

I. Introduction

1.1. What is Journalism?

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

- ✚ Journalism is the work of collecting and reporting news for different media organizations such as newspapers, magazines, television, radio, blogs and social media, etc. The product generated by such activity is called journalism. Similarly, journalism is a discipline of collecting, analyzing, verifying, and presenting news regarding current events, trends, issues and people. Those who practice journalism are known as journalists. So, journalism is a job done by people called journalists.
- ✚ Journalism is about telling the right story, the right way.
- ✚ The subject matter of journalism can be anything and everything, and journalists report and write on a wide variety of subjects such as politics, economics and business, social and cultural aspects at local, regional, national and international levels. Besides, journalists report on anything that news organizations think consumers or audiences will read them.
- ✚ Journalism was not just seen as being the mouthpiece and servant of a political party or class but would act in the interests of a wider audience.
- ✚ Journalism is timely reporting of events or occurrences at the local, provincial, national and international levels
- ✚ Journalism refers to the profession of writing for or editing newspapers
- ✚ Journalism is an activity of recording events as they happen
- ✚ It is about searching, selecting, assessing and editing information
- ✚ It is the investigation and reporting of recent/timely events, issues and trends or previously unknown information to a broad audience through media [print, online and broadcast]
- ✚ Journalism is about selection and presentation [Framing Theory]
- ✚ Journalism involves the sifting and editing of information, comments and events into a form that is recognizably different from the pure form in which they first occurred.
- ✚ Generally speaking journalism can also be defined as:
 1. The collection and editing of news for presentation through the media
 2. The public press
 3. An academic study concerned with the collection and editing of news or the management of a news medium
 4. Writing characterized by a direct presentation of facts or description of events without an attempt at interpretation
 5. Writing designed to appeal to current popular taste or public interest

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

For example:

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

1.2. Who are Journalists?

- ✚ People who gather and package news and information for mass dissemination are called journalists.
- ✚ Journalists are those individuals working within an editorial board or newsroom (be it full-time or freelance) who perform one of four core journalistic tasks:
 - a) Selecting
 - b) Researching (or gathering);
 - c) Writing (or processing)
 - d) Editing
- ✚ Journalists are no great respecters of authority and are very resourceful; most journalists are generalists; journalists rank very low in public esteem; journalists are never off duty.
- ✚ A journalist is an important unit of the democratic system of every country. A journalist is supposed to gather facts, organize them and disseminate them to the masses. He also explains the significance of the facts and offers opinions on contemporary issues. He is expected to comment on matters of public interest in a fair, accurate, unbiased, sober, decent and responsible manner. Besides, journalists serve as the eyes and ears of their audience, but not their mind. This is because it is left to the reader to draw whatever conclusions are appropriate from the news – not the reporter.
- ✚ Journalists are daily engaging in recording and interpreting events day-to-day. However, it is important to know that all writers and mass media staff members are not necessarily journalists.

- ✚ There is a big difference between academic (professional) journalist and the ordinary (amateur) journalist
- ✚ Features of academic journalists, include:
 - Normally they take formal education in schools, colleges and universities;
 - Knows better about the principles of journalism;
 - They are aware about the ethical and unethical journalistic rules;
 - They have better know-how about the laws and rules of the land
- ✚ Features of amateur journalists, include:
 - Being journalists by experience;
 - Enter the field because of their personal interest;
 - Lacks depth and enough knowledge about the guidelines of journalism;
 - Absence of know-how onto the ethical principles of journalism
 - Most of them lacks awareness about the laws and rules of the land
- ✚ In the UK, for instance, anyone can call themselves a journalist. There is no mandatory formalized training, no minimum qualifications, and no enforced apprenticeship. You can give up your job today and be a journalist tomorrow.
- ✚ A journalist is anyone concerned with the editorial side of a newspaper, TV or radio programme, magazine or any of the new media outlets such as web pages.
- ✚ In TV and radio news, researchers, producers, presenters and reporters are journalists too.
- ✚ Journalists are attracted by absolutes – words such as best, worst, biggest, dearest, last and first.
- ✚ Most probably the following are some examples of Journalists: writers, editors, reporters [junior and senior reporters], photographers, videographers, camera crews, broadcast presenters, producers and others who are the purveyors of information and opinion in contemporary mass society.

What is journalism for you?

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

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

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

1.3. Qualities of Good Journalists

According to Seema Hasan (2010:182), there is no prescribed qualification for a journalist but not everyone can be a good journalist. A good journalist is sometimes born but more often he is fashioned out of the hard school of a rigorous test and training.

Good journalists have the following qualities

- ◆ **Intelligence:** to be able to understand complex issues.
 - ◆ **Knowledge:** broad general knowledge and experience in order to understand a number of different areas and have the ability to go from one area to another easily.
 - ◆ **Effective:** the ability to get things done; work under pressure; work well with others under pressure; be well organized.
 - ◆ **Curiosity:** the need to be curious enough to go beyond the surface; look at things in a questioning manner; to seek information to find out about people, events, activities and to understand them; to be skeptical at times.
 - ◆ **Comprehension:** the ability to analyze information, sort the important from the unimportant; understand what you're writing about.
 - ◆ **Judgment:** gather information and learn to sort the important from the unimportant effectively; be able to weed out information, determining what readers need to know, what will make a complete, accurate article.
 - ◆ **Persistent (or courage):** knowing when to continue to seek or push for information, when to give up; the need to be energetic; not stopping just because someone says "no".
 - ◆ **Literacy:** grammatical skills; reading ability coupled with comprehension; acceptable writing skills.
 - ◆ **Motivation (or commitments):** the drive to work beyond the normal 8-hour day; journalists must cover the story when it occurs otherwise news is a perishable commodity.
 - ◆ **Personal Stability:** keeping your head when the world around seems to be falling apart; ability to remain professional and do the job even though you may be witnessing unpleasantness. One still-famous example is the radio reporter who was broadcasting when a large dirigible (blimp), the Hindenburg, exploded just before landing in 1937 in New Jersey. Although emotional, he kept reporting. In addition, the more stable you are, the more apt you are to treat people fairly and write objectively.
- ❖ **Creativity:** there are moments when nothing news worthily happens and this is when creativity comes into picture.
 - ❖ **Dependability:** a journalist should be able to create among the people trust for him. The news sources must trust the journalist completely.
 - ❖ **Skepticism:** a journalist should have the habit and quality to double-check everything before the final presentation.
- The life of a national newspaper journalist can be summed up in four lines:
1. **Deadlines** –are absolute; in newspapers deadlines cannot be postponed or extended
 2. **Headline** –is the shop window for the story; headlines are what induce readers to read on, and much effort goes into writing them.

3. **Good line** - A 'good line' in journalistic jargon means a good quote or a sound bite. People who 'give good quotes' are much loved by journalists.
4. **Bottom line** – if I cannot get what I need from you, I will go somewhere else – either to someone else to talk about your story, or to another story entirely.

Qualities of a good reporter

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

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

1.4. Influences on Journalism

Most scholars and commentators agree that the chief influences are:-

1. Ownership and control – as running media organizations became a profitable business, the owners of such businesses are never likely to allow the expression of ideas that might damage their interests.
2. Financial –

Most newspapers, radio- and TV stations get most or all of their income from advertisements and sponsoring. The media will therefore seek to optimally satisfy the interests of their advertisers, which are not necessarily coincident with the interests of the readers, listeners and viewers.

In the case of media financed by advertisements exclusively, the interests served are those of the advertisers. The interests of the media consumers are satisfied only insofar as these are coincident with the interests of the advertisers. There is no guarantee that public interests are served well. This is the reason why many countries have public radio- and TV stations with public service obligations. Liberalizing the media market and relying on the free market forces are policies that are often used for the express purpose of making sure that all interests are served. Many theorists ignore, however, that the media not only satisfy consumer preferences, but also form them.

3. Time, space and technology
4. Bureaucratic and work routines
5. External influence [State and Market]
6. Internal influence [production process]

1.5. The Function of Journalism [Media]

- ❖ The media shape public opinion, but they are in turn influenced and manipulated by different interest groups in society
- ❖ Media can promote social cohesion, integration and unity
- ❖ The central purpose of journalism is to provide/cater citizens with accurate and reliable information. In other words, the primary purpose of journalism is to ensure a well informed citizenry for our social, economic and political structures.
- ❖ The media can promote democracy. However, it can play antidemocratic roles as well. For example: Media can sow fear, division and violence so that in this manner the media instead of promoting democracy, they can contribute to democratic decay.

Examples,

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

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

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

1.6. Principles or Elements of Journalism

1. Journalism's first obligation is to the truth

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

2. Its first loyalty is to the citizens

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

3. Its essence is discipline of verification

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

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

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

5. It must serve as an independent monitor of power

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

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

The news media are the common carriers of public discussion, and this responsibility forms a basis for our special privileges. This discussion serves society best when it is informed by

facts rather than prejudice and supposition. It also should strive to fairly represent the varied viewpoints and interests in society, and to place them in context rather than highlight only the conflicting fringes of debate.

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

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

8. It must keep the news comprehensive and proportional

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

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

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

10. It's the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

Generally speaking, these values distinguish journalism from all other forms of communication.

1.9. Types of Journalism

1. **Advocacy journalism:** a style of journalism in which a reporter takes sides in controversial issues and develops a point of view. It is the opposite of mainstream journalism, in which reporters are expected to be objective.
2. **Ambush journalism:** aggressive tactics practiced by journalists who suddenly confront and question people who otherwise do not wish to speak to a journalist.
3. **Celebrity journalism:** also known as people journalism, it focuses on the personal lives of celebrities, including movie and stage actors, musical artists, models and photographers, sports figures, and notable people in the entertainment industry, as well as people who seek attention, such as politicians, and people thrust into the attention of the public, such as people who do something newsworthy.
4. **Checkbook Journalism:** journalists paying a person or organization for a news story.
5. **Citizen journalist:** the rapid rise of Internet technology, in particular blogging, tweeting and social networking, have empowered persons without professional training to function sometimes as journalists feeding information to mass media. These practitioners now are

known as a distinct category - citizen journalists. According to Seema Hasan (2010:187), in citizen journalism, every citizen can become a journalist by participating in newsgathering. Citizen journalism, also known as 'participatory journalism', is the act of citizens 'playing an active role in the process of collecting, reporting, analyzing and disseminating news and information.' The intent of this participation is to provide independent, reliable, accurate, wide-ranging and relevant information that a democracy requires.

6. **Gonzo journalism:** a type of journalism popularized by Hunter S. Thompson in the 1970s. It was characterized by a punchy style, rough language, and a disregard for conventional journalistic writing forms and customs. The traditional objectivity of the journalist was given up through immersion in the story.
7. **Investigative journalism:** a story that requires a great amount of research digging and hard work to come up with facts that might be hidden, buried, or obscured by people who have a vested interest in keeping those facts from being published. It is one in which journalists or reporters research, investigate and expose unethical, immoral, and illegal behavior by individuals, businesses and government agencies.
8. **Jazz journalism:** the journalism fashion of the roaring twenties named for its energetic style and illustrated tabloid layout.
9. **New Journalism:** an unconventional writing style popularized in the 1960s by Tom Wolfe, Truman Capote, and Norman Mailer using the techniques of fictional story-telling and characterization when writing nonfiction stories.
10. **Pack journalism:** reporters relying on each other for news tips and often dependent on a single source for information.
11. **Print Journalism:** the practice of journalism in newspapers, magazines and other hard-copy printed publications.
12. **Television journalism:** over-the-air and cable transmission of news stories enhanced by sound and video images.
13. **Science journalism:** reporters convey news information on science topics to the public. Science journalists are reporters who understand and interpret detailed, technical information and jargon and write news stories about them so they will be interesting to readers.
14. **Sports journalism:** covers human athletic competition in newspapers, magazines, radio, television, books and the Internet. Some don't consider sports journalism to be true journalism, but the prominence of sports in Western culture has justified the attention of journalists to not just the competitive events in sports, but also to athletes and the business of sports.
15. **Yellow journalism:** inflammatory publication tactics attributed to newspaperman William Randolph Hearst and others in drumming up support for war against Spain in the 1890s. Today, it is aggressive, lurid and irresponsible journalism.
16. **Professional journalism:** a form of news reporting which developed in the United States at the beginning of the 20th century, along with formal schools of journalism which arose at major universities.
17. **Crony Journalism:** Reporting that ignores or treats lightly negative news about friends of a reporter.

1.10. Key Terms [Glossary] in Journalism

- ❖ **Reporter(s)** – are the people who get the story and write it in first draft form. Reporters are the people who gather facts for the stories they are assigned to write.
- ❖ **“Beat” Reporters**(or simply labeled as ‘beat’) - Reporters who regularly cover specific kinds of issues or institutions, are called “beat” reporters, say they often get story ideas by looking at agendas for upcoming meetings. In other words, ‘beat’ refers to an area assigned to a reporter for regular coverage. Also, an exclusive story.
- ❖ **Journalistic beats** – are the places and institutions where ‘news’ is ‘expected’ to occur on any given day, such as police stations and courthouses (cited in Ott and Mack, 2010:58).
- ❖ **Stringers** – are freelance/correspondence journalists usually paid on a story-by-story basis, rather than being permanently on the payroll. Also, stringer could be a correspondent, not a regular staff member, who is paid by the story or by the number of words written.
- ❖ **Freelancer** – a worker who makes a living by accepting and completing creative assignments from a number of different newspapers (Turow, 2009:63 and 324). Freelance journalists are hired guns and only receive payment for what they produce (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002: 175).
- ❖ **Correspondent** – Reporter who sends news from outside a newspaper office or any other media organization. As Clare (2004) states, a correspondent’s role differs from a reporter’s in several crucial ways; the main differences are the correspondents have the following advantages over reporters: specialist knowledge, internal influence, advisory role and different backgrounds.
- ❖ **Newsroom** – is the centre of news production and, as a working environment, is also a potentially very stressful place to work.
- ❖ **Copy taster** – another name given to news editor.
- ❖ **Genre** – major categories of media content which are similar in structure or subject matter, such as news, editorial, opinion, entertainment, advertising, social, economy, sport.
- ❖ **Columnist** –an individual who is paid to write editorials on a regular basis – usually daily, weekly, or monthly (Turow, 2009:56). Columnist: an article writer who gives an opinion on a topic.
- ❖ **Byline** –a statement identifying who wrote the story (Turow, 2009:305). In short the term ‘Byline’ refers to the name of the reporter who wrote the story, placed atop the published article. According to Rudin and Ibbotson (2002:85), it is every journalist’s dream to get their first by-line – their name above the story.
- ❖ **Dateline** - a statement identifying where and when the reporter wrote the story (Turow, 2009:305). According to Rudin and Ibbotson (2002:85), “datelines are often combined with the by-line to clarify the time and place as in: Julia Henderson reports on millennium festivities in Sydney. 1 January 2000.” Dateline also refers to the name of the city or town and sometimes the date at the start of a story that is not of local origin.
- ❖ **Masthead** – logo identifies the publication and reinforces its distinctive image and style (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:86). Masthead, also, refers to the formal statement of newspaper’s name, officers, place of publication and other descriptive information, usually on the editorial page.
- ❖ **News hole** – space in a newspaper allotted to news, illustrations and other non-advertising material.
- ❖ **Source** – person, record, document or event that provides the information for the story.

- ❖ **Attribution:** credit given to who said what or the source of facts. Designation of the person being quoted. The source of information in a story. Seema Hasan(2010:182) also stated that attribution or the 'name of the source' should not be overlooked. The best attribution is the name of the precise source. The next best is the name of the organization, office or group, represented by the source as a spokesman.
- ❖ **Captions** – are used to link visual images with the text and should provide short yet additional information. A caption under a picture of a person that accompanies a story may just state the name of the person (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:86).
- ❖ **Headline** – an identifying tag appearing at the top of a news story (Turow, 2009:305). Headline is the shop window for the story; headlines are what induce readers to read on, and much effort goes into writing them (Clare, 2004).
- ❖ **Sound-bite** - is a very short interview clip which summarizes your position as a whole (Clare, 2004).
- ❖ **Good line** - A 'good line' in journalistic jargon means a good quote or a sound bite. People who 'give good quotes' are much loved by journalists (Clare, 2004).
- ❖ **Bottom line** – if I (i.e., the reporter or journalist) cannot get what I need from you, I will go somewhere else – either to someone else to talk about your story, or to another story entirely (Clare, 2004).
- ❖ **Self-regulation** –when the press or any other media form maintained that it could regulate itself. Or, developing codes of conduct and guidelines that media would voluntarily adhere to (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:24).
- ❖ **Articles:** stories written about news topics that are considered notable by the editors of a publication.
- ❖ **Bright** – short, amusing story.
- ❖ **Background:** information that is not intended for publication
- ❖ **Editor:** the person who "edits" a story by revising and polishing; the person whose job is to approve copy when it comes in and to make decisions about what is published in a newspaper or magazine.
- ❖ **Editorial:** an article expressing a newspaper or magazine owner's or editor's position on an issue.
- ❖ **Op-ed page** – abbreviation for the page opposite the editorial page. The page is frequently devoted to opinion columns and related illustrations.
- ❖ **Lead:** the first sentence or first few sentences of a story. Also, it refers to first paragraph in a news story.
- ❖ **Press Release** – Publicity handout, or a story given to the news media for publication. Besides, press releases are strategically prepared written or recorded statements produced for news organizations to announce something that claims to be newsworthy (Ott and Mack, 2010: 60). While according to Turow (2009:642), press release is a short essay that is written in the form of an objective news story. It is the most basic product of a public relations firm's attempt to influence the media.
- ❖ **Punditry** – describes news that is pre-packaged by politicians and their communication consultants (i.e., press advisors and public relations managers) to promote a favorable image of a politician and her or his specific policy initiatives (Ott and Mack, 2010: 59).
- ❖ **Messages** – are collections of symbols that appear purposefully organized (meaningful) to those sending or receiving them (Joseph Turow, 2009:7)
- ❖ **Medium** – is part of a technical system that helps in the transmission, distribution, or reception of messages. It helps communication take place when senders and receivers are not face-to-face (Joseph Turow, 2009:9-10).

- ❖ **Audiences** – the people to whom a media product is directed (Joseph Turow, 2009:41). The term audience may encompass viewers, readers, listeners, Web surfers, etc
- ❖ **Newspapers** – are printed products created on a regular (weekly or biweekly or daily) basis and released in multiple copies (Joseph Turow, 2009:300). Moreover, newspaper is a publication containing news and comments on current events, together with features and advertisements that usually appears daily or weekly.
- ❖ **Periodical** – refers to a magazine or journal that is published at regular intervals, especially weekly, monthly, or quarterly.
- ❖ **Newsletter** – a printed report or letter that contains news of interest to a specific group, for instance, the members of a society or employees of an organization and is circulated to them periodically.
- ❖ **Circulation** – the number of newspapers people paid for or received free in one publishing cycle (Joseph Turow, 2009:301)
- ❖ **Publisher** – the individual in charge of all of a newspaper's operations, including financial issues, production issues, and editorial issues (Joseph Turow, 2009:323)
- ❖ **Deadlines** –are absolute; in newspapers deadlines cannot be postponed or extended (Clare, 2004).
- ❖ **Verbatim**: If you use quotation marks, make sure the words that appear in quotes are verbatim—Latin for “word for word.” These are called direct quotes.
- ❖ **Anecdotes** - are brief stories used to illustrate a point. They can serve as examples and can make your writing more interesting and descriptive.
- ❖ **A weekly**: is published once a week and a monthly once a month.
- ❖ **A fortnightly**: is published once in two weeks.
- ❖ **A bi-weekly**: is published twice every week
- ❖ **A tri-monthly**: is one which is published every three months. These are also known as quarterlies.
- ❖ There are certain publications that come out only once a year which are called annuals.

1.4. What is News?

- News is one of the key form of journalism
- News is a noun clearly linked with journalism – and therefore a good starting point for analyzing the whole concept of journalism (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:5).
- The first point to make clear is that ‘News’ does not happen. Events happen, and news is produced by reporting some events. So, a single event to become news it must be passed, or the news production process goes, through a number of steps: Relevance and Topicality are the key ones. Resources and budgets are also important.
- News is very time sensitive- news is a perishable commodity; that is why many companies fail to obtain publicity because they do not realize this.
- News must be new. That is what the word means. New, however, is a relative concept to journalists. It generally means ‘new to me’, but it may not be new to you.
- News is a report of recent events and happenings or previously unknown information
- News is economical[short] in its nature
- The answer to the question “What is news?” may seem obvious. News is what is new; it’s what’s happening. Look it up in the dictionary, and you’ll find *news* described as “a report of recent events or previously unknown information.” But most

of the things that happen in the world every day don't find their way into the newspaper or onto the air in a newscast.

- Commonly, news content should contain the “five Ws” and ‘H’ of an event. There should be no questions remaining unanswered.
- Five Ws and H: the primary questions a news story answers –
 - Who?
 - What?
 - Where?
 - When?
 - Why? and
 - How?

1.4.1. Etymology of News

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

1.6.2. Types of News

A) Hard News/Breaking News:-

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

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

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

- Soft news are usually lighter topics
- Soft news is a term used in journalism to describe stories that fit the criteria of less time sensitive. In fact, many of them are based on surveys, studies, reports and other common tools of the public relations industry.
- Diary stories which are planned in advance
- Diary stories offer greater opportunities for media publicity than the breaking news
- Feature articles: longer forms of news writing; topics covered in depth; sometimes the main article on the front page of a newspaper, or the cover story in a magazine. Feature writing is journalistic writing covering people, places and events in greater depth and with less timeliness than an immediate hard news story.
- Feature articles are usually longer forms of writing; more attention is paid to style than in straight news reports. They are often combined with photographs, drawings or other "art." They may also be highlighted by typographic effects or colors.
- Features are less time sensitive
- Feature stories - A good writing style is highly valued
- Feature is more creative, less rigid than a news story
- Generally features are categorized as being either topical or entertaining. The former is linked to a news event and provides further information or explanation as background. The latter include travel, sport, hobbies, general or specific interests, profiles, etc. (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:58).
- A story about a world-famous athlete who grew up in an orphanage would fit the definition of soft news. It's a human-interest story involving a prominent person and it's an unusual story that people likely would discuss with their friends. But there's

no compelling reason why it has to be published or broadcast on any particular day. By definition, that makes it a feature story.

- Some examples of Soft News include lifestyles, clothing, home and family, the arts, entertainment, infotainment, pets, food, health and medicine, sports, hobbies and recreation, education, sex and relationships, animal sanctuaries and so forth.

1.6.3. Values of News

News is what is new; it's what is happening. But most of the things that happen in the world everyday do not find their way into the newspaper or onto the air in a newscast. So what makes a story newsworthy enough to be published or broadcast? The real answer is that it depends on a variety of factors. Generally speaking, news is information that is of broad interest to the intended audience, so what big news in Lagos may not be news at all in Addis Ababa or Robe. Journalists decide what news to cover based on many of the following "news values". Despite this fact, however, 'News value' is not absolute – it depends on what other stories are around.

1. Timeliness

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

2. Impact

- Are many people affected or just a few?

3. Proximity

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

4. Controversy

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

5. Prominence

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

6. Currency

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

7. Oddity

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

Where Does News Come From?

Journalists find news in all sorts of places, but most stories originate in one of the following three basic ways:-

1. Naturally occurring events

Examples:

- disasters,
- car/plane/train accidents,
- earthquake
- death

2. Planned activities

Examples:

- official or ceremonial meetings,
- press/news conferences,
- court cases/hearings,
- celebrity appearances,
- legal demonstrations,
- ‘first nights’,
- photo-opportunities, and
- Official speeches.

3. Reporters’ Enterprise/endeavor

Ways of Gathering News Information

There are three main ways to gather information for a news story or opinion piece:

1. **Observation:** watching and listening where news is taking place.
2. **Interview:** Talking with people who know something about the story you are reporting.

3. **Documents:** Reading stories, reports, public records and other printed material.

1.6.4. Sources of News

- The people, documents, institutions or organizations you use when reporting a story are called your “Sources”.
 - The term source refers to the originator or the key source of the story.
 - According to Turow (2009:9), the source is the originator of the message which may be a person, several people or an organization.
 - Source: a person who talks to a reporter on the record, for attribution in a news story.
 - The major sources of news are:
1. Government officials, includes, Prime Ministers, Presidents, Ministers, State ministers, Spokes persons, Diplomats, State/regional presidents, Metropolitan mayors, Zonal administrators, District [*woreda*] administrators, County [*kebele*] administrators and so on.
 2. Individuals[ordinary Vs experts],
 3. Institutions [Government Vs Public Vs Private Vs Quasi],

e.g., BBC, a good example of quasi organization, is owned both by public and government and its structure is not allowed to sell it into private one.

4. News agencies (also known as Wire Services): produce and sell stories to other news providers. Thus, the establishment of news agencies reduces the cost of each media having to employ journalists to cover all types of story in all areas of the globe.

Examples of news agencies:

- Havas Agency (France: ancestor of AFP) was founded in 1835
- AP (Associated Press – in New York USA) was established in 1848. Claims to be the world’s largest news agency and is cooperatively owned by U.S. media companies.
- Wolff Agency (based in Germany) was founded in 1849
- Reuters (based in London UK) was established in 1851.
- UP (United Press)- USA: founded in 1907, while later renamed as UPI (United Press International- in New York USA) in 1958.
- AFP (Agence France Presse –in Paris, France) – large France news agency
- ENA (Ethiopia News Agency) – begun in 1942 as "Agenze Direczion" and renamed in 1968. The government-run Ethiopian News Agency (ENA) gathers, edits and distributes news and pictures from all over Ethiopia. The agency has 38 regional bureaux across the country. It publishes news online in both Amharic and English. ENA distributes video and audio clips and still pictures to the Ethiopian media. It also distributes international news from foreign news agencies to domestic media outlets. ENA mainly reports on government announcements and official activities. It was founded in 1942 and claims to be the oldest established African news agency (Powell, 2011).
- Walta Information Center, a more recently established news agency, is associated with EPRDF, the party in power.
- SUNA (Sudan News Agency) –

- MENA (Middle East and North Africa News Agency, while others call it shortly as Middle East News Agency)
 - Xinhua (New China News Agency) - (NCNA)
 - Inter-Press Service (IPS)
 - Pan-African News Agency (PANA) which has its headquarters in Dakar, Senegal.
5. Public relation practitioners (PRP)
 6. Other media
 7. Journalist [journalistic enterprise in digging out news]
 8. Anonymous –
 - This category was used if the personality (source) of the story was unspecified clearly. Specifically, as Ericson et al. (1991, as cited in Hansen et al., 1998) put it, anonymous/unspecified sources are possibly “referenced through non-specific terms such as ‘analyst’, ‘reports’, ‘observers’, ‘intelligence sources’, ‘authorities’, ‘experts’....”
 - Anonymous sources often provide journalists with valuable and exclusive information and are frequently used in investigative journalism (British Council, 2007).
 - Most responsible media organizations have a basic principle of using anonymous sources only in cases where it is impossible to obtain the information from other sources, and if it is vital that the information should be published (British Council, 2007).
 - However, few media organizations like Associated Press (AP) prohibits its reporters from using opinions from anonymous sources because of the danger that sources may try to use the reporter as a channel for spread false information (British Council, 2007).

Media people use anonymous sources for different reasons, mainly to:

- Keep the confidentiality of their sources;
 - Avoid unnecessary sue;
 - Manipulate audiences through using fabricated or false anonymous sources;
 - Distance themselves from taking responsibility
 - Anonymous sources have become a very convenient way of spreading false and inaccurate information by irresponsible reporters. Using such kinds of source is often connected with lack of professional skill or standards of the journalists concerned (British Council, 2007).
9. Opinion Leaders – such as religious figures, political party leaders, elders, well-known personalities.

1.7. Tabloid Vs Broadsheet Journalism

- 1) Tabloid Vs Broadsheet (this classification is technically based on the physical size of the newspapers but has been equated to the seriousness and depth of news coverage). While others add a third category which is called as Berliners or Midis – are very small newspapers.

Major Characteristics of Tabloid Newspapers:-

According to Seema Hasan (2010:188), beginning in 1901, tabloid was used to identify a special type of newspaper-one that was condensed, usually half the size of a normal newspaper. These papers were commonly identified with boisterous, brief news content, an abundance of pictures, some fiction, and often they blatantly appealed to the human interest in crime, sex, and disaster. Here journalism that employs sensationalism as a device to capture readers' attention was used. Moreover, the tabloids attempt to captivate or persuade the masses with their colors and headlines about wonderful, amazing, and even shocking stories. These stories are not confined to newsprint. Although many tabloids come in the form of a newspaper or a magazine, today we have tabloid television and even Internet tabloids.

- Tabloid form is a printing format that uses pages that are about half the size of a traditional newspaper page. They become popular because they include a number of photographs, they were easy to handle and public transportation, and they featured sensational coverage of crimes and movie stars. Originally, in 1920s saw the rise of papers that were printed in a tabloid form (Turow, 2009: 309).
- The sensational *tabloid* (a word derived from a small, easy to swallow dose of medicine) appeared in London in the early years of the twentieth century, its news for the common man packaged in a format that could be read comfortably on a streetcar. Tabloids, like the New York *Daily News*, took advantage of the city's switch from horse-drawn buses to electrified trolleys and subways. Strap-hangers were able to read a newspaper held in one hand. To accommodate them on the jouncing ride, publishers shrank broadsheets to tabloid size, made headlines and body type larger, and added more pictures. News stories, too, were more entertaining and, in some cases, more sensational. *Tabloid* defined both the size and the content of newspapers. It still does (Fang, 1997:103-104).
- Small-sized, often popular newspaper
- Down-market [relatively accessible at low price]
- Mostly Trivial-led news [trivial refers to small value or importance]
- Piece of short hand
- Focused on celebrity dominated gossip
- Give emphasis to titillation
- Least serious/most trivial
- Red tops –so called because of the red mast-head [masthead can also be termed as title, flag and is the defining feature for recognition by the target readership]
- [Tabloid journalists](#) are often accused of sacrificing accuracy and the personal privacy of their subjects in order to boost sales. Supermarket tabloids are often focused on entertainment rather than news. A few have "news" stories that are so outrageous that they are widely read for entertainment purposes, not for information. Some tabloids do purport to maintain common journalistic standards, but may fall far short in practice. Others make no such claims.
- *Trivialization*: More sex and violence. More prying into the private lives of celebrities. The media avoid controversial issues and serious debates. Debates are reduced to an entertaining clash between personalities, resembling a boxing match, where the issue of controversy has only secondary importance.
- Several media scholars agree that the main cause of these tendencies is the liberalization of the media market. Stories are selected for profitability rather than

relevance. (Bagdikian 1983; Baker 1994; McManus 1994; Humphreys 1996; Shoemaker and Reese 1996; Herman and McChesney 1997).

Major Characteristics of Broadsheet Newspapers:-

- Being Serious newspapers
- Commonly labeled as “Quality Press”
- Public sphere journalism
- Pay attention to serious journalism other than the non-serious journalism

2. Elite Vs Non-elite media

A) Elite Media –

- Its readers or audiences in general are mainly drawn from those in the higher socio-demographic categories in society (Rudin and Ibbotson, 2002:10);
- Politically quality media like “The Economist Magazine”
- They raise complex issues and points of arguments too
- They intensively employ specialized words [technical, terminology or jargon] and expressions

For example: if someone said you “you are Machiavellian” – (Machiavelli refers to name of an Italian political writer) - you are shrewd person, deceitful.

B) Non-Elite Media –

- Its audiences are commonly labeled as ordinary/mass people;
- The status of the audience is deemed/supposed as low
- The content of the media is non-serious (simple issues)
- They use easy language

3. High Vs Middle Vs Low brow

- This is based on the intellectual level at which the journalism is aimed.
- Scholars Vs Literate Vs illiterate

II. Historical overview of Journalism

2.1. Communication

2.1.1. History of Communication

The communication process involves transmitting information and ideas to one person or to a large group of people. It is a process that began perhaps even before we knew how to write or spell the word "communication". Communication can be dated back to the advent of life itself. What evolved from simple body language or ancient pictorial messages carved on rocks metamorphosed into rather evolved channels of communication like the telephone, television and presently the world wide web that has brought the world so close to us.'

Although various complex theories and principles exist, communication can be simply defined as a process by which information is exchanged among individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behavior. Obviously the term is not limited to human beings only because animals have their own modes of communication too.'

Body Language: A friendly handshake, a gracious smile or even a warm hug can characterize body language. It is communication through simple body gestures. The time of emergence of body language cannot be precisely or accurately calculated. However, the use of body language as a means of communication has always been compared to communication modes used by animals.

Speech: The available fossil evidence hints that modern adaptations of speech appeared somewhere between 1.5 million and 500,000 years ago. The dynamics of evolution of speech acquisition is complex since it is influenced by factors like culturally transmitted sounds and genetic evolution.'

Evolution of the brain differentiated humans from animals. It allowed humans to master a very efficient form of communication which is speech. A mutation of the FOXP2 gene which occurred in Homo sapiens about 200,000 years ago was probably responsible for this change.

Speech greatly facilitated the transmission of information and knowledge to further generations. Experiences passed on through speech became increasingly rich and allowed humans to adapt themselves to new environments - or adapt the environments to them - much more quickly than was possible before. In effect, biological human evolution was followed by technological progress and socio-cultural evolution. Speech meant easier coordination and cooperation, technological progress and development of complex, abstract concepts such as religion or science. Speech placed humans at the top of the food chain and facilitated human colonization of the entire planet.

Speech, however, is not perfect. The human voice carries only so far and sign language is also rather limited in terms of distance. Further, all such forms of communications relied on human memory which is an imperfect tool. Memory can be lost or become damaged over time and there is also a limit to how much one can remember. With the accidental death of a 'wise man' or tribal elder, a pre-literate tribe could lose many generations of knowledge.

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

- Symbols
- Cave Paintings
- Petroglyphs/ Rock Carvings
- Pictograms
- Ideograms
- Writing

Symbols: Symbols developed as a communication tool not only ensured better understanding but also increased longevity of the message."

The imperfection of speech which nonetheless allowed easier dissemination of ideas and stimulated inventions eventually resulted in the creation of new forms of communications, improving both the range at which people could communicate and the longevity of the information. All of those inventions were based on the key concept of the **symbol: a conventional representation of a concept.**

Cave Paintings: The oldest known symbols created with the purpose of communication through time are the **cave paintings**, a form of rock art, dating to the Upper Paleolithic Age. Just as a small child first learns to draw before it masters more complex forms of communication, similarly homo sapiens' first attempts at passing information through time took the form of paintings. The oldest known cave painting is that of the Chauvet Cave which dates to 30,000 BC. Though not well standardized, the paintings contained increasing amounts of information. Cro-Magnon people may have created the first calendar as far back as 15,000 years ago. The connection between drawing and writing is further shown by linguistics: in the Ancient Egypt and Ancient Greece, the concepts and words of drawing and writing were one and the same.'

Petroglyphs: The next step in the history of communications is petroglyphs which are carvings **on a rock surface**. It took about 20,000 years for homo-sapiens to move from the first cave paintings to the first petroglyphs which are dated around 10,000 BC.

It is possible that the humans of that time used some other forms of communication, often for mnemonic purposes - specially arranged stones, symbols carved in wood or earth, quipu-like ropes, and tattoos. But the most durable carved stones have survived till today and we can speculate about their existence based on our observation of 'hunter-gatherer' cultures which still exist today in Africa or Oceania.

Pictograms: Pictograms were the next step in the evolution of writing. One prominent feature that separates petro glyphs from the pictograms is that petro glyphs simply depict a single event but pictograms narrate a story about the event and thus can be used to convey several events chronologically. Pictograms have been sighted in the history of various ancient cultures since 9000 BC. Old Indian alphabet was derived from the pictographic script current in the Sindhu Valley. The pictograms gave way to the evolution of Cuneiform script which is considered the earliest form of written expression.

A pictogram is a symbol representing a concept, object, activity, place or event by illustration. Pictography is a form of proto-writing whereby ideas are transmitted through drawing. Pictographs were the next step in the evolution of communication. The most important difference between petro glyphs and pictograms is that petro glyphs simply show an event but pictograms tell a story about the event. Thus, they can, for example, be ordered in chronological.

Pictograms were used by various ancient cultures all over the world since 9000 BC. Tokens marked with simple pictures were used to label basic farm produce which become increasingly popular around 6000-5000 BC.

They were the basis of cuneiform and hieroglyphs which later developed into logographic writing systems around 5000 BC.

Ideogram: An ideogram is an advanced version of the pictogram. It is a visual or graphic symbol that represents an idea. Several communities across the world came up with varied ideograms to represent numerous ideas. Ideas, like the expression of emotions are universal in nature. So are many ideograms are the source of most of the logo graphic writing systems, namely, the Chinese script. The Chinese script is said to have originated independently around the 16th century BC.

Pictograms, in actuality, evolved into ideograms which are graphical symbols that represent an idea. Their ancestors, the pictograms, could represent only something that resembled their form. Therefore a pictogram of a circle could represent a sun but not concepts like 'heat', 'light', 'day' or the 'Great God of the Sun'. Ideograms, on the other hand, could convey more abstract concepts. So, for example, an ideogram of two sticks can mean not only 'legs' but also a verb 'to walk'.

Because some ideas are universal, many different cultures developed similar ideograms. For example an eye with a tear means 'sadness' for the Native Americans in California, as it similarly does for the Aztecs, the early Chinese and the Egyptians.

Ideograms were the precursors of logographic writing systems such as Egyptian hieroglyphs and Chinese characters.

Examples of ideographical proto-writing systems, thought to contain no language- specific information, include the Vinca script and the early Indus script. In both cases, there are claims of decipherment of linguistic content, without wide acceptance.

Logographs: *A single written symbol that represents an entire word or phrase without indicating its pronunciation- "7 is a logograph that is pronounced 'seven' in English and 'nanatsu' in Japanese"*

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

- **Alphabet:** *A set of letters usually presented in a fixed order which is used for writing the words of a particular language or group of languages.*
 - *A character set that includes letters and is used to write a language*
- **Hieroglyphs:** *are symbols in the form of pictures, which are used in the some writing system, especially those of ancient Egypt.*

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

Although seemingly alphabetic in nature, the original Egyptian unilateral was not a system and was never used by them to encode Egyptian speech. In the Middle Bronze Age, an apparently "alphabetic" system is thought by some to have been developed in central Egypt around 1700 BC for or by Semitic workers but we cannot read these early writings and their exact nature remains open to interpretation.

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

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

1. The first had to do with what symbols were to be used to represent spoken sounds or ideas, and
 2. The second, with what surface the symbols should be written on.
- **The first problem was solved in two ways.**

One early symbol system might be called ideogrammatic (picture based) or sign writing, in which each symbol was based on a picture that resembled the thing it stood for. E.g.

Sumerian writing styles, hieroglyphics in Egypt, and sign writings in China. It requires to learn thousands of different pictographs that can represent various objects and actions.

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

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

The Significance of Writing/Social Impact

- ▶ In the first place, it creates a new division of society.
 - ▶ Literate Vs illiterate
 - ▶ Informed society (informative society) Vs Barbarians
 - ▶ Rulers /powerful Vs ordinary / common people
- ▶ Second, writing helped make possible the creation of empires.
 - ▶ It made organization easier
 - ▶ Tax collection and payment became efficient
 - ▶ Commodity exchange facilitated
 - ▶ Ease to preserve treasuries
- ▶ Third, writing made possible to preserve and nourish a permanent body of knowledge.
 - ▶ Before writing, the transmission of knowledge from one generation to the next was hampered by the limits of human memory, forgetfulness, and distortion.
- ▶ Finally, writing made it possible to develop a consistent and enduring code of laws.
 - ▶ Before writing, there were no written laws on which decisions were based.
 - ▶ The first great legal document in history, the code of Hammurabi, was written in Sumerian around 2000 B.C.

Tele-communication: The Semaphore or the optical telegraph system was an apparatus for conveying information by means of visual signals. The system used towers with pivoting blades or paddles in a matrix. Information was encoded by the position of the mechanical elements and the message could be interpreted by the position of the blade. Although the mention of the idea of a semaphore has been recorded in the name of an English scientist Robert Hooke, the idea was put to practice in France during the 1700s when an engineer called Claude Chappe covered France with a network of 556 stations over a distance of 4,800 kilometers.

Other Benchmarks in the History of Communication:

Invention of the Radio: Although the construction of the radio is based on Michael Faraday's Laws of electromagnetic induction proposed in 1831, it was William Henry Ward,

who implemented the principles and successfully got himself a patent for radio development in 1872.

Invention of the Telephone: There were several disputes surrounding the claim to the invention of the telephone. Although the Italian scientist Antonio Meucci was acknowledged by the US Congress on 11th June 2002 for his contributions to the invention of the telephone, it is Alexander Graham Bell who patented the telephone as an apparatus for transmitting vocal or other sounds telegraphically.

Invention of the Television: Controversy surrounds the claim to the invention of the television too. Although it is known that a Scottish inventor, John Logie Baird was the first one to publicly demonstrate television on 26 January 1926 in his laboratory at Soho district of London, it was an American engineer Philo Farnsworth who researched the television picture transmission and developed the dissector tube which is the basic element of all current electronic televisions. In 1927, Philo Farnsworth became the first inventor to transmit a television image.

Invention of the first Computer: The first computer was called ENIAC which is an abbreviation for Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer. It was fully functional in 1945 at the Iowa State University.

Invention of the Internet: The design of the Internet was formulated in 1973 and published in 1974. It took as many as ten years to bring the idea into reality and the Internet was set up in 1983. Not many people know that the concept of Internet was developed by an American computer scientist Vinton Cerf as part of a project sponsored by the United States Department of Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency.

Evolution of communication

Communication begins with language, the distinctive ability which has made possible the evolution of human society. With language any message, no matter how complex, can be conveyed between people over a limited distance - within a room or place of assembly, or across a short open space. In modern times 'town criers' hold an annual contest to discover which of them can shout a comprehensible message over the greatest distance. The world record is less than 100 meters. Already, at that short range, a more practical alternative is to run with the message.

The history of communication is mankind's search for ways to improve upon shouting.

When running with a message, to convey it in spoken form, it is safer to do it oneself. Sending anyone else is unreliable, as the game of Chinese whispers demonstrates. So another requirement for efficient communication is a system of writing.

Messages carved on stone pillars communicate very well across time, down through the centuries. But they are an inefficient method of communicating across space. The message reads only within reading range; its recipients must travel to receive it. The system is altogether more efficient if it is the message which travels. This requires yet another ingredient in the communication package - a portable writing material such as papyrus.

There are forms of long-distance communication not based on words. The smoke signals used by American Indians are of this kind. So are bonfires lit in succession on a line of hilltops. But such devices are only capable of conveying very limited pre-arranged signals, such as 'danger' or 'victory'. Some non-verbal systems are more sophisticated.

Post baste: 6th century BC

The sending of written messages is a standard feature of government in early civilizations. Much of our knowledge of those times derives from archives of such messages, discovered by archaeologists.

Imperial communication: 522-486 BC

Darius extends the network of roads across the Persian Empire, to enable both troops and information to move with startling speed. At the centre of the system is the royal road from Susa to Sardis, a distance of some 2000 miles (3200 km). At intervals of a day's ride there are posting stations, where new men and fresh horses will be available at any moment to carry a document on through the next day's journey. The Greek historian Herodotus marvels at these Persian couriers.

Speeding up the messenger: 2nd - 11th century AD

Until recent centuries, the only way to increase the speed of communication has been to improve the speed of the messenger. This depends on good roads, fast riders and well provisioned staging posts at which fresh men and horses are always available. The network of Roman roads makes communication steady and reliable, but it is unlikely that it is faster than the delivery system perfected by the Persians - on the terrain of steppe and plateau, across which horsemen can gallop with fine abandon.

However one major improvement in the speed of communication is recorded in the Middle East, where in certain circumstances a simpler messenger is substituted for the horse and rider.

Pigeon post: from the 11th century

Domesticated pigeons are first developed in ancient Egypt, and the pigeon loft or dovecote subsequently becomes a living larder for many communities- such as medieval monasteries. In Baghdad, in the 11th century, the idea first occurs of making use of the tendency of certain pigeons to fly straight home from wherever they may be.

A rapid one-way postal service becomes possible. By selective breeding of suitable birds, the homing pigeon is developed. The swiftest and most wide-ranging conqueror of medieval history, Genghis Khan, sees the obvious potential. Pigeons carry swift news of each new conquest to his homeland in Mongolia.

But the rapid and widespread dissemination of a message must await the development of printing.

Scholars in the east have had the benefit of printing for many centuries, enabling holy and learned texts to be more widely possessed. But the very late arrival of printing in the west proves to be of much greater significance. The development by Gutenberg in Germany of movable type happens to coincide with the Renaissance, a time of great vigor in European culture.

Gutenberg and western printing: AD 1439 - 1457

The name of Gutenberg first appears, in connection with printing, in a law case in Strasbourg in 1439. He is being sued by two of his business partners. Witnesses, asked about Gutenberg's stock, describe a press and a supply of metal type. It sounds as though he is already capable of printing small items of text from movable type, and it seems likely that he must have done so in Strasbourg. But nothing from this period survives.

By the time he is next heard of in connection with printing, he is in Mainz. He borrows 800 guilders in 1450 from Johann Fust with his printing equipment as security. The resulting story of Gutenberg and Fust is a saga in itself.

No date appears in the Gutenberg Bible, which was printed simultaneously on six presses during the mid-1450s. But at least one copy is known to have been completed, with its initial letters colored red by hand, by 24 August 1456. The first dated book from these same presses, in 1457, is even more impressive. Known as the Mainz Psalter, it achieves outstanding color printing in its two-color initial letters.

These first two publications from Germany's presses are of an extraordinary standard, caused no doubt by the commercial need to compete with manuscripts. The new technology, so brilliantly launched, spreads rapidly.

The spread of printing: AD 1457-1500

An invention as useful as printing, in a Europe of increasing prosperity, readily finds new customers.

The first Italian press is founded in 1464, at the Benedictine town of Subiaco in the Papal States. Switzerland has a press in the following year. Printing begins in Venice, Paris and Utrecht in 1470, in Spain and Hungary in 1473, in Bruges in 1474, in Sweden in 1483. By the end of the century the craft is well established in every European kingdom except Russia.

From incunabula to mass communication 1457-1525

In the first half-century of European printing the book rapidly displaces the manuscript of earlier generations, providing equal elegance at less cost. Printed books of the 15th century are known as incunabula (Latin for the 'cradle' (birth) of printing). Though very rare now, incunabula were surprisingly numerous then; 1700 presses in some 300 towns are estimated to have produced about 15 million volumes by 1500.

Even in their own time these incunabula are special and expensive objects. But printing has another trick up its sleeve - in the long run one which is much more significant.

The profusion of presses in Europe by the early 16th century means that the machinery is in place for a different and entirely new form of production - the rapid printing of pamphlets, or even single sheets, which can be used in a war of propaganda.

This potential lies dormant until an unexpected opportunity arises. It comes through an intellectual controversy of unprecedented violence - the Reformation. After Luther's challenge to the Roman Catholic Church, the printing presses feed and fan the flames. Pamphlets fly in all directions. The printed page finds a new role as an arena of almost instant debate. The 'press' acquires a new and significant meaning.

First with the news: AD 1609-1690

If the 16th century is the first age of the pamphlet, the 17th fills the same role in relation to, the newspaper. The turmoil in Europe in the first half of the century, particularly during the violent and complex Thirty Years' War, makes people eager for information about the latest events. The printers and news gatherers move rapidly to satisfy this need.

The Germans, as with earlier stages in the development of printing, are first in the field. Both Augsburg and Strasbourg have news sheets during 1609. Occasional sheets are known in several European cities during the late 16th century, but these two Germany papers seem to be the first published on a regular basis.

During the next two decades newspapers are published in Basel, Vienna, Amsterdam, Antwerp and London - where the title of the earliest news sheet in 1621 (Corante, or, Newes from Italy, Germany, Hungarie, Spaine and France) suggests the strongly European flavor of this thirst for information.

France follows in 1631, when the Gazette de France is established with official encouragement from Cardinal Richelieu. Newspapers are soon known in Denmark (1634), Florence (1636), Sweden (1645) and Poland (1661). The earliest American newspaper is published in Boston in 1690 under the title *Publick Occurrences Both Foreign and Domestick*.

The reporters' war: AD 1854-1856

Recent developments in many fields make the Crimean War the first modern war, in the sense that the public at home becomes rapidly and intensely aware of what is going on at the front.

The first important changes are in transport and printing. When the editor of the Times in London decides to send a reporter out to join the British army in the Crimea in April 1854, he knows that reports will get back to London (with the best available combination of ship, train and electric telegraph) faster than from any previous conflict. And his mechanized steam presses will be able to supply a large readership with news of unprecedented immediacy.

The Crimean war lives with similar immediacy in images. It is the first 'war assignment' undertaken by a photographer. Early in 1855 at Manchester publisher, Thomas Agnew decides to send a photographer to the front. He selects Roger Fenton, who becomes a familiar

figure of great curiosity to the troops. He travels round in a converted delivery vehicle with the words 'Photographic Van' painted on the side. Inside is the dark room where he develops his large glass plates.

Needing exposure times of up to twenty seconds, Fenton's photographs are mainly of soldiers posed among the paraphernalia of war in the Crimean landscape. They are published by Agnew in five portfolios before the end of 1855.

Photography soon catches up, to establish itself as the medium best equipped to convey the horrors of war. In 1860 an Italian-born British photographer, Felice Beato, photographs the dead defenders sprawled in a fort which has just been captured in the second Opium War. A bystander sees him at work and describes the Rush of adrenalin of the authentic war photographer.

The first war to be fully covered photographically is the American Civil War. Credit goes to the enterprise of Mathew Brady, who sends teams of photographers to the various battle fronts, some 10,000 glass negatives survive as a detailed visual record of four years of conflict.

Significance of Printing Press

- ▶ Printing Press facilitated the development of vernacular (every day) languages across the European continents.
- ▶ Bodies of information became accessible to more people, further encouraging the growth of literacy.
- ▶ It helped to prepare the wave of nationalism / independence/ and secularism.
- ▶ The arrival of printing press speeded up the publication of scientific research. Intellectuals looked less revelation as source of knowledge and more toward reason and observation.
- ▶ Printing press also helped exploration, ease of navigational and geographical information.
- ▶ Printing press had a profound effect on the growth of scholarship and knowledge, ease of access of written textbook for students, and scholars share ideas and concepts through books.
- ▶ Finally, printing press led to the development of what we would today call news.

2.2. History of the Print Media

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

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

For centuries, civilizations have used print media to spread news and information to the masses. The first recorded newspaper was a single sheet of news produced by the Romans in 59 BC. It was called *Acta Diurna*, which means ‘daily events’ or ‘daily actions’ or ‘activities

of the day’ or ‘government announcements’. *Acta Diurna* was handwritten by slaves. Or, the Roman *Acta Diurna*, appearing around 59 B.C, is the earliest recorded “newspaper”. Julius Caesar, wanting to inform the public about important social and political happenings, ordered upcoming events posted in major cities. Written on large white boards and displayed in popular places like the Baths, the *Acta* kept citizens informed about government scandals, military campaigns, trials and executions.

- **59 B.C.** *Acta Diurna* was published in Rome regularly. They were inscribed in metal or stone. Julius Caesar orders the major political and social events of the day to be made available to his citizenry. State appointed reporters, called “actuarii”, gather information on everything from wars and legal decisions to births, deaths, and marriages.
- Anyhow, the Chinese were the first to invent the art of printing. They made wooden blocks to print letters. This was started during the period of the Tang Dynasty in 600AD.
- 713 *Mixed News* in Kaiyuan is first newspaper published in China. “Kaiyuan” is the name given to the year in which the paper is published.
- This process created the possibility of accounts of events developing from the spoken to the written word. The first period in which there is solid evidence that printed accounts of events were made available to a mass public is during the English Civil War in the mid-seventeenth century. Censorship was widespread and newspapers were rarely permitted to discuss events that might incite citizens to opposition. Newspaper headlines did announce the beheading of Charles I at the end of the English Civil War, although Oliver Cromwell tried to suppress all newsbooks on the eve of the execution.
- Englishman Henry Mill received the first patent for his discovery of a typewriter in the year 1714. In 1935 the first electric typewriter entered the market. However it gained its popularity after WWII. Electronic typewriters allowed for faster typing because the keystrokes were electrically assisted.
- The first papermaking machine was invented by Nicholas Robert in 1798 (Fang, 1997:49).
- The first newspaper in North America was *Publick Occurences Both Foreign and Domestick* (1690), founded by Benjamin Harris, and was quickly followed by magazines and books. However, the lifespan of this newspaper, ‘*The Public Occurrences*’, was lasted only for a day because the owner of the newspaper lacked the requisite license from the British Crown.
- There is no agreement or consensus among scholars as to which was the first newspaper.
- It is not entirely clear when a first publication that can be termed a newspaper was first published but most historians agree that it was probably in the 1620s in Italy and Germany.
- In the first half of the 17th century, newspapers began to appear as regular and frequent publications. The first modern newspapers were products of western European countries like:
 - Germany (publishing *Relation* in 1605 while others say in 1609),
 - France (*Gazette* in 1631),
 - Belgium (*Nieuwe Tijdingen* in 1616) and

- England (the *London Gazette*, founded in 1665, is still published as a court journal).

These periodicals consisted mainly of news items from Europe, and occasionally included information from America or Asia. They rarely covered domestic issues; instead English papers reported on French military blunders while French papers covered the latest British royal scandal.

The World Association of Newspapers has accepted evidence produced by one of the world's leading printing museums that 2005 marks the 400th anniversary of the birth of the first newspaper in print. Scholars have generally put the date at 1609, the year of the first preserved editions. The Gutenberg Museum in Mainz, Germany, which houses the world's first printing press, has told WAN that the 'birth certificate' of the newspaper, '*Relation*', was unearthed in the town archives of Strasbourg, now in France but at the time a part of the so-called 'Deutsches Reich'. It is claimed that the publisher of '*Relation*' was a certain Johann Carolus, who earned his living at the turn of the 17th century by producing hand-written newsletters, sold to rich subscribers at very high prices, reproducing news sent to him by a network of paid correspondents.

- **1605** Johann Carolus publishes the first printed newspaper, *Relation*, in Strasbourg, now in France but at the time a part of the so-called 'Deutsches Reich'.
- **1621** In London, the newspaper *Corante* is published.
- **1631** *The Gazette*, the first French newspaper, is founded.
- **1639** First American colonial printing press
- **1645** World's oldest newspaper still in circulation, *Post-och Inrikes Tidningar*, is published in Sweden

1900 Vladimir Lenin founds *Iskra* (The Spark), in Leipzig, Germany. This revolutionary newspaper is to become a major tool for Communist propaganda. Newspapers have also played a role as disseminators of revolutionary propaganda.

The high quality and relatively low price of the [Gutenberg Bible](#) established the superiority of movable type for western languages, and [printing presses](#) rapidly spread across Europe, leading up to the [Renaissance](#), and later [all around the world](#).

Until 1694 anyone in England who wanted to publish first had to get a license from the state. In addition, anyone who criticized someone in authority, whether the criticism was justified or based on truth, was liable to imprisonment. These laws were not changed until the end of the 18th century.

- The London Gazette, founded in February 1666, has survived through the ages and is now the world's oldest surviving periodical.
- The first daily paper in England was the *Daily Courant*, which began publishing in 1702.

The invention of the telegraph in 1844 transformed print media. Now information could be transferred within a matter of minutes, allowing for more timely, relevant reporting. Newspapers were appearing in societies around the world.

By the middle of the 19th century, newspapers were becoming the primary means of disseminating and receiving information. **Between 1890 and 1920, the period known as the “golden age” of print media**, media barons such as William Randolph Hearst, Joseph Pulitzer, and Lord Northcliffe built huge publishing empires in America. These men had enormous influence within the media industry, and gained notoriety for the ways in which they wielded their power.

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

The UK is one of the newspaper capitals of the world. There are 11 national daily newspapers, 14 national Sunday papers, 19 regional morning papers, 70 regional evenings and about 500 local weekly newspapers. Together they offer you the biggest audience imaginable – everyday 30 million people read a national newspaper, and many more read regional and local papers. That is the newspaper media is so important for advertisement in that country.

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

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

Challenges to Print Media

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

2.2.1. Birth of Mass Newspaper

Several conditions had to exist before a mass press could come into existence:

1. A printing press had to be invented that would produce copies quickly and cheaply. In 1830, the U.S. firm R. Hoe and company built a steam-powered press that could produce 4000 copies per hour. This and subsequent steam-powered presses that were even faster made it possible to print an extremely cheap newspaper that everybody could afford.
2. Enough people had to know how to read to support such a press. The second element that led to the growth of the mass newspaper was the increased level of literacy in the population. The first statewide public school system was set up during the 1830s. The increased emphasis on education led to a concomitant growth of literacy as many people in middle and lower economic groups acquired reading skills.
3. A mass audience had to be present. The third element was more subtle and harder to explain. The mass press appearing during an era that historians call the age of Jacksonian democracy, an age in which ordinary people were first organized as a political and economic force. Property requirements for voting had died out. Every state but one chose presidential elections by popular vote. In addition, this period was marked by the rise of an urban middle class. The trend toward democratization of business and politics fostered and creation of a mass audience responsive to a mass press.

2.2.2. The revolution in American journalism

The political party press

With the growing enthusiasm for self government that led to the Revolution, the newspapers became the instruments of public opinion as well as of news. Official printers, who enjoyed the government patronage, printed newspapers endorsed and subsidized by the administration, while Tory sympathizers and the patriots replied to them in their own organs. The few journals that tried to give both sides were short-lived because both sides mistrusted them. After the Revolution the Federalists and the Republicans sought to capture public support by founding and subsidizing of newspapers, for newspapers had proven themselves more effective than pamphlets in stirring people to action.

The newspapers thus became the agency of a cause. To print the news was the editor's public duty, but, being a "kept" editor, he was not free to tell things indiscriminately, there were tabooed subjects. The qualification for editorship was partisan enthusiasm, for his office was confused with that of the politician, indeed, the reward for fighting a good fight was often a political appointment. The editor held what Will Iruin calls the "professional attitude" to the newspaper: that the press, like the pulpit, should point out to the people where their duty lies, and do so in conformity with its own scheme of values.

The paper that is dominated by its duty to the public interest cannot by the nature of its sacred calling conceive its function as purely commercial. It places its doctrine of the public good above every other consideration-even that of popularity and revenue. Indeed, little or no distinction was made historically between the account of an event and the editor's opinion of it.

Circulation was small because of the high price. The papers were sold by six dollars in annual subscription. And because the papers were beyond the comprehension of the great mass of

the people, for the editor presupposed his reader to be a man of education, interested mainly in affairs of state and in business.

The professional attitude was challenged by the penny press. Its object was to sell, not its influences, but the news, and its customers, therefore, were those who were more interested in the news than in the editor's interpretation of the news.

Before the penny papers there were many weeklies and dailies in seaboard cities in America. The typical daily was four pages long. Its front page was almost exclusively devoted to advertising, and the fourth page likewise was strictly advertising. These outside pages were like the cover of a book or magazine- one turned to the inside to find the content of the paper. Page two carried the editorial columns. Much of page two and page three detailed the arrival of ships in the harbor and the contents of their cargoes, as well as other marine news. On page two one could find an editorial on politics, as well as short "items" of news. Many of the "items" were lifted directly from other newspapers, with credit generally given. Other items were not distinguished, in layout, typography, or style, from editorial- all were expressions of the editor or his party.

Some newspapers were primarily commercial, others were political. The political papers gave greater emphasis to news of national politics. They were financed by political parties, factions of parties, or candidates for office who dictated editorial policy and sometimes wrote the editorials personally. There was nothing deceptive about this-it was standard practice and common knowledge. The party papers were dependent on political leaders, not only for their initial capital and their point of view, but for maintenance through the paid publication of legal notices when the party they backed held power.

The commercial press and the party press had several important features in common. First, they were expensive and had low circulation. The papers were generally sold only by subscription, and annual subscriptions ranged from eight to ten dollars. Newspaper readership was confined to mercantile and political elites; it is no wonder, then, that newspaper content was limited to commerce and politics. But, their editors, in which they took great pride, were strongly partisan, provocative, and ill-tempered. Editing a newspaper was an intensely personal matter. One man generally served as editor, reporter, business manager, and printer. Their dependency on politicians and merchants for the contents of the papers made them little more than secretaries.

Many newspapers named themselves in a way that shows their primary purpose, i.e., commercial. They had the words "advertiser," "commercial," and "mercantile" in their titles. But, after 1830, there was a movement from "advertiser" to "heralds" and "sun", which has been called the "commercial revolution" in the American press. The "commercial revolution" refers not to all newspapers in the period but to those which most radically broke with tradition and established the model which the mainstream of American journalism has since followed. These were the "penny papers." As the name suggests, what was most obviously original about them is that they sold for a penny, not six cents. Further rather than selling by annual subscription, they were hawked in the streets each day by newsboys. Their circulation was correspondingly enormous compared to the six-penny journals. The first penny paper, the New York Sun, first published September 3, 1833, had the largest circulation of any paper in the city within a few months-by January, 1834, it claimed a circulation of 5,000.

Second, advertising became more strictly an economic exchange, not a moral one: older journals had often refused to print ads for what they believed to be objectionable advertising. The penny press, in contrast, was not very fussy about who advertised in its columns. They appealed to the equal right of any advertiser to employ the public press, so long as the advertiser paid. Penny papers were self-righteous in defending their wide-open practices. The six-penny papers criticized the penny press for its advertising policies and centered especially on the large number of patent medicine ads. All the penny papers, to greater or lesser degrees, adopted the language and morality of *laissez faire*.

The revolution of the penny press

The penny papers made their way in the world by seeking large circulation and the advertising is attracted, rather than by trusting to subscription fees and subsidies from political parties. This rationalized the economic structure of the newspaper publishing. Sources of income that depended on social ties or political fellow feeling were replaced by market-based income from advertising and sales. Sales moved to a cash bases, and the old complaints of editors about subscribers who would not pay declined.

With the advent of the penny press the real change or revolution in American journalism was took place in the 1830s. Penny press appeared most powerful. They reflected political, social, and technological changes that a thoughtful man might well have been alarmed about. The revolution led to the triumph of "news" over the editorial and "facts over opinion, a change which was shaped by the expansion of democracy and the market, and which led, in time, to the journalist's uneasy allegiance to objectivity.

Most of the penny papers, including all of the pioneers in the field, claimed political independence, something that earlier papers rarely pretended to. They were not only formally independent of political parties but were, relatively speaking, indifferent to political events, but not all.

The penny press was novel, not only in economic organization and political instance, but in its content. The character of this originality is simply put: the penny press invented the modern concept of "news." For the first time the American newspaper made it a regular practice to print political news, not just foreign but domestic, and not just national but local; for the first time it printed reports from the police, from the courts, from the streets, and from private households. One might say that, for the first time, the newspaper reflected not just commerce or politics but social life. To be more precise in the 1830s the newspapers began to reflect, not the affairs of an elite in a small trading society, but the activities of an increasingly varied, urban, and middle-class society of trade, transportation and manufacturing.

The six-penny papers responded to the penny newcomers with charges of sensationalism. This accusation was substantiated less by the way the penny papers treated the news (there were no sensational photographs, of course, no cartoons or drawings, no large headlines) than by the fact that the penny papers would print "news"-as we understand-at all. It was common for penny papers, covering a murder trial, to take a verbatim transcript of the trial and spread it across most, or all, of the front page. What the six-penny press decried as immoral was that a murder trial should be reported at all. The typical news story was the verbatim report,

whether it be of a presidential address, a murder trial, or the annual statement of the United States Treasury.

News became the mainstay of the daily paper. The penny papers did not depend on the usual trickle of stale news but sought out the news. One way to see the dominance of the newspaper by news, which the penny press initiated, is to regard it as the decline of the editorial. This is much less than the whole story, but it was one of the ways in which contemporaries understood the change they were witnessing. The editorial was dying and only the news was the "point of rivalry" between papers. The success of journal had come to depend "wholly and absolutely upon its success in getting, and its skills in exhibiting, the news. The word newspaper is the exact and complete description of the thing which the true journalist aims to produce.

With the penny press a newspaper sold a product to the general readership and sold the readership to the advertisers. The product sold to readers was "news," and it was an original product in several aspects. First it claimed to represent, colorfully but without partisan coloring, events in the world. Thus the news product of one paper could be compared to that of another for accuracy, completeness, liveliness, and timeliness.

The penny papers' concept of news not only created news as a marketable product whose attributes-particularly timeliness-could be measured, it invented a genre which acknowledged, and enhanced, the importance of everyday life. They made "human interest story" their most characteristic feature. With this it, ushered in a new order, a shared social universe in which "public" and "private" would be redefined.

Generally the new press was distinctive economically-in selling cheaply, in its distribution by newsboys, and in its reliance on advertising; politically-in its claims to independence from party and substantively-in its focus on news, a genre it invented.

These changes in journalism were closely connected to broad social, economic and political change-"democraticmarket society." This meant the expansion of a market economy and political democracy or, put another way, the democratization of business and politics sponsored by an urban middle class which trumpeted "equality" in social life.

2.2.3. The independent press: news and advertising

The newspaper was now a capital investment and the change was reflected in its internal economy. In order to live, then, the paper found itself drawn into a race for scoops or beats. When Pulitzer, in 1833, entered the New York field by buying the World, the modern tricks of news treatment had their beginning.

Significance of the Penny Press

At this point, we should consider the major changes in journalism that were prompted by the success of the mass press during from 1833 to 1860. In short, we can identify four such changes. The penny press changed:

The basis of economic support for newspapers-: Before the penny press, most of a newspaper's economic support came from subscription revenue. The large circulation

of the penny papers made advertisers realize that they could reach a large segment of potential buyers by purchasing space. Moreover, the readership of the popular papers cut across political party and social class lines, thereby assuring a potential advertiser a broadly based audience. As a result, advertisers were greatly attracted to this new medium, and the mass newspapers relied significantly more on advertising revenues than did their predecessors.

The pattern of newspaper distribution-: Older papers were distributed primarily through the mail; the penny press, although relying somewhat on subscriptions, also made use of street sales. Soon it became common to hear newsboys hawking papers at most corners in the large cities. Since these papers had to compete with one another in the open marketplace of the street, editors went out of their way to find original and exclusive news that would give their paper an edge.

The definition of what constituted news-: The penny press also redefined the concept of news. The penny press hired people to go out and look for news. Reporters were assigned to special beats: police, financial, sports, and religion, to name a few. Foreign correspondents were popular. Newspapers changed their emphasis from the commercial elite to the social life of the rising middle classes.

The techniques of news collection-: This shift meant that news became more of a commodity, something that had value. And, like many commodities, fresh news was more valuable than stale news. Any scheme that would get the news into the paper faster was tried. Stories were sent by carrier pigeon, pony express, railroads, and steamships as the newspapers kept pace with the advances in transportation.

2.2.4. Yellow journalism

Yellow journalism/press is a type of journalism that presents little or no legitimate well-researched news and instead uses shocking/emotive aspects, eye-catching headlines to sell more newspapers. Yellow press by its nature is heavily reliant on unnamed sources. It is a term used to refer to the newspaper products of the 1890s, which were characterized by irresponsible, unethical, and sensational news gathering and exhibition.

By the late nineteenth century, spots of color appeared now and again amid the black-and-white columns of newsprint. That staple of the modern newspaper, the *Sunday* funnies, was added when improvements in color printing led William Randolph Hearst to bring out a comic strip supplement in 1896. Color comics began when it was decided to add yellow ink regularly to an outlandish skirt worn by a little boy in one strip, *Hogan's Alley*. The immediate popularity of this addition led to the character becoming known as *The Yellow Kid*. More than that, the kind of sensational news featured in newspapers owned by Hearst and Pulitzer was pinned with the appellation, *yellow journalism*. The unpleasant, insulting phrase stuck long after the comic strip stopped running. As for color comics themselves, in time all the Sunday comics were printed in a variety of bold colors. Comic books followed on the magazine racks.

Competition between William Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer spawned an era of investigative reporting and sensationalism known as “yellow journalism”.

Pulitzer's New York *World* at two cents built a daily circulation of 1.5 million, the nation's first mass circulation newspaper. Unlike most newspapers of its day, the *World* was politically and socially liberal. It was filled with spicy news reports (headlines like "Little Lotta's Lovers" and "Baptized in Blood"⁴), sports coverage, and circulation-raising stunts such as sending reporter "Nellie Bly" (her real name was Elizabeth Cochrane) into an insane asylum as a patient to expose its awful conditions, and in 1889 sending her around the world by ship, train, horse, and sampan to beat fictional Phineas Fogg's trip *Around the World in Eighty Days*. Nearly a million readers entered a contest to guess how long it would take her. Nellie Bly did it in 72 days.

Yellow journalism is a term used for the use of negligent and flamboyant newspaper reporting, without regarding to facts. With yellow journalism the truth is usually misrepresented or concealed, more often than not, there may be no truth to the story at all. In its infancy, the term yellow journalism was used to describe the writing tactics used by William Hearst's New York Journal and Joseph Pulitzer's New York World. These men used yellow journalism to exaggerate and misguide the American public on happenings in Cuba; such reporting may have even sparked the Spanish-American war. Yellow journalism is by no means a memory in America's distant past; even the most conservative newspapers still practice it in a refined form today.

Yellow journalism is biased opinion masked as objective fact. And its practice involves sensationalism, distorted stories, and misleading images for the sole purpose of boosting newspaper sales and exciting public opinion. It was particularly indicative of two papers founded and popularized in the late 19th century – The New York World, run by Joseph Pulitzer and The New York Journal, run by William Randolph Hearst. Moreover, one of the most important characteristics of yellow journalism is the endless drive for circulation. And unfortunately, the publisher's greed was very often put before ethics.

Tabloids such as the *Star* and the *Inquirer* are notorious for sensationalizing and even falsifying headlines. Additionally, every once in a while straight edged newspaper such as the Wall Street Journal may get into the act as well. In 1996, ABC News was singled out for reporting that "Israel's Benjamin Netanyahu had called then Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin a traitor, further investigation revealed that the accusation was false".

Sensational journalist refers to news that exaggerates or features lurid details and depictions of events in order to get a larger audience.

The term yellow journalism is alive and well today, more than 100 years after it was coined. The connotations associated with the use of the word are also quite clear-sensationalized and irresponsible news reporting.

Four Major Myths about Yellow Journalism

Joseph Campbell's Book, which entitled "*Yellow Journalism: Puncturing the Myths, Defining the Legacies*", 2003 embarked on a content analysis of newspapers in ten-year periods from 1899 through 1999. And, he came up with the following conclusions upon the 'four myths of yellow journalism':

1. The term yellow journalism was used to describe the writing tactics used by William Hearst's *New York Journal* and Joseph Pulitzer's *New York World*. Campbell's first endeavor was targeted on knowing the origin of the term yellow journalism, and finally he conclude that after conducting meticulous research that the term first appeared in the New York Press in January 1897 and was "not directly" associated with the Hearst-Pulitzer rivalry over the cartoon character the "yellow Kid."
2. An assumption that the yellow journals appealed primarily to the lowbrow audiences of the late 1800s and early 1900s. With regard to this myth Campbell (2003) writes: "To characterize yellow journalism as appealing principally or exclusively to downscale readers not only is elitist: It misrepresents the broad appeal of the genre..."
3. The assumption or the myth that yellow journals played a large role in the United States getting involved in, or sparked, the Spanish-American war. But, Joseph Campbell (2003) found no evidence that the Spanish American war was greatly influenced by the yellow press newspapers.
4. Yellow journals deliberately mislead the American public on happenings in Cuba

2.2.5. Defining features of newspapers

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Frequency of newspaper

Daily

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

National newspaper

Most nations have at least one newspaper that circulates throughout the whole country. And only these are publications whose content is geared not for one particular city or region but for the entire country. Handful of papers falls into this category. In the United Kingdom, there are numerous national newspapers, including The Independent, The Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian, The Observer, The Daily Mail, The Sun, The Daily Express and The Daily Mirror. In the United States and Canada, there are few national newspapers. Almost every market has one or two newspapers that dominate the area.

Large metropolitan dailies

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

Suburban Dailies

Suburban dailies, located in the areas surrounding the large cities, are experiencing a period of growth. Zoned editions newspapers often refine distribution of ads and news through zoning. Zoning occurs when advertising and editorial content change to reflect the location to which the product is delivered. The editorial content often may change merely to reflect changes in advertising the quantity and layout of which affects the space available for editorial or may contain region-specific news. In rare instances, the advertising may not change from one zone to another, but there will be different region-specific editorial content. As the content can vary widely, zoned editions are often produced in parallel.

Small Town Dailies

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

Weeklies newspaper

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

Special service weeklies

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

Minority weeklies

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

By format

Most modern newspapers are in one of the two sizes:

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

Tabloids: half the size of broadsheets at 380mm by 300mm (15 by 11¾ inches) and often perceived as sensationalist in contrast to broadsheets. Examples: The Sun, The National Enquire, The National Ledger, The Star Magazine, New York Post, The Chicago Sun-Times, The Globe. And list common and the third type of format is **Berliner** or **Midi:** 470mm by 315mm (18½ by 12¼ inches) used by European papers such as Le Monde in France, La Stamp in Italy, EI Pais in Spain and, since 12 September 2005, The Guardian in the United Kingdom.

Newspapers are usually printed on inexpensive, off-white paper known as newsprint. Since the 1980s, the newspaper industry has largely moved away from lower-quality letterpress printing to higher-quality, four-color process, offset printing. In addition, desktop computers, word processing software, graphics software, digital cameras and digital prepress and typesetting technologies have revolutionized the newspaper production process. These technologies have enabled newspapers to publish color photographs and graphics, as well as innovative layouts and better design.

To capture readers attention

Newspapers are doing the following to attract or hold readers attention:

- ✚ They are using more color. *Times* and *Conservative Wall Street* journal have introduce color to their pages.
- ✚ They are changing their writing and editing style. Stories are shorter and accompanied by summary decks under the headline or have story related information in sidebars on either side of the story. Some papers run high lighten synopses within long stories.
- ✚ They are changing the content of the paper. Many papers have become less dependent on lengthy stories dealing with local government. Appearing with more frequency are feature dealing with lifestyles, fashions and entertainment, and articles usually described as “news than you can use.”

Newspapers Online

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

Online papers have certain advantages over traditional newspapers:

- ✚ Printed newspapers are limited by news hole, the amount of news that can be printed in one edition. Online papers have no such limitations. The full text of length speeches, transcripts of interviews, and extensive tables and graphs can be easily accommodates.
- ✚ Online papers can be updated continuously. There are no edition deadlines for online papers.
- ✚ Online papers are interactive. E-mail address, bulletin boards, and chat rooms allow readers to provide quick feedback to the paper. Many have searchable archives and links to other sites.

Economics of newspaper

Revenue

Newspapers derive their income from two sources: advertising, which provide about 80% of the total and circulation (revenue from subscriptions and single copy sale), which accounts from the other 20%. Advertising revenue is closely related to circulation since papers with a large circulation are able to charge more for ads that will reach a large audience. And it comes from four separate sources; local retail advertising, classified ads, national advertising and prepaid inserts.

General Expenditures

The cost of running a newspaper can be viewed in several ways. One common method is to divide the costs by function:

1. News and editorial costs
2. Expenses involved in selling local, national, and classified ads
3. Mechanical costs, including typesetting and plate production
4. Printing costs such as newsprint (the paper), ink, and the cost of running the press. Printing costs will increase as the number of printed copies increased.
5. Circulation and distribution costs. It will increase with circulation size.
6. General administrative costs, such as secretarial and clerical services and the cost of soliciting for subscriptions.

2.2.6. NEWSPAPER ORGANIZATIONS

Organizational structure of a newspaper

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

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

Editorial wing

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

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

Business department

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

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

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

Mechanical department

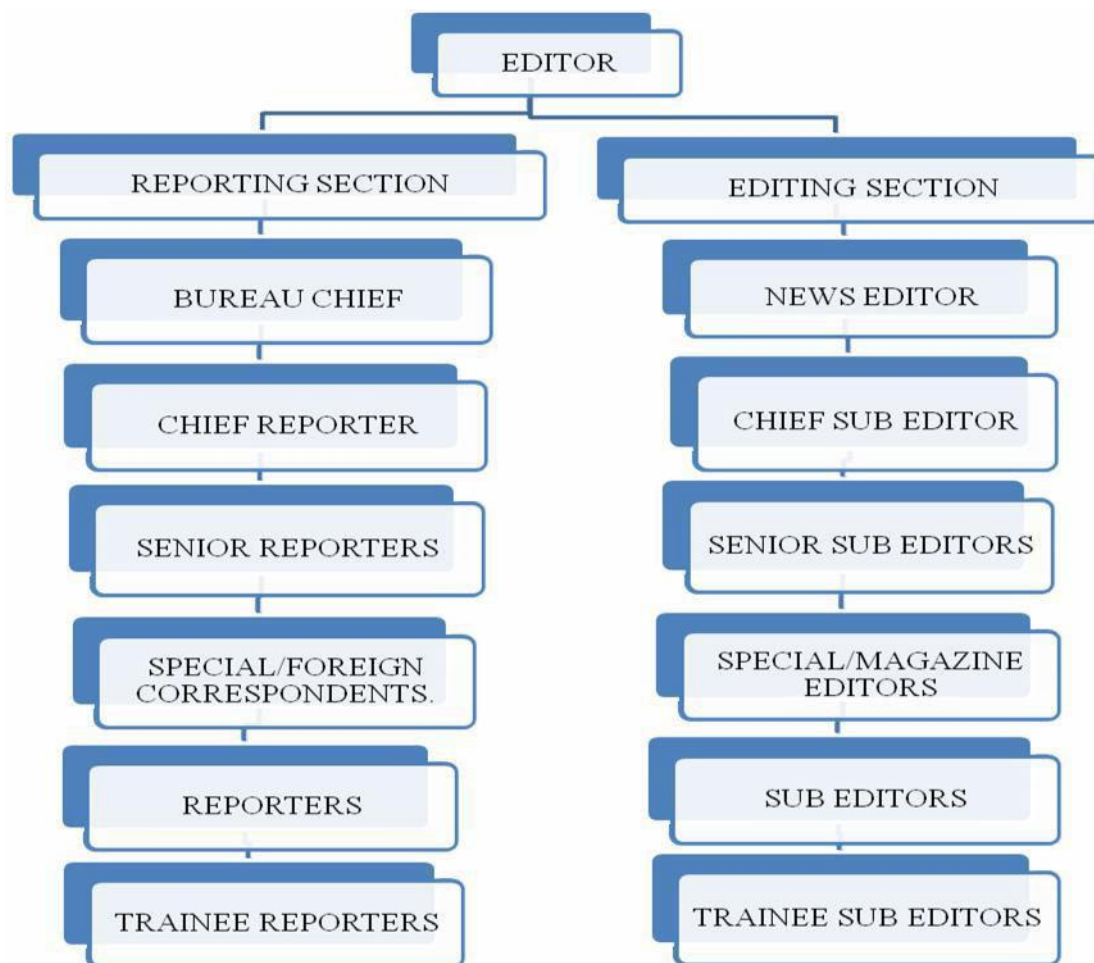
The mechanical department generally is divided into four parts-composing, engraving, stereotyping and press. In the first, the copy is set into type. The engraving wing is concerned with photos and drawings and makes cuts for printing. In the stereotyping room, the plates for the press are cast in the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

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

Structure of the Editorial Department

Atop the editorial hierarchy ranks the editor or an editor-in-chief who plans and directs the day to day operations, supported by a team of news editors, chief sub editors, senior sub

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



Editor

The editor holds the key position in the newspaper organization. He is responsible for the editorial content of the newspaper including everything from comics to news stories to editorials. It is the editor who can be sued for libel, who can be hauled up before Court, Parliament and legislatures for contempt.

A good editor of a newspaper is aware of the scope and interpretation of news. He takes all important decisions connected with the publication of news and expression of opinion on vital national and international issues and events.

News editor

The actual news production process is handled by the news editor in a newspaper. All major decisions regarding coverage of news stories are taken by the news editor in consultations with the bureau chief. The news editor coordinates the news collection process, the editing and the final presentation of news.

Chief sub editor

Chief sub editor ensures that copies are judiciously distributed among the sub editors and also ascertains that the copies are edited properly and that they conform to publication style and editorial policy. He may initiate or reply to correspondence regarding material published or being considered for publication.

Sub editors

The sub editor or copy editor is described as “the mid wife to the story” and “an unsung hero of a newspaper”. Sub editors work on the copy prepared by reporters. They have no direct involvement in news events. Still they make the copy attractive. He/she selects news events, removes unnecessary parts and arranges available information in order. He/she has to check and recheck facts, style, grammar, etc. while editing a story in newspaper. They are also required to put suitable headlines for each story. A good copy editor is an intelligent reader, a tactful and sensitive critic. As the saying goes “any fool can write, it needs a heaven born genius to edit”.

Reporters and freelancers

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

Reporters should be skilled at:

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

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

Freelancers

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

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

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

2.2.7. Strengths and weaknesses of Print Media

Today, more than a billion people a day, across the planet, read a daily newspaper in print. The contribution of print media in providing information and transfer of knowledge is remarkable. Even after the advent of electronic media, the print media has not lost its charm or relevance. As a source of information, each medium has some distinct advantages over the others. In other words, each new mass medium that arises has its own peculiar quality, and brings its own advantages and limitations.

Strengths of Newspapers:

- Daily newspapers generally have the larger staffs and offer more depth on a wider range of topics than broadcast media
- With introduction of online sites, many newspapers have begun to overcome the limitations of their traditional once-a-day publication schedule
- Newspapers are more convenient, since they can be read at any time or place and provide a permanent record that is easy preserve. Or, “since you can keep a newspaper or magazine forever, people can hold on to important information for further reference”.
- Employing more reporters than the broadcast media and having more space, newspapers report dozens of minor stories that the other media ignore and cover local and regional affairs more thoroughly. Or, newspapers publish an extraordinary number of detailed stories about what is happening in their local communities, and the information helps their readers plan their lives more effectively.
- The print media as a whole tend to be more outspoken and courageous than the broadcast media. “Some people believe that print stories (in newspapers) are more reliable than stories on the radio or television.”
- A single newspaper or magazine is often passed on to several friends or family members, so many readers can take advantage of one.
- Readers can read a story many times to confirm their understanding.
- Some newspapers are published only on the Internet. These are called web newspapers. And they are available worldwide.

Weaknesses of Newspapers:

- They largely reach only a literate, affluent audience, people who can read and who have enough money to buy newspapers or have access to a computer to read it online;
- Newspapers cannot compete with the on-the-spot visual coverage at which television excels
- In most developing nations, newspapers hardly reach the rural people and their circulation is deemed as few.

- It is difficult to correct mistakes in print media frequently.
- May be too expensive for some people.

2.2.8. The History of Magazine

Early Magazine Era

Magazines were a favorite medium of the British elite by the mid-1700s, and prominent colonial printers hoped to duplicate that success in the new world. The birth of the first American magazine in February 1741 was a notable event. The fact that the birth produced twins sired by two of Philadelphia's most sagacious publishers added to the wonderment.

Primary credit for the first American magazine goes to Benjamin Franklin, a young but successful printer and newspaper publisher. The first issue of his *General Magazine and Historical Chronicle* for all the British plantations in America bore the date January 1741 and was after a tremendous struggle to get its 70 plus pages into print finally, offered for sale on February 16.

In a different print shop in Philadelphia, however, another of the town's respected publishers had heard of Franklin's intentions, and also had set about the task of bringing forth the first magazine. Andrew Bradford, Franklin's chief rival in the publishing business, hurriedly put together his American magazine, or a monthly view of the political state of the British colonies, and gave it the same date, January 1741. Its product was offered for sale on February 13, three days before Franklin. Franklin managed to produce six issues before giving up; Bradford produced only three.

For more than 100 years, few magazines circulated far from their cities of publications. Magazines typically had short lives as a result of low circulation and advertising income. There was no truly national magazine before 1850.

After the civil war, magazines flourished for nearly two decades. The number of periodicals nearly quintupled from 700 in 1865 to 3300 in 1885, according to Frank Luther Mott in a history of American magazine 1865-1885.

Mass Circulation Magazine Era

In the 1890s, the United States hastened its move from an agricultural to an industrial economy. Improvements in transportation and mail service wide geographical areas. The national distribution of products brought on brand names and the national advertising necessary to promote these brand names.

At the time, the magazine was the ideal medium for national advertising and the sale of space to advertisers flourished. The rotary press also was developed, greatly speeding the production of magazines. All these occurrences favored the development of large circulation magazines. Magazines had also been helped in 1879, when congress provided lower cost mailing privileges for periodicals.

In the last decade of the 19th century, Americans could buy a wide range of magazines, including national geographic and popular science. However, most of Americans were not

magazines reader carried most of the cost for a magazine. To increase circulation, which in turn generated the sale of advertising space magazines offered readers bargain rates for subscriptions: club offers, premiums, long term discounts, and provide a profit was made at about the same time by the era's publishing giants.

And in the 1980s when publishers raised single copy and subscription prices to reduce their reliance on advertising revenue and to create a more stable revenue base.

Specialized Magazine Era

After world war II ended in 1945, the American economy expanded, television broadcasting slowly began to span the country, and the age of magazine specialization accelerated. No magazine had ever been for everybody. Mass circulation magazines reached much of the nation's population, but never a majority. All magazines had target audience, though some were broad, e.g. Evening Post.

Commercial television grew from an infant industry to a national institution in less than two decades, but it did so mostly with new advertising money rather than reallocations off money from magazines and newspapers. Magazine circulation increased 21% between 1950 and 1960, and advertising revenue increased 86%. Some individual magazine, of course, suffered during this period.

The end of the general interest magazine of broad appeal and mass circulation was signaled in 1956, when the Crowell-collier publishing company killed its last three magazines in less than six months. American a general interest monthly with more than 1 million circulation, had lost more than half of its annual advertising revenue between 1946 and 1955, and it was discontinued with the August 1956 issues. As the 1970s began, it was clear that new magazines would have to rely on their readers for more of the funds needed to stay in business.

Many magazines have succeeded in raising single copy and subscription prices substantially, but not while cutting circulation guarantees. From its inception, the magazine industry has been characterized by change, which continually produced a better and stronger industry. New magazines appear and existing magazines merge, and sold, or are discontinued, for an overall net gain.

The Modern Magazine

The 1980s and 1990s saw several notable trends in the magazine industry. Magazine publishing continued to become more concentrated as big publishing conglomerates owned more magazines. In 1999, the top five publishers accounted for about 33% of the revenue of the entire industry.

Circulation woes continued for general interest magazines. Readers digest dropped 9% from 1998 to 1999, while TV guide declined almost 12%. On the other hand, specialized publications, like entertainment and lifestyle, magazines showed large circulation gains for the same period. It was also becoming harder for magazines to attract reader's supermarkets

and other retail outlets were becoming more selective about the number of magazines they would carry on their shelves. As a result, single copy sales generally declined.

Pointing to magazine, after magazine serving individualized needs and interests of readers no discussion of magazine editing should begin without the reader as the focus.

Definition of Magazine

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

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

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

2.2.9. Types of magazines

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

Consumer magazines

Magazines sold at retail outlets are consumer magazine aimed at the general reading public. Too many persons, they represent the entire magazine industry, but they are no more than the visible tip of the iceberg. They are consumer magazines from the advertiser’s viewpoint because their readers buy and consume products and services that are sold at retail are may be advertised in these magazines.

Basically, a consumer magazine can be purchased by anyone through subscription or from retail newsstands. Many other types of magazines are not usually available to the general public. Consumer magazines usually have the largest staffs and circulation but there is wide variation, and many are put by very small editorial staffs.

Women’s and Home service magazines, Leisure time and Vocational Magazines, Metropolitan and Regional Magazine, Opinion Magazine.

Little Magazine

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

their writers than for their readers. However, a study in 1946 concluded that little magazines had discovered about 80% of the important novelists, poets, critics, who began to write after 1912, and that they introduced and remained that basic magazines to publish 95% of the poets of this period. The first modern little magazine in the United States was the short lived dial edited by Emerson.

Business Publications/Magazine

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

Public Relation Magazines

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

Public relations magazines vary in size, frequency, and purpose. Large companies, such as Ford Motor Company, have a publications division. Very small companies may have an editor in charge of the company magazine, the employee newspaper, and special brochures or other publications. There are at least six types of PR's magazines: Employee magazines, Consumer magazines, Shareholder or Corporate magazines, Sales magazines, Dealer magazines and Technical service magazines.

2.2.10. Functional Categories

A second useful way of structuring the magazine industry is to divide it by function into the production, distribution, and retail segments.

1. The production function: the production phase of the industry encompasses all the elements necessary to put out a magazine. Such as copy, art work, photos, title, layout, printing and binding.

2. The distribution function: the distribution phase of the industry handles the job of getting the magazine to the reader. It is not a simple job. In fact, the circulation department at a large magazine may be most complex in the whole company. As with newspapers, circulation means the total number of copies of the magazine that are delivered through mail subscriptions or bought at the newsstand. These are three main types of circulation.

i. **Paid circulation** means that the readers pay to receive the magazine, either through a subscription or by purchasing it at the newsstand. Paid circulation has two main

advantages. First, periodicals that use paid circulation qualify for lower, second class postal rates, and paid circulation provides a revenue source side, paid circulation magazines must undertake expensive promotional campaigns to increase subscriptions or to sell single copies. Paid circulation magazines also have the added expense of collecting subscription payments and record keeping. Most consumer magazines use paid circulation.

- ii. **Controlled circulation** is the alternative to paid circulation. Controlled circulation magazines set specific qualifications for those who are to receive the magazine. Magazines that are provided airline passengers or motel guests are examples. Advantages of controlled circulation are that publications using it can reach all the personnel in a given field and that these publications avoid the costs of promoting subscriptions and single copy sales. Further, postage for these publications costs more. Controlled circulation has generally been used by business and public relation magazines.
- iii. **Combination of paid and controlled circulation**

3. The retail function: the retailer is the last segment of the industry. Supermarket sales have become so important that publishers pay the stores a premium of about \$20 per checkout rack to have their titles prominently displayed. When a dealer receives a magazine, he or she agrees to keep the magazine on the display racks for a predetermined length of time (usually a week or a month). At the end of this period, unsold copies are returned to the wholesales for credit.

2.2.11. Ownership of Magazine Industry

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

The multiple magazine publishing companies The multiple publisher issue several magazines and many operate each as a subsidiary, division or profit center it may operate groups of magazines that way. If a single magazine or group loses money, corporation funds can be used to maintain operation until the magazine make money again or is suspended.

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

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

2.2.12. Structure of Magazine industry

Department and staff of magazines

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

Publisher

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

The Circulation Department

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

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

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

The Advertising and Sales Division

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

The Production Department

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

The Editorial Department

The editorial department handles the non-advertising content of the magazine. The person in charge may be called the executive editor, the editor-in-chief, or simply the editor. Much of the editor's time is spent in supervising the editorial staff, planning topics for upcoming issues, informing the advertising department about plans, and taking part in various public relations activities. The day-to-day operation of the magazine falls on the shoulders of the managing editor. Making sure all articles are completed on time, selecting art-work, writing

titles, changing layouts, and shortening stories are all functions performed by the managing editor. Helping the managing editor with these tasks are several editors who handle article, fiction, or other departments that appear regularly within the magazine. An art director designs the magazine, selects typefaces for headlines, and supervisors the display of photos and other illustrations.

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

2.3. Radio

2.3.1. History

In 1887, Heinrich Hertz, a German Physicist, successfully sent and detected radio waves. Guglielmo Marconi used Hertz's efforts to build a wireless communication device that could send Morse code—dots and dashes—from a transmitter to a receiver. Marconi started a wireless telegraphy company that would play an important part in early radio's development.

Reginald Fessenden and Lee De Forest provided the breakthroughs that would make broadcasting—as opposed to sending dots and dashes—possible. Fessenden, with the help of the General Electric (GE) Corporation, built a high-speed, continuous-wave generator that could broadcast the human voice and music. De Forest invented the vacuum tube, originally called the audion, which made it much easier to receive radio signals.

Big Business

After the war, corporate America recognized the potential of radio. A new company, the Radio Corporation of America (RCA), was formed and acquired the assets of the U.S. division of Marconi Company.

Mass Audience

Frank Conrad, an engineer for Westinghouse in Pittsburgh, tinkered with radio as a hobby. He built a radio transmitter in his garage and started broadcasting recorded music, reporting sports scores, and showcasing the musical abilities of his sons. In a short time, he had attracted an enthusiastic audience of radio fans. Westinghouse built a station so that Conrad's signal would be heard by more people. Westinghouse, meanwhile, would build the radio sets and receive "free" advertising because of its connection with the station. The station, KDKA, signed on in 1920 and is still on the air, making it the country's oldest station. KDKA was a success. RCA, GE, and AT&T, along with many other companies and organizations, started radio stations. Radio listening became a national craze. By discovering that an audience existed for broadcast programs intended for the general public, radio found the role it would play for the foreseeable future.

Better Receivers

Early radio receivers were not user-friendly. They were powered by an assortment of large, bulky, and sometimes leaky batteries. Tuning required patience, a steady hand, and a

knowledge of electronics. By 1926, however, set manufacturers had improved their product. Between 1925 and 1930, 17 million radio sets were sold and radio was becoming truly a mass medium.

Radio Goes Commercial

Early broadcasting wasn't expensive, and radio station owners figured they got their money's worth through the exposure they received through the station. Before long, however, operation expenses began to pile up and stations searched for a way to have their stations turn a profit. AT&T began selling time on WEAJ, to anybody who wanted to broadcast a message. The most logical customers for this new service were companies that had things to sell.

Networks

Linking radio stations into network made good economic sense. Rather than having each individual station pay the costs of producing its own program, it was much cheaper of all stations to share the cost of a single program and broadcast the same show on all stations. Moreover, a linked network of stations could give advertisers the ability to reach a larger audience in a wider geographic area.

The first network was the National Broadcasting Company (NBC), a subsidiary of RCA, set up in 1926. NBC actually started two networks. One consisted of stations originally owned by RCA, and another was made up of stations acquired from AT&T when the phone company decided to get out of the broadcasting business. NBC got a competitor when the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) went on the air the next year. William S. Paley, whose career with CBS would last into the 1980s, headed the new network.

Government Regulation

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

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

The Depression: 1930 – 1940

By most standards, radio was not hit as hard by the depression as were other industries. In fact, the amount of money spent on radio advertising tripled from 1930 to 1935. Profits may not have been as high as they might have been in better economic times, but the radio industry was able to weather the depression with relatively little hardship.

The most significant legal development for radio during the depression years was the formation of the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). Congress passed the

Communications Act of 1934, which consolidated responsibilities for broadcast and wire regulation under a new seven-member Federal Communications Commission.

Birth of FM

In the mid-1930s, Edwin Howard Armstrong, a noted inventor, demonstrated frequency modulated radio, or FM, to his friend David Sarnoff, head of RCA. Armstrong set up his own transmitter for demonstrations and by 1940 had sold the rights to manufacture FM receiving sets to several companies.

Radio Programs

Depression-era programs reflected a need for diversion and escape. Action-adventure series, such as “The Lone Ranger,” were popular, as were day-time soap operas. Network radio news grew during the 1930s, and live coverage of special events, such as the abdication of Edward VIII of England, drew huge numbers of listeners. Broadcasts from Europe on the eve of World War II kept many listeners glued to their radio set for the latest bulletins. During the war, Edward R. Murrow gained fame through his reports from war-torn London.

World War II - Radio did well during the war. The number of dollars spent on radio ads nearly doubled from 1940 to 1945. Helped by a newsprint shortage and an excess-profits tax that encouraged companies to advertise, radio broadcasting outpaced the newspapers as a national advertising vehicle in 1943.

By the end of war, ABC had 195 affiliates and was a full-fledged competitor for the older nets.

Innovation and change: 1945-1954

The nine-year period following World War II was marked by great changes in both the radio and recording industries, changes that ultimately drove them closer together. The development of television delayed the growth of FM radio, altered the nature of network radio, and forced the radio industry to rely on records as the most important part of a new programming strategy.

Despite the fact that FM sounded better than AM, was static-free, and could reproduce a wider range of sound frequencies, AM broadcasting had started first and FM had to struggle to catch up. FM had the misfortune of beginning its development at the same time as TV. Of course, the biggest change in radio’s fortunes came about because of the emergence of television. By 1948, it was apparent that TV would take over the mass entertainment function served by network radio. The emergence of TV meant changes in the content, economics, and functions of radio.

Growth and Stabilization: 1955-1990

The number of radio stations continued to grow during these years, from 3343 in 1955 to more than 7000 in 1970. The top 40 format was adopted by more and more stations and very quickly became the format of choice among young listeners – young listeners that, as it happened, had a good deal of money to spend on the records they heard played by their

favorite disc jockey, or DJ. Since at this time the DJ had control of what songs were played on the air, he or she became the focus of promotional efforts by record companies to gain airplay for their new songs. All too soon this arrangement led to the growth of **payola**.

The most significant development in radio during the 1970s and 1980s was the successful emergence of FM. Between 1960 and 1970, the number of FM stations tripled. Profits continued to increase for FM as it captured more and more of the listening audience. In 1990, FM accounted for about 70 percent of all audience listening time, with AM accounting for less than 30 percent.

A noncommercial radio network, National Public Radio (NPR), went on the air in the early 1970s with an 80-station network. Over the next five years, its number of affiliates doubled, and by 1980 it was reaching a cumulative audience of more than 5 million people per week.

The Volatile 1990s

The pivotal event for radio in the 1990s was the passage of the Telecommunications Act of 1996. The act was concerned primarily with encouraging competition in the new communication technologies, but the radio industry, through skillful lobbying, was able to include itself in the bill.

The radio industry became even more consolidated as a few large group owners dominated the industry. On the programming front, talk became the hottest format on Am radio, thanks to the success of such performers as Rush Limbaugh, Dr. Laura Schlessinger, Tom Joyner, and Howard Stern.

Finally, economic prosperity and an influx of advertising from dot-com companies boosted radio revenues to record levels. As the new century dawned, however, traditional analog radio was facing increased competition from some digital broadcasters.

2.3.2. Radio in the Digital Age

Radio has moved slowly into the digital age. Thousands of radio stations have websites, and many now offer streaming radio. Broadcasters got their wish in the late 1990s when an IBOC (in-band, on-channel) system of digital broadcasting was developed. Digital radio broadcasting has several advantages. First, it improves sound quality. An AM digital signals sounds as good as a traditional FM signal; digital FM signals sound as good as CDs. Further, digital signals are virtually static-free.

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

Satellite radio faces some major challenges. The appropriate satellites have to be launched into the proper orbits. Further, people are not used to paying money for radio programming. These facts notwithstanding, the radio industry is somewhat concerned about the potential of

satellite radio because it reaches consumers in their cars, a listening situation that analog radio currently monopolizes.

Internet-Only Stations

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

2.3.3. Defining Features of Radio

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

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

Local Stations, Nets, and Syndicators

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

The distinction between a net and a syndication service is that all stations on a network carry the net program at the same time, while syndicated programming is carried at different times by the stations. In practice, however, much syndicated programming is satellite-delivered and carried simultaneously, and many network affiliates tape net programming and broadcast it later. To make it more complicated, the traditional networks also offer syndicated programs. Consequently, the distinction between the two services may no longer be meaningful.

AM and FM Stations

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

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

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

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

Noncommercial Radio

Many of the early radio stations that went on the air during the 1920s were founded by educational institutions. As the commercial broadcasting system became firmly established, many educational stations were bought by commercial broadcasters, and the fortunate of noncommercial radio dwindled. In 1945, with the coming of FM broadcasting, the FCC set aside several frequencies for educational broadcasting.

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

Noncommercial stations are served by National Public Radio (NPR).

Producing Radio Programs

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

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

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

Sources of Revenue

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

General Expenses

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

2.3.4. Strengths and weaknesses of Radio

Strengths of Radio

- Radio, one of the most widely used sources of news in the world, has the advantage of speed and easy availability;
- Radio is the fastest means of disseminating news. In other words, radio reports the news more quickly than newspapers.
- It can be received in areas without electricity since it uses batteries
- Radio brings that world to those who cannot read and helps maintain a contact for those who cannot see. Illiteracy [unable to read and write, uneducated] is not barrier/problem to radio usage. Radio broadcast is very effective in reaching poor areas where illiteracy is high and can support traditional school education. It can also make public services more responsive to the poor, improve public health efforts by demonstrating educational campaigns, and increase people's knowledge about ways for them so that they can participate in the government processes.
- Its production is relatively cheap or inexpensive
- Live broadcasting of radio news is easy
- It is versatile - we can listen it in the bedroom, the bathroom, shower, at the breakfast table, when you are waking up, driving a car, talking, doing housework, studying, playing at the beach, shaving. Or, anyone who has a radio can hear the news almost anywhere at any time.
- Radio is the most immediate, intimate and accessible
- Books and magazines can be stopped at national frontiers but radio is no respecter of territorial limits. Its signals clear mountain barriers and cross ocean deeps.
- Radio news is on the air many times a day, so it is frequently updated;

- Radio reporters tell stories with sound as well as words, so listeners feel they have experienced some of what the event was really like;
- The British Social Attitudes Survey of 1998 found that radio had the highest trust rating of all the media -70% of respondents said they trusted radio journalists, compared to 15% who trusted the national press.
- Radio is the most important mass medium in Africa now and will continue to play the most important role in information dissemination for many years; only after a far greater proportion of the populace become literate will newspapers grow significantly in importance for the people as a whole.

Weaknesses of Radio

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

2.4. Television

2.4.1. History

The two men who developed television in the United States could not have been more different. At the age of 16, Philo Farnsworth diagrammed his idea for a television system on the chalkboard in front of his somewhat amazed high school teacher. Farnsworth, an individualistic and lone-wolf inventor, worked at developing his new device, which he called an image dissector, and eventually patented it in 1930. In contrast, Vladimir Zworykin was an organization man, working first with Westinghouse and then with RCA. By 1928, he had perfected a primitive camera tube, the iconoscope. Picture quality of the early television systems was poor, but technical developments during the 1930s improved performance.

The initial public response to TV was lukewarm. Sets were expensive and there weren't many programs for people to watch. Even early TV actors were somewhat skeptical about the future of the new medium. They had to wear green makeup to look normal for the TV camera and swallowed salt tablets because the intense heat of the lights necessary for TV made them perspire constantly.

World War II interrupted TV's development. When peace returned in 1945, new technology that had been perfected during the war greatly improved TV reception and the working

conditions of the performers. New TV cameras required much less light. TV screens were bigger. There were more programs available, and stations were being linked into networks. All the signs pointed to big things for TV. In 1945, there were only eight TV stations and 8000 homes with TV in the entire United States. Ten years later, there were nearly a hundred stations, and 35 million households, about 67 percent of the country, had TV.

UHF and Color

The new UHF channels were not doing well. Few sets equipped with UHF receivers were made during the 1950s. The UHF stations had smaller coverage areas than the VHF stations, and most advertising dollars went to VHF stations. As a result, UHF TV, much like FM radio, started off at a disadvantage.

Color television was introduced during the 1950s. Led by NBC (RCA, the parent company, was manufacturing color TV sets), the networks were broadcasting about two to three hours of color programming per day by 1960.

The Golden Age of Television

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

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

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

Television in the 1960s

By the early 1960s, TV had lost its novelty and became just another part of everyday life. The number of TV stations continued to increase, and by the close of the decade, more than 95 percent of all American households owned at least one TV.

Television journalism came of age during the 1960s. NBC and CBS expanded their nightly newscasts from 15 to 30 minutes in 1963, and ABC followed suit shortly thereafter. In November of that year, TV journalism earned praise for its professionalism during its coverage of the assassination and funeral of President John F. Kennedy. The networks also covered the Civil Rights movement and the growing social unrest across the country. Perhaps the most exciting moment for television news came in 1969 with its live coverage of Neil Armstrong's historic walk on the moon.

Noncommercial broadcasting also evolved during the 1960s. About 69 educational stations were broadcasting by 1965.

Television programs popular in the early 1960s included a number of rural comedies.

The 1970s: Growing Public Concern - As the 1970s began, public concern over the impact of television programming was growing. A panel of scientists set up by the Surgeon General's office to investigate the impact of exposure to TV violence was related in a modest way to aggressive behavior in some young children.

The 1980s and 1990s: Increased Competition

The biggest trends in the TV industry in the 1980s and 1990s were the increased competition from new networks and cable channels.

Cable reached more than 68 percent of the population by 2000.

Television in the Digital Age

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

2.4.2. Defining Features of Television

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

Organization of the Broadcast television Industry

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

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

Production

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

Distribution

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

Exhibition

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

TV Online

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

Producing Television Programs

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

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

Commercial Time

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

National advertisers are those that sell general-consumption items. These advertisers try to reach the biggest possible audience for their messages and usually purchase commercial time on broadcast network programs or cable networks. In contrast, other advertisers have products that are used mainly in one region or local. These companies turn to national spot

buying. Finally, there are many local businesses that buy advertising time from TV stations. They purchase time on one or more TV stations or cable system located in a single market.

Where Did the Money Go?

At the network level, one of the biggest expenses is programming.

2.4.3. Strengths and weaknesses of Television

Strengths of Television

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

Weaknesses of Television

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

2.5. New Media

2.5.1. The internet

In 1960s first ideas about Internet came up and basic researches started by the Defense Advanced Research Project Agency –DARPA (it is an agency of the United States Department of Defense responsible for the development of new technology for use by the military). In 1969 there was only a network called ARPANET which connects only four universities main computers with each other. In 1991 there were only technical developments in Internet until the invention of World Wide Web protocol by Cern Institute.

The Internet has grown rapidly since its invention. With Internet, people from all over the world started to communicate with each other on easily, fast and at lower expenses.

The fast and vast growth of the Internet and World Wide Web has spawned the newest medium for journalism, on-line (Cyber) journalism. Although the terms Internet and World Wide Web are often used interchangeably, they are technically distinct. The Internet is a global computer network originally developed as a research and communications system for university and government groups. The World Wide Web (or Web), on the other hand, is a graphical interface developed to make it easier to locate and move between documents and other resources on the Internet. The development of the World Wide Web took the Internet from its roots as a relatively obscure tool used primarily by academics and government employees to the widespread, multifunctional international phenomenon that it has become today. Similarly, Internet vs. World Wide Web, contrary to popular belief, these two terms do not mean the same thing. The Internet refers to the network of connected computers that share information. The World Wide Web refers to a way of accessing information through the Internet using the hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) and Web browsers. It does not include other protocols such as e-mail, instant messaging and file transfer Protocol (FTP). World Wide Web (WWW) begins in 1991.

2.5.2. How the Internet works

As you probably know, the Internet refers to a series of computers that are connected and share information. A Web server is a special type of computer that stores and distributes/presents information over the Internet.

But how does it know which information to serve? The URL (uniform resource locator) or Web address is the key and is very similar to how you receive mail at your home or office. Although you recognize a Web address like www.yahoo.com, Web servers know that location as 209.73.186.238. That's the IP address (IP = Internet Protocol), which is a unique, numeric identity of a Web server location. All Web addresses have corresponding IP addresses that computers recognize but people never would. Registering a domain name secures a human-readable Web address and associates it with a numeric and computer friendly IP address.

When a browser retrieves a Web page and brings it back to you, it makes a copy of the various pieces that make up that particular Web page and stores those files on your computer. This is called the cache. The cache is a temporary storage of all the files you download during your Web browsing. You can adjust the settings on the cache in your browser to store a little or a lot of these temporary files. It's a good idea to clear your cache regularly to help your browser run efficiently. It also deletes unneeded temporary files from your computer, which helps your entire system run better.

2.5.3. Welcome to Web 2.0

The most important development that made Internet such a useful platform was the web concept called "Web 2.0" invented by the founder of the O'Reilly Media, Tim O'Reilly.

Web 2.0 is described 'as a platform whereby content and applications are no longer created and published by individuals, but instead are continuously modified by all users in a participatory and collaborative fashion'. In other words, Web 2.0 allows the creation and exchange of **User Generated Content**.

User-generated content (UGC) describes the various forms of media content that are created by and available to users. Content must meet three basic requirements to qualify as UGC:

- It must be published to all Web users or to a select group (which might exclude emails or instant messages).
- It should demonstrate some creative effort and not simply replicate the work of another.
- It must be created outside of professional routines and practices and not for a commercial market.

Web 2.0 is all about open — open-source software allowing users control and flexibility, open standards to allow new creation. Web publishers are creating platforms instead of content. Users are creating the content. This is the movement that led Time magazine to declare “You” as the Person of the Year, explaining, “In 2006, the World Wide Web became a tool for bringing together the small contributions of millions of people and making them matter.”

2.5.4. Web Journalism

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

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

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

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

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

This brings in the distinction between online news and Web journalism. In his introduction to *Online Journalism: A Critical Primer*, Jim Hall notes that "The print journalist is effectively a story teller and the nature of story demands the series of filters and blind entries determined by the conventional structure of the 'inverted pyramid' if it is to attain its end. Increasingly the online journalist abjures that historic role to act as guide and commentator to primary sources.... As readers become their own story tellers the role of 'gatekeeper' is largely passed from the journalists to them."

Thus, the gate keeping functions of media has been eroded with the advent of online media. However, journalism exists only where there is gate keeping and some kind of cross checking and filtering. (Hence the difference between online news and Web journalism). The new technology definitely has diminished the agenda setting capabilities of media as the readers have direct access to different sources, especially the primary sources on the Web. The hyperlinks allow the readers to leave the narration (of a story) any time and follow different paths. This is why Hall says that the role of gatekeeper's gets passed on to the readers.

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

2.5.5. Characteristics of Web Journalism

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

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

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

2.5.5.1. Interactivity

Interactivity of the Web, including choice before the readers to wander off from a given story through hyper linking, reduces editorial control. The reader's behavior will be unpredictable when the story is offered with hyperlinks, Apart from following the hyperlinks; he has the choice of switching to another publication instantaneously. Very often journalists, on their part, cannot even present a whole product as readers will be entering a site laterally through search engines or hyperlinks to read a single story. Even a whole story may not be looked at.

These kinds of problems exist even in respect of print media. However, a reader would not easily throw away a newspaper he has brought for reading. Though stories may not be read in full, the journalists at least have some control. They can keep the reader interested through skilled narration. This would not work well with the Web as most readers only scan material on the computer screen. (This is mainly because of the spatial rigidity and low resolution of the screens that reduces readability. The situation may improve with advances in technology). Here, presentational elements like sub heads would help to retain reader attention as he scans through the material. Pictures may not be of much help. An eye tracking study by Stanford University and the Poynter Institute suggested that visitors scanned for text and links rather than visuals. They did not even care much for animations.

Yet, interactivity has its advantages. You get feed backs, sometimes almost instantaneously. This never happens in the print as feedback is always limited and delayed. If the Web site provides for unmoderated feedback, reader responses appear as soon as they are posted. On several occasions, reader inputs can enhance the report itself.

It is possible to offer tremendous amounts of background and other information to those readers who are looking for in-depth material through external links and links to the publication's archives. Background and archive material could be offered in a multi deck fashion where the decks could be traversed back and forth using links or the back button of the browser. (Archives material can have links to the home page and even sections though a link back to the original report would be impractical unless some new technology makes that possible). The linked stories can go on like thousand and one nights until the reader gets tired of it or is satisfied.

Though much depth can thus be achieved, in practice, the nature of the screen puts a severe limitation on how much the reader can see, and how much he would be willing to scroll and go through. Effort is needed on the part of the reader to wade through the material offered. Apart from screen resolution, the multiplicity of choices makes the task of the reader difficult. Interactivity is central to the New Media that he cannot be passive like when he is watching television.

Hence, the editor's job becomes one of assisting the reader in his interactive exercise. She at least makes some selections for him when thousands of related links are available. Here, she should be doing better than search engines. Otherwise editors would become extinct. The editor here is handicapped by the fact that she will have lesser knowledge of her would be audience compared to her counterparts in print or broadcast media. Knowing the reader and targeting is next to impossible because of the global reach of the media. She can only produce pages with a set of readers in mind. But it can turn out they are not the ones who visit the site or not tile only ones who are interested. Increased scope for reader comments on the Web interface solves this problem to some extend. Many news sites now carry a large number of reader comments. Some allow them to post instantaneously without moderation. The comments may give some indication as to who the readers and where they come from.

Technology too can help in this respect. The log files give considerable information as to who the visitors are and what they were looking for. Online editors should make it a point to go through at least the log file summaries. Learning to peruse the raw log file itself could be an advantage. Some papers collect reader profiles by asking for registration of visitors.

However, this has the disadvantage that some readers would keep off the site just because they do not want to register.

Advertisers too face the problem of targeting on the Web. Some of them have even developed intrusive technologies to collect reader profiles and reader habits. These technologies, however, invite charges of privacy intrusions especially when it is not done with the knowledge of the reader. When advertisers on news sites are doing it, it may not make a difference if the news sites themselves do it. However, an international consensus on best practices in this respect is yet to evolve.

2.5.5.2. Convergence

The Web has made convergence of text, pictures, graphics, audio and video possible. News sites can now combine all these to present news stories. Many have predicted convergence happening in newsrooms with reporters writing text, recording sound and reporting in front of camera while the editors handle all the three. Yet, a proper journalistic form for using all the three media (print, audio and video) to tell a story is yet to emerge. Either different media is chosen according to subject or a second or third media used to supplement the first. They often remain separate on news sites, though technically it is possible to combine them as a multimedia presentation.

Sight and sound are means through which man understood the world and communicated with his species. There is something 'primitive' about it. Writing on the other hand is a sophisticated tool developed by mankind in its process of cultural evolution. Sight and sound combines well. Text added to it could be jarring though functional as the news bar on a television screen. They will not become an integrated experience.

2.5.5.3. Customization of content:

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

Customization of content means putting a journalistic product together to cater for the individual citizen. For instance,

1. 'pull' content (the online archive is the obvious example);
2. 'push' content (subscriber news pushed to individual computers, very popular a few years ago, now in decline);
3. 'Custom content' (could be described as a hybrid between push and pull used by news sites like CNN as well as search engines such as Excite and Yahoo, and gives the user an option to create his or her own homepage at the search – or news site).

2.5.5.4. Hypertextuality:

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

The phenomenon of hypertext [provision of several texts on one computer system, with cross-references from one to another] and hyperlinks can be seen as the starting point of the World Wide Web, whereas the journalist online may use this characteristic to supply original news content.

Online journalism redefines the journalist's role into an annotational or orientational one – a shift from the watchdog to the 'guidedog'.

Additional features Internet communication:

1. Information on the Internet is digital form
2. Communication is computer mediated (information processing, sending and receiving is carried out with computers)
3. Communication takes place in information network(s) (communication takes place in interconnected information networks)
4. Possibility of interactive communication (communication is two-way, blurring the distinction between sender and receiver)
5. Hypertextuality (content elements can be linked to each other, enabling multi-layered products)
6. Usability (communication tools and procedures are relatively easy)
7. Unlimited Space and low costs

2.5.6. Types of New Media

Social networks

These sites allow people to build personal web pages and then connect with friends to share content and communication. Profiles usually include photographs, videos, audio files, blogs and so on. The biggest social networks are myspace, facebook and bebo.

Wikis (Collaborative projects)

These websites allow people to add content to or edit the information on them, acting as a communal document or database. The best-known wiki is wikipedia⁴, the online encyclopedia which has over 2 million English language articles.

Weblogs (or Blogs)

Weblogs, or blogs as they are commonly known, are the most active and surprising form of this participation. These personal publishing systems have given rise to a phenomenon that shows the markings of a revolution — giving anyone with the right talent and energy the ability to be heard far and wide on the Web (Lasica, 2003:8). Blogging is a communicative practice that allows people to connect, converse and share information in a digitally networked environment. The global reach of digital networks such as blogs allows people to discuss with local and global participants the issues and events affecting their lives.

Weblogs are frequently updated online journals, with reverse-chronological entries and numerous links that provide up-to-the-minute takes on the writer's life, the news, or on a specific subject of interest. Often riddled with opinionated commentary, they can be

personally revealing (such as a college student's ruminations on dorm life) or straightforward and fairly objective. The growth of weblogs has been largely fueled by greater access to bandwidth and low-cost, often free software. These simple easy-to-use tools have enabled new kinds of collaboration unrestricted by time or geography. The result is an advance of new social patterns and means for self-expression.

Blogs have changed forever the way information is disseminated in our society. They're fast. They're interactive. They're freewheeling. They can be dangerous. They are already powerful and growing more so every day.

Weblogs as a new kind of journalism might trouble established traditionally trained journalists. But it is a journalism of a different sort, one not tightly confined by the traditions and standards adhered to by the traditional profession. These acts of citizen engaging in journalism are not just limited to weblogs. They can be found in newsgroups, forums, chat rooms, collaborative publishing systems and peer-to-peer applications like instant messaging. As new forms of participation have emerged through new technologies, many have struggled to name them. As a default, the name is usually borrowed from the enabling technology (i.e., weblogging, forums and usenets).

Weblogs can provide links and commentary about content on other Web sites. They can be a form of "latest news" page. Or they can consist of project diaries, photos, poetry, mini-essays, project updates, even fiction. The quick, short posts on weblogs have been likened to "instant messages to the Web." On other weblogs, the content can be longer, such as excerpts from a research paper in progress, with the author seeking comment from peers.

Weblogs fall into **the one-to-many (individual blogs)** or **many-to-many (group blogs)** model of media, with some allowing no or little discussion by users and others generating robust reader responses. Either way, weblogs inevitably become part of what is now called the "blogosphere." This is the name given to the intercast of weblogs – the linking to and discussion of what others have written or linked to, in essence a distributed discussion.

Weblogs are important not only as such, but even more as a sign of an emerging new category of news and current affairs communication that challenges the conventional understanding of journalism. News blogging has seen as an inclusive, interactive and comprehensive media practice. News blogs are networked as a way of providing a more diverse, collaborative and comprehensive coverage of news. As a source of news, the news blog has gained momentum on the back of decreasing interest in mainstream news formats such as newspapers and current affairs programs.

Simplicity is the rule. Posts are automatically organized in inverse chronological order and time-stamped. This means that the WWW homepage of a weblog will show first the last entry submitted by the author or authors. No journalistic criteria are used, for instance, in arranging the posts by relevance. They are published as they are produced. The relevance of a post is mostly external to the weblog, defined by the comments and attention it draws from the communities of bloggers.

Blogs are not just technical applications, but a set of socially defined habits. "Bloggers perceive themselves as part of a community that shares values, rituals and language."

Journalist bloggers suggests that blogging may not be appropriate for long in-depth analytical articles, but could be suitable for commentary, web digests, brief dispatches and follow-ups on developing events.

Many weblogs openly challenge institutional or professional journalism by offering either competing or complementary information about news and current affairs.

Weblogs “threaten to expose journalism at one of its weakest points – its lack of personal contact with readers.” Unlike institutional journalism, weblogs are essentially participatory. First of all, weblog stories are often published by people who themselves have been somehow involved in the events being reported. This is contradictory to the prevailing understanding that proper journalistic content is produced by “trained observers,” not by participants. Weblogs are often participatory also in the sense that they allow, indeed, invite their readers to converse about the issues being reported. In this way, weblogs “draw on idealizations of the Internet as a democratic space in which all social actors’ voices may be heard, and where audiences become active public.” Applied to journalism, this participatory nature of weblogs shows that informing people about current affairs need not be objective in the sense of being estranged. Instead of lecturing, journalism can be conversational, and at the moment weblogs show one effective way of realizing this ideal.

Types of Weblogs

Journalistic weblogs can be classified into four types as follows:

1. **Citizen Blogs:** Weblogs produced by the public outside media companies. Citizen Blogs challenge journalism from the outside, without any of the constraints of the media institution. In some citizen weblogs, authors actually take the role of a reporter, even when the publisher him/herself would not purposefully pretend to be substituting a journalist. In many cases, a personal weblog turns into first-hand reporting of an event that the blogger has accidentally witnessed.
2. **Media Blogs:** Weblogs that are part of media content and produced by professional staff journalists. Media blogs transform journalism from the inside, which is relevant to understanding how professional newsrooms are “normalizing” the new genre and embedding it in their production logics.

A feasible option for media companies wishing to make use of weblogs is to set up weblogs for their journalists inside their media news websites. In this case, editorial control and stylistic requirements may not be as strict as in the news, but editors usually oversee the weblog entries as they are posted.

There are three different approaches to weblog use within the media:

- a) **Special events coverage:** These blogs are born and die with the newsworthiness of the event. Electoral campaigns, major sports events and big impact breaking news stories are usual issues for these weblogs, but online media are starting to be active even in starting weblogs for unanticipated events such as terrorist attacks.
- b) **Opinion columns:** These take advantage of the fact that, in websites, the limits of paper and air time do not exist, and media can offer more permanent featured writers than they can offline. For instance, Italian *La Repubblica* (www.larepubblica.it) and

American MSNBC.com have invited professional columnists and prestigious bloggers to express their opinions within their online publications. Such media blogs usually turn into public forums in cases where users can post comments. The position of the feature writer is the starting point of lively debates.

- c) **News commentary:** In these blogs, correspondents or specialized journalists elaborate on the stories they produce for the main outlet, and publish notes and reflections that would not have room in the paper or the broadcast. In some cases, blog writers are hired specifically for the website.
3. **Audience Blogs:** Weblogs that the audience can produce on platforms provided by the media. A space for audience blogs may promote a feeling of community among readers, foster dialogue between journalists and users, and, in the end, improve brand loyalty and trust. The popularity of weblogs has convinced some online media projects to add this weblog hosting feature.
4. **Journalist Blogs:** Weblogs those journalists maintain outside their companies. Journalist Blogs: Journalistic Weblogs Written by Journalists Outside Media Institutions

Podcasts

Audio and video files that are available by subscription, through services like apple iTunes.

Forums

Areas for online discussion, often around specific topics and interests. forums came about before the term “social media” and are a powerful and popular element of online communities.

Content communities


Communities which organize and share particular kinds of content. the most popular content communities tend to form around photos (flickr), bookmarked links (del.icio.us) and videos (YouTube).

Microblogging

Social networking combined with bite-sized blogging, where small amounts of content (‘updates’) are distributed online and through the mobile phone network. Twitter is the clear leader in this field.

2.5.7. Significance and Weakness of New Media

Significance of New Media

-  In contrast with especially the broadcast medium, web news user, cannot be passive – they are required to make decisions and choices all the time they are surfing. Similarly, unlike the print medium, the web news consumer is not limited to viewing only what is in the contents of that product.

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

Weakness of New Media

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

III. Theories of the Press

3.1 The Characteristics of the Media

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

3.2 The Functions of the Media

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

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

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

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

3.3 The Sources of Political Power of the Media

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

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

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

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

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

3.4 The Nature of Political Power of the Media

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

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

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

- *role of the press,*
- *freedom of press,*
- *control of the media,*
- *Application of the theories in modern world and the permitted and forbidden subject matters.*

We discuss these issues in accordance.

3.4.1 Authoritarian

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

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

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

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

3.4.2 Libertarian

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

Government in libertarian concept has been considered as the servant of the society. Its main function is to maintain a stable framework within which the free forces of individualism may interact. And the only way of controlling mechanism in a democratic government is the judicial system. Furthermore, laws defined by the court are the only limitations of freedom

of the press. But the problem is getting the formula to define the limit of discussion in democracy, especially during the national emergency. Holmes and Brandies have created their formula which is known as “*clear and present danger test*” and rejected the “*reasonable tendency*” of the Supreme Court of US to judge the discussion [in media] as crime or not.

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

3.4.3 Social Responsibility

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

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

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

3.4.4 Communist

In Soviet Communist theory the media are the instrument to propagate the doctrine and policies of the working class or the militant party. The conception of press freedom in this theory is there is no absolute freedom, and no freedom against the state can be permitted. Freedom and responsibility are inseparably linked; freedom is to speak about the truth of the Soviet system and access to the media facilities through the Soviet in order to eliminate class control. There is no private ownership in this theory, rather the Party is responsible to control all the press and broadcasting by three mechanisms. The first one is by inserting its own reliable members in all key appointments; second, by issuing a large number of directives and instructions; and lastly by constant review and criticism. Few nations today follow the communist model; The People’s Republic of China is the prime example.

Differences among the four regulatory approaches on media

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

Source: Joseph Turow (2009:86)

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

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

3.4.5 Development Theory

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

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

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

3.4.6 Democratic-Participant

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

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

3.4.7 The Media, The Public and The Politicians

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

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

IV. Ethical and Legal Issues of Journalism

4.1. Ethical Issues in Journalism

Journalists have a tremendous responsibility. Almost every day, we make decisions that affect other people, decisions that might mean invading someone's private grief by printing stories or photographs about death and other tragedies. Some of us became journalists because we wanted to be the people's voice, we wanted somehow to use our work lives to tell the stories and take the photos that document how others live their lives, how our society works-or doesn't. That means that everything we do as journalists is in the public spotlight-just as much as the people who are in our stories and photos. Underlying all of our decisions about which stories and photos we should publish or broadcast is the sense that we are dealing with real people and the crises that affect their lives. We need to be sure that we're making the right decisions, decisions that will tell people who we are as journalists and as people.

Doing ethics in journalism is tough, and it's made even more difficult when we try to make what we consider to be moral decisions without having any background in moral theory. A brief introduction of moral theory might make doing ethics a bit easier and provide some background on which to base our decisions.

4.1.1. Ethics: Meaning and concept

Ethics involves what is right, impartial, fair, just, and responsible. Ethical practice is as important in media as it is in any other walk of life. Ethics based journalism with objectivity, accountability, fairness and truth as the key elements and are vital for responsible media practice.

The concepts of ethics is very subjective and relative, therefore it would be relevant to look at the theories which can be considered to determine correct media behavior.

The goal of ethics is not to make ethical judgments with which everyone agrees but to increase our ability to defend our critical judgments on some rational basis.

Ethics is such a complex subject that it can hardly be adequately defined by single-sentence definitions. The great moral philosophers throughout history have not agreed on many aspects of ethics or on the main theories and sub-theories of ethics. Most scholars define ethics as a branch of philosophy, which deals with the study of moral behavior, its underlying moral principles and rational justifications.

Ethics is an extremely important branch of philosophy because it directs our attention not only to human morality but to values in general. Moral philosophy raises questions such as: Are there standards that ought to govern all human behavior?

If so, how can we know what they are? Even if we know there are such ethical standards, why should we follow them, especially if they seem not to be in our own self-interest?

What is ethics?

In general what makes something good or bad? Is there any common property that makes a chocolate cake good but that also makes a lawnmower good?

Or is goodness simply a feeling people have of liking or wanting something? What makes an action wrong?

Ask Socrates

Is it the same thing that makes lying wrong, which also makes failure to help a friend wrong? Aristotle long ago, pointed out that when we talk about something being good or bad we usually mean whether it satisfies the purpose for which it was made.

More on ethics

Ethics involves critical reflection on and self-confrontation with the moral choices that arise every day. In other words, if a journalist thinks twice before suppressing a story of public interest, or if she goes ahead to suppress it without a second thought, the results of her decisions reflect her level of conformity to ethics.

Ethics is also defined as rules of conduct or principles of morality that point us towards the right or best way to act in a situation.

Journalism ethics on the other hand, is concerned with making rational judgments as well as sound moral decisions in daily journalistic performance. Quite often journalists are confronted with dilemmas out of which they have to make quick decisions to meet deadlines.

Why ethics?

First, journalists should be concerned because the people they write for are concerned. Their publics have expectations regarding the kind of journalism that is ethical. In other words, they want journalism that is dependable, credible, truthful, balanced, unbiased, thoughtful, interpretative, considerate, empathetic, and realistic. No matter how difficult it is to achieve these, journalists have to bear in mind that these are the expectations of the public.

Second, journalists have to be ethical because they need self-respect and the sense of satisfaction that comes with doing what one thinks is right. Journalists have to live with themselves as well as with other people.

4.1.2 Applied ethic in Journalism

Doing journalism ethics represents a clash of at least two moral theories: teleology and deontology.

Teleology

Teleology (from the Greek word telos) is a goal-based moral theory. The end is the point of our action. Journalism is, in most cases, goal-directed. Our newspapers and commercial television and radio stations are businesses with goals: To give the readers the information that they need, to sell advertising, to increase readership, to make money for the owner. Most of those goals may not be motivations for the journalist; they are corporate goals.

But individual journalists, too, may have goals that help us decide how we should act. For example, when we write a story or take a photo, we might ask ourselves: Why are we doing this? What should this story or photo accomplish? That's teleology, goal-directed ethics.

Teleology can be subdivided into at least two other groups: **utilitarianism and consequentialism**.

The earliest form of utilitarianism was based on pleasure. Early utilitarians asked themselves: What action will bring about the greatest pleasure or avoid the most pain? Whatever action best answered that question was the "correct" action. Later, that theory moved away from hedonism (pleasure) and evolved into what is called the greatest happiness principle. John Stuart Mill said we should base our moral decisions on what will bring about the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people and, at the same time, minimizes harm to everyone else. Doing ethics that way involved a constant calculation of how much happiness and how many people, the intensity of the happiness, etc. What might bring the greatest good to the greatest number today in one situation might not bring the greatest good tomorrow in another case.

Consequentialism focuses, as its name suggests, on the consequences of the act. A consequentialist journalist would ask: If I take this photo or write this story, what are the likely consequences? Will it bring about social change? Will it educate people? Will it unnecessarily upset people? In utilitarianism-including consequentialism- the act itself isn't morally right or wrong. It's the result of that action that is right or wrong. As you can see, a utilitarian might say lying to get a story is permissible if the consequences of telling that lie are good. Using this theory, I might say I could lie or use a hidden camera or even take a photo of someone who doesn't want a photo taken if the end result justifies that action. If I think going undercover to get a story will mean a story that might educate people about an important issue, I might, if I were a teleologist, say that the end justifies the means-and I could say that my deception to get the story results in a morally right act.

Deontological

Deontologists would have something to say about that. Deontology (based on the Greek word, deon, which means "duty") abandons the happiness principle by insisting on a strict adherence to rules. Immanuel Kant, a German philosopher from the eighteenth century, is the most famous of the deontologists. Kant's entire ethical theory is based on one rule: the **Categorical Imperative**. The Categorical Imperative is exactly what its name says it is: It's

an imperative because it's a command-we have no choice about whether to obey or not-and it's categorical because it applies every- where, all of the time. A deontologist who thinks lying or deception is wrong would say it's wrong even if deceiving someone means a great story that might bring about some good in society. Lying is wrong, and it's always wrong in every case. The outcome of telling that lie is not important. What's important is not lying.

Deontology concentrates on a person's duty as a means to determine appropriate action. Kant is believed to be the most famous follower of this theory. He was of the opinion that it was the pretention behind an action that rendered it ethical or unethical. Kant felt that there was only one virtue which was good without qualification: GOODWILL. Actions inspired by goodwill are done out of respect for moral law and duty. Kant's categorical perspective- Will to act well out of duty- has three important guidelines:

- An agent should be motivated by the principle, which he would be happy to see as a universal maxim.
- Always treat people as an end in themselves and not just a means.
- Act as if you were the law maker in the kingdom of 'End'. (Kant, 1785)

It is expected from a journalist that he does his job honestly and objectively along with the protection of the sources and loyalty with the employer. These factors create dilemma at times. Hence, it is important to understand all aspects of ethical issues.

Personalistic or Subjective Ethics

This theory borrows its justification from the argument that an individual has the kind of moral sense that nudges him or her toward right action – call it conscience, instinct, intuition, emotion, mystical insight, or spiritual guidance. The leading thinkers in this theory considered non-rational, spontaneous and individualistic include Kierkegaard, C.S. Lewis, K. Jaspers and Nietzsche.

James Wilson (1993) calls the moral sense – something genetic or biological, something that is intuitive or directly felt ... about how we ought to act when one is free to act voluntarily. Subjective ethical theorists, therefore, place the individual at the centre of responsibility.

Need for Ethics and Accountability

Morality is to be pursued for its own sake, as an end in itself rather than as means, is a lofty principle, which has the support of great practitioner of morality like Gandhi, however it may not motivate or encourage all, mainly the 'practical' people, because following moral values may entail personal sacrifices. For example, it may be enticing and individually beneficial for the influential to take bribes. Moreover they may be so powerful that they can simply cover their tracks and not be exposed. It is not good for the society if they behave so, although from their own point of view why should they be ethical? It is pretty enticing to be a 'free rider'. The detailed but briefly placed answer to was that in considering why I should be ethical, I should take a long term view of myself, of what I should be, and seek the answer to the question of what I should do in that light. Developing a practice of taking bribes, for instance, will damage my very being and deprive me of mental peace. In short, 'every rational being has a reason to cultivate virtues, regardless of his particular desires'. This is

how ‘virtue ethics’ developed. Furthermore this is the reason why all religions have emphasized the need to develop a strong moral character. It did not confine the possibility of being righteous to a person in seclusion. It urged people to be good citizens too, enlightening a strong civic sense, participating enthusiastically in public or political affairs, and influencing decision through active deliberations. It is believed that it is by becoming a proactive part of the society and polity for achieving common good that one realizes one’s moral potential. The modern significance of this teaching for people, mainly in countries like India, can barely be exaggerated.

3.2.1 Accountability

The word accountability in language originates from the metaphor of ‘keeping an account of one’s conduct’. It means that an account has to be made available to a higher authority or another. In the media discourse, accountability is used to explain a media channel’s functioning to the higher authority or a group of person’s in the event of its behavior. The press plays a vital role in disseminating information to the public to make the latter well informed. In the market driven journalism, the media indulge in sensationalism to maximize profits and commercialism is said to be the motive for such behavior. Therefore, the society or the elite expect the press to be accountable to its constituents and press accountability is central to its behavior. (Pritccard, 2000: P-1-10) Press accountability is defined as a process by which press organizations may be expected or obliged to render an account to their constituents. A constituent is a person, group, or organization whose goodwill is essential for any media organization. Moreover, a media organization can have many constituents including audience members, advertisers, news sources, peers in other organizations and regulatory authorities.

3.2.2 Accountability to Employers

Although the profession of journalism is considered to be a public service, journalists as employees are grateful to provide an account to their employers. The employer considers his enterprise as a profit-earning enterprise instead of a public service unit to work for the interests of society. A classic example is an editor failing to publish a justifiable news story that is potentially unfavorable to the interests of an important advertiser because the advertiser declares that he will stop the advertising if the story appears. For instance, the case of Observer in the United Kingdom can be considered. Publisher Tiny Rowland owns Lonorho International, which has a group of newspapers with business interest in Africa. In 1984, Donald Trelford, the editor of Observer published a full-page report alleging atrocities by the army in Zimbabwe where Lonorho companies earned 1500 million profit annually. Rowland cabled an immediate apology to Robert Mugabe, the Zimbabwe President and sternly rebuked Trelford, Hamlin, and (Brue, 1992: P- 33-48). Further, the owners are also complacent about certain public issues to satisfy an advertiser. They highlight specific issues by placing them in the inside pages to keep them off from public view.

3.2.3 Accountability to Subjects

Accountability is one of the most important parameters of ethical values and it is very difficult to practice ethics based journalism without accountability, as an example of this kind was published in the newspaper, The Hindu, “The press is also expected to be accountable to the subjects involved in incidents while reporting stories. Journalists may get

sensational stories when public personalities are the subjects involved in the issue. For example, the shooting incident that took place in Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh in which prominent film star, Bala Krishna allegedly involved. He reportedly shot at two other people over a financial issue” (The Hindu, June 4, 2004 (1))

Though it was the job of the police or the court to pronounce the verdict whether he was guilty or not, the newspapers as well as TV channels ran special stories and arraigned the film star allegedly involving him in the shoot-out.

A misjudgment on the part of the media tantamount to negligence and an error of this kind and its consequent harm may be excusable. But a valid excuse does not remove an obligation to accept accountability. For example, The Statesman of Kolkata published a news item ‘Homeless children come home to slave’ in its issue dated April 30, 1999.

3.2.4 Accountability to Sources

In the process of gathering news from different sources, journalists are liable to be accountable to their sources of information, because the source reposes faith and trust on the journalist not to disclose the identity of the source. The disclosure of source’s identity will harm him/her and consequently his/her privacy will be invaded. Though journalist’s main goal is to provide information to the public, the information given by the source will serve the interests of the public related to a policy decision of the government asks the reporter to maintain secrecy of the source. Sometimes, the source may say ‘off-the-record’, the journalist is bound to keep off the information in not disclosing it. However, the journalist can use his discretion in disclosing the information when it is related to a crime, national security, and financial loss to the organization and so on.

3.2.5 Objectivity

Objectivity can be defined as a value-neutral projection of reality and therefore objective view of an event is equally important while constructing social reality. Therefore, what can be objectivity in journalism? Objectivity, according to Boyer consists of six elements:

- Balance and even-handedness in presenting different sides of an issue;
- Accuracy and realism of reporting;
- Presentation of all main relevant points;
- Separation of facts from opinion, but treating opinion as relevant;
- minimizing the influence of the writer’s own attitude, opinion or involvement;
- Avoiding slant, rancor or devious purpose (Boyer, 1981, 58(1): P-24-28)

In order to be objective, newspapers implement various practices to prevent manipulation of information by giving by-lines, credit line to the sources, by writing explicit interpretive stories. Nevertheless, objectivity is a virtue in the profession and therefore in public accountability, journalists will not deviate from it. Because in the profession of journalism, some newspaper may deviate from it while other newspaper may represent reality as it is. Ryan commented that objective journalists are accountable to their audiences, to the highest ethical and professional standards of objective journalism, and, finally, to their employers. They never assume that employers, not themselves, bear the ultimate responsibility for their

behavior (Ryan, 2007: P-3-22).

Ethics is extremely social and the very basis of human society. Man could be on the whole selfish brute by character, but he sees many advantages of living in a society and even dreads solitude, whereas enjoying the company of others for its own sake. This requires regular adjusting to others, without wiping out one's uniqueness. Man finds pleasure neither in the complete isolation and freedom in absolute communism of a society of ants and honeybees. Greed encouraged by selfishness is not an absolute evil, as it does maintain the society and the economy moving, after all. It wishes only to be restrained, so that it is constant with the best interests of all.

Ethics has a crucial role in achieving the common adjustments on a fair and impartial basis, making them equally rewarding. In view of the consequences of how to behave with others is at the heart of the matter. It is only when human beings pattern their actions to each other based on this concern that social relations are formed. It involves transcending our narrow egos.

As civilization makes development, the roles of ethics become more leading and significantly persuade human action. It is in the very nature of ethics to entail limits on human freedom, so as to encourage the freedom and welfare of all. The thought that ethics promotes the welfare of all has been basic since ancient times, both in India and the West. In the *Rigveda*¹⁹, it was assumed that *ritam* or moral order is after the smooth functioning of the world, and of even the universe. *Dharma* is the consequent and more popular term for ethics, (not at the cosmic, but at the individual and social level), used since the Vedic times, and its role was thought to be similar as well. *Dharma* is often said to be that which promotes the welfare of all beings in Mahabharata. The very origin of the term, *dharmā*, is from the verb, *dhri*, which means 'to uphold' *Dharma* is that which upholds the world and the society. It is not a matter of individual well-being in seclusion. If all or, at least most people in a society behaved in a morally satisfactory way, it creates conditions where all human beings can understand their full potential, not otherwise.

Accuracy ensures that one's thinking are based on things as they really are. They claim on the significant characteristic of speaking truth and say that if result is harmful, speaking truth is to be avoided. It is not consequence merely in terms of individual interests, but on common welfare, which is the principle. Whatever is beneficial to the welfare of beings, that is to be regarded as truth. This principle is sometimes followed with good intention. A doctor may try to boost the morale of her patient by saying that he is improving, even if he is not quite well. If a child insists on eating more of something that may harm it, mother may tell him/her that it is finished, even if in fact it is not. Truth has to be tempered by judgment and love though deviations from it are not accepted as norm, that is why Gandhi put *ahimsa* closely and inseparably with truth; the two have to go together. *Ahimsa*, for him, was not merely avoiding violence, but meant love and care. Gandhi often equated *ahimsa* with love and *satyagrah* with truth. He considered these concepts inseparable in social action. He believed that without *ahimsa* it is not possible to seek and find truth (Nojeim, 2004: P-106).

3.3 Relativity in Ethics

This leads to the subject of alleged relativism in ethics. Is ethics unconditional or relative? Is truth meant for following only when it is suitable to do so, merely for convenience? At times

it is held that morals are comparative to each culture, and other cultures cannot make an opinion on it. If ethics were to be that entire relative, it cuts the very basis of ethics from under, for everything and anything would be right and there can be no difference between right and wrong. Ultimately, ethics is the philosophy of how we can live and lead a significant life, and relativism is hardly a help in this. All religions, including Hinduism, have discarded ethics of pragmatism or relativism in ethics. The learned may reproach or praise; wealth may come or go; death may come now or later; the (morally) courageous never diverge from the path of justice even by a step. However, absolute observance to ethical norms may be extremely difficult, mainly if, in specific situations, there is a conflict among different moral norms. The Hindu epics *Ramayana*; and *Mahabharata* are rich in the discussions of such moral dilemmas. It does not mean that these epics or Hinduism understood in the relativism of ethics. It looks, autocracy in ethics is not possible to practice, and relativism is not possible to believe. Gandhian way for finding a solution to a moral dilemma is first to avoid self-interest, and then see what is in the interest of the weakest.

The subsistence of ethical conflicts or dilemmas may be increasingly felt in the contemporary world, what with conflicting values like competence and social objectivity, or freedom and impartiality. They aim in turn to a rising need to sharpen what one may term as our moral aptitude, capacity to perceive through convenient rationalizations clothed in, extremely moralistic terminology and arrive at just decisions. Emotional intelligence underscores compassion, eagerness to realize others' points of view, capability to stay calm, communication skill, ability to usefully manage interpersonal relations, initiative, and co-operation. A sensitively intelligent person knows that it pays to be good, helpful, and generous. Ethical intelligence includes all these; but underscores much more the values of sincerity, devotion to truth, and aversion to any action that harms others.

In addition, it includes the wisdom to distinguish among the right and the wrong without being influenced by self-interest, and the moral courage to act according to one's logical certainty without at the same time closing one's mind. While self-interest may not be eschewed in emotional intelligence, ethical intelligence is expected to be nobler. There is a difficulty in ethical intelligence which may not affect usual intelligence tests. It is that any test of ethical intelligence may have to cope with various solutions each with its claim to be right. This only adds to the need of furthering one's capability for moral judgment through thoughtful discussion and openness to different points of view. Tests of ethical intelligence may be helpful, though, in revealing the type of personality involved, the values believed in by the person and the social class the person represents. although the challenge of ethical intelligence lies in going beyond one's self-interest and prejudices, even beyond one's class background, and arriving at a just answer.

There is an attractive viewpoint on this subject of moral dilemmas in the face of accurate situations. Its conceptual frame is borrowed from micro-economics²⁰. There is a trade-off between different moral principles, which can be conceived as fact-independent indifference curves, whose axes point out 'packages of different extents to which competing principles are implemented'. 'The trade-off values, the rates of which we are eager to permit condensed implementation of one principle for the sake of improved implementation of another, are a priori: the facts determine only which implementation packages are feasible. A moral optimum so attained may still appear to be relative in the sense that it takes in to account both moral principles and facts. Moral principles, per se or taken in isolation, are

independent of facts or actual situations (though they may have been evolved in the context of society and actual world). But when it comes to their implementation in actual situations, conflicts between them arise and a trade-off becomes necessary. This does not make ethics relative, which would have been the case if the trade-off were amid moral principles and expediency or self-interest. The trade-off, however, is between moral principles themselves, to decide which one is important and to what extent, without compromising one's moral consistency and honesty. Sawant noted that the code of ethics all over the world emphasizes the following: a) honesty and fairness, b) reply to critical opinions, c) objectivity, d) respect for privacy, e) distinction between fact and opinion, f) not to inflame hatred, g) not to use dishonest means to obtain information and h) general standards of decency and taste. Absolute morality, which is entirely regardless of moral dilemmas really faced, is incredible, as ethics is for acting in this world. That is why Gandhi said he dealt with relative truth, which did not imply yielding to selfishness and dishonesty (Sawant: 22(2)).

3.4 Individuals to Institutions

Ethics is not meant only for individuals acting in isolation. On many aspects of vital importance, such as fighting social evils like dowry, corruption, and environmental worsening, we may have to act in concert. It desires coming out of our individual shells, coordinating with compatible people, spreading awareness, and initiating group action. There are also important global issues requiring co-operation and co-ordination between countries. With increasing globalization, there is also an increase in the global responsibility in tackling mass poverty, illiteracy and ill-health, in averting environmental crisis, in implementing human rights, and in achieving durable peace. Countries not sensitive and responsible enough in this regard, have not only to be brought around but also assisted and supported by the global community. All this requires developing proper institutions and individuals' loyalty and support to them, without which neither individuals nor institutions can be effective. To conceive of Community is not to choose between a thoroughly instrumental vision within which everyone's sole concern is 'What's in it for me?' and a thoroughly constitutive vision within which everyone's constant preoccupation is 'doing what's best for the group'. There is a middle ground between these two visions, and it is likely to provide a more solid foundation for a healthy society than either a strictly influential or a firmly constitutive formation.

An individual can be a member of several institutions at the same time, and gain advantage from all of them, also contributing to their sustenance and development. The interests of the individuals on the one hand and of communities or institutions on the other can be reconciled if there is mutual appreciation of the value of each. This needs ethics of mutual respect, support, and care in the relationships between them. Problems can arise when individuals tend to derive their identities from institutions or communities on exclusive basis and get fanatical about them. They forget that we all have in fact multiple identities and that individual derive their strength and support not from just one institution but many of them. Fanatical attachment to one is not only blindness although it also amounts an immoral approach, as it has the potential of important to violence. Just as there are moral 'do's and 'don'ts for individuals, they are there for groups, corporate enterprises, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), political parties, and governments too.

3.5 Liberty and Equality

Freedom and equality are amongst the most significant values at the level of the state, in the sense that it is the responsibility of the state to ensure them and watch out to see that they are not compromised. The state may not always do so on its own, and citizens' vigilance and pressure on the state would always be necessary to see that these morals are appreciated and put in to way.

Although 'liberty' and 'freedom' can be used interchangeably, the latter is a broader idea. For instance, 'liberty from hunger' would be a peculiar expression, while 'freedom from hunger' is not. 'Liberty' is the traditionally used word in political philosophy, while 'freedom' has been increasingly used more recently particularly since the close of World War II. 'Freedom' has been used in a way, which has incorporated egalitarian concerns (like freedom from poverty, hunger, and deprivation), which the traditional usage of 'liberty' has not bothered about. Thus, while the values of liberty and equality seem to be ever in conflict, this is not the case between freedom and equality.

The term freedom can be said to seek reconciliation between liberty and equality. Liberty is 'that condition of men in which coercion of some by others is reduced as much as possible in society'. It does not favor the use of the concept of liberty (or freedom) in the sense of power or 'ability to do what I want' (subject to the condition that it does not harm others), because such a use can be employed to support the claim for redistribution of wealth, and any forced redeployment would mean coercion for the enterprising who will be deprived of wealth and thus of incentive for enterprise. But it is precisely when liberty is interpreted as ability to do or achieve that it can be reconciled with equality, since such an ability cannot, in all fairness, be confined only to a few but has to be extended to all in a humane and just society.

Restricting liberty to a merely negative implication as absence of coercion does lead to conflict with equality. Equality is not so much about equal distribution of wealth or income, as giving an equal or fair starting point in life for all as far as possible. In a race, we cannot insist on equality of achievement, but should insist on equality or fairness in starting point. Once this equality is assured, liberty is necessary to allow each to achieve her or his maximum potential. It is not enough to merely ensure equality before law, though it is the minimum necessity for ensuring a just society. It is not enough even to assure a formal equality of opportunities when some people suffer from serious disabilities and deprivations such as poverty, ill health and poor education or lack of any of it, in having access to opportunities. It does not support leveling down all capabilities to a low equal level, but on leveling up by paying attention to those who have been unfortunate enough in life to be not capable to use opportunities that economic growth provides.

Essentially, the media as pillar of democracy are expected to be value-oriented which will give credibility to the newspaper. According to Gunther, the credibility of a paper depends on the characteristics, audience demographics, and personal dispositions. But, for the newspapers, the values are only news values, which are supposed to be their values of existence, which will keep their credibility intact when the newspapers adopt them. Thus, the media without misusing their freedom can uphold news values such as accuracy, impartiality, and decency aiming at larger sections of population (Gunther, 1992: P-147-167). Krishnamoorthy, clarifies that 'news values must relate to the ongoing context in a country. The larger section of the people must be their primary beneficiaries'. Further, he adds that "a re-examination of news values and concepts in Indian print is essential to ensure that like every other public activity, journalism too has a public service objective on the

basis of which alone newspapers can claim and exercise freedom of the press”(Krishnamoorthy 1988, 28-34). Normally, the goal of a newspaper is public good. Thus, Mahatma Gandhi outlined the three objectives of newspapers. According to Yadava (1985), they are: a) to understand the popular feelings and give them expression, b) to arouse the people certain desirable sentiments, and c) to fearlessly expose defects in public life (Yadava, 1985, 12(3): P-111-119).

Every society needs incentives for their members to realize their best. In this task it is essential to promise that one gets what is due, which is the result of one's effort, skill, and talent. Otherwise nobody will give ones best to the society and no progress can take place. But unrestrained liberty to exploit people or nature can come in the way of achieving a humane and sustainable society. In market economy, moreover, all disparities in income and wealth cannot be justified in the name of intrinsic talent. Much depends on how market values, different talents and capacities. When market valuation is so erratic, taxing the rich to benefit the society as a whole and particularly the poor cannot be wrong. We cannot ignore the underdog, because if ignored, they can pull down those who sit smugly in ivory towers.

Hence, ethics of fair play and compassion is needed to moderate the ideology of efficiency to make the society and the economy more inclusive. That is where Gandhi comes in. Gandhi steered clear of both libertarian market fundamentalism²¹ and totalitarianism, and showed his own third way. He recognized the role of the individual, but his individual was not the 'Economic Man' of the economists, maximizing utility and profits and thinking of nothing else. His individual was a Moral or Ethical Man practicing self-control in his wants and kindness and compassion towards others particularly the weak. Freedom according to Gandhi could be said to be of two kind's licentiousness (liberty to do whatever one wanted) and freedom to act according to one's conscience. The first is not freedom at all, while the second is real freedom according to Gandhi, which assumes a deeply ethical character. The Ethical Man strives to secure and use such freedom reliable with and promoting the interest of the society of which he is a lively member. With such a person, there is no need for any irresistible state control, even without which liberty and equality are submissive with each other.

Unfortunately, however, all people may not act up to the principles usual of a perfect ethical man, and it is essential for the state and society to secure positive rights and protect them from intrusion by others. Gandhi built his own ethics even in his role of a journalist and followed the same until his last. He adopted persuasion as the only means to bring about change, be that in India or South Arica. His quality of possessing utmost patience was germane of the journalist in him (Vyapuri: P-286). These rights are of three kinds' liberty rights, rights to sufficient welfare, and right to work and non-discrimination in employment. Liberty rights are rights to life, freedom, property, security, and resistance to oppression. These rights are fundamental to the survival and progress of every society. They are against all other persons and institutions, and made justifiable by law, the second type of rights consists of rights to food security and adequate health care, shelter, and education. These rights are necessary to achieve a humane and civilized society.

However, there is no point in recognizing them without taking concrete steps to evolve necessary institutions and legislation to implement them so that they too are justifiable like liberty rights. By the very nature of these rights they are against state, which is responsible

for implementing them. But in certain cases like family, they can be primarily against parents whose responsibility is to see that their children receive adequate food, health care, and education. If the parents have no resources to provide them, it is for the state to do so. Once the state creates facilities to provide them such as education, it would be unlawful for parents to keep their children from schooling, similarly, it would be unlawful for any husband to turn away his wife and children from his house and deprive them of their right to shelter and food, irrespective of whether the state can provide them

The third type of rights, namely right to work and non-discrimination in employment, goes a long way in assuring dignity to all citizens and helps in keeping adequate standard of living to all. These rights also need to be justifiable, through necessary legislation and creation of needed institutions. Liberty rights in the absence of rights to adequate welfare in the form of basic goods and services can lead to unacceptable levels of inequality. Dissimilarity may not be eliminated by these rights, but can be brought down to at least tolerable levels. Right to employment and non-discrimination in it can further promote equality. Moreover securing these rights, state will have to generate circumstances for equality of capabilities and provide impartiality of opportunities.

The world would not have survived if the bulk of us had no respect for moral values. Ethics becomes particularly relevant in justifying the misery of the poor in a world of intense competition, with the Darwinian principle of survival of the fittest requiring significant change. This is because even the fittest cannot survive unless others to survive and are cared for. The greater role played by mutual dependence and complementarities is not often seen, as competitive aspect is over stressed. What Gandhi did was to highlight mutual dependence and need for loving regard for each other. Gandhian economic thought, particularly point out the central tendency of development of the world towards less and less violence, or more and more non-violence, gives us new hope. This is not an unrealistic assessment.

We have only to compare the present state of the world, (even if it is worse than what it ought to be), with what it used to be for common human beings as depicted in the novels of nineteenth century. In world of increasing complexity, Gandhi preached simplicity, in a world of increasing confusion he pointed to the simple qualities of character in which the solution might lie; in a world devoted to material goals, he clearly showed their limitations; in a period of urbanization²³ he showed that decentralization meets other and perhaps more important needs than material gains can offer (Maharajan, 1996: P-195). That is where ethics and humanity's commitment to moral values and social justice have helped, notwithstanding many failures. Relying not only on the innate goodness of humanity, but also on its instinct for survival and even betterment, we can reasonably look forward to a world where there will be more justice, compassion, freedom, peace, time and capability for creativity even for common people, and sustainability, than now. But such a world will not come about without our striving for it.

Gandhi was emphatic on the role of individual responsibility of all of us in all aspects of life. 'Each of us must be the change we wish to see in this world', he advised. Further, 'the future depends on what we do in the present'. The present situation is not yet such as to make us feel complacent and smug. The powerful continue to capture most of the benefits of economic development. It is a request to ethical principles and social justice, which serve as the most potent weapon of the weak. It is not merely economic growth which would help achieving social justice, but politics too, with both economics and politics tempered by ethics.

3.6 Ethics for a Globalizing World

The world is undergoing globalization at a fast rate in manufacturing, transport and communications, services, religion, and culture. The process has gathered its own momentum, but there is a need to intervene in it to protect both human and environmental interests. On the one hand, we are in the process of the making of a Universal Man. On the other hand, severe tensions have of cultural identities which are deeply resented. Fortunately for us, leaders like Mahatma Gandhi can show a way out of crisis. Gandhian thought is meant mainly as a guide for action, and hence the application of his perspective to politics, economics, and environment. Gandhi may sound too puritanical to the taste of modern generations, but there is still a lot to learn from him and follow. Discussing ethics in journalism Gandhi said, "The debates about media ethics revolve around the media's role in the maintenance of a democratic society. Although the media plays an essential role in the formation of public opinion and personal choices, most media organization are commercial enterprises, which seek readers/viewers/listeners advertising revenues and favorable regulatory decisions. The conflict between the media social and commercial obligations on occasions results in a compromises on media ethics" (Thakurta, 2012: P-162).

One major factor that changed the face of Journalism is Globalization. Globalization has brought basic shifts in the way journalism is conceptualized and operationalized. The technological development has introduced so many new aspects and meaning to journalism and journalist. Although globalization has helped in the interconnection of different cultures, countries, people but it is not that interrelated when it comes to media ethics. Hence, it has been a challenge for media ethicists to define a global code of journalism ethics. In this regard, a group of media scholars and leading ethicists from North America, Europe, the Middle East, Asia and Africa gathered at the University of Stellenbosch at the Stellenbosch Institute for Advanced Study in South Africa, for a round table discussion entitled 'In Search of Global Media Ethics'. The round table was co-organized and chaired by Professor Herman Wasserman of the University of Stellenbosch and Professor Stephen J A Ward of the University of British Columbia and it took place between 15 March and 17 March, 2007. The ultimate finding of the three days discussion was the idea of two categories of global media ethics.

Some of the papers that was presented in this regard were like 'The foundation of moral obligations', 'basis of moral philosophy', 'Moral philosophy as the foundation of normative media theory: Questioning African Ubuntuism (an African philosophy) as a framework'. The remarking papers fall under the second category which focused on particularities and case studies as a way to explore the potential of global media ethics. These studies tried to be westernize ethical media theory. There was a view that the analysis of media globalization requires a closer examination of the ethical principles advocated by media theorists.

Other papers in this regard focused on the Socio-cultural ecology of particular countries. All the participants of the seminar agreed that much work is needed and should be done in the area of global media ethics, with respect to the issue of definition (what is and is not ethics), the metaphor of ethics in the context of the universal, normative ethics, metaethics and descriptive ethics or applied studies. (Thakurta, 2012;401)

However, there have been efforts for ethics in media after Independence and the first Press

Commission, 1954 had recommended for Press Council of India to make some guidelines for the journalists. The Press Council of India has issued norms of journalistic conduct.

Sources of Values and Attitudes

- Parents
- Peer groups
- Role Models
- Cultural norms, religion, education,
- Politics, economic mode
- Genes?

Journalist's Loyalties

The moral agent's responsibility consists of giving each set of loyalties its share of attention before rendering an ethical determination. Below are six categories of individuals and groups to which we are obligated:

Married to many husbands

- Individual conscience
- Objects of moral judgment
- Financial supporters
- The institution
- Professional colleagues
- Society
- Journalists have contractual duties as employees;
- They have professional duties as journalists;
- They have duties of responsibility to sources, the public, etc.

It follows that the journalist's obligation to choose how he or she performs his or her work may depend on whom he or she feels most loyalty towards: the reader, the employer, and so on.

4.2. Some Legal issues in Journalism

4.2.1. Defamation

What is defamation?

- The term defamation falls under the legal heading of 'torts'-civil wrongs- and as such is distinct from the laws of contract and criminal law. Other torts include trespass, conversion and negligence (Pearson, 2003:161).
- According to Mark Pearson (2003:159), defamation is the law that is supposed to offer some solace to those who have had their reputations damaged. It is of special concern to journalists. This is because journalists are in the business of publishing

controversial news stories about people and their activities. Defamation is a tort – a civil wrong. He further states that defamation is almost a daily occurrence in our lives. We defame someone whenever we say or write something to another person that damages someone else's reputation (Ibid.).

- The conflict and compromise between the right of free speech and the protection of the individuals and organizations from unfair attacks on their reputation, conduct and motives is enshrined in the law of defamation.
- Defamation is a general term which means that somebody's personality is damaged.
- The Macquarie Concise Dictionary, 3rd Edition (1998, cited in Pearson 2003:160), defines defamation as 'the wrong of injuring another's reputation without good reason or justification; calumny; slander or libel'.
- Defamation is a wrong done by a person to another's reputation by words, sign or visible representation. In other words, it is an attempt to affecting virtue, reputation, honesty or publish the alleged of natural defects of a person and thereby expose him/her to public hatred or contempt or ridicule.
- Defamation is untrue statement about someone that damages his/her reputation.
- Defamation also can be making untrue, derogatory statements that bring into disrepute the good name of or otherwise injure another. When the statements are made verbally, the defamation is slander. When they are made in writing or in any recorded medium (e.g., videotape, film or audiotape), the defamation is libel (Miller, 2003:377).
- According to Helen Sissons (2006), defamation cases are civil claims and are usually heard in the High Court, with a jury or a judge sitting alone. A person who believes they have been defamed can sue for damages and, if successful, the court will award an amount of money by way of compensation. In a libel trial the judge decides whether the words used are capable of a defamatory meaning. If there is a jury, it will decide whether or not the claimant has been defamed, whether damages should be awarded and, if so, how much. The judge is likely to rule a statement about a person or organization is defamatory if it tends to do any of the following:
 - a) expose them to hatred, ridicule or contempt
 - b) cause them to be shunned or avoided
 - c) lower them in the estimation of right-thinking members of society
 - d) disparage them in their office, business, trade or profession

The purpose of the law of defamation is to protect the reputation of people resulting from injurious statements, or acts by others. It is concerned with safeguarding the plaintiff's interest in the good opinion which other people hold of him. For this reason, both the Criminal and Penal Codes emphasizes that the offending publication must not be false. And should any injury be established in the person's reputation, office, trade or profession, such injury must be compensated. However, if the plaintiff has no reputation in respect of what is said, then the law cannot protect him and he will not be entitled to any redress. For example, if the person has been expelled from school for certificate forgery, it will not be defamatory to call him a "bloody liar" or "rogue" (NOUN, 2008:52).

4.2.2. Types of Defamation

There are two types of defamation: libel and slander.

Libel

Libel is a type of defamation in the printed or permanent form but now includes the broadcasting and public performances as well. In a similar vein, Helen Sissons (2006) states, libel is defamation by the written or printed word that is in a permanent form. Television, film, radio, print and the Internet all count as permanent. Although journalists need to be mindful of the slander law, when making telephone calls for example, it is the law of libel that they are more likely to have to consider when filing their stories.

- ❖ Mark Pearson (2003:160), on his part, defines libel as ‘defamation by written or printed words, pictures, or in any form other than by spoken words or gestures.’
- ❖ Ewelukwa (2004:212; cited in NOUN, 2008:58) defines libel as defamation by means of writing or by any other permanent form such as video tapes, pictures, was work, effigy etc.
- ❖ Malemi (1999:77; cited in NOUN,2008:58) also defines libel as a defamatory statement made in a visible or permanent form such as written or printed statements as in books, newspapers, notes, circular, letter, or by way of effigy, caricature, painting, photograph, film, radio, and television broadcasts, any recorded audio – visual material and so forth.
- ❖ According to Philip Miller (2003:169-170), libel is a tort, a civil (rather than a criminal) wrong for which the court provides remedy. Libel and its twin tort, slander, form the larger legal category called defamation law. Historically, libel has been applied to defamation that is written or portrayed pictorially, whereas slander has meant defamation that is spoken or conveyed orally, in recent years, however, the boundary between libel and slander has become blurred, particularly in cases involving the audiovisual media. Libel is now often used as a general term that encompasses slander, even though the two forms of defamation remain technically distinct.
- ❖ Libel occurs when a false and injurious statement is made about an individual, group, or corporation. A statement is considered to be libelous if it is false, knowingly and deliberately communicated to at least one other person, and injures the individual’s or group’s reputation. When these conditions are present, the injured individual may seek damages through a libel lawsuit (Miller, 2003:187).
- ❖ Miller (2003:170-172) expresses five elements of libel that must be present to support a libel action:
 - a) **Falsity:** To be considered libelous, a statement must be a false allegation about a living person issued as a statement of fact.
 - b) **Injury:** To rise to the legal definition of libel, a defamatory statement must injure an individual’s reputation or result in some other personal or economical damage [if the defamatory statement contains obvious wrong accusations, the plaintiff is not necessarily obliged to prove that the injury resulted in tangible economic loss]. Statements that tend to satisfy this criterion include those that falsely accuse a person of professional incompetence, unprofessional behavior, unethical business dealings, dishonesty, promiscuity, drunkenness, laziness, criminal behavior, or physical or psychological illness.
 - c) **Publication:** Publication is a prerequisite for libel. In the context of libel law, publication means dissemination or distribution of the offending material to one or more third parties. The logic behind the publication prerequisite is simple, because without publication there is little risk that the offending material will injure the

plaintiff's reputation or otherwise result in economic loss. And, without such injury or loss, there is no libel case.

- d) **Identification:** Along with proving that a production contains defamatory statements, the plaintiffs in libel cases must show that others will identify them as the targets of the statements. If the plaintiffs are actually named or shown in the production, identification exists as a matter of course. If they are not actually named or shown, plaintiffs can still establish identification if they can prove that the libelous statements clearly referred to them or that reasonable people who knew the plaintiffs would recognize them as the subjects of the statements.
- e) **Fault:** To win a libel lawsuit in many states, the plaintiff* must establish fault by showing that the defendant** displayed at least negligence, or lack of care, in publishing the defamatory material.

*The term plaintiff referred to an individual person, group, or legal entity that initiates a lawsuit. Contrast with defendant.

**Defendant: In civil law proceedings, the person who is responding to the complaint brought by the plaintiff. In criminal law proceedings, the person who has been accused of the crime.

Slander

- ❖ Slander is a type of defamation in the transient form; that is spoken. Similarly, slander is defined as 'defamation in a transient form, as speech.'
- ❖ Slander is defamation through the spoken word or gesture. It is not generally actionable upon mere publication. However, there are instances where slander could be actionable per se, that is, without proof of special damage. They include:

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

➤ Laws regarding defamation from the Ethiopian context:

- a) FDRE Constitution 1995 Article 29(6)
- b) Broadcasting service proclamation number 533/2007 Article 30(4) (a)
- c) Freedom of the mass media and access to information proclamation number 590/2008 Article 41(1-4)

What the claimant and defendant expect to prove?

As Helen Sissons (2006) argues, the preliminary stage of any lawsuit, to proceed with a defamation claim a person (i.e., the claimant) must prove:

- a) that the material is defamatory,
- b) that the defamation statement refers to them – at least as far as the reasonable person is concerned,
- c) that the statement has been published, which is clearly the case if it's been broadcast or printed,
- d) that the claimant is alive (you cannot defame the dead)

Despite this fact, however, a great point of criticism by the media here is that the plaintiff gets the advantage of the burden of proof. This is because, unlike in criminal trials where an accused is innocent until proven guilty, the burden of proof in a defamation action to establish a defense falls on the publisher. The defendant has to prove to the court that a defense applies. So, for example, rather than the plaintiff being required to prove that a statement is false, the defendant has to prove that it is true (Pearson, 2003:185).

Categories of defenses

According to Mark Pearson (2003:186), the main defenses available to the media are best understood by considering them under two umbrella headings describing the reason for their protection. The categories describe the foundation on which the defenses are based. They are available because the defamation is either:

1. true (with some qualifications; truth as a defense also known as justification); or
2. protected for some overriding reason of public importance. Under this category come the other main defenses of
 - a) fair report,
 - b) fair comment,
 - c) qualified privilege, and
 - d) political qualified privilege.

(For detailed comprehension of these categories of defenses you can see Mark Pearson's 2003 book, which is available in the Library, from page 186 to 214).

4.2.3. Contempt

The law of contempt is predicated on the absolute necessity to provide an enabling environment for the courts and the legislature to perform their constitutional duties without hindrance (Nation Open University of Nigeria/NOUN, 2008:79). Contempt of court is aimed at maintaining the sanctity of courts so that they can adequately discharge their constitutional duty of dispensing justice. Every responsible citizen is duty bound to respect the courts. Journalists as responsible citizens cannot do less (Ibid, p.84).

Definition of Contempt

Contempt of court can be defined as: any act which is calculated to embarrass, hinder or obstruct court administration of justice, or which is calculated to lessen its authority or its dignity, committed by a person who does an act in willful contravention of its authority or dignity, or tending to impede or frustrate the administration of justice or by one who, being

under the court's authority as a party to a proceeding willfully disobeys its lawful orders or fails to comply with an understanding which he has given (Ibid, p.80).

According to Pearson (2003:109), contempt by publication includes:

- Material that tends to prejudice a fair trial ('sub judice contempt')
- Allegations that tend to undermine public confidence in the administration of justice ('scandalising the court'). Pearson (2003:111) further says that scandalizing the court can be committed by publishing material overly critical of courts or judges by abusing them in scurrilous terms, alleging they are corrupt or lack integrity, or that they have bowed to outside influences in reaching their decisions.
- An account of the deliberations of a jury
- Improper behavior in a courtroom during a hearing, which is also known as 'contempt in the face of the court'
- Failure to comply with a court order or undertaking given to a court, such as a refusal to answer a magistrate's question (which is known as 'disobedience contempt'). (It applies to journalists who refuse to reveal a source in court).
- Attempts to interfere with participants in court proceedings

As to the NOUN (2008:80-81), Contempt of court can be seen in two ways:

- a) Contempt in the face of the court (*facia curia*) otherwise known as direct contempt; and
- b) Indirect contempt or *ex facia curia*. This is contempt committed outside the court, so to say.

Ways in which Contempt of Court can be committed by the Journalist

Contempt is conduct impairing or threatening to impair the administration of justice. Journalists are most likely to encounter contempt laws; when publishing reports about crimes and court cases; when in court on reporting duties; when writing articles that are commenting on the judicial system; when appearing in court as a witness; and when ordered to deliver notes or other materials to a court or quasi-judicial body such as a commission (Mark Pearson, 2003:109).

NOUN (2008:81) states, as law-abiding and responsible citizens, journalists are expected to respect the courts in the course of their official duties. However, in the past there have been altercations between journalists on the one hand and judges and magistrates on the other over contempt, occasioned by the following infringements:

- a. Trial by the media, whereby a suspect in a criminal offence is deemed already guilty by the media even before the trial is over. This annoys judges and magistrates and often causes them to invite the journalists involved for tongue lashing and possible committal to prison if they do not show sufficient remorse.

Similarly, Mark Pearson (2003:82) also states that "the Latin phrase 'sub judice' literally means 'under or before a judge or court' and applies to the period during which there are limitations placed on what the media may report about a case. The courts have attempted to balance the competing rights and interests of those involved in court cases and those

reporting on them by restricting what may be published about a case while it is before the courts. The restrictions are considered necessary to avoid ‘trial by media’, where free speech interferes with the usual safeguards of the legal system with dire consequences for the case at hand and for the public confidence in the administration of justice.”

b. Commenting on a case before the court in a manner that suggests that those involved will not obtain justice.

c. Showing disrespect to the magistrate or judge right in the court (*in facia curia*), such as making a noise when the court is sitting, taking photographs in the open court, etc.

4.2.4. Privacy

- ❖ Privacy laws protect individuals from intrusion into their personal lives and from the unauthorized use of their names or likenesses for commercial purposes (Philip Miller, 2003:153).
- ❖ As legal concepts go, privacy is a relatively recent development. Most scholars trace the origins of privacy law in the United States to 1890, the year in which Samuel D. Warren and future U.S. Supreme Court Justice Louis D. Brandeis wrote an article that argued for statutory or common law recognition of an individual’s right to lead a private life (Miller, 2003:154).
- ❖ According to Philip Miller (2003:154-155), privacy law continues to be a confusing mix of common law, state statutes directed at specific kinds of privacy violations, and a growing number of federal statutes aimed at preventing the misuse of government records and electronic surveillance. Through all of the confusion and conflicts, however, four fairly clear categories of privacy protection have emerged:

1. **Appropriation:** Individuals have a right to protection against the unauthorized use of their names or likenesses for commercial purposes (a right that is often referred to as the “right of publicity”). Miller (2003:381) defines the term ‘right of publicity’ as “An individual’s right to control and to profit from the commercial use of his or her name and likeness. A form of the right of privacy.”

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

3. **False light:** Individuals have a right to protection against disclosures of private facts that place them in a false light before the public.

4. **Public disclosure:** Individuals have a right to protection against the public disclosure of embarrassing facts about their private lives such as their behavior, attitudes, history, and personal preferences. Despite this fact, however, the law provides less protection for public officials than private citizens. In other words, as Miller (2003:168) further argues, this right is not shared by elected officials and other public figures, who are fair game for such disclosures – as long as you can show that disclosures have at least some relationship to their status as public persons. Miller (2003:173-174) reasoned out that public officials should expect less privacy and more scrutiny by the press than the general public and for these reasons public officials should both expect and receive less libel protection than the protection that the law affords to private citizens.

On the other hand, according to Mark Pearson (2003:301), the generic term “Privacy” includes privacy itself, trespass, nuisance, eavesdropping and offensiveness. Therefore, for the time being let us see the highlights of the first three types of privacy.

1. **‘Privacy’** – invasion of privacy has been taken to include unnecessary intrusion into people’s lives, property and consciousness through the revelation of personal details about them, inflicting offensive images or words on them, harassing them in their private environments, intruding on their grief, or secretly capturing their words or images (Pearson, 2003:301).

Specific examples of invasion of privacy:

1. Using a wrong photo of an individual;
 2. Publishing an individual’s medical records without permission;
 3. Writing stories about somebody’s personal life without his/her consent
 4. Using an individual’s name (e.g., celebrities/well-known persons such as politicians, footballers and film makers) or likeness to promote/maximize an idea or business of one’s own without their permission
2. **Trespass** – a journalist has no special right of entry to someone else’s property beyond that of an ordinary citizen. Under the tort of trespass, every person who is in possession of premises has the right to refuse others entry to those premises (Pearson, 2003:312).

You are liable for trespass if you (Walker 2000:878, cited in Pearson, 2003:312):

- A) Enter land or premises without the consent of the occupier;
 - B) Remain there when permission to be there has been withdrawn; or
 - C) Place an object like a listening device or a hidden camera on someone else’s land or in their premises
3. **Nuisance** – is a very limited area of the law which protects an occupier’s use or enjoyment of his or her land from unreasonable interference. Again, the injunction is the usual remedy sought, although damages can also be awarded. It will succeed only where the defendant has interfered with an interest of the occupier recognised by the courts (Pearson, 2003:315).

Essentially, the nuisance has to be persistent and annoying for it to be actionable. So the rights of an occupier do not include a freedom from the view of neighbouring properties. However, constant, systematic surveillance, as might occur in a ‘stake-out’ by a group of noisy journalists just outside someone’s home, with photographers continually filming into that person’s premises, could be deemed nuisance (Pearson, 2003:315).