farms, or shops, elderly, mothers who work outside the home, junior government officials, or schoolchildren. This mix of sources can frequently avoid the event-driven patterns of mainstream news techniques while also offering leads for stories: While mainstream media tended to notice health and safety stories only when there was a disaster, Leeds Other Paper revealed potential health concerns before even the workers or their trade unions were aware of them. Going

beyond the traditional beats of the local press such as the emergency services, the courts, and local council meetings in order to prioritize causes above occurrences is what is referred to as investigative journalism from the grassroor. The second effect of this approach to reporting that is socially inclusive is that ordinary sources are frequently turned into writers. According to Atton, such journalism not only finds common cause with its community through advocacy its explicit connections with the public sphere of that community serve as its justification for seeking among that community for its news sources.

These outcomes could be utilized to develop a theory in the investigation of alternative journalism. Alternative journalism acknowledges what may be accomplished by questioning the procedures and norms of conventional and expert methods. It may very well establish a network of native reporters as a result of its inclusive ethos. To broaden the editorial group beyond the left-leaning political activists who frequently seem to be the initiatives' initiators, this is being done. Editorial diversity promotes organizational diversity because Downing's prescriptive politics are frequently practiced in non-hierarchical, collaborative editorial groups. However, these techniques frequently operate at the expense of effectiveness. Editorial text may be contested for so long that editions may be postponed and some reports may never be published owing to lack of agreement. Comedia and Landry, Morley, Southwood, and Wright argue that these methods, however progressive they may be, can only hurt the alternative press because they are adopted for ideological, rather than for instrumental, ends. This is an explicit echo of Jo Freeman's classic critique of structurelessness in the women's movement. However, all organizations experience issues from time to time. For instance, blogs are typically run by a single person, at least when they are amateur. Fanzines are also frequently run by individuals. Either they are edited by a single person or, as is frequently the case, they are authored wholly by a single person.

Fanzines: Alternative Cultural Journalism

The fanzine and popular cultural journalism, its professional equivalent, have many similarities. For instance, the amateur, underground press of the late 1960s served as the foundation for the popular music press in the UK and the US rather than professionalized journalism. The amateur writer who is a fan and the professional writer who is a fan have a lot in common. This reveals a lot about the expert culture of popular musical criticism, where expertise and authority derive primarily from amateur enthusiasm and autodidactic learning rather than formal, academic, or professional training. Critics of popular forms need know nothing about such forms except as consumers their skill is to be able to write about ordinary experience, claims Simon Frith. We can observe the ordinary voice being given preference once more. However, unlike the alternative local press, fanzines and their online counterparts, ezines, prefer to self-select these common voices rather than actively seek them out.

Fanzine journalism and its professionalized equivalent both have a consumer-based point of view. That doesn't mean that the two forms are interchangeable. Fanzines frequently appear as a result of mainstream journalism ignoring the subjects of their research, which may include popular culture such as football, film, comic books, television shows, and music. This could be as a result of the novelty of the artist or genr. Fanzines frequently highlight new and developing cultural activities. Fanzines also go against the grain of critical orthodoxy they may be created because their authors feel that their culture is underrepresented or neglected by popular culture. Fanzines and ezines thus develop into cultural fora for the exchange and circulation of knowledge and the building of a cultural community. The sharing of this knowledge within an inclusive community

fosters the growth of knowledge and cultural capital. Such an expert knowledge demonstration may cast doubt on established ideas of expert authority.

Fanzines, as opposed to the local alternative press, provide chances to establish, sustain, and grow taste communities internationally. They are less interested in connecting with larger audiences and would rather develop and solidify a niche audience. Similar techniques to those used by mainstream culture journalism, such as interviews and reviews or match reports in the case of football fanzines, are frequently used by this group. However, compared to the capsule evaluations that are increasingly widespread in newspapers and specialized, commercial periodicals, fanzine writers typically write at a far longer length. Publishing many stories of the same event or product can sometimes result in a kaleidoscope approach, especially in ezines. A music fanzine's authority and reliability will frequently allow it to conduct interviews with artists without the assistance of public relations specialists. The process of gathering news is different. Fanzines frequently have unpredictable publication schedules, which makes it difficult to disclose breaking news on time.

Three common ways to news are identified in my own study of football fanzines tales replicated verbatim from professional news media, stories summarized from the professional media, and original journalism. The latter were uncommon and frequently included in interviews. Hard news was typically supplied from for-profit news outlets. There was no indication of original, investigative reporting, in contrast to local alternative journalism. Instead, the fanzines mostly consulted press releases from the football clubs as well as local and national mainstream media. There wasn't much proof that an agenda was being set. However, the absence of original news reporting is not necessarily a flaw. Public communication is getting more redacted, as John Hartley notes, particularly as a result of the growth of news outlets on the Internet. The news digests published by football fanzines may be of particular interest to the specialist readership. These digests serve as a backdrop for the main purpose of the fanzine, which is to give expert, amateur criticism and opinion based on the gathering and presentation of comprehensive data.

CONCLUSION

As a result of giving alternative viewpoints, advancing media diversity, and upending established narratives, alternative and citizen journalism have become significant elements of the media landscape. They present chances for underrepresented perspectives, citizen reporting, and critical analysis. Alternative and citizen journalism may confront difficulties with funding, credibility, and viability, yet they have a big impact on media diversity and democratic participation. These types of journalism can contribute even more to a more inclusive, informed, and democratic public sphere if their importance is acknowledged, media literacy is promoted, and responsible practices are encouraged.

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CHAPTER 20

JOURNALISM LAW AND REGULATION: EXPORING LEGAL BOUNDARIES IN MEDIA

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalism law encompasses legal frameworks and rules that control journalistic practice, journalists' rights, and the interaction of the media with society. It recognizes the fundamental right to freedom of expression, ensuring journalists' freedom to gather, analyze, and transmit information without interference. Journalists' ethical principles and professional standards, such as accuracy, fairness, impartiality, privacy protection, and avoiding conflicts of interest, are often reinforced or enforced by legal frameworks like defamation laws or privacy restrictions. Laws and regulations also address issues of media ownership concentration and support media pluralism, ensuring diverse viewpoints and avoiding excessive influence on public opinion. Source confidentiality and whistleblower protection are crucial in investigative journalism and exposing corruption, misconduct, or power abuses. Defamation and libel laws set boundaries for acceptable forms of expression, requiring reporters to use prudence and ensure their statements are true and impartial. Media regulation, which regulates and scrutinizes the media sector, includes media ownership transparency, hate speech, licensing, content standards, and incitement. The objective is to strike a balance between media independence, public interest, and society norms. Journalism law faces challenges in adapting to the rapidly changing media ecosystem, including digital platforms, social media, and citizen journalism. Continuous concerns include balancing freedom of expression and ethical reporting, dealing with internet misinformation, preserving privacy, and preserving media independence.

KEYWORDS:

American, Freedom, Laws, Media, Press.

INTRODUCTION

The focus of journalism law, also referred to as media law or mass communication law, is press freedom. What exactly is press? What qualifies as free or unfree press? What function should or must press freedom serve? The government uses these and related issues as a guide when defining the limits of journalism law. Journalism law has been influenced over time by the press's effects on people, society, or politics. Additionally, a fascinating new component has been brought to the mix by new media technologies. What's the next step for us? In order to better comprehend the field of journalism law as it is and as it should be, it is crucial at this point to examine studies on the subject from an international and comparative law perspective [1]–[4]. Press freedom is typically considered in connection with speech freedom. As a result, according to Barendt, the theoretical underpinnings of journalism law frequently merge with those of free speech. Nevertheless, freedom of the press differs from freedom of expression. In the former, institutional press freedom from government control is discussed, but in the latter, individual freedom to speak

and publish without interference from the State is meant. As a result, press freedom has typically been examined from an institutional perspective.

Journalistic freedom, which centers on journalists' independence from the owners and editors of their news outlet, can be distinguished from press freedom as an institutional idea. Though some scholars call for legal restrictions to defend the independence of working journalists from media owners, few libertarian press regimes recognize journalistic freedom as such. Every nation, whether it is under common or civil law, has its own set of laws governing journalists [5]–[8]. When comparing press freedom to conflicting values, the sources and goals of these media laws reflect the political and sociocultural value judgments of each culture. While some nations choose to enact direct press restrictions, others opt for indirect press rules. Those laws might or might not be a result of the constitution's guarantee of a free press. Whatever the case, a nation's media laws depend less on a unique press act or a constitutional guarantee than they do on the political philosophy that guides them. Journalism legislation may vary depending on a free press's tradition, culture, and norms.

Not surprisingly, while discussing press laws in France and Germany in the late 19th century, the writers of an early journalism law book stated In each country it is not so much the law itself as its implementation that is complained of. The fundamental tenet of journalistic freedomthe freedom from prior restraintremains uncontested. The situation of journalism law is the same as that of other laws; it is flux. Indeed, the practice and organization of journalismas in reporting, editing, and presenting newsare evolving. Anyone with a computer may now connect in real time with a possible worldwide audience thanks to the Internet revolution in communication. Bloggers and citizen journalists' new journalism contests old journalism's rules. Technology is just one aspect of how journalism law is changing. It is linked to the media law's increased globalization. Press freedom is now better understood using the context of international and comparative law. But developing a transcultural media law paradigm is still a theoretical issue. Is media law so nation-specific that its applicability to other nations has little meaning? Or, would their regional distinctions mostly not matter because media law and structures especially in increasingly international or global societies are so much a part of a transnational whole.

It appears that US media legislation is still applicable to foreign nations. This is due to the exceptionally extensive American experience with the freedom of speech and the press as a right, not necessarily because it is superior to other laws. But in the future, it's conceivable that American law won't be as relevant to the rest of the globe. In general, there's good reason to suspect that national media law will continue to deteriorate, substantive transnational media law will expand, and such expansion will fundamentally challenge the approaches to freedom of expression that have been pursued in the U.S. for over 200 years, according to US telecommunication policy scholar Herbert Terry's assessment in August 2007 [9], [10]. Let's move on to a consideration of the historical background of journalism law, the effect of the law on research, methodological concerns, journalism law as a research discipline, and critical issues of journalism law with these ideas in mind.

Historical Context: Scholarly and Professional Interest

Journalism professor Charles Marler noted the significance of the study of the First Amendment in the United States. First Amendment studiesbecause of man's innate propensity to try to control unfavorable news, criticism, and dissentmade the legistsscholars who developed specialized knowledge in the lawone of the most dynamic categories of journalism educators in the 20th

century. However, compared to other legal specialties, journalism law is a relatively recent field of study for academics and practitioners of journalism and mass media in the United States. The development of mass communication legislation in America during the late 19th and early 20th centuries paralleled the development of journalism education. James Paterson's 1880 book Liberty of the Press, Speech, and Public Worship was the first to specifically address press freedom. It was followed by Joseph Fisher and James Strahan's The Law of the Press in 1891 and Samuel Merrill's Newspaper Libel in 1888. The proliferation of newspapers and the development of yellow journalism led to the publication of Paterson's, Fisher and Strahan's, and Swindler's works in England, which helped a defi nite concept of journalistic law.

Only a few pamphlets and one or two short volumes, mostlyif not entirelydedicated to the law of libel, have been specifically written by American legal writers in the field of journalism. More thorough and scholarly than any American work is a Paterson volume in English titled Liberty of the Press, Speech, and Public Worship, but it was published in 1880 and is now practically impossible to find. Additionally, it is not modified for American requirements today. Many legal academics had a significant role in building the theoretical and conceptual framework of press freedom, mostly because freedom of the press, the main emphasis of Anglo-American media law, had long been part of free speech jurisprudence. Zechariah Chafee, a Harvard law professor, wrote Freedom of Speech in Wartime, an article in 1919, which he extended into his influential but divisive book, Freedom of Speech. His magnificent study of press-government interactions conducted in 1947 while serving as a member of the Hutchins Commission on Freedom of the Press is equally significant.

Other academics who are not journalists have made significant contributions to the literature on media law by rethinking the First Amendment's press provision and theorizing the right to free expression. For instance, philosopher Alexander Meiklejohn proposed that while non-political communication is subject to regulation, political speech must be completely protected by the First Amendment. However, it is unclear how the Meiklejohnian paradigm of protected versus unprotected speech would apply to the commercial media. The provocatively revisionist Legacy of Suppression by historian Leonard Levy, published in 1960, questioned the then-common understanding that the First Amendment forbade seditious libel explicitly. Journalism law did not become a distinct main subject in journalism, mass communication, or legal practice until the late 1960s and early 1970s. In American journalistic law for education, the contemporary period began in 1960. With a mass new constitutional law in hand, and more to come, wrote Marler of the contemporary era of journalism law, the new legists' assigned themselves the research, writing, and tutorial burden to prepare media practitioners and their own successors to interpret and use properly the new dimensions of media law.

A new case law book, Mass Communication Law, was published in 1969 by George Washington University law professor Jerome Barron and University of Minnesota journalism professor Donald Gillmor. Law of Mass Communications was written in the same year by journalism professors Harold Nelson and Dwight Teeter at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. The two publications were released at a time when media law textbooks and reference materials were needed for the disciplines of journalism and mass communication. During his tenure as editor of Journalism Quarterly, the top academic publication for journalism educators in the United States, from 1973 to 1989, Guido Stempel III noted an increase in media law research and attributed it in part to the use of computer databases like Westlaw and Lexis as well as to the doctoral programs at Minnesota, Southern Illinois, and Wisconsin. The establishment of Media Law Reporter as a

weekly loose-leaf service in January 1977 may have been the turning point in journalism and media law for American academics and practitioners. The goal of Media Law Reporter was to address the growing demand from professionals in the fields of education, journalism, and law for timely reporting on significant court judgments that have an impact on the media. The American communication law bar considers it to be virtually required reading and that it is still the most comprehensive court report on US mass communication law.

DISCUSSION

Law and It's Impact on Research

The Zenger case from 1735 in colonial America is one of many court rulings on press freedom that served as the foundation for modern American media law. Americans demanded a Bill of Rights with a guarantee of press freedom after the Zenger case created a precedent. William Blackstone, an English judge who lived in the 18th century, defined press freedom as the absence of prior constraint . His definition is equally important today. The landmark US Supreme Court case Near Minnesota, which for the first time in American history addressed prior restraint as a First Amendment issue, marked the beginning of the more organized development of journalism law for research in the United States. Although contempt of court and copyright were also covered, libel dominated research and instruction in the early stages of journalism law. For instance, Hale's book from 1923, which also covered privacy, news gathering, and advertising, was almost entirely devoted to libel law.

Scholarly research on journalistic law was typically more descriptive than prescriptive. However, The Right to Privacy, an article by Samuel Warren and Louis Brandeis published in a law review in 1890, stands out as an exception. The law of privacy was established by the two Boston lawyers who advocated invasion of privacy as a brand-new tort in their essay. Its implications for practice and theory go beyond US law. International and foreign law are also starting to more frequently recognize privacy as a right. Prior restraint is one of the more common concerns in journalism law that continues to get interest from academics. The following is an example from Thomas Emerson's examination of the prior restraint doctrine in free speech law at Yale Law School. Governmental limits on speech or other forms of expression cannot be placed before they are published. It makes no mention of the issue of whether or not expression-related offenses can result in further sanctions. Thus, the concept only addresses restrictions on the style of governmental control over expression. The communication cannot be prohibited in advance through a system of prior restraint, even if it is punishable later or can otherwise be regulated.

Significantly, the traditional American legal notion of press freedom as a negative idea has been questioned. Jerome Barron, a law professor at George Washington University, proposed that press freedom be added to the list of rights protected by the First Amendment in 1967. Regarding his original First Amendment view, Barron recalled stating that Private censorship can be as oppressive and pervasive as public censorship. But I didn't just want to draw attention to how media concentration and technology have made the potential of private barriers to expression a terrifying reality. To address the reality of private censorship, I wanted the law to act. The US Supreme Court disagreed with Barron's claim regarding access rights. International and foreign law accommodates the public's right to participate in the media through the right of reply, in contrast to American law where access to the media is essentially nonexistent, with the exception of political candidates. An international agreement that includes a right of reply is the UN Convention on the International Right of Correction. The right of rectification, which was inspired

by French law, was created to provide officials, not private citizens, this authority. The UN Convention has been ratified by more than 20 countries as of this writing.

The American Convention on Human Rights and the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) are two regional human rights accords that acknowledge the right to reply. The European Union and the Council of Europe have enacted a number of treaties and resolutions on the right of reply that are applicable to both domestic and international broadcasting since 1974. Most lately, genuine accusations made online have been included in the right of reply. Individually and together, the experiences of European nations with the right of reply appear to demonstrate that the right of reply and freedom of expression are not inherently at opposition. The right to react differs from nation to nation. A small number of nations expressly guarantee it as a fundamental right, while many more treat it as a matter of statute. The two most important nations that favor the right to reply are France and Germany. They meant for it to allow the slandered to answer to the slanderer, the news media, when France and Germany made the right of reply a legal requirement in the nineteenth century and other nations followed them throughout the first half of the 20th century. Reputation and related personal interests continue to be a major factor in upholding the right of reply in many of those countries in Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America with right of reply laws.

The US Supreme Court has had at least as much of an impact on journalism law over the past 40 years as it did in prior times. The Court has put press freedom constitutional law into practice, fine-tuned it, and done all of this simultaneously. Prior restraint, the journalist's privilege, burning the source , the fairness doctrine, the right of reply, advertising, copyright, freedom of the student press, freedom of information, obscenity, indecent broadcasting, cable regulation, and Internet communication are just a few of the numerous media law issues that the Court has addressed since 1969. Commercial speech is one of the most significant recent developments in US media law. The US Supreme Court approved the commercial speech First Amendment exemption in the early 1940s, but it was later rejected in the middle of the 1970s. Most importantly, Virginia State Board of Pharmacy v. Virginia Citizens Consumer Council, 425 U.S. 748, 1976 marked the Supreme Court's change of heart regarding the doctrine of commercial speech, which was based on the consumer's right to the free flow of information even though the information was purely commercial advertising.

The right to information is commonly acknowledged as being integral to the freedom of speech and the press. Only a few journalists frequently employ freedom of information (FOI) laws for their job in the United States, nevertheless. Systematic investigation as a case study is urgently needed due to the discrepancy between the high theory behind FOI legislation and their actual use in the United States. In addition, a comparative analysis of the discrepancy between theory and practice for journalism under FOI legislation is warranted. Furthermore, the extensive use of the US federal FOI Act by foreigners has received little notice. Consequently, it presents opportunity for researchqualitative or quantitative. Sunshine laws regarding government meetings are scarce, in contrast to freedom of information, which is recognized as a right in approximately 70 nations. With regard to open meetings regulations since 1976, the United States appears to be the lone exception. The general indifference toward the public's right to attend meetings of governmental agencies among journalists, attorneys, and parliamentarians is the rule rather than the exception. Students of journalism law and experts should try to explain why sunlight laws aren't being taken seriously everywhere.

There are several difficulties facing journalism law as a result of the globalization of the media. These difficulties are increasingly being recognized by academics and media attorneys. The media and entertainment industries have genuinely gone global, as highlighted by law professor and Journal of International Media and Entertainment Law supervising editor David Kohler. Companies that once sourced the majority of their revenue from the United States now rely heavily on foreign markets for expansion. Lawyers defending media and entertainment firms now have to deal with the legal systems of numerous other countries where their clients' products are sold in addition to the U.S. Through modern technologies that enable seamless distribution across geographic borders, even goods intended primarily for domestic consumption may find their way abroad. The US Supreme Court has not yet directly addressed media law, including issues of choice of law, jurisdiction, and the enforcement of decisions from foreign courts. When American media outlets are sued abroad for defamation and other reasons, several lower courts have ruled on the First Amendment rights of those organizations. The Internet era is expected to bring up these still novel media law concerns frequently, which forces academics and practitioners of journalism to comprehend the basic moral engine that drives each nation's media laws.

On specialized media law themes, several treatises have been published. It is not surprising that book-length monographs have focused on privacy and libel. The first version of Peter Carter-Ruck's book Carter-Ruck on Libel and Slander, which analyzes the domestic legislation of more than 60 nations as well as international law on defamation, was published in 1952 and has remained in print ever since. International Privacy, Publicity, and Personality Laws, which describes the privacy laws in 29 jurisdictions, including Hong Kong, is also important. The International Libel & Privacy Handbook by Charles Glasser, general counsel of Bloomberg News, is a valuable contribution to the body of work on this topic. The book examines 19 jurisdictions when addressing libel, privacy, and related issues, even though it uses American law as its analytical framework.

Books on media law that are country-specific are becoming more common outside of Anglo-American and European nations. The Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) in Singapore should be commended in this regard. Since the early 1990s, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Thailand have all had English-language media law texts produced by AMIC. In Southeast and South Asia, there has been a constant call for a review of existing media laws and for press accountability and professionalism, and the AMIC Asian media law series was created in response to that call. Since the middle of the 1990s, a number of legal and journalism scholars have released books on media law regarding their respective nations. China, Hong Kong, and South Korea were among the nations whose press laws were popular book topics. Even Nevertheless, there is a growing demand for research on national media laws because it will probably be a valuable resource for people who are interested in international and comparative law.

International law, which consists of different international and regional covenants and treaties, is also becoming more and more significant to journalism researchers. The American Convention on Human Rights, the European Convention on Human Rights, and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights are a few examples of international and regional agreements that have an impact on press freedom. The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights and the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works both significantly affect press freedom in the United States and other countries.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, maintaining freedom of expression, safeguarding journalistic integrity, and upholding a responsible and accountable media environment depend on the interaction between journalism, law, and regulation. A legal framework that balances the rights and obligations of journalists, solves problems like media ownership concentration and defamation, and safeguards the privacy of sources and whistleblowers is provided by journalism laws and regulations. However, the constantly changing media environment and difficulties presented by digital platforms necessitate adaptation and consideration of new problems such online misinformation and privacy concerns. To maintain the health of journalism and its function in democratic nations, it is still essential to strike a balance between media freedom and public interests.

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CHAPTER 21

JOURNALISM ETHICS: MAINTAINING MEDIA INTEGRITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

Dr.R.L.Meena, Asstt.Professor
SOAS, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-r.l.meena@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
Journalism ethics are the principles and values that guide journalists' professional behavior. They promote honesty, respectability, truth, honesty, fairness, impartiality, accountability, and transparency, fostering public trust and confidence in the media. Journalists must report facts honestly, ensuring accuracy through fact-checking, corroboration, and error correction. They must also be fair and impartial, avoiding conflicts of interest and bias. Journalists must act in the public interest, function as watchdogs, and hold powerful figures accountable. Privacy and sensitivity are crucial aspects of ethical journalism, as they balance the public's right to know with the obligation to reduce harm and prevent intrusion. In the digital age, journalists face ethical challenges such as using social media, fending off fake news, and ensuring appropriate user-generated content use. Codes and guidelines provide a framework for moral judgment and guide journalists through challenging moral conundrums. Ethical journalism requires constant thought, dialogue, and adaptation to changing media environments and cultural standards. To maintain public trust and integrity in reporting, journalists and news organizations must continuously assess and uphold ethical standards.

KEYWORDS:

Ethics, Journalism, Press, Social, Theory.

INTRODUCTION

The principles of responsible journalism, or journalistic ethics, date back to the seventeenth century, when modern journalism first emerged in Europe. This chapter traces the development of modern journalism ethics, examines and critiques key paradigms, and makes recommendations for further research. The chapter starts with a perspective on ethics as a practical normative activity with the goal of resolving issues, integrating ideals, and assisting people in leading moral lives, both as individuals and as societies. A type of applied ethics known as journalism ethics is defined as an investigation into the proper conduct for journalists and news organizations in light of their social obligations. Editorial independence, verification, anonymous sources, the use of graphic or changed images, and standards for new forms of media are the key areas of contention [1]–[4]. The chapter identifies four current methods to the study of journalism ethics as well as five stages in the evolution of journalism ethics. First, in the seventeenth century, ethical speech for journalism was developed.

The Fourth Estate, or the expanding newspaper press, of the Enlightenment public realm, had a public ethics as its creed. Third, during the nineteenth century, the liberal press doctrine. Fourth, this liberal concept was developed and criticized during the 20th century, leading to an alternative

ethics for interpretive and activist journalism as well as a professional ethics of objective journalism supported by social responsibility theory. Fifth, there is a lack of agreement in today's mixed media ethics regarding the rules that apply to all forms of media. Four strategies are explained using these stages: Liberal theory is the first, followed by theories of objectivity and social responsibility, interpretive theory, and an ethics of community and caring [5]–[8]. The chapter then examines critiques of contemporary methods from a variety of academic fields, including sociology of culture and critical and post-colonial theory. The chapter finishes by stating that a fundamental rethinking of journalistic ethics is necessary in light of the recent media revolution and these new challenges. For the multi-platform, international journalism of the present and the future, journalism ethics requires a more robust theoretical foundation, a more suitable epistemology, and new standards [9], [10].

Journalism Ethics

In light of the finest principles available, ethics is the analysis, assessment, and advocacy of what constitutes right behavior and virtuous character. Ethics asks more than just how should I live? It poses the question of how we should live morally upright lives, that is, in kindness and right relationship with one another, a task that can necessitate giving up personal benefits, performing tasks, or facing persecution. According to Ward, ethical reasoning is the process through which people evaluate, weigh, and adapt their principles in light of evolving knowledge, technological advancements, and societal changes. The limits of ethics shift. Animal cruelty, aggression against women, the environment, and gay rights are now included in the definition of ethics. The normative basis for social behavior is ethical reflection. The never-ending task of developing, putting into practice, and evaluating the moral principles that govern interpersonal relations, define social roles, and support institutional structures is known as ethics.

As a result, ethics, particularly in journalism, is primarily a practical endeavor that looks for justifications for decisions regarding how to behave. Is it moral for journalists to give police access to their private sources? Is it moral to pry into a politician's personal life to look into allegations of wrongdoing? The theoretical study of the ideas and justification techniques that offer moral justifications for behavior is included in the field of ethics. However, there is also a practical goal at play here: to make ethical judgements more well-informed through improving deliberation and clarifying guiding principles. We are reassured that the problems we have followed into the clouds are, even intellectually, genuine not spurious by an emphasis on the practical in ethics.

Journalism Ethics as Applied

According to Dimock and Tucker, applied ethics is the study of frameworks of values for areas of action like corporate governance, academic research, and professional practice. A subset of applied media ethics called journalism ethics looks into both the macro issues of what news organizations should do given their social responsibility and the micro issues of what certain journalists should do in specific circumstances. Because they are people who must adhere to general ethical principles like telling the truth and causing the least amount of harm, as well as because they are professionals with the social power to shape the political agenda and influence public opinion, journalists have rights, duties, and norms as members of news organization.

Therefore, if an issue regarding journalism examines behaviour in light of the fundamental public aims and social obligations of journalism, it is an ethical question as opposed to a question of wisdom, custom, or law. A narrative that sensationalizes the private life of a public figure may be

ethically wrong because it is untrue and unfair, even though it is technically safe to print. But there isn't always a conflict between ethical ideals and other kinds of values. An ethical story can be well-written, lawful, and career-enhancing. What one considers to be an ethical issue in journalism ultimately relies on how one views the fundamental goals of journalism and the values that support those goals. As a result, there is opportunity for disagreement on the level of theory and principle as well as on the level of practice and the application of norms.

Problem Areas

Determining how current norms relate to the most important ethical issues of the day is a key duty of journalism ethics. How much context and verification are necessary for a story to be published? How much gate-keeping and editing is required? How can journalists maintain their independence while also maintaining moral relationships with their employers, editors, sponsors, sources, law enforcement, and the general public? When is a journalist in a conflict of interest or too close to a source? Should journalists fabricate stories or utilize recording equipment like hidden cameras to capture them? Should literary journalists make up their own characters or construct dialogue?• Image manipulation and graphic imagery: When should journalists use grisly or graphic imagery? When do published images amount to exploitation or sensationalism? When should images be changed, and how?

1. **Source Confidentiality:** Should journalists guarantee source confidentiality? How much protection does that provide? Should reporters speak off-the-record?
2. **Particular Circumstances:** How should media cover hostage situations, significant breaking news, suicide attempts, and other incidents where coverage can make the situation worse? When should reporters breach someone's privacy?
3. **Ethics Across Media:** Do the standards of traditional print and broadcast journalism hold true for online journalism? To roving reporters?

DISCUSSION

Main Approaches

There are five distinct stages in the development of journalism ethics. The first phase of journalism's development was the creation of an ethical discourse throughout the sixteenth and seventeenth century in Western Europe. Printer-editors were created by Gutenberg's press in the middle of the fifteenth century. He founded a state-controlled, periodic news media composed of newssheets and newsbooks. Editors promised readers that they presented the unbiased truth based on matters of fact notwithstanding the archaic methods of their news gathering and the politicized tenor of their times. The development of a public ethic as the tenet for the burgeoning newspaper press of the Enlightenment public sphere was the second stage. Journalists asserted that they served as the people's tribunes, defending their freedom against the government. They supported change, then ultimately revolution. The press was a power to be praised or feared by the end of the eighteenth century, and the post-revolutionary constitutions of America and France included guarantees of freedom. The Fourth Estate conceptthe press as one of society's governing institutionswas based on this civic ethic.

The development of the Fourth Estate concept into the liberal philosophy of the press during the nineteenth century was the third stage. The foundation of liberal philosophy was the idea that a free and independent press was essential for safeguarding individual liberties and advancing liberal

reform. The simultaneous growth and criticism of this liberal theory during the twentieth century was the fourth stage. The criticism and the development were both in response to flaws in the liberal model. The developers were journalists and ethicists who built an objective journalism professional ethics, supported by social responsibility theory. According to Baldasty and Campbel, objectivism attempted to control a free press that was becoming more sensational or yellow and dominated by commercial interests. Investigative reporting and activist or advocacy journalism are two examples of more interpretive, partial types of journalism that were undertaken by the critics of journalism, who criticized the limitations of objective professional reporting.

By the late 1900s, when journalism entered its fifth stage, a stage of mixed media, it was facing numerous challenges to its liberal and impartial professional paradigm. In addition to the fact that more amateur citizen journalists and bloggers were doing journalism, these communicators were also using interactive multi-media that questioned the concepts of cautious verification and gate-keeping. Because of this, there has been and still is controversy over the fundamental concepts of what journalism is and what journalists are for. The four normative theories of the press that are now influencing this fifth stage are liberal theory, objectivity and social responsibility theory, interpretive and activist theory, and an ethics of community and care. By keeping these stages in mind, we may better understand these ideas.

Liberal Theory

Even if simply to serve as a theory to be updated or challenged, liberal theory continues to serve as the foundation for current conversations. From John Milton and David Hume to J. S. Mill and Thomas Paine, liberal press views were part of liberalism, a political reform movement for the growing middle class.The goal of liberalism was to increase individual freedoms and eliminate the privileges associated with race and religion that characterized non-liberal, hierarchical society. In terms of economics, liberalism favored laissez-faire behavior; in terms of press philosophy, it favored a free exchange of ideas. Within certain parameters, Mill's. On Liberty emphasized the advantages of freedom for both individuals and society. From the penny press to the mass commercial press of the late 1800s, this ascendant liberalism provided the ethical worldview for both the elite liberal publications, like The Times of London, and the egalitarian popular press. According to liberal doctrine, journalists should create a free press that informs the public and serves as a watchdog over governmental abuses of power. The liberal perspective is still used to support calls for a free press in opposition to media restrictions such the censoring of objectionable viewpoints and the wrongful use of libel laws to prevent publication.

Objectivity and Social Responsibility

As previously mentioned, the liberal theories of objectivism and social responsibility theory sought to address a growing sense of disappointment with the liberal expectation that an unchecked press would serve as a responsible educator of citizens on issues of public importance. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, that vision faded as a mass commercial press evolved into a news industry run by press barons. As a result, the idea of an impartial news media with codes of ethics and other professional characteristics was developed. In order to make the case that society permits professional journalists to report freely in exchange for responsible coverage of important public issues, the liberal concept of a social contract. Objectivity was a prevailing ethical ideal for mainstream newspapers in the United States, Canada, and elsewhere from the early 1900s through the middle of the 20th century, though it was less well-liked in Europe. Major journalism organizations in the United States had by the 1920s developed formal standards that required

neutrality in reporting, independence from industry and government influence, and a clear separation between news and opinion. As a result, a complex set of newsroom guidelines were developed to make sure that journalists only reported just the facts. The proactive and restraining4 concepts in professional codes of ethics were born out of the liberal social contract and were translated into more specialized norms, standards, and practices.

According to proactive principles, journalists are required to report freely and without fear or favor on subjects of public importance, as well as to publish the most accurate and complete information possible. The main proactive elements of the majority of Western codes of ethics are to seek truth and report it and act independently. Journalists are urged to exercise this freedom to publish in a responsible manner by restraint norms. The obligation to minimize harm to tales' most vulnerable subjects, such as children or those who have experienced trauma, as well as the obligation to be transparent about editorial choices are examples of restraint principles. The professional model encourages the application of principles in a comprehensive, situational manner. Journalists are expected to consider morals, ethics, facts, anticipated outcomes, rights, and the effect on their own reputations in each given circumstance. Journalists will have to choose which principles to follow when standards conflict, such as when telling the truth conflicts with the aim to limit harm, such as by withholding a sensitive fact. Journalists are challenged by the ethical reasoning process to find a refl ective equilibrium between their ideals and intuitions.

The social responsibility idea, created by academics and journalists in the United States, was another liberal response. societal responsibility theory emphasized these overlooked responsibilities whereas liberal philosophy acknowledged the notion of press responsibility and societal value. The Hutchins Commission on the Freedom of the Press in the United States offered the theory a concise and well-liked formulation in the late 1940s. The committee emphasized that the press's primary responsibilities included providing a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent account of the news and events as well as a forum for the exchange of comment and criticism in its report, A Free and Responsible Press. According to the Commission on Freedom of the Press, the press should give a representative picture of the constituent groups in society, help present and clarify the goals and values of society, and provide full access to the day's intelligence. Social responsibility advocates worried that government regulators might step in if journalism self-regulation failed. The concepts of social responsibility theory have won global recognition over the last 50 years, including in European public broadcasting and as far away as Japan, according to Christians & Nordenstreng. Additionally, the theory continues to offer a fundamental vocabulary for new ethical perspectives, such as communitarian and feminist theories, while also offering benchmarks by which press councils and the general public can assess media performance.

Interpretation and Activism

The history of interpretive journalism, which aims to explain the significance of events, and the tradition of activist journalism, which aims to change society, have both embraced the liberal ideal that a free press should inform citizens. Journalists, according to both interpretive and activist traditions, have a responsibility to be more than just fact-checkers. But this emphasis on a lively, biased press is nothing new. For the most of the history of modern journalism, journalists have been overtly partisan, and their reporting has been slanted in favor of political parties and their financial backers. A less biased form of interpretive journalism, on the other hand, emerged in the early 1900s and aimed to logically and independently explain an ever-more complex reality. For

instance, Time magazine used Henry Luce's interpretive journalism as a template in the 1920s. Scholars, foreign reporters, and media groups recognized the necessity for informed interpretation of global events, wars, and economic catastrophes like the Great Depression to complement objective reporting in the 1930s and beyond. Weekend summaries of the previous week's events, beat reporters, and interpretive columnists with bylines were all introduced by newspapers in the 1930s and 1940s.

In the hands of broadcast journalists, literary journalists, and later online journalists, this tradition of interpretive journalism would grow stronger in the second half of the 20th century. Activist journalists defined informing the public as questioning the existing quo, opposing wars, and advancing social causes beginning in the 1960s. Journalist activists worked to mobilize the public against wrongdoing in the public and private sectors as well as against unjust or foolish policies. The reform journalists of the late eighteenth century in England, as well as the revolutionary journalists in America and France, anticipated modern activist journalists. The muckraking magazine journalists in America during the first two decades of the 20th century and activist journalists have a lot in common. American journalists promoted civic journalism in the 1990s, a modest reform of journalism that regarded the journalist as a catalyst for civic involvement. Many journalists today consider themselves to be a mix of an informant, an interpreter, and an advocate. Not all conventional ideals, like factual truth, are entirely abandoned. Although they reject neutrality, even the most outspoken muckraker or activist journalist claims that their findings are factually correct.

Community and Care

The application of communitarian ethics to journalism practices and a feminist ethics of care are the fourth and last influential approaches to journalism ethics. Both strategies offer critiques of and rebuttals to liberal theory. Both strategies downplay the pro-active principles in favor of the restraining principles of reducing harm and taking responsibility. The communitarian and care perspectives emphasize the impact of journalism on communal ideals and caring relationships whereas the liberal approach emphasizes individual freedoms and rights. Several decades have seen a resurgence of communitarian ethical, legal, and political thought. This is reflected in communitarianism in journalism ethics. The common good and the social nature of people are stressed by communitarians. They contend that in the face of diverse conceptions of the good, neither liberalism nor any other philosophy can be liberal, and that journalists should thus defend their community's adherence to core principles and ideals. The primary importance of humans-in-relation is used by communitarian media ethicists like Clifford Christians to support their claim that the press's primary purpose is not to inform the public in a thin liberal manner about events and facts. The fundamental purpose is to facilitate civic transformation through a deep, interpretive discourse with and among citizens.

The communitarian method is similar in spirit to feminist and other researchers' ideas of caring. A fundamental tenet of human flourishing is the cultivation of kind human connections . A care ethic founded on notions of community rather than in the rights-based tradition was advocated by feminists. Gilligan attacked Lawrence Kohlberg's theory on moral formation for disregarding gender. An ethics of care makes an effort to control a news medium that is frequently indifferent to sources and story topics. A larger, richer media system that can and will take into account ideas like compassion, subjectivity, and need may arise, according to feminist scholars who have claimed that, as Jay Black has said. In issues involving journalism, such as the formulaic reporting

of homicides in Canada and the United States, ethicists have applied an ethics of care. The notion of professional responsibility in journalism can be reinterpreted in terms of caring, according to Steiner and Okrusch . A significant growth in the empirical and theoretical understanding of journalistic practice and ethics serves as the foundation for all of these key approaches.

In the past fifty years, there has been an incredible increase in the study of media and culture as well as the channels available for public discourse, including new societies and institutions for the in-depth study of journalism ethics and practice as well as new books, journals, and Web sites. The agenda-setting function of the media, audience theory, media economics and sociology, moral development among journalists, and the history of journalism are just a few of the active research areas pursued by academics in established academic departments of sociology Case studies and surveys that use content analysis and other quantitative and qualitative social science methodologies are consistently published in journals and publications. These studies not only give ethicists information, but they also broaden the conceptual foundation of journalism ethics as a field by situating discussions of standards and norms in a more comprehensive theoretical and critical context. The emergence of an international perspective to the study of journalism and media communication is particularly noteworthy. The studies a picture of news people around the world and how their media systems and values compare. The rising corpus of literature on the relationship between journalism ethics and economics, ideology, politics, and global culture serves as a backdrop for current ethical debates.

CONCLUSION

Journalism is a word used to describe reporting that follows any news that has an influence on a community's or countries. The production and distribution of products and services, as well as its influence on the costs and availability of resources and opportunities, constitute the economy. Journalism ethics is the marriage of economics and ethics that brings together value judgments from both disciplines in order to forecast, explain, and model economic occurrences. It includes the theoretical ethical requirements and economic system underpinnings. A journalist's reputation is built on professional honesty. The Radio Television Digital News Association, a non-profit organization focused only on electronic journalism, has a code of ethics that emphasizes public trust, candor, impartiality, integrity, independence, and responsibility.

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