A TEXTBOOK OF
INTERVIEW JOURNALISM AND TELEVISION ANCHORING

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Knowledge is Our Business

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CHAPTER 1
A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO JOURNALISM
AND TELEVISION ANCHORING

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ABSTRACT:

The way that news and information are communicated to audiences around the world is shaped by journalism and television presenting. This essay explores the mutually beneficial relationship between journalism and television anchoring, emphasizing their importance in forming narratives, swaying public opinion, and upholding the veracity of news reporting. This study emphasizes the critical function of skilled television anchors in transforming complex stories into understandable information for viewers through a thorough analysis of their functions, difficulties, and ethical issues. For journalists and anchors to maintain their crucial roles in the media ecosystem, the evolving digital era presents new opportunities and challenges. To meet these challenges, they must be flexible and ethically conscientious. Reading script lines from a teleprompter is only one aspect of being a television anchor. Speech, knowledge, body language, voice modulation, and command of spoken language are the most crucial elements in this situation. A good anchor should maintain equilibrium while anchored in each of these areas.

KEYWORDS:

Anchoring, Interview, Journalism, News, Television.

INTRODUCTION

The interview has changed throughout the course of the 20th century to the point that it now predominates over other speak and text creation in the mainstream media. As John Corner once said, "It is no exaggeration to say that the broadcast interview is now one of the most widely used and extensively developed formats for public communication in the world." Without a question, the interview has been and continues to be one of the most important working techniques or forms in contemporary journalism. However, the fact that the mass media is by no means the only institution that uses interviews makes the interview and how it is represented even more significant. The interview is "central to making sense of our lives," according to David Silverman, who established the idea of "an Interview Society." For instance, we should recognise that most of what we know about society and social groups is based on interview data, whether it takes the form of in-person interviews or survey research, as social researchers and citizens. Gubrium and Holstein suggest that the techniques of interviewing are not only employed by various organizations to obtain information and develop knowledge. They draw their inspiration from Silverman and the idea of the interview society. "The interview is part and parcel of our society and culture". It produces ontological presumptions about the subjectivity of the informant and what may be discovered via questioning. It is crucial to the development of well-known public figures, the formation of public opinion, and communication in the media public sphere in general [1].

According to Atkinson and Silverman, "many contemporary sociologists and others in the social and cultural disciplines have made the collection and celebration of personal narratives into a major occupation." They contend that this tendency is closely related to "the rhetoric of in-depth interviewing," which portrays the qualitative interview as an "authentic gaze into

another person's soul". When it comes to news depiction and, in our opinion, journalistic mythology, the belief in the relationship between interviewing and authenticity also remains crucial. The editors and writers of this book expand on Silverman's idea of an Interview Society and propose it as a concept to comprehend how news is constructed, language is used, and the influence of journalism in the age of the media. The book blends ideas on the public sphere, journalism, and the interview as a kind of interaction with theories on the design and production of media texts and focuses on the journalistic interview and strategies for the portrayal of utterances, discourse, and conversation [2], [3].

It uses a historical comparative point of departure to identify key trends in the development of modern journalism throughout the 20th century by connecting these discursive techniques on a micro level to institutional and cultural conditions on a macro level with regard to journalism and the media public sphere. Although there has been a lot of journalistic study done over the years, we think the interview has received surprisingly little attention. There has been a lot written about news production's structure, commercialization, and news content, stories, and discourses, but less has been said about the practices that have made many of these phenomena possible. In this book, we use an interactionist and dialogical style to journalism, focusing on the interview.

We can gain detailed, generalized knowledge about the ways in which power is exercised and negotiated, how values and attitudes are reproduced, and how roles are established and altered in the public sphere of the media through analyses of interaction and the conditions for interaction. The scholars that contributed to this book are from five distinct nations, and they have backgrounds in political science, sociology, journalism, communication, media studies, and linguistics. They also have a wide range of theoretical knowledge. We think that both academics and students studying sociology, journalism, media and communication studies, history, and linguistics will benefit from the book. Although it must be recognized that this is not a manual outlining "the best way" to conduct a journalistic interview, we still hope that working journalists will find it useful.

DISCUSSION

Investigating the interview

From our dialogical vantage point, it is clear that orthodox study in journalism has not acknowledged the "dialogical turn" in media output. There aren't many studies on news interviews or other types of media engagement, and those that are conducted tend to be on the periphery of the discipline. Additionally, journalism research has a penchant for favoring the assertion of normative views of how things ought to be. It seems that the in-depth examination of practice, or how journalism is really done, is of secondary significance. Despite this, significant study on the news interview has undoubtedly been carried out. Studies on the news interview and broadcast discussion, for instance, have been conducted. Many studies on the news interview as a specific kind of institutionalized conversation have been produced, particularly during the last ten years. This study has a sociolinguistic emphasis, and it has ties to Conversation Analysis. Micro-level research on interaction, turn-taking, and utterances has been done in relation to institutional settings. Other sorts of media discussion have also been the subject of similar investigations.

Our book expands on this research in many ways but stands apart in a few crucial areas. The editing and presentation of the content in certain media, genres, and narrations have not been taken into consideration in Conversation Analysis studies of news interviews, which have a propensity to concentrate on the news interview as primarily a sequence of questions and answers. However, it is a truth that news reports are composed of sound bites taken from

interviews and other forms of content. It is almost difficult for a viewer or reader to understand the meaning of a statement in connection to its original context since the excerpts are often brief and decontextualized from their original source. The interaction in news interviews and broadcast discussion as well as the use of the interview in the creation of media texts, or media production, are significant topics of our book, which focuses on this understudied field. The visual elements of media text production and interaction are also covered in a number of chapters [4]–[6].

In order to openly reference the substantial study on media production and media discourses, we will concentrate on how utterances, talk, and conversation are used in the staging of news stories. Reconceptualization, discursive practices, mediation, and multimodal discourse are among the key ideas in this area. We owe a debt of gratitude to academics who have researched the history and practice of journalism. This book makes numerous direct and indirect references to studies on the practice and conditions of journalism, including sociologically oriented "News room studies", studies on the industry's overall conditions, and studies on how journalism is incorporated into popular culture. A journalistic method known as "interview journalism" entails speaking with people in order to learn more about them and to gain their opinions and insights in order to write news articles, features, or reports. It is a fundamental technique that journalists use to compile first-person accounts, professional viewpoints, and firsthand experiences pertaining to a variety of events, problems, or interesting topics.

Important elements of interview journalism

1. Interviews are a key method of gathering data from sources who are either directly involved in or knowledgeable about a given topic. Journalists use interviews to gather information for their reporting's depth and accuracy, such as facts, figures, anecdotes, and quotes.
2. Interviews give journalists the chance to cross-check facts and confirm information's sources by getting a variety of viewpoints on a particular subject. This raises the news story's credibility and dependability.
3. Interviews give news stories a human touch that makes them more relatable. Journalists can enable readers or viewers to connect with the content on a more personal level by incorporating real voices, emotions, and personal accounts.
4. Through interviews, journalists can gather a variety of perspectives, which can be crucial for presenting a fair and thorough depiction of complex issues.
5. Journalists frequently speak with experts, professionals, and academics to gain a deeper understanding of challenging topics. These interviews offer knowledgeable interpretations and analysis that can aid audiences in comprehending complex subjects.
6. Interviews are a key tool in investigative journalism, where journalists speak with sources to unearth untold stories, reveal wrongdoing, and highlight significant issues.

Profile articles featuring people's life stories, experiences, and accomplishments are made using interviews. The readers gain a deeper understanding of the person behind the headlines thanks to these pieces. Journalism ethics apply to interview reporting. Journalists are required to accurately represent interviewees' statements, respect their privacy, and obtain their informed consent. One-on-one interviews, group interviews, phone interviews, in-person interviews, and online/virtual interviews are just a few of the formats in which interviews can be conducted. Interview journalism is essential for giving news stories a human touch, providing perspectives from various sources, and improving the quality and depth of reporting. It is a crucial tool for journalists because it enables them to communicate directly with their subjects. The term "television anchoring" describes the position of a host or presenter who directs and hosts a television program, frequently a talk show or news broadcast. The anchor

acts as the audience's primary point of contact with the presented material. Their main duties are to inform the audience, keep them interested, and keep the show moving along smoothly. Several important factors play a role in television anchoring:

Information Delivery

Anchors are in charge of clearly and concisely delivering news, information, or content. Reporting on current affairs, providing updates, and telling stories to the audience all fall under this category.

Communication Skills

For anchors, clear communication is crucial. They must be effective communicators with a clear, articulate voice and the capacity to explain complicated ideas simply.

Engagement

Anchors captivate their audience by connecting with them, developing rapport, and expressing feelings and reactions with their body language and facial expressions.

Adaptability

Anchors must be able to adjust to various formats and circumstances. They might seamlessly switch between serious news reporting and lighthearted conversations.

Interaction with the audience

Some contemporary TV shows promote viewer participation via social media, call-ins, or live chats. The show's hosts may engage with viewers, read comments, and use audience input [7], [8].

Time management

In order to fit content into allotted time slots, anchors must effectively manage their time. This entails altering their cadence, moving seamlessly between segments, and making sure that each aspect of the show receives the necessary consideration. They ought to be knowledgeable about the topics they cover, double-check their facts, and give the audience accurate information. To ensure smooth broadcasts, anchors collaborate closely with producers, reporters, camera operators, and technical teams in a newsroom setting. They frequently work together to develop scripts, choose visuals, and control time constraints. The face of breaking news coverage is frequently an anchor. To keep the audience informed, they deliver real-time information, conduct expert interviews, and provide updates. In talk shows or programs built around interviews, hosts have discussions with experts or guests. Active listening, insightful questioning, and facilitating interesting discussions are all essential components of effective interviewing techniques. Charismatic, professional, journalistic, and able to connect with a wide range of viewers are necessary qualities for television anchoring. In addition to influencing how viewers perceive and interpret the information presented on screen, anchors frequently become recognizable faces to audiences. They are extremely important in determining the tenor, plot, and overall impact of television programs.

Talk Shows, Panel Discussions, and Debates

The anchors of many shows, including talk shows, panel discussions, and news debates, must be fluid, eloquent, and spontaneous speakers. While an anchor for these programs needs to have a wide vocabulary, research is just as crucial. Since the anchor will preside over the debate or panel discussion, they must do their homework beforehand. The anchor needs to speak and

write clearly. In order to observe and interpret the body language and responses of panelists and experts, talk show anchors need to have good observational skills and presence of mind. It can be beneficial to speak to oneself in front of the mirror while describing the points that need to be discussed during the performance. Such impromptu programs typically have a set running time, so the host of the program needs to have a keen sense of timing in order to wrap up the discussion and reach a reasonable conclusion before the time runs out. The duration for each segment and commercial breaks has been set, and the anchor is expected to strictly follow those instructions. The use of certain words repeatedly is one of the major errors that is noticeable in the debates and discussions led by a novice anchor. Because they are still considering the next sentence they will speak and have not yet developed the thoughts or questions they want to ask, some anchors have a tendency to use interjections at the beginning of their sentences. In general, debates, talk shows, and other similar events are never practiced in advance of airing. An anchor must exercise good judgment when choosing questions on these shows. Before such shows, the guests, experts, or panelists are expected to sit down with the anchors to make them comfortable and to gauge their attitudes toward various issues [9], [10].

Interviews are presented

A news anchor should be able to make quick decisions. Knowledge and spontaneity are key factors when conducting interviews. Really skilled interviewers and questioners give the impression that they are winging it, but the preparation beforehand is what makes it seem so effortless and effortless. To conduct a successful interview as an anchor, you need to put in a lot of effort and preparation. Keep the following in mind when conducting an effective interview for television news channels:

1. Making the interviewee feel at ease before the actual interview by developing a rapport or connection with them will help.
2. A thorough investigation of the subject can be very helpful before entering a conversation with challenging questions.
3. As you ask follow-up questions, pay close attention to the responses. Avoid asking closed-ended questions whenever possible. As an illustration, if you are interviewing a natural disaster survivor, you can pose open-ended questions like, "What were you doing when it happened?" Your method of self-preservation.
4. You must sift through information by rephrasing the same question repeatedly until you find the solution.

Some interviews might bring you to tears or enrage you. But you should work on remaining composed and acting professionally. Asking the interviewee if they have any last questions is the best way to wrap up the conversation. There might be a fresh perspective that nobody else has considered.

CONCLUSION

The media landscape cannot be separated into journalism and television anchoring, which act as conduits for the public and events. News stories are given context, clarity, and emotion by the anchors, who turn the information into relatable stories. As media technologies develop, a reevaluation of journalistic practices and ethics is necessary due to the convergence of traditional broadcasting and digital platforms. Maintaining objectivity, accuracy, and integrity is a responsibility that goes along with the ability to inform and influence opinions. To maintain their vital roles in a well-informed society as journalism and television anchoring continue to change, it will be essential to accept these responsibilities while utilizing the potential of new technologies.

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CHAPTER 2
A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW ON INTERVIEWING AND THE EVOLUTION OF CONTEMPORARY NEWS JOURNALISM

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ABSTRACT:

This chapter explores the development of modern news journalism as well as the various facets of interviewing and citing sources. Journalists use interviews as a vital tool to obtain first-hand information and insights from a variety of sources. The accuracy and depth of news reporting are influenced by effective interviewing methods. Additionally, accurate source citation is essential to uphold the credibility and integrity of journalists. Technology advancements have altered both the dissemination and consumption of news, shaping the evolution of news journalism. This chapter explores how the digital era has changed how news is produced, distributed, and consumed. The paper illustrates the complex relationships between interviewing, source citation, and the changing environment of news journalism by analysing these related topics. The establishment of the journalistic interview and a set of methods for presenting other people's voices were key developments in news reporting during the 20th century.

KEYWORDS:

Evolution, Interviewing, Journalism, News, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

What is typically referred to as the professionalization and/or institutionalization of journalism has been greatly aided by interviewing techniques and quoting strategies. These techniques have been a good fit for the increasingly independent journalism that makes strong claims to objectivity and aspires to provide exclusive news in a visually appealing format. However, conducting interviews is not just a technique used by journalists; it is also a way for other people and organizations to communicate with the public via the media. Politics is one area where the latter is true. Politics gradually started to rely on both the news interview and the unique journalistic way of using quotations in news production during the second half of the 20th century. Through the established quotation techniques in journalism, certain comments can occasionally become significant political news. This chapter's main claim is that interviewing and quoting evolved into a set of institutionalized practices and techniques during the 20th century, which in turn served as the basis for what could be called modern news journalism [1], [2].

News journalism as a social institution with a fair amount of autonomy. Modern news journalism is distinguished by its high degree of autonomy as well as the evolution of institutionalized, specialized techniques. In addition to being one of the most important tools for gathering information, conducting investigations, and creating news, interviews also serve to control and represent the authority of journalism in relation to other institutions. Journalism has acquired rights through the interview and established a degree of independence from procedures used by other institutions. The fact that covering and reporting on communication organized within the framework of political institutions themselves is far less important than covering and reporting on interviews today is a clear illustration of this.

The objectivity claims of journalism. Journalism, like many other institutions in contemporary society, makes strong claims about its objectivity, which is sometimes expressed in terms of impartiality, neutrality, and/or matter-of-factness. The institution's linguistic practices are permeated by these claims of objectivity. In news reporting, the interview and quotation techniques have come to be used as a means of communicating other people's perspectives while also emphasizing formal neutrality and distance.

The newspaper and the news as an appealing, designed product are closely related to contemporary news journalism. Radical changes were made to the press during the 20th century. News- paper pages were organized and designed to attract visual attention and achieve high entertainment value using new technologies and new ideas about layout and design. According to some, modern design is closely related to modern journalism. A multimodal newspaper page that was heavily influenced by visual communication forms was developed, in part through the use of various quotation techniques [3], [4].

Internal discourses, narratives, and presentational strategies are all closely related to modern journalism. News has always been naturally presented within the boundaries of distinct genres and conventions throughout the history of the press. Modern news journalism stands out most for its increasing editing of public discourse, setting the stage for other people's statements, and production of media events, all in line with a logic that is uniquely journalistic. Numerous researchers have noted this development. A variety of sociolinguistic practices and techniques, the most significant of which are interviewing and quoting, are used to carry out and support these internal discourses.

Goal and strategy

The main goal of this chapter is to examine the connections between the development of contemporary news journalism and the practices and methods of interviewing and quoting more closely. Aftonbladet and Dagens Nyheter, two Swedish newspapers, are empirically examined between 1915 and 1995. The information is comprised of all political news articles published in the two newspapers in April of the following years: 1915, 1935, 1955, 1975, and 1995. These publications were chosen because they were among the most influential in the Swedish press for the entirety of the 20th century and were both founded in the 19th century. Aftonbladet became a tabloid in the second half of the 20th century, and Dagens Nyheter evolved into a prestigious morning publication. The 20-year time frame was selected in order to document significant changes over time without becoming overwhelmed by an impossible volume of data. The content is made up of 656 articles and political news items in total.

DISCUSSION

Clarifications of concepts

In the analyses later in the chapter, the theoretical foundations and connections to earlier research are sequentially reported. I would like to make a few conceptual clarifications as an introduction, though. A journalistic interview consists of three parts:

\A practical way to gather information for news articles; a way to engage in social interaction. The news interview developed into an institutionalized form of interaction with norms, roles, and rules of conduct during the 20th century, as demonstrated by a number of researchers; a format for presenting other people's voices in the media. I consider quotation to be the same as direct speech. According to Eriksson, direct speech is a linguistic clause that claims to express what another person has said in a syntactically independent manner. Being independent means that the quoted individual could have expressed the thought in the same way. Its independence

also suggests that the utterance is voiceless. This distinguishes reported or indirect speech from direct speech, which I also refer to as quotation. Reported speech is when the other person's words are paraphrased in the speaker's or the relation's current voice.

Example of reported speech: "In the Expressen interview, the Prime Minister said that he does not regret any of the decisions that he has made." I also employ concept quotation techniques in the analysis. Various methods for indicating and incorporating direct speech in a linguistic context are referred to by this concept. A series of markers are used in news texts to make it clear to the reader that this is a quotation. Using tools like quotation marks, italics, and long dashes can help with this. Additionally, a variety of techniques are used specifically for integrating quotations into news stories and news formats. The use of quotation in headlines is an illustration of this. One of the most frequently employed linguistic actions is the use of various types of quotation. In the context of commonplace conversations and narratives, as well as more institutionalized linguistic practices like scientific writing, court interrogations, political debates, advertising, and contemporary news production, direct speech is used. Quotations are used differently and with different goals in each of these contexts. When using quotations for a particular purpose in a communication context, quotation techniques are always incorporated. Observing what distinguishes the use of quotations in news reporting is a key topic in this chapter.

The conversation and the emergence of news media as a stand-alone organization

News journalism evolved into a contemporary public institution with a high level of autonomy, a dominant position in the public sphere, and specialized, routinized methods during the 20th century. This developed gradually and naturally involved a variety of factors. I'll make the case that a key aspect of the institutionalization of journalism has been the interview's institutionalization. What, however, indicated the interview's altered function in journalism? Of course, it's important to note that the interview, which had previously been used as a special occasion tactic, gradually started to be used more frequently. The interview has at least been used in Swedish media since the 1880s. A reputable newspaper like Dagens Nyheter regularly published content from interviews conducted by one of the paper's reporters starting around 1910. However, it appears that the interview did not become widely used in routine journalistic work until the middle of the 20th century. According to Schudson , who refers to the interview as "the archetypal act of journalism," it emerged in American news journalism much earlier than it did in many other parts of Europe. It was a fairly typical technique in many newspaper editorial offices as early as the end of the 19th century [5]–[7].

The analysis of the political news articles in the two newspapers Aftonbladet and Dagens Nyheter shows unequivocally how the value of the interview has changed over time. Newspaper articles describing, relating, and quoting parliamentary debates, political speeches, and other events/discussions organized within the framework of the political institutions were frequently published in 1915 and even in 1935. Reporters' duties included paying attention to and writing about frequently very long political speeches. This was not particularly unusual for the two newspapers under investigation. Only a few interviews were conducted. Political institutions as a whole were highly valued and were thought to be important news. Despite not actively participating in the conversations they related, the reporters were active as observers and writers. The presence of journalists in these situations probably had little to no impact on the politicians' decisions. In this way, the worlds of politics and journalism were distinct from one another. Aftonbladet makes the development particularly clear. There were no quotes from interviews published in Aftonbladet between the study's time periods. But starting in 1955, they steadily increased in popularity. Quotations from interviews are crucial in the creation of contemporary news articles.

Only when it is clear from the article that the results actually come from an interview have I coded them as "interview". There are an increasing number of quotations that have been coded as "not evident" for each year that has been studied. In these situations, it is not clear from the article where the journalist took the quote. However, there is reason to think that many of the quotations are drawn from interviews. According to Ekström, Johansson, and Larsson, this practice of reporters quoting from their own interviews without citing the source is gradually becoming more common in the news genre. As a result, the interview is a source that is actually even more frequently used than the numbers in the table under the value "interview" suggest.

The aforementioned development can be seen as an expression of a situation in which journalism has become increasingly independent in relation to other institutions, and for very good reasons. Instead of compiling quotes from communication events scheduled within the framework of the political institutions, news journalism conducts interviews. This does not necessarily imply that journalists stop attending legislative hearings, political gatherings, etc. However, using interviews as a supplemental or even primary method becomes more crucial for them. Regardless of whether this actually offers any new information, it highlights the strength, impartiality, and exclusive rights of journalism. Journalism doesn't just create news texts; it also starts and guides the communication events that provide the quotes for the news articles. The paradoxical outcome, however, is that as journalism grows as an independent institution, it gets harder and harder to keep politics and journalism separate. A journalistic public sphere develops out of the political public sphere. Naturally, even contemporary news journalism links discussions organized within the framework of political institutions, but these tend to lose importance in favor of political discussions developed within the context of journalism.

The interview became more specialized at the same time that it was used more frequently. The development of unique, specialized methods for achieving internal objectives—in this case, producing interesting news is a distinguishing trait of institutions. Due to this specialization, the interview was increasingly isolated from other forms of communication. The interview came to be associated with unique methods, unique relationships between the interviewer and the subject, and it also came to represent journalism. When reporters cited the source of the information they used in their articles during the first half of the 20th century, the terms interview and conversation were almost interchangeable. The distinction does not appear to have mattered in any way, either symbolically or practically. After the war, particularly in the 1960s and 1970s, this changed. Reporters speaking with politicians is no longer mentioned in news articles. They pose inquiries. The interview and the questioning were central to the journalistic ideal that gradually emerged. The identity and professionalization of journalism increasingly depended on interviewing techniques [8], [9].

The news interview evolved into a unique technique that helped make journalism unique. By using this technique, journalists were able to provide readers with exclusive information about topics to which not just anyone had access. They were able to publish political statements and remarks that didn't even exist prior to the interview. It was necessary for the interview to gain acceptance and legitimacy among both journalists and politicians if it was to become an institutionalized method and form of communication. At the turn of the 20th century, there was a widespread negative attitude toward the interview, not least among American journalists, as Schudson has demonstrated. Others even believed it to be a danger to all professional journalism. The interview was not widely accepted in 1915, the first year I studied, according to contemporary comments from Swedish politicians. The interview was allegedly labeled "a product of the ruthless methods of the contemporary press" by Hjalmar Branting, the leader of the Social Democratic party. He criticized the interview as a journalist's working technique.

According to the newspaper Social demokraten's archives, Branting was particularly critical of attempts to coerce subjects into answering questions when they had declined to be interviewed. We can get a glimpse of how journalism and politics interacted at the time by the fact that a prominent politician could assert in this way that he should only be interviewed when he had requested it. These power relations underwent a significant change once the interview was institutionalized and incorporated into contemporary journalism.

When certain perceptions about this type of interaction spread widely, interviewing became an institutionalized practice. The interview took on a more and more casual tone. Additionally, readers and viewers eventually started to perceive it naturally. Though it occurred earlier in American journalism, possibly as early as the turn of the 20th century, it did not occur in Sweden until decades into the 20th century. It is hardly necessary to look for a more precise dating. Given that interviews are now a self-evident component of news reporting, it is no longer necessary to defend meta-comments when interviews are reported in the media. Such meta-comments were still common in 1915 and 1935. On its front page, Dagens Nyheter published a story on April 12, 1935, describing the political procedure that led to new legislation. A politician and the director-general are quoted as offering their opinions in the headline and introduction. The following statement follows the quotation: "*It is Director-General Sam Larsson who gives this answer in a conversation with Dagens Nyheter on the basis of Professor Westman's most recent description of the situation with respect to the third party law*." Since Mr. Larsson is a member of the Liberal Party's second standing committee on civil law legislation and participated in discussions with the "so-called thirteen-man commission," we felt it was only natural to turn to him [10]–[12].It is clear that the newspaper felt it necessary to explain why this specific person was interviewed in a prominent location and right after the introduction of the text. This kind of explanation, known as a meta-comment, was common during this time but is now almost nonexistent. Thus, interviews are becoming more frequent while at the same time the method is becoming less obvious in the news texts, which is a characteristic of modern news journalism. The interview evolved into more than just a specialized journalistic technique for producing news quickly and effectively. A new position for journalism was implied by the institutionalization of the interview on a more fundamental level. Reporters were granted a legitimate right as members of this institution, perhaps not to demand but at least to anticipate interviews with officials. Reporters' interactions with officials underwent a change.

The interview evolved into such a common format for the publication of politics that politicians' resistance to participating in an interview could become news in and of itself. The interview became the very embodiment of journalism's expanded oversight privileges of the government. It is, so far, a manifestation of the crucial relationship between journalism, politics, and audience in contemporary news journalism. Journalism has the right to examine the government while also regulating the public discourse in the media. It goes without saying that other societal changes during the 20th century, which I have not covered here, were connected to this development. I am considering things like general democratization, demystifying political authorities and changing criteria for political legitimacy, phase-out of party press and growing press independence from political parties, media commercialization and growing media audience.The use of quotation marks and the objectivity claim in news reporting. One of the most crucial standards and assertions of contemporary news journalism is objectivity. Naturally, journalists and media critics who contend that journalism cannot be objective may contest this assertion; it all depends on what we mean when we say that journalism cannot be objective. Given that it has already been discussed elsewhere, I won't get too involved in it here. Whether or not news reporting is or can be objective is not something that interests me right now. Instead, I contend that the need to prove that news exists

independently of news journalism has been closely linked to modern news journalism. This is supported by every method news journalism has created and used to distance itself from the narrative. Identity and relationships are maintained through concrete linguistic actions in interviews and news texts, which are essential for the news as a discourse and social institution.Heritage and Great- batch have demonstrated through in-depth analyses of the news interview how the formally neutral position is expressed in the role that the interviewer adopts through his speech act. For instance, the interviewer may refrain from making judgments or affirmations about the interviewee's responses in favor of posing fresh queries. Instead, I will examine how news journalism has highlighted distance in this section with the aid of a variety of quotation techniques, demonstrating that it does not speak with its own voice but rather transmits that of others. These methods have enabled news journalism to maintain formal neutrality while allowing for significant freedom in the use of other people's voices to produce compelling news stories. There are no pure quotations in the sense of an unaltered reproduction, as Tannen has so persuasively argued. Someone always creates direct speech for a specific circumstance. Every time someone reproduces another person's voice in a specific way or for a specific audience, there is a reason for doing so. No matter how prominent the creator of the dialogue is in the story or dialogue, quoted voices are always a part of it. The narrator, or in our case, the journalist, affects the words spoken on at least three different levels.

Word and sentence construction

Even when voices are rendered as direct speech, words and sentence construction are frequently altered to fit the situation. Such modifications are frequently required in news journalism if quotations are to fit, for example, the format of a headline.

Modalities and discursive techniques

When an oral utterance from an interview is converted into text, for example, an utterance is frequently transferred from one modality to another. Numerous discursive devices, including typeface and font size, are employed in news texts to affect the meaning of utterances. People use stresses and paralinguistic cues in oral communication in a corresponding way.

Context

According to Ekström and Linell, an utterance is always rendered in a specific context that takes into account the particular communication situation, the story it fits into, and the more immediate linguistic context. Naturally, these circumstances change how a quotation is understood. Therefore, quotes can never be wholly neutral.4 On the other hand, they might be essential for upholding formal neutrality. Direct and indirect speech establish different relationships between the speaker, the one who renders the utterance, and those to whom the utterance is rendered. This is done through the use of their respective syntactic constructions. Direct speech focuses on the actual utterance, whereas indirect speech also emphasizes the context in which the utterance was made. Indirect speech simultaneously increases the reader's awareness of the narrator/writer. Instead, with direct speech, the listener may believe that the speaker is speaking directly to them.

This is precisely why a quotation can be so helpful in a discourse that makes strong claims to objectivity. Throughout the entire study period, news articles frequently use both direct and indirect speech. With the growth of contemporary journalism, there has been a clear shift toward a news discourse in which the direct speech, or quotation, is more prominently marked using a variety of quotation techniques. Political news was delivered as a report in 1915 and 1935. The format of many news stories is a report on parliamentary proceedings and other events that took place within the context of the political institutions. The reporter is clearly

identifiable in the text as the writer even though they are quoting and reporting what others have said. Rarely are citation methods like quotation marks used. The transitions between the reporter's voice and the voice of the source are not always easy to distinguish.

CONCLUSION

The symbiotic relationship between conducting interviews, citing sources, and the development of modern news journalism emphasizes how dynamic the media environment is. Interviews give journalists the vital firsthand information they need to create well-rounded stories. The credibility of news stories is increased by accurate and clear citation of sources, which promotes trust between journalists and readers. The digital era has completely changed how news is distributed, presenting both previously unheard-of opportunities and difficulties. Technology advancements have altered traditional news models, requiring journalists to be flexible and changing audience expectations. Practitioners of news must adhere to strict interviewing and citation standards while utilizing cutting-edge platforms in order to provide accurate and timely information in this constantly shifting media landscape.

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CHAPTER 3
THE NEED FOR JOURNALISM STUDIES: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Rapid technological advancements and changes in information consumption habits characterize the modern media landscape. The role of journalism has changed in this dynamic environment, highlighting the urgent need for specialized journalism studies. This chapter looks at how journalism studies are essential for understanding the media's many facets, including its social, political, and ethical implications. This chapter emphasizes the importance of fostering media literacy, advocating ethical journalism practices, and protecting the integrity of information dissemination by examining the historical roots, current issues, and future directions of journalism. Journalism studies is emerging as a fundamental discipline for preparing people with the abilities to successfully navigate, assess, and contribute to the evolving media landscape as society struggles with an overwhelming influx of information sources.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Journalism, Literacy, Media.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism has existed "since people recognized a need to share information about themselves with others". The study of journalism, however, is a more recent development. There are a number of reasons why it is worthwhile for academics to study journalism. First, news affects how we perceive the outside world, ourselves, and other people. Our shared realities are created and maintained by the stories that journalists tell. Because of this, news has the potential to be a crucial form of social glue. By reading stories about recent events, big and small, we form a "imagined community" of fellow readers.

We learn about ourselves as subjects in local, national, and increasingly global contexts through the rituals of reading and discussing journalism texts. Particularly, it is believed that democracy and journalism are inextricably linked. It plays a significant part in forming our identities as citizens by enabling the discussions and debates between and among the general public and its representatives, which are crucial for effective self-governance. News, in essence, is "the stuff which makes political action possible" [1], [2].

Not all academics have such a positive outlook on the survival and future of journalism in its institutionalized and professional form. Journalism as we know it has been declared "dead" and referred to as a "zombie institution" with the introduction of interactive communication technologies, and researchers continue to muse about the "end of journalism". Many theorists are especially concerned about the potential demise of traditional political journalism because "[i]ts loss would rob us of the centerpiece of deliberative politics". To paraphrase Mark Twain, reports that journalism is dead may be greatly exaggerated. We could be witnessing the re-invention of journalism rather than its demise. According to Hartley, journalism is the main "sense-making practice of modernity" as a textual medium. It advances the major modernist narratives and serves as a repository for our collective memory. Journalistic writings are "the first draft of history." Historians and other observers of a time primarily understand that time through the accounts of and responses to events and people found in journalistic texts. News

stories capture the ongoing drama of the conflicts between the dominant ideology and its challengers because journalism is the primary means for articulating and playing out both consensus and conflicts in society.

Given how important journalism is to society, it is crucial for anyone who wants to understand modern culture to study it. It is becoming more and more common to do this. Today, the study of journalism is a rapidly expanding subfield of communication. The foundation of several new journals in the field, such as Journalism: Theory, Practice and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice, among others, has contributed to the dramatic rise in the number of academics who identify as journalism researchers over the past few decades. The International Communication Association, the International Association for Media and Communication Research, and the European Communication Research and Education Association have all established journalism studies divisions in recent years. Brazilian Journalism Research, Ecquid Novi: African Journalism Studies, Pacific Journalism Review, as well as a sizable number of semi-trade journals, like the British Journalism Review, Global Journalism Review, and the American Journalism Review, are just a few examples of the growing number of regional journals that cover journalism studies [3], [4].

The field of journalism studies has developed into a mature discipline with its own body of theories and literature. Books written for a research audience in journalism are increasingly becoming available. Recent books have contributed to the development of journalism studies as a field, including Journalism. However, the origins and subsequent development of this solidifying field are numerous and intricate. In this article, we outline four distinct, yet related, phases in the history of journalism research: While the field originated from normative research on the function of the press in society conducted by German scholars, it rose to prominence with the empirical turn, which was particularly significant in the United States, was enriched by a subsequent sociological turn, which was particularly prominent among Anglo-American scholars, and has now expanded its scope with the global-comparative turn to reflect the realities of a globalized world.

DISCUSSION

On the stage of scholarly research, journalism studies can be viewed as both a newcomer and an experienced player in some ways. The majority of observers contend that the start of scholarly research in the area coincided with the development of journalism as a profession and a social force in the early 20th century. Some people, though, have discovered even earlier antecedents. According to James Carey and Hanno Hardt, the mid-19th century in Germany was a pivotal time for the development of research on journalism and communication. Thus, critical German social theorists' writings serve as the "prehistory" of journalism studies research by highlighting the normative impulses that provided the field with its initial impetus. Hanno Hardt identified similarities, differences, and continuities between and among early German and American thinkers on the press in his now-classic work on Social Theories of the Press. He singled out the writings of German theorists from the 19th and early 20th centuries Karl Marx, Albert Schäffle, Karl Knies, Karl Bücher, Ferdinand Tönnies, and Max Weber as having had a significant influence on how they saw the social role of journalism.

Similar to Löffelholz, who researched the history of journalism studies in Germany, Robert Eduard Prutz's writings can be seen as the forerunner of modern journalism theory. Prutz published The History of German Journalism in 1845, years before news-paper studies became a recognized field of study. Based on the idea that journalism is a craft practiced by more or less talented individuals, the majority of early German theorists approached the subject through a historical and normative lens. The processes and structures of news production were not as

important to journalism scholars as what journalism should be in the context of social communication and political debate. In many ways, the macro-sociological approach to journalism has persisted in German communication scholarship often at the expense of empirical research. Although Max Weber called for a thorough study of journalists in a 1910 speech to the first annual convention of German sociologists, such a study was not conducted until the early 1990s [5], [6].

1. Observational Turn

Only in the context of journalism training, first and foremost in the United States, did an interest in the structures, procedures, and personnel of news production begin to take hold. In this sense, the interest in sharing knowledge about their work among professional educators led to the beginning of empirical journalism research as opposed to normative or theoretical work on the subject. There is no doubt that the study of journalism emerged from professional education in the US and was frequently administrative in nature. This new era in journalism scholarship was ushered in by the establishment of Journalism Quarterly in 1924. The first issue included, among other things, an essay by Willard "Daddy" Bleyer of the University of Wisconsin outlining important approaches to newspaper research. As noted by Rogers and Chaffee, Bleyer played a key role in launching a new era of journalism scholarship that took journalism seriously as both a field of study and a practical endeavor. In the 1930s, Bleyer went on to start a PhD minor within sociology and political science doctoral programs that already existed.

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

While audiences and media effects dominated research during this time, the developing field of journalism studies gradually began to focus on "news people" and their professional values, as well as editorial structures and practices. The gatekeeper model, the professionalization paradigm, the theories of news values, and agenda setting are a few examples of theories and concepts that were developed from and based on empirical research. These scholars' pioneering research is one of the select few studies in the history of journalism studies that can be universally referred to as "classics."

 They have produced legitimate journalism theories that are still relevant and influential. And even though many of their theories may seem out of date and have been supplanted by more recent research, they are still influential in the sense that they have created significant research traditions. These traditional studies "may not be the most advanced in either theory or method, but they capture the imagination".

2. Social-Science Turn

Sociology and anthropology had a greater impact on journal-ism research in the 1970s and 1980s, which resulted in the field taking on a sociological bent. The emphasis shifted to a critical engagement with journalism's conventions and routines, professional and occupational ideologies and cultures, interpretive communities, and concepts related to news texts, like framing, storytelling, and narrative, as well as the expanding significance of the popular in the news. The adoption of qualitative methodologies, most notably ethnographic and discourse analytical strategies, coincided with the growing attention given to cultural issues. Sociologists like Gaye Tuchman, Herbert J. Gans, Philip Schlesinger, and Peter Golding, as well as proponents of cultural studies like James Carey, Stuart Hall, John Hartley, and Barbie Zelizer, are some of the individuals who have made a lasting impact on journalism studies in this tradition. This tradition of scholarship, which frequently concentrated on work in and of national and elite news organizations, paved the way for a view of journalism's role in creating and upholding dominant ideologies while also allowing for a better understanding of news production processes through descriptive work [7]–[9].

3. The Turn to Global Comparison

Finally, a global-comparative turn in journalism studies has emerged in the 1990s: Although Jack McLeod developed cross-cultural research in the 1960s , it took until the last 20 years for the comparative study of journalism to establish a tradition of its own.1 Political shifts and new communication technologies have accelerated the global rise of international and comparative research. The end of the cold war and growing globalization have made it possible for journalism researchers to connect with colleagues from a distance more frequently. New communication technologies have sparked the growth of institutionalized, international scientific networks, and it is now much simpler to secure funding for such studies. The study of journalism is developing into an international and cooperative effort as the field itself becomes a more widespread phenomenon.

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

Despite the field's increasing internationalization, Anglo-American scholars continue to dominate the major English-language journals, albeit with a steadily increasing amount of contributions from other countries. Scholarship from or about other countries is a clear exception in Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly , which until recently was the most significant home for publications in journalism studies. JMCQ heavily relies on US contributors. Only two out of the journal's 80 editors and editorial board members are from countries other than the United States, which highlights the strong American hegemony in the field. JMCQ is published by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass

Communication, but many journalism and communication schools around the world rely heavily on the journal as a source and a reference. Cushion also notes that over a third of authors in Journalism Studies and close to half of all authors in Journalism come from American universities. As a result, the work of US news organizations is very well charted, whereas we know incredibly little about what happens in newsrooms and media content in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The geographical origins of authors are also highly predictive of the area they study.

Journalists, their practices, and the texts they create are the subject of most research that has been published in these journals and elsewhere. For instance, a review of articles published in the last ten years in the three top journals can provide insight into the interests of journalism scholars. Much of the recent research on journalism texts is being driven by the framing research paradigm in the US context, whereas scholars in other countries are more likely to rely on discourse and textual analysis. However, Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly has historically relied heavily on content analysis; for instance, this approach was used in 25% of articles published between 1975 and 1995. However, compared to the other journals, JMCQ publishes a lot more research on news audiences because it frequently welcomes contributions based on experimental studies influenced by the effects tradition. The third-person effect and the use of ideas like salience and attribution have both been the subject of numerous articles. However, the majority of the essays continue to concentrate on the psychology and sociology of journalism.

The field is strongly influenced by a particular set of normative presumptions that we would do well to reflect on, despite the strength of an empirical tradition that has prevailed since the early years of communication research and the growing significance of global perspectives: We presumptively believe that journalism serves as a "fourth estate" or serves as a "watchdog role" by providing a check on the abuses of government power, as was implied at the beginning of this chapter. As a result, we also assume that journalists view themselves as independent forces for the public good and as defenders of free speech. The concerns that motivated the work of the pioneering German thinkers are shared by scholars of all stripes working in the field of journalism studies today [10], [11].

By relying on these presumptions, we fail to acknowledge the fact that the press has actually been heavily manipulated in many regions of the world outside of the liberal and frequently libertarian Anglo-American tradition. From the use of journalism to advance national social-ist ideology in Nazi Germany to China's "watchdogs on party leashes", totalitarian regimes around the world have demonstrated a profound understanding of the power of the press. We shouldn't ignore the role that journalism has played in promoting genocide, fostering intolerance, and igniting conflict. For instance, the situations in Rwanda, Liberia, and Sierra Leone have all received extensive documentation. Recently, it has become clear that claims of free speech universalism rub up against cultural and religious sensibilities in a globalized world since the controversial publication of cartoons featuring the Prophet Muhammad by the Danish newspaper *Jyllandsposten*. Journalism researchers who are cognizant of these complexities are increasingly interested in tracing the effects of significant changes brought about by globalization and political, economic, social, and technological change in journalism organizations, production practices, content, and audiences.

CONCLUSION

The need for journalism studies has never been more pressing in a time when information is flooding in from numerous sources and the distinction between fact and fiction is becoming increasingly hazy. It is impossible to overstate the importance of journalism in protecting the

foundations of democracy, and a solid understanding of the subject is necessary to uphold the credibility of this vital institution. Researchers and educators can give aspiring journalists the tools they need to responsibly navigate the complexity of the contemporary media landscape by exploring the historical, ethical, and technological facets of journalism. Furthermore, journalism studies improve the general level of media literacy in society by equipping the general public with the knowledge and abilities to distinguish reliable information from false information. A thorough understanding of journalism acquired through devoted studies remains a crucial cornerstone for informed citizenship and the preservation of democratic values as the digital age continues to transform how information is produced and consumed.

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CHAPTER 4
UNDERSTANDING THE HISTORY OF
JOURNALISM: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

The development of news and information dissemination over time is documented in the history of journalism. Journalism has been fundamental in forming societies and promoting the exchange of knowledge from its beginnings in ancient civilizations to the digital age. This chapter examines significant turning points in journalism's past by following its evolution through various technological, social, and political changes. This chapter offers insights into how journalism has evolved and flourished in response to the changing needs of societies by looking at the emergence of various media, the changing role of journalists, and the impact of technological advancements. The fundamental values of accuracy, fairness, and objectivity are still as important as ever in this age of instant communication, ensuring that journalism continues to be a pillar of informed and democratic societies.

KEYWORDS:

Evolution, Journalism, Media, Mass Communication.

INTRODUCTION

The phrase journalism history is a relatively recent invention more recent, of course, than the term journalism. The conversation that is now referred to as journalism history, however, has a longer history that traces the development of news culture as a subculture of first print culture and then media culture. New genres of reporting on news history emerged with each new development in news culture. The line dividing journalism history from other branches of media history has been porous and hazy for the duration of this history. Journalism history has been dealing with an identity crisis since the 1970s, one that in many ways prefigures the more general crisis in journalism's identity today. Because journalism histories are so varied, historicizing them is the most effective way to map them. This tactic also has the benefit of demonstrating how the task of creating histories of journalism has been a component of a larger endeavor to define and regulate news culture. Today, history is seen by many scholars as an essential tool for critiquing professional journalism by illuminating its complexities and contingencies [1], [2].

From two sources emerged the history of journalism. The first was a general intellectual curiosity about how communication technologies have changed over time. Many academics attribute this interest to Plato's Phaedrus, which addresses writing-related cognitive problems. The impact of literacy, alphabetic literacy, and finally the printing press on profound structural changes in social, cultural, and political life caught the attention of many Enlightenment thinkers in Europe. The same philosophy was expressed by 20th-century thinkers Marshall McLuhan and Harold Adams Innis. This viewpoint frequently manifests as a propensity to overstate the significance of machines in influencing the development of journalism in works of journalism history proper. The advent of new technologies, such as the steam press or broadcasting, frequently serves as turning points in comprehensive histories, and the autobiographies of journalists frequently focus on the changes in newsroom technology that took place over the course of their subjects' careers. The second source for the history of

journalism was more professional. News work created a history for itself as it matured and became more professional by projecting its identity into the past. Consequently, journalism history developed alongside journalism, and its historical awareness is a characteristic of its actual growth.

European newspapers were first printed at the start of the seventeenth century. They were a late addition to the so-called printing revolution, which focused initially on expanding and multiplying the types of books that had previously been printed by hand before producing newer formats that more fully utilized the printing press's capabilities. Because printers and their customers were not immediately aware of the uses for newspapers, they were not established right away. However, with the escalation of religious dissent after the Protestant Reformation, the emergence of new economic institutions, and the emergence of the market society, activists and businesspeople created newspapers as useful media. Early newspapers targeted particular readers, such as business owners, members of the landed gentry, and Calvinists. Such newspapers were prevalent in the capital cities of Western Europe by the middle of the seventeenth century. The first English-language newspapers, which were published there in 1620, were especially significant because Amsterdam was a leading city in both commerce and religious independence [3], [4].

Generally speaking, it wasn't until the eighteenth century that newspapers started to regularly target a wider readership with political issues. The newspaper was once a tool for commerce and religious controversy, but with the emergence of a bourgeois public sphere, it has evolved into a venue for ongoing political debate and argument. In the era of bourgeois revolutions, newspapers emerged as crucial sources. All three revolutions the French, the American, and the Great Revolution in England produced vibrant news cultures and active conflict in print.

DISCUSSION

Newspaper political reporting standards emerged as political systems in Europe and North America matured. The newspaper was instrumental in developing a system for expressing public opinion. Newspaper discourse asserted a set of expectations for rational discourse in line with what Jürgen Habermas attributes to the bourgeois public sphere as it announced its proper role. On whether these norms accurately represented the sociology of the news, historians disagree. Many disagree with Habermas' claims that public discourse in the eighteenth century was open, impersonal, and rational. However, newspapers consistently referred to standards of all-encompassing rational supervision, despite the fact that they were partisan, passionate, and exclusive. The letters of Cato and Publius, which were frequently reprinted in newspapers, serve as prime examples of this type of discourse. James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay were a trio of political figures who published their letters, better known as the Federalist Papers. A rhetorical device used to emphasize a non-partisan concern with the common good, their pseudonym refers to a figure from the Roman Republic but literally means "public man" or "citizen".

The revolutions of the eighteenth century established a link between democracy and the media. The primary issue with good government became the continuous generation of consent through public opinion as the basis of political legitimacy changed from blood and God to the will of the people. Public opinion was a major concern for political thinkers. They started actively commenting on the need for systems of national communication after getting some experience with the workings of government, and they encouraged what we would call infrastructure development in the form of postal systems and the transportation networks they required.

Regulation and censorship of news culture were typically regarded as appropriate and necessary up until well into the eighteenth century. The Thirty Years' War gave rise to the

printing of news, which was heavily entwined in the protracted religious wars that followed the Protestant Reformation. The control of public discourse was seen by the states of Europe as crucial to upholding legitimacy and peace. They created press censorship systems, including licensing and prohibition, in collaboration with the Vatican. In the meantime, copyrights and patents were developed with the help of printers and booksellers. In essence, the government granted monopolies that guaranteed income while promoting moral conduct.

The "freedom of the press" story became a staple of early journalism histories. Stories of valiant propagandists and publicists fighting censorship during the age of revolution became part of the general conversation surrounding debates over the nature of government. A canon of liberal thought would develop over the course of the following century, bringing authors like John Milton, Thomas Jefferson, and Thomas Paine into a sustained dialogue. The shared culture of subsequent journalism histories would be largely artificial discourse. The age of revolution advocated for democratic governance to be founded on public opinion produced by a discussion space governed by standards of objective, logical discourse. But the reality of the partisan uses of the newspaper always clashed with this theory. The shady legitimacy of the tools of party competition, including the press, contributed significantly to the ferocity of early party politics in all the new democracies [5]–[7].

In the majority of Western nations by the start of the nineteenth century, a blatantly partisan model of news culture had taken hold. Journalism only enters the picture at this point. It has French roots and was originally used to describe the thriving opinion journalism in the years after the Revolution. By 1830, the phrase had made its way into English, but it was still associated with partisan discussion of public issues and was seen as a sign of political dysfunction.

Partisan journalism gradually gained a positive justification, though never fully achieved. Politics as a spectacle started to seem healthy as democratic government became the norm. Observers asserted that political conflict served to advance a general social good, much like the competition in the marketplace. Additionally, during the early to mid-19th century, as most of Western Europe and North America relaxed press laws, a freer newspaper market interacted with partisan journalism to create something akin to a marketplace of public opinion.

Emergence

The first pieces of what would later become journalism history began to appear around this time. Early chronicles that documented the development of printing, including newspapers among other publications, are considered predecessors. These mainly jubilant accounts of the development of the press were frequently also patriotic and infused with a sense of the victory of democratic government and press freedom.

The writings are categorized under what historians have dubbed the Whig theory of history, which a broad narrative is built around the inescapable struggle between liberty and power that emphasizes the progressive expansion of liberty. Even as ideas about journalism and press freedom underwent significant change, the Whig model of journalism history was to hold sway well into the twentieth century.

Biography dominated Whig history. The model tended to present narratives of strong individuals as producers of change because it centered on the advancement of a specifically liberal notion of freedom. As a rule, news organizations were personified. Early biographies of newspaper publishers are an example. In a well-known memoir, an admiring former assistant would establish a pattern of extolling the publisher, and that perspective would endure, either in later, expanded editions of the work or in the background of biographies by authors who

were not connected to the well-known individual. This pattern was established in the United States by Parton's biography of Horace Greeley in 1855, and later authors used it for press moguls like James Gordon Bennett, Joseph Pulitzer, WilEdward Scripps and William Randolph Hearst.

A mass press began to emerge in the United States and Europe in the middle to end of the nineteenth century, with the timing of its emergence being linked to the persistence of taxation or other types of press regulation. Compared to the earlier, primarily political newspapers, this commercialized press was more dependent on advertising revenue and consequently targeted a wider audience. Newspapers used new types of content to assemble targeted readerships that could then be sold to advertisers. Newspapers segmented these more diverse audiences by gender, age, and class. More event-oriented news, particularly crime news, as well as more reporting on social and cultural issues, or so-called human interest stories, made up the news content in the mass circulation press [8], [9].

As a mass audience grew, the popular press fed readers sensational stories and developed a reputation for social marginality. Around that time, journalism also started to distinguish itself from its "other" and acquire its modern sense as a discipline of news reporting. Yellow journalism was a global phenomenon that may have been named after the inexpensive paper made by the new wood pulp process or, more likely, after the yellow covers of earlier cheap crime fiction. Additionally, illustrated news gained popularity, first in Britain, then directly after in France and Spain, in North America, and then in other European nations. The popularity of the popular press coincided with the emergence of a politics of news quality. Reformers and established elites lamented how journalism affected public morality and intelligence. While the general taste for scandal and sensation seemed to coarsen public mores, it was claimed that the episodic nature of newspaper content hindered the public's capacity for sustained or complex thought or deliberation.

Thus, journalism took on the responsibility of fostering and regulating news culture. The objectives of public figures who desired more decency in news culture were served by this mission. One result of this dynamic was the identification of an implicit constitutional right to privacy in the United States. Other parties who were involved supported journalists' efforts to sanitize the news for other reasons. Publishers sought to improve their reputation in order to shield themselves from a public that was beginning to perceive press influence as a threat. Likewise, news workers wanted to improve the standing of their profession. A specific sociology of newswork was concurrent with the project to improve journalism. Reporters scavenged news from beats and recorded meetings and other news events, while editors compiled news and wrote opinion pieces. Correspondents wrote lengthy letters from far-off locations and generally had a voice and expressed attitudes. Adjustments to this sociology were improved by the effort to promote journalism. When the roles of reporter and correspondent were combined, walls of reified separation between them and editors on the one hand and business managers on the other were built, resulting in the emergence of a proto-professional form of journalism. The rise of muckraking in the United States and other forms of exposure journalism worldwide are clear examples of the increased autonomy that resulted from this redefined journalism.

Professionalization

In the West, journalism was prepared to start a professionalization project at the start of the 20th century. The process could be seen in widespread phenomena like the establishment of schools of journalism, press clubs, and associations, as well as the creation of codes of ethics. While governments in other locations established credential-ing regimes, journalists in some

other locations formed unions. The most industrialized parts of the news system, particularly metropolitan newspapers and wire services, developed aspects of monopoly in every developed nation, supporting the kinds of control that an autonomous profession might establish. It was necessary for the professionalization project to use a slightly different type of journalism background. The new journalism schools desired a teachable past that could serve as moral role models for aspiring professionals. When the old Whig histories were freed of their mavericks, they became somewhat useful.

Greater understanding of the business environment was also necessary when teaching about the news industry. The nations with more commercial news outlets, particularly the US, inserted a story about market redemption. Independent journalism was viewed as a market product that was free of any partisan ties in the history textbooks that were most commonly used in American journalism schools. Not only were standard textbooks consistent with this viewpoint, but so were important essays that would go on to become canonical in the history of journalism, such as Walter Lippmann's Two Revolutions in the American Press and Robert Park's Natural History of the Newspaper in the United States. For a number of reasons, this belief in the goodness of market forces seems strange. The mass market press, which had given the professionalization project urgency at the end of the nineteenth century, seemed to be something that was deliberately forgotten in order to accomplish this. The monopoly conditions in the wire services and the new medium of broadcasting, which both contributed to public anxiety over media power and provided the levers for imposing standards on news culture, also appeared to be rendered invisible. Additionally, it appeared to argue against the professionalization project's main goal of creating a "wall of separation" between the newsroom and the counting room [10], [11].

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

Regarding the institutionalization of professional journalism, there were differences in the West. Three models or "media systems" have been identified by Daniel Hallin and Paolo Mancini : partisanism in southern Europe, represented by what they term the "polarized pluralist system," social democracy in northern Europe, represented by the "democratic corporatist system," and market-based systems in the North Atlantic, represented by the "liberal system". The preservation of some level of professional journalism's independence from preexisting authorities as well as from market and political influences, however, was a concern for all three systems.

In the meantime, the idea of press freedom as well as the autonomous journalism model were exported to the south and east. After World War II, particularly after the 1970s, another model of investigative journalism imported from the United States supplemented and in some cases, replaced the partisan model, which had emerged in the Americas alongside national liberation movements in the nineteenth century. The idea of independent journalism played a significant role in early nationalist movements in Asia, particularly in China, during the first decades of the 20th century.

CONCLUSION

The persistence of people's desire to stay informed and connected is highlighted by the history of journalism. Journalism has continuously changed its approaches to reach larger audiences, starting with the oral transmission of information in ancient civilizations and continuing through the emergence of newspapers, radio, television, and digital media. A watchdog, an informant, and a storyteller, journalists have influenced public opinion and societal advancement throughout history. With the internet facilitating quick international information exchange, the digital age has brought with it previously unimaginable opportunities and challenges. However, worries about false information and the future of high-quality journalism continue. Understanding the lessons from the history of journalism can help us navigate this constantly shifting environment and preserve the credibility of information sharing while maximizing the potential of emerging technologies.

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CHAPTER 5
THE CONCEPT OF ACADEMY AND THE JOURNALISM

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ABSTRACT:

The integration of journalism into academia is a project fraught with numerous difficulties. The study of journalism has taken an uneven path, with isolated pockets of disciplinary knowledge, as the recognizable forms of journalism assume new dimensions to accommodate the shifting environments in which journalism exists. As a result, there is little agreement among us regarding the two crucial terms that are the subject of our discussion. We can only barely agree on what journalism is and how the academy should relate to it. This chapter explores the various existential uncertainties that underlie journalism's coexistence with academia and makes a number of recommendations to improve the uneasy and frequently symbiotic nature of their relationship. This chapter examines the complex connection between journalism and academia. It explores the dynamics that are changing, the difficulties, and the advantages of the interaction between these two domains. This partnership's ethical implications and potential conflicts are also covered in the essay. Overall, it offers a thorough overview of the intricate interactions between journalism and academia, illuminating their effects on both industries and society at large.

KEYWORDS:

Academy, Journalism, Journalists**,** Media.

INTRODUCTION

In a time when journalism can be found everywhere from individualized blogs to late-night television satire and is studied in fields as varied as communication, literature, business, and sociology, reexamining journalism's place in academia may seem like an unnecessary effort to raise concerns about the long-term viability of a phenomenon that already seems to be everywhere. Though journalism and its study are everywhere, they are actually nowhere. On the one hand, the evolution of journalism has given rise to a profusion of recurring and unresolved laments over which form, practice, or convention might be better suited than their alternatives to qualify as news making convention. On the other hand, the scope and frequent unpredictability of its long-term evolution have not been matched by its study. The tension between journalism and academia echoes a larger tension that characterizes journalism's erratic and sporadic interaction with the outside world. Critics charged George Orwell with "turning what might have been a good book into journalism" when he incorporated newspaper quotes into his first book, and his collected works were published decades later with the unambiguous title Smothered under Journalism, 1946. Literary giants like Charles Dickens, Samuel Johnson, John Dos Passos, Andre Malraux, Dylan Thomas, and John Hersey all had journalistic backgrounds that are littered with similar tales. Even though we heavily rely on journalism to place us in relation to the larger community and to use that position as a springboard for more elaborate ways of positioning ourselves and understanding the world, responses like these are still common [1], [2].

This is puzzling considering that journalism plays a significant role in much of our situated knowledge. Without journalism, where would history be? What kind of literature would that be? How could we comprehend how the political system functions? Even though journalism is a phenomenon that manifests itself in many different ways across all of the ways that we

interact as a society, the retort "it's just journalism" is still frequently used. The tension between journalism and academia is one of many sources of existential uncertainty that supports coexistence. The most blatant uncertainty is caused by the practical concerns that underlie journalism's practice, which means that every time alleged intruder's blogs, citizen journalists, late-night TV comedians, or reality television get too close to its fictitious borders, its very definition is altered. The pedagogical aspects related to journalism and the academy are a second source of uncertainty.

There are many options for how we can teach what we believe to be true, especially as journalism's definition evolves. And yet, rather than being in front of its rapidly shifting boundaries, those who teach what constitutes and does not constitute journalistic practice and convention have a tendency to lag behind. The conceptual aspects of the relationship what we research when we think about journalism—are one of the biggest sources of uncertainty. Academics have used many different lenses to view journalism over the years, including the craft, the effect, the performance, and the technology. However, they have not yet created a scholarly portrait of journalism that combines all of these lenses into a coherent reflection of everything that journalism is and could be. Instead, the study of journalism is still unfinished, fragmented, and incomplete, which leaves its practitioners unsure of what it means to think broadly about journalism [3], [4].

This chapter discusses these potential sources of uncertainty and, in doing so, considers some significant difficulties facing the study of modern journalism. It makes an argument for a space of reflection on the background status of journalism practice and study as well as the extent to which the underlying presumptions are consistent with the entirety of contemporary journalism. What aspects of journalism and its study have been given special consideration, and what have they not? When considering journalism studies in their global context, where variation has not been taken into account or even recognized to the extent that it exists on the ground, these questions become even more important.

DISCUSSION

What academics think depends on how they think and who they think with, and the sociology of knowledge is likely the field where this has developed the most. The idea that inquiry depends on reaching a consensus and creating shared paradigms that name and characterize issues and processes in ways that the group can understand was most directly associated with Thomas Kuhn in 1964. Individuals supporting opposing viewpoints argue over definitions, terms of reference, and boundaries of inclusion and exclusion as they work to reach consensus. Once a consensus has been reached, new phenomena frequently follow established classification schemes. In other words, the way we think is predetermined and prioritizes power, community, and solidarity. All of these scholars made this claim in their own unique ways. The concept of interpretive communities, first put forth by Stanley Fish in 1980 and expanded upon in conjunction with journalism by Zelizer in 1993, Berkowitz in 2000, and others, aids in locating the methods used to share knowledge as being fundamental to the knowledge that is produced. The people, organizations, institutions, and fields of inquiry involved in journalism's analysis become central to understanding what journalism is because it is recognized that groups with shared ways of interpreting evidence shed light on how questions of value are settled and resettled. Inquiry is therefore not only an intellectual act but also a social one, as the anthropologist Mary Douglas argued that "true solidarity is only possible to the extent that individuals share the categories of their thought."

Journalism study has always been a somewhat dubious field of study. The shared concern for journalism that is independently central to each population journalists, journalism educators,

and journalism scholars has not remained at the fore-front of their joint efforts when it has been negotiated across these three populations. As complaints have been made that others do not understand what is most important, journalism's centrality and viability have instead been undermined: journalists claim that scholars and educators should not air their dirty laundry; scholars assert that journalists and educators are not theoretical enough; educators assert that journalists have their heads in the sand while scholars have their heads in the clouds.

The concern for journalism has frequently been put to the side as each person has become fixated on who will be most heard over the din of competing voices. Tensions over who has the power to speak over others and who is best suited to protect that right have therefore been at the heart of the ability to speak about journalism. Each of the alternative viewpoints in the study of journalism forms a sort of interpretive community. Each has established strategies for how to define journalism in relation to its individual goals before doing so [5], [6].

Journalists

Journalism's importance has been undeniable, and while it has been the subject of ongoing discourse both in support of and critique of its performance, no existing conversation about it has suggested its irrelevance. Instead, current circumstances have emphasized the importance of journalism and the crucial part it can play in assisting people in making sense of both their daily lives and the ways in which they relate to the larger body politic. But not all of journalism's potential has materialized in reality. Modern journal- ists have come under attack from a variety of angles. They are forced to operate as a shaky for-profit enterprise across an increasing number of outlets due to the unstable economic climate they live in, which is characterized by declining revenues, fragmentation, branding, and bottom-line pressures. These outlets haven't always resulted in more comprehensive coverage, and many journalists have started to multitask the same story in ways that older generations wouldn't have recognized. Today's journalism is no longer a reliable economic endeavor as we enter a "new era of shrinking ambitions," according to the Project for Excellence in Journalism's 2007 report.

Politically, both the left and the right have attacked journalists, arguing for various definitions of what constitutes "journalistic performance" in addition to a political climate that has undermined the journalist's ability to carry out traditional tasks. In more stable political systems, the conflicting and divergent expectations from the left and right have paralyzed some aspects of journalism's performance.

 However, the decline of the nation-state in many parts of the world has raised new concerns about journalism's ideal operation. All of this has led to an untenable situation for journalists, who have been involved in a number of dubious alliances with the government, local interests, and the military. In addition, journalists in the United States have tended to favor political reporting that plays to "safe" political spaces, resulting in news that is more localized, oversimplified, and characterized by heightened localism.

The different models of practice that journalists have learned to follow have not always been carefully considered and none have been completely suited to the complexity of today's international political environments.

The technical demands that the blogosphere and other platforms have placed on journalists have weakened the very viability of news reporting. Along with the fact of coverage, how journalists report the news has lost some of its significance. Journalism is "becoming a smaller part of people's information mix", and alternative websites like late-night television comedies, blogs, and online publications like Global Voices have taken the lead in gatekeeping. In this regard, it has been suggested that viewers of websites like Comedy Central's The Daily Show

are better informed about current events than viewers of mainstream news. The public can now more readily see the limitations of journalism, which has led them to claim at least in the case of the US news media that they are "less accurate, less caring, less moral, and more inclined to cover up rather than correct mistakes" [7]–[9].

All of this suggests that journalists have not been as successful as they could have been in spreading the importance and centrality of journalism around the world. There are still issues with evolving definitions of what a journalist is, such as whether the Weather Channel or Sharon Osbourne are included. Which technologies are legitimate news-making tools also raises questions, such as whether or not reality television or mobile camera phones qualify. Finally, there is no definitive answer to the fundamental question of why journalism exists. The question has become more challenging to answer because of how journalism functions differently around the world, such as the differences between the partisan models that are common in Southern Europe and the developmental journalism that is prevalent in some regions of Asia.

This is partially due to the fact that the self-definition of journalism is based on a number of opposing visions. Is it a trade, a profession, a set of habits, a group of people, a sector, an organization, a company, or a way of thinking? Since it probably combines some of these characteristics, it is important to understand how they complement and occasionally conflict with one another. This is crucial because there hasn't really ever been an answer to even the most basic questions about journalistic tools, and those tools haven't been valued equally. One poorly executed aspect of news has been the handling of images, which frequently appear without captions, credits, and any discernible connection to the texts next to them. Therefore, the absence of clear standards development is problematic because visuals have become more prominent in journalism's relays even though they have not been adequately addressed. Additionally, since their alleged "correct usage" has yet to be identified, the presentation of the image has become an open field, with people yelling foul every time journalism's images irritate them. This means that because of the media's hesitation to carry out its duties, others including politicians, lobbyists, concerned citizens, grieving parents, and even militia members have been able to make decisions in place of the media, but without the media's approval.

The extent to which crisis has evolved into the default situation for much of journalistic practice has also gone underappreciated. The evolution of crisis as the rule rather than the exception of journalism suggests a need to be clearer about how such impulses play into newsmaking, as there has been more in the news that takes shape on the backs of improvisation, sheer good or bad fortune, and ennui than is typically admitted. Journalism has appeared to be a lot more predictable and manageable than it actually is because crisis has been left out of the equation.

Educators of Journalism

The need to introduce novices to the craft of journalism has brought together the educators of journalism. Vernacular education has varied depending on the location, but it has generally shown the same tendencies. Around 1900, newswriting and the history of journalism moved from English departments into the earliest stages of a journalism education in the United States, where it eventually expanded into ethics and the law. Other initiatives emerged in the late 1920s in the social sciences, where the desire to create a science of journalism placed craft courses, also known as "skills" courses, as one-fourth of a curriculum that included courses in public opinion, economics, psychology, and survey research. Thus, the debate over which field of study would be most effective at training future journalists the humanities or the social sciences trapped journalism educators. This division between quantitative and qualitative news approaches is still prevalent for many people [10], [11].

In each instance, academic curiosity among educators assisted in bridging the gap between journalists and the outside world, but it also severely harmed the profession, reducing it to what James Carey, this approach is referred to as a "signaling system." A place where journalism as a whole could be viewed as a sum of many different parts was lost in this. Again in Carey's opinion, the curriculum that resulted frequently lacked "historical understanding, criticism, or self-consciousness". In this way, a dissonance was created by journalism education across the entire university curriculum. It eventually came to be considered a part of "the vernacular, the vulgate" in the humanities. It came to be viewed in the social sciences as a tool for directing public opinion but as being unimportant in and of itself.

The last group of people who are of interest to journalism are the scholars who, despite a vast body of literature addressing the principles, practices, and effects of journalism, have yet to produce a cogent definition of what journalism is. However, journalism is literally taught in every university course. As well as the less obvious targets of composition sequences, history, sociology, urban studies, political science, economics, and business, journalism has come to dominate academic efforts in communication, media studies, and journalism schools. This indicates that the academy has already experienced tenfold much of what has been outlined thus far in terms of developing a distinctive and separate interpretive community. Academics frequently work within the confines of disciplinary communities, so the perspectives promoted by those communities often take the form of the subjects they study. These fields, which resemble interpretive communities, have contributed to the definition of what constitutes evidence and how it should be used. They have also determined which categories of research do not count.

How has journalism been taught in all subjects? The way that journalism has been studied has been in compartments that have separated out different facets of the phenomenon. This compartmentalization has prevented a clear definition of journalism by focusing on only some of its functions rather than the whole.

The end result has been a field of journalism study at war with itself, with journalism educators and scholars separated, humanistic journalism scholars and scholars trained in the social sciences apart, and a plethora of independent academic efforts being made in a variety of disciplines without the shared knowledge essential to academic inquiry. In addition to these initiatives, journalists have consistently resisted efforts to closely examine their workplace. One of the problematic effects of this was that the variety of news was reduced.

As a result of the fact that scholars haven't produced a body of work that encompasses all of journalism, they have mainly defined it in ways that favor a particular kind of hard news over alternatives. Copy-editors, graphic designers, online journalists, opinion journals, camera operators, tabloids, and satirical late-night shows have been absent for extended periods of time as a result of the metonymic bias of academic studies, which has led to a growing gap between what Peter Dahlgren called "the realities of journalism and its official presentation of self." In other words, the academy has promoted certain focuses for thinking about journalism that fail to take into account the full scope of the profession. Most of the diversity in the news has vanished.

Journalism as a profession has experienced a similar fate. The academy's push to professionalize journalism which was largely fueled by its sociological inquiry has told journalists that they are professionals whether or not they want to be, raising the stakes associated with the profession often to the detriment of those who are actually practicing it. The effects of this were evident in the demise of conventional notions of craft. Additionally, despite the fact that much of the history of journalism has been intertwined with that of the

nation-state, it is difficult to argue that this connection still holds true in the modern world. What alternative motivation should guide the new journalistic infrastructure, even though one of globalization's major effects has been to undermine the nation state's centrality? Here, the opposing cases of capitalism and religious fundamentalism serve as examples. Both of these ideologies have altered the definition of what journalism is for by inclining toward forms of journalistic practice at odds with the im- pulses for purportedly free information dissemination.

Kinds of Enquiries

There have been five main academic disciplines that have investigated journalism: sociology, history, language studies, political science, and cultural analysis. These aren't the only disciplines that have looked at journalism; they were mostly proposed as a heuristic device that implies more mutual exclusivity than there is in actual practice. However, the viewpoints they offer give a glimpse of the variety of approaches that can be used to conceptualize journalism. The underlying presumptions that each frame imposed on its analysis of the journalistic world reveal a lot about how various lenses on journalism have produced, at best, a partial picture. The answer to the question of why journalism matters can be found in each of the following frames: sociology has addressed the topic; history has addressed the issue; language studies has addressed the issue; political science has addressed the issue; and cultural analysis has addressed the issue in a different way. It has been overlooked in this discussion, or at the very least relegated to the background of the research context, how each of these responses relates to the more general issue of why academics should be studying journalism in the first place [12].

The standard framework for considering how journalism operates has been provided by sociology. Sociological inquiry has generally produced a picture of journalism that focuses on people rather than documents, on relationships, work routines, and other formulaic interactions across members of the community who are involved in gathering and presenting news. This picture is largely based on a notable body of work known as the ethnographies of news or the newsroom studies of the seventies. Sociology has established the notion that journalists operate as sociological agents with norms, practices, and routines , that they are embedded in organizational, institutional, and structural settings , that they employ a form of ideology in their reporting , and that their actions have consequences .

As early canonical work has yet to fully address contemporary trends toward conglomeratization, corporatization, standardization, personalization, convergence, and the multiple nature of journalistic work in its more recent forms, this work has remained somewhat entrapped by its past . Additionally, because this work is primarily structured within the parameters of US sociology, its depictions of primarily mainstream news organizations in the US have taken on a universal voice in support of our conception of journalism.

Historical inquiry, which relies more on documents than on actual people, can be divided into three main categories: journalism history writ small, which includes memoirs, biographies, and organizational histories; history writ midway, which is structured around temporal periods, themes, and events, such as "the penny press" or "war journalism" and history writ large, According to research from Australia and France, each varies significantly depending on the nation under consideration.

The histories of journalistic practice published primarily in US journalism schools with the aim of legitimizing journalism as a field of inquiry do not reflect the generalized, so-called objective histories that followed the model of German historicism. The assumption in the study of journalistic languages is that messages from journalists are not straightforward or overly simple, but rather the outcome of constructed activity on the part of speakers. This region has

primarily only been developed in the last 35 years or so, and its development has been distinctly European and Australian. It has evolved to address verbal language, sound, still and moving visuals, and patterns of interactivity by combining formal language features like grammar, syntax, and word choice with less formal ones like storytelling frames, textual patterns, and narratives.

CONCLUSION

In our quickly evolving media environment, the symbiotic relationship between journalism and the academy has become more obvious. A culture of responsible and knowledgeable reporting is fostered by the academy through rigorous research, theoretical frameworks, and a dedication to truth-seeking. In addition, journalism gives academic endeavors real-world contexts for application, ensuring their relevance. However, there are obstacles in the way of this partnership, like potential conflicts of interest and the need to strike a balance between academic rigor and the rapid-fire nature of news. Journalists and academics must continue to communicate and work together in order to fully benefit from this relationship. A more informed public, ethical journalism, and a new generation of media professionals with strong critical thinking abilities and a thorough understanding of their social responsibilities can all result from this collaboration. Maintaining this relationship is essential for the improvement of informed democratic discourse and the advancement of knowledge as both fields continue to develop.

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CHAPTER 6
A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF ROLE OF JOURNALISM EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT:

The idea behind journalism education is to raise the caliber of journalists themselves. In other words, the type of education that aspiring journalists receive is important because, among the many components that make up journalism, journalists are important. Journalism, and the educational programs that enable individuals to practice and upgrade their journalistic skills, are essential tools for the underpinning of key democratic principles that are fundamental to the development of every country according to UNESCO in the foreword to Model Curricula for Journalism Education for Developing Countries & Emerging Democracies. The main components of journalism education will be examined in this chapter, especially the notion of enhancing journalism practice. The history of journalism education in the United States will then be examined over the course of the following century. It will review current key texts and look at the professionalization issue, which is thought to be the foundation of tertiary journalism education. The discussion of what should be taught in journalism education and the frequently unacknowledged ideological presumptions that underlie journalism teaching will then be outlined in the chapter. The chapter will conclude by highlighting possible future research areas.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Education, Journalism, Journalists, Media.

INTRODUCTION

The idea that journalism education lays the groundwork for the attitudes and information of future journalists is one of its most important components. On what should be taught to journalists, there are various points of view, though. There are numerous ways to teach journalists. Thus, the broad diversity of journalism education is a crucial component. One only needs to be aware of the range of educational backgrounds of journalists and the proportions of those who studied journalism before becoming journalists to get the overall picture. The statistics, to the extent that they reflect recent data, demonstrate a clear tendency for journalists to have a university or college education. Only a small percentage of journalists, however, have degrees in journalism, media, or communication studies. If we define journalism as primarily news journalism and examine newspapers, we must also admit that the majority of them are produced in Asia, reflecting the region's growing geopolitical and demographic importance. Newspapers with the highest readership are from Japan. Gaunt asserts that only graduates from prestigious universities with degrees in political science, economics, or the humanities are accepted by the most prestigious news organizations, the Asahi, the Yomiuri, and the Mainichi. The majority of aspiring journalists receive on-the-job training that takes the form of a strict apprenticeship system because few universities offer media studies [1], [2].

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, journalism and communication are quickly gaining popularity as fields of study in China. This is a sign of how quickly Chinese society and the media landscape are changing. Currently, courses are seen as falling behind market demands because they combine skill-building lessons with studies of Chinese Communist philosophy. However, despite an increase in higher education options in media, communication, or journalism studies, as seen in the US and Germany, fewer journalists choose

these programs as a route to employment. The proportion of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree graduates who went into mass communication jobs sharply declined from over one-half to about one-fourth from 1982 to 2002, as found in the United States by Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, and Wilhoit, which has shaped journalism education in the United States into a more general mass or public communication field. The percentage of journalists who have a degree, however, is close to 90%.

Similar to the United States, only 13 percent of journalists in Germany have a major or minor in journalism, and another 17 percent have studied communication or media. However, 80.5% of journalists in Germany have a university degree or have attended school at some point. Importantly, 90% of those under the age of 35 completed an internship, and 60% completed the two-year, or one-year for graduates, in-house training program. Despite the fact that fundamental journalistic "working practices appear to be universal," the above-mentioned pathways to journalism show distinct national preferences. These statistics show that there are other routes to becoming a journalist in addition to tertiary journalism education [3], [4].

This puts academic writing about journalism education, which is almost exclusively limited to tertiary journalism education, out of step with the actual situation of primarily in-house training. Journalism education, as discussed here, has the clear intent of modifying practice, enriching the quality of information produced, and, with the help of this quality journalism, achieving improvement in the workings of civil society, according to Gaunt, who begins his book Making the Newsmakers with the words "Journalism training perpetuates or modifies professional practices and molds the perceptions journalists have of the role and function of the media."

DISCUSSION

In the second half of the nineteenth century, in the United States, the notion that journalists should receive a college or university education to improve their journalism was born. The main location to study journalism at the tertiary level was the United States for the majority of the 20th century. Journalism was not widely accepted as a subject field until the 1980s and 1990s, frequently in brand-new universities.

The fact that the United States was a pioneer in both news journalism and journalism education is one reason why it broke new ground. Chalaby asserts that journalism as we know it today was created by the Anglo-Americans. In continental Europe, journalism was closely related to the literary world, which required different talents and writing abilities than a daily rounds reporter. The losing US Civil War general, Robert E. Lee, is credited with putting into practice the notion that aspiring journalists should pursue a college education. He offered scholarships for journalism studies as part of a liberal arts degree as early as 1869 while serving as president of Washington College, which is now Washington & Lee University, in Lexington, Virginia.

The History of Education in Journalism

Even back then, there were questions about journalism's legitimacy as a field of study. When Lee launched his initiative, newspapers were still fledgling businesses where the editor and printer were frequently the same person. Accordingly, the early courses didn't just focus on reporting but also on writing and editing as well as technical printing skills.

Regardless of this earlier effort, James Carey asserted that the real start of journalism education came when Joseph Pulitzer forced money into Columbia University's somewhat reticent hands in order to start a School of Journalism. Instead of the undergraduate college Pulitzer had originally envisioned, the Columbia School of Journalism opened its doors in 1912 as a

graduate program. At a time when many, if not most, journalists came from working-class families, Pulitzer wanted to expand the minds of journalists. In order to accomplish this, he wanted to give them the inadequate liberal arts education [5].

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

Wilbur Schramm added a further model. At the conclusion of World War II, Schramm oversaw journalism education at the University of Iowa. He later founded communication studies and communication research institutes at the Universities of Illinois and Stanford. Despite Schramm's initial decision to situate his new program within the realm of journalism, communication as a field study quickly overtook journalism education, which was unable to shed its reputation as a vocational training program. Professors Bleyer, Williams, and Schramm, in contrast to Pulitzer, were only interested in journalism, not journalists. According to Rogers , a "communication research institute could serve as a source of prestige for a school of journalism that may have been looked down upon by academics in other fields because of the perceived trade school nature of journal- ism training." This left journalism education in the tense position between practical and academic studies where it still finds itself, and the debate about the professionalization of journalism and the journalism educational system was born. The darker side of journalism education was demonstrated in Spain, where General Franco established the national school of journalism in 1941 and put it under the Falangist Party's control. The most significant training facility in Spain was the national school of journalism, which was managed by the government until the early 1970s. This journalism school was a requirement for employment with the major government-controlled newspapers in Spain. Similar instances of state-run journalism schools can be found in the former Eastern Bloc nations, proving the fundamental notion that journalism education is a crucial component, if not a tool, for forming journalists and the media.

The lack of key texts on the subject is not surprising given the diversity of journalism education. Deuze correctly noted that the literature on journalism education has a tendency to be either wildly generic often featuring senior scholars offering more or less historical accounts of their lifelong experiences in "doing" journalism education or very specific featuring case studies of what works and what does not in a specific curriculum, course, or classroom. The books that take a broad perspective always have a survey element, outlining what is done in journalism education and where. The most comprehensive survey, though no longer current, was offered by Philip Gaunt in 1992. Before going continent by continent and country by country to describe the various nations' or regions' efforts in journalism education, Gaunt first assesses the differences in training systems, training needs, and training structures in his book making the Newsmakers, which was funded by UNESCO.

According to Gaunt, the difficulties and opportunities facing journalism education can be divided into two predictable groups: those affecting the developing world and those affecting

industrialized nations. He identifies technological change as the main threat to the industrialized world while government control and a lack of resources are the two biggest obstacles facing the developing world. In addition to outlining his concerns, Gaunt mentions the status and compensation that journals receive as having a direct bearing on the types of students and teachers who choose to pursue journalism studies: The best and brightest students and teachers are unlikely to choose journalism as a career in nations where journalists are regarded as "flacks" or government employees. Ethics, professional standards, investigative reporting, press history, and various facets of communication theory are not subjects that should be taught in such systems [6]–[8].

A decade and a half later, this observation is still relevant in a number of countries, but much has changed politically and in terms of global development. At the time of Gaunt's writing, neither the world nor Central and Eastern Europe had begun to notice the enormous transformation that was occurring in China. These shifts not only affect their media systems but also their journalism education, which is why those countries' media systems as well as those of countries like South Africa are now referred to as "transitional." In addition, other nations that are listed as "not free" in terms of media freedom, like Qatar, the country that is home to Al Jazeera, are now viewed as contributing high-quality journalism that is supported by journalism education. The outmoded dichotomous view of the world divided into regions where journalism and journalism education are either free or fully regulated by the government is giving way to the understanding that countries may use long leashes or "calibrated coercion" rather than repression, and that the freedom of the media in democratic countries can have ideological and commercial restrictions.

Making Journalists, a collection by Hugo de Burgh, is influenced by this understanding. This volume's title may be similar to Gaunt's book, but its organization is different. Making Journalists is not a systematic analysis of what is done where, but rather a collection of chapters on issues. According to the book's editor, "there is no satisfactory way to write a "world" account of journalism education". He views the strategy he has chosen as a means of "exorcising homogenisation by demonstrating that the old fallacy that all journalisms were at different stages on route to an ideal model, probably Anglophone, is passé". In favor of a more thorough examination of "journalism and journalists," "journalism and the future," and "journalism and location" on most continents and the Indian subcontinent, De Burgh's book forgoes the specifics of training systems. According to the book's editor, cultural differences rather than variations in political and legal systems are to blame for the differences in journalism education that de Burgh very purposefully embraced and emphasized in his book. De Burgh believes that the way "journalism operates in a society is the product of culture", and he seeks to develop a new culturally based paradigm to reflect this. He makes the audacious claim, quoting Carey, "that communication is most revealingly examined as ritual rather than as transmission". De Burgh can avoid any inquiries about the ideological influences on the norms and values transmitted in journalism education by focusing on cultural rather than political, legal, and economic frameworks for journalism.

Journalists for the 21st Century by Splichal and Sparks is a study of a different kind that looks at the motivations, expectations, and professionalization tendencies of first-year journalism students in 22 nations across all five continents, from Austria to Tanzania. The book has methodological issues. It is highly improbable that first-year journalism students, who have no previous newsroom experience, can provide definitive explanations for how their norms and values have been influenced by their country's political system and context. It could be argued that what was measured instead was the early relative impact of professional education. The findings of Splichal and Sparks in this regard are very positive for journalism education. These

young people "to stress a desire for the independence and autonomy of journalism" was the most notable similarity that emerged. Splichal and Sparks observe that first-year journalism students are at "the precise point in their development when one would expect to find the "idealistic" conception of journalism as a genuine profession most strongly marked" and concede that "exposure to more realities of the occupational situation would lead to a moderation of these idealistic views". The book by Splichal and Sparks makes a crucial point for journalism education: The students' desire for autonomy and independence was unaffected by the fact that a third of their home nations are categorized as only partially free in terms of press freedom. As a result, it is presumed that semi-democratic or autocratic countries teach similar norms and values to democracies. Therefore, it is possible to conceptualize journalism education as a change agent.

A Trade or a Profession

Whether journalism should be viewed as a trade or a profession remains the central question in journalism education today. The implicit respect accorded to journalists and the required educational background are the main differences between the two. A trade is described as the regular exercise of a profession. If journalism were viewed as a trade, all that would be required is the vocational training necessary "to perpetuate practice", and on-the-job training would be sufficient in its place. If journalism insists on being a profession, then this assertion would at the very least need to be supported by a clear educational path. But as was already mentioned, journalists come from a wide range of educational backgrounds, and the majority of them receive on-the-job training from the media organization they join.

Due to this, the debate over journalism education has been "framed as scholars versus practitioners", which has resulted in a mistrust between the academic community and the business community that shows little sign of easing. Deuze correctly notes that this dichotomy between theory and practice "adds a level of complexity to our understanding of journalism." Deuze states that "journalism education must negotiate rather essentialist self-perceptions of both industry and academy" [9], [10].

This dichotomy is regarded as one of the most important issues in journalism education at the graduate level, with discussion focusing on how much emphasis should be placed on theoretical or applied content. But this argument hides a bigger, unrelated problem. The deeply held ideological positions of journalism education are made clear when one examines the theoretical topics covered in journalism studies. For the majority of people in the West, democracy's political system is inextricably linked with journalism and, by extension, journalism education. One of the crucial issues in journalism education that is still rarely discussed is the significance of this connection. Journalism scholars and educators will need to challenge the long-held belief that journalism education only exists in democracies as a result of recent changes in global politics and the media landscape.

Professionalization

Since the concept of professions first emerged in the English-speaking world, this is where the professionalization debate is most fiercely contested. The term "akademische Berufe" exists in German, but the concept of what a profession is not.

This is the cause of this. In other words, different people have different ideas about what professionalization in journalism entails, and this diversity is reflected in the literature. This non-committal statement from the dean of British media sociology should not come as a surprise. Jeremy Tunstall described journalism as an independent occupation and "journalist" as a "label which people engaged in a very diverse range of activities apply to themselves." In

contrast to the United States, the United Kingdom did not have university-based journalism programs until the late 20th century. In the UK, journalism has historically been thought of as a craft for which the necessary skills could be learned on the job. Unsurprisingly, the United States, the nation with the most university-based journalism schools, led the major push for professionalization.

Hallin and Mancini's book Comparing Media Systems makes one of the most comprehensive attempts to explain what professionalization might mean for journalism. Since journalism is "very different from the classical professions law, medicine, architecture, engineering in that its practice is not based on any systematic body of knowledge," Hallin's perspective is significantly influenced by both his awareness of the lack of objectivity in journalism with regard to economic and political factors and by this claim. Nevertheless, despite these negative aspects, Hallin sees professionalization's potential, i.e. formal, college-based education to protect journalists from business pressures and political indoctrination. In Comparing Media Systems, Hallin and Mancini develop these concepts further by comparing the journalistic profession to the following standards: autonomy, distinct professional norms, and public service orientation. According to these standards, journalists have never attained a level of autonomy comparable to that of physicians and lawyers, according to Hallin and Mancini. They are employed by large organizations where a variety of factors influence the production process. In spite of this, journalists "have often been successful in achieving relative autonomy within those organizations".

In contrast to other professions claiming professional status, journalism lacks esoteric knowledge, so journalists' claims to autonomy and authority depend, to a particularly large extent, on their claims to serve the public interest. They acknowledge, however, that in a world where ideologies are numerous and frequently at odds with one another, such norms are difficult to come by and that American "disdain for any model of journalism that violates the precepts of private ownership and individual autonomy" prevents a more widespread consensus. Internet use has also challenged preconceived notions of professionalism. On the one hand, an increase in the "communication autonomy" of citizens has framed journalism as an "intervention" rather than a useful channel for information.

CONCLUSION

The foundation for producing competent and ethical journalists is journalism education. In order to give aspiring journalists the skills they need to recognize and communicate truth among a variety of information sources, journalism education is becoming more and more important as the media landscape changes. The inclusion of contemporary technology in curricula, along with a focus on critical analysis and ethical issues, ensures that journalism education is still effective and relevant. Journalism education makes a significant contribution to the health of democratic societies all over the world by raising up a new generation of journalists who are not only skilled at reporting but also have a keen understanding of their societal impact. In order to foster an environment where journalistic integrity and excellence can flourish, it is crucial for educators and institutions to adapt and innovate as the field continues to change.

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CHAPTER 7
A REVIEW ON NEWS ORGANIZATIONS AND ROUTINES

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ABSTRACT:

News outlets are crucial in influencing public opinion and distributing information to the general public. This essay looks at the practices used by news organizations to gather, create, and distribute news content. The study examines the factors affecting editorial choices at each stage of news production, from story selection to final publication. This paper highlights the challenges posed by evolving digital landscapes and shifting audience preferences through an analysis of established news practices. Understanding these routines will help news organizations maintain their vital societal role while adjusting to the changing media landscape. The chapter comes to a close with a discussion of the issues that this body of literature raises for further research on news production, especially in a situation where news work and news routines may not always take place in news organizations. However, a close examination of the initial studies on news routines as well as later studies in this tradition leads one to believe that the concept of news routines has some significant limitations.

KEYWORDS:

Digital Media, Journalists, News, Organization.

INTRODUCTION

News is created by journalists and the businesses for which they work. News is thus both an organizational product and an individual product. Up until recently, even freelance journalists who are not employed by a media organization were reliant on those organizations to disseminate their messages. Few people had the resources necessary to support the sophisticated technologies used to disseminate media messages. The way news is created and disseminated has changed significantly thanks to the Internet. Today's journalists are capable of carrying out their tasks independently and disseminating their messages. While the majority of journalists still work for news organizations that disseminate news at the moment, it is uncertain how long this will remain the case. The majority of the literature on news organizations and news construction has its roots in a time when journalists were weak and news organizations were powerful. But as the relationship between news organizations and journalists has changed, so has this literature [1], [2].

An overview of the conceptualization and study of news organizations is provided at the beginning of this chapter. The discussion then shifts to a look at news routines, or the repeated actions that journalists take while carrying out their jobs. The finding that journalists and media outlets produce the news according to observable routines has had a significant impact on the study of news work.

The discovery of these patterns has aided a significant theoretical claim made in the literature, namely that news should be viewed as constructed social reality as opposed to a reflection of actual events. Finding routine components that change over time, across settings, among media organizations, and among journalists has proven challenging for researchers. We've identified a few routines that do vary in this chapter and given a conceptual framework to help you understand them. We have proposed a way to view and comprehend the fundamental mandates of news work and to see how those mandates affect routines, drawing on both the historical

work on routines and our own, more recent research. We think the analysis shows some routine elements do vary over time, across settings, among media organizations, and among workers.

Organizations for News

According to Schudson, there have been three approaches to studying news construction. According to the political economy perspective, the state and economic systems are correlated with how news is constructed. For instance, Herman and Chomsky argued that news is produced by the media to advance state interests rather than those of the individual. A second method, which primarily draws from sociology, seeks to comprehend news production through the lens of organizational and occupational theory. As an illustration, consider Epstein's seminal study on how television network structure influenced news. From this perspective, the majority of the work on news construction has been done. A third strategy concentrates on broad cultural restrictions on news reporting. An example is Chalaby's examination of the evolution of French and American journalism, which highlights the impact of French literary tradition on its journalism. The three perspectives are not entirely distinct, and some of the important studies in the organizational tradition also have significant cultural and political references, as noted by Schudson [3], [4].

Tunstall distinguished between media organizations, which are larger entities that contain more than one news organization as well as other types of communication units, such as magazines and publishing houses, and news organizations, which are defined as editorial departments employing primarily journalists. According to Tunstall, the objectives and bureaucracy of these two types of organizations are different. News organizations will have fewer routines and media organizations will be more commercially focused. Sigal argued that large news organizations exhibit all the traits of bureaucracies. They have a division of labor based on geography and function. It is possible to distinguish between reporters and editors when referring to journalists. There are two types of reporters: general assignment reporters and specialized topic reporters. Geographical organization is also used by news organizations.

DISCUSSION

In a study of the three major television networks, Epstein concentrated on how they organized their news gathering and discovered that there were only minor variations in the methods those organizations used to produce national newscasts. The mirror metaphor, according to Epstein, is an inaccurate representation of how television news programs operate. Routines of news production and selection would be irrelevant if television news were compared to a mirror. According to the metaphor, television news would report on all significant events. Epstein argued that network news was a constrained and heavily prioritizing news-gathering operation. For instance, Epstein discovered that during the observation period, 90% of the NBC national news was produced by ten crews in five significant cities because that was where they had news crews. In an earlier investigation of television news, Warner discovered parallels between the organizational structure there and in a newspaper. He came to the conclusion that the executive producer's role, for instance, was comparable to the editors of a newspaper and that the executive producers' primary selection and distribution criteria for news were space, significance, and political balance, much like it is with newspapers. In their examination of how British national newspapers and television services covered anti-Vietnam war protests, Halloran, Elliot, and Murdock discovered a significant similarity between the media. The issue of violence dominated the media. The authors argued that it was more a product of what those news organizations determined to be newsworthy than a deliberate attempt to misrepresent the event. The observed differences in technology, political stance, and news gathering practices among the media did not really matter in the end.

Shoemaker and Reese defined media organizations as social, formal, typically economic entities that employ media workers to produce media content in their overview of the research on the nature of news organizations. The majority of the time, these organizations' primary objective is to make money, particularly by focusing on target markets that appeal to advertisers. The decisions made by journalists are influenced by economic pressures. The size of the media organization, membership in a network or media group, and ownership are also said to have an impact on the content and routines used to produce it.

The Idea of News Schedules

News routines were described as "those patterned, routinized, repeated practices and forms that media workers use to do their jobs" by Shoemaker and Reese in 1996. Shoemaker and Reese argued that these routines were developed in response to the news organization's limited resources and the enormous amount of potential news-making raw material. More specifically, the routines are controlled by norms, space, technology, and deadlines. According to Shoemaker and Reese, "The task of these routines is to deliver, within time and space constraints, the most acceptable product to the consumer in the most efficient manner." Tuchman appears to have been the first to discuss routines in the context of journalism, drawing on writings in the sociology of work. Tuchman expanded on this theme by arguing that organizations routinely perform tasks because it "facilitates the control of work". Workers always have too much work to do, she wrote, so they "try to control the flow of work and the amount of work to be done" . She claimed that a crucial component of news creation is a reliance on routine procedures for "processing information called news, a depletable product made every day". Her claim was that reporting on news "thrives upon processing unexpected events, events that burst to the surface in some disruptive, exceptional manner" [5]–[7].

Tuchman compared how news was categorized using a system commonly used by journalists with a system she developed based on the sociology of work. Tuchman argued that news should be categorized based on how it occurs and on the requirements for the organization. News workers categorize stories as "hard," "soft," "spot," "developing," and "continuing." This prompted her to categorize news according to whether it was "scheduled" or "unscheduled," whether its dissemination was urgent or not, how it was impacted by news work technology, and whether or not the journalists could decide in advance how to cover the event in the future. Tuchman argued that the journalistic categorization of news did not adequately explain how news organizations actually operate. She emphasized that her plan specifically explained how journalists and media organizations manage their work to give them time to process unexpected events. She argued that the journalistic category scheme failed to achieve that objective.

Tuchman's initial explanation of routines was significant for at least two reasons. First, it made the case that news reporting could be understood in the context of the sociology of work as a whole. As for the second point, it was suggested that "it might be more valuable to think of news not as distorting, but rather as reconstituting the everyday world". She argued that journalists create and reimagine social reality. Instead of concentrating on whether the final product was biased in any way, researchers who wanted to understand news should concentrate on how it was constructed. Tuchman first became interested in journalism because he was troubled by sociologists' use of news articles to gauge community characteristics. She argued explicitly that these stories should not be viewed as a reflection of reality in her 1972 article in the American Journal of Sociology, but rather that news reporting creates its own reality. Danzger, who used newspaper articles to index community conflict, was criticized by Tuchman in a debate that was printed in the American Sociological Review. According to her, news habits like relying on centralized sources systematically support people in positions of power. In fact, having the ability to make news is frequently a sign of power.

Three articles written by Molotch and Lester during this time period all center on this claim that news is produced by news organizations and journalists rather than reflecting some "reality." The team asserted in the first of these papers that the media "is not an objective reporter of events but an active player in the constitution of events". Some events are chosen for inclusion in the news over others based on the media's objectives. According to them, news should be seen as "purposive behavior," i.e., the result of activities carried out by journalists and their employers that meet their respective needs. The journalists "transform a perceived set of promoted occurrences into public events through publication or broadcast". They do this by working with the raw materials, which are typically provided to them by event promoters. This viewpoint is distinguished by Molotch and Lester from what they believe to be the typical viewpoint held at the time by sociologists and other news-focused individuals. Most observers, they claimed, "assume that a set of events that are objectively significant can be known, known to be important, and thus reported by competent, unrestrained news professionals". They claimed that when news differs from this "objective" account of what happened, the usual explanations are that the reporters were incompetent, management got involved, or outsiders rigged the system by accepting bribes. Although Molotch and Lester claimed they did not make the assumption that there is an "objective reality," they did believe that news is the end result of the processes that are used to produce it.

According to Molotch and Lester, news "routines" are crucial for comprehending how events are produced into news. It is important to comprehend the media as formal institutions that follow "routines for getting work done in newsrooms". Some of these practices were noted by Molotch and Lester in their study of the 1969 Santa Barbara, California, oil spill. They claim that these practices "may become so ingrained that they become reified as 'professional norms' of 'good journalism'". These include the practices of covering events immediately after they occur and then paying less attention to them over time, of concentrating news personnel in major cities, and of paying less attention to recent events than to those that occurred in the past. There were at least three reasons why Tuchman, Molotch, and Lester's seminal work was significant. It first clarified how routine actions assist journalists in reporting news. Second, it concentrated on how news is influenced by power. Thirdly, it made a distinction between the "reality" that news organizations create and what journalists refer to as "reality."

These early writers on routines did not perceive these fundamental aspects of work as changing over time or across media organizations or workers. Instead, these "routines" were viewed as the defining elements of news reporting. In a study of what she called a "oppositional radio station," Eliasoph questioned the idea that routines were universal and discovered that they did not vary at all. The journalists she observed at KPFA-FM in Berkeley, California, followed the same routines as the journalists at other media outlets that had been the subject of studies. Despite using the same methods as the reporters at the other media, the journalists at the oppositional radio station did not produce the same kind of news. Routines were used to manage the work of the journalists for the same reason they were used by other media, but the relationship between the station and its audience, the social and political standing of the journalists, and those in charge of the newsroom shaped the characteristics of the news product [8], [9].

In a 1994 study, Hansen, Ward, Conners, and Neuzil looked at how the development of electronic news libraries for the archiving and retrieval of previously printed stories affected newspaper news cycles. They came to the conclusion that the routines had largely remained the same. Hansen, Neuzil, and Ward came to the same conclusion in a later study along the same lines, concluding that the formation of teams within newspaper newsrooms to focus on news topics had also not significantly changed the routines of news creation. The lack of

variability in the concept of news routines appears to have been largely assumed in more recent research. Cook contends that news routines result in predictable news over time and similar news across news outlets in his analysis of the role of news media in politics. In a study reminiscent of Danzger's, Oliver and Maney compared newspaper accounts of civic demonstrations with police reports of those demonstrations. They discovered discrepancies between the media coverage and the police reports that could be accounted for by what they called newspaper routines, such as a preference for stories about local officials and those involving conflict brought on by the presence of counterdemonstrators. According to research by Wolfsfeld, Avraham, and Aburaiya published in 2000, Israel's Arab citizens are portrayed negatively in the news due to cultural and political presumptions that govern the country's society.

Bennett and Ryfe argued that the media adhere to routines that are the result of organizational and professional rules, which is consistent with the Wolfsfeld et al. study from 2000. The word "rules" is important because it denotes something that is constant. Bennett believes that these principles explain why news stories remain relevant regardless of the period or situation. In a similar vein, Sparrow acknowledged in his writing that the media's routines and practices should change in response to ambiguity in the environment of the media organization. But it doesn't say what kind of variation it is. The concept has limited value in news construction research because there is little variation in news routines. The researcher must be able to recognize variability in the routines themselves in order to comprehend their causes and effects. In order to comprehend why the routines are not followed or are different and to comprehend the effects of the routines, the researcher must identify instances where the routines are not followed or are altered in some other way.

In conclusion, the significance of this early work on routines lies primarily in its contribution to the idea that news is a creation of reality rather than a reflection of that reality. In reviews of the literature on news routines and news construction, Schudson acknowledged that contribution while also expressing some concern. According to him, academics appeared to have "overstated" the idea that real-world events don't really matter when deciding what counts as news. In his opinion, the event that prompts the creation of news has a greater impact than many of the early writers on news production thought. Schudson stated that "the reality-constructing practices of the powerful will fail if they run roughshod over the world "out there." Schudson cited the findings of Livingston and Bennett as one illustration. According to these researchers, the industry's technological change from 1994 to 2001 resulted in a sharp increase in the amount of news based on spontaneous events on at least one cable news channel, CNN.

The Imagination of Beats

The idea of news beats is incorporated into the discussion of news routines. In general, news organizations set themselves up to be able to observe events and gather the information needed to produce news. It is unknown where the term "beat" came from to describe the hierarchical structure of news gathering. One theory is that the phrase is derived from police work, whereby officers are given beats or geographical areas to regularly patrol. In fact, according to Webster's New World Dictionary from 1964, a "beat" is "a habitual path or round of duty: as a policeman's beat". Beats have received a lot of attention in the literature examining how news and news routines are constructed. According to Tuchman, news organizations use a "news net" to gather the information that eventually becomes news. According to her, the net was initially intended for "catching appropriate stories available at centralized locations". It is presum- ed that news audiences are interested in events that occur in these places, that they are concerned with the operations of particular organizations, and that they are interested in particular subjects [10], [11].

Tuchman contends that the news network is "flung through space, focuses upon spe- cific organizations, and highlights topics" as a result of these factors. Geographic territoriality is the most significant of these three techniques for distributing reporters. According to Tuchman, a beat is a strategy for assigning reporters to businesses involved in the production of news and the storage of centralized data.

The beat system of news coverage was so widely used when Fishman conducted his observational study of news gathering in the late 1970s that not using beats was a defining characteristic of being an experimental, alternative, or underground newspaper.

The beat, in Fishman's opinion, is a journalistic concept rooted in the actual working environment of reporters. In the news organization, beats have a history that predates the histories of the people who work them. Reporters are assigned to beats by superiors; however, despite responsibility and jurisdiction over covering the beat, the reporter does not own that beat. According to Fishman, the beat is a region of activities that take place outside of the newsroom and include more than just a haphazard collection of activities. Finally, the beat is a social environment that the reporter belongs to, according to Fishman. The reporter integrates into the beat, a network of social relationships. Beats have a topical and territorial character, according to Fishman.

Journalists refer to their beats as destinations, people to meet, and a list of subjects they are expected to cover. According to Gans, story suggestion is the primary step in the creation of news. It is the responsibility of reporters to come up with story ideas.

They are required to "keep up with what is going on in the beats they patrol or in the areas of the country assigned to their bureaus, and they are evaluated in part by their ability to suggest suitable stories" in order to achieve this. Gans stated that nonjournalists are also encouraged to contribute story ideas, as are other staff members, including the show's top editors and producers. Gans' conceptualization is instructive because it concentrates on the idea generation that underlies the story and links this idea generation to beats. According to this perspective, raw material only has the potential to become news if a member of the news construction industry sees it as such. This process of coming up with story ideas is known as "story ideation," a term that is discussed in more detail below, according to Bantz, McCorkle, and Baade.

CONCLUSION

The entire news production process is governed by complex routines that news organizations must follow. These procedures are based on decades of journalistic standards intended to give the public accurate, timely, and pertinent information. Traditional news practices have been put to the test by significant disruptions brought about by the digital age.

The growth of social media and online platforms has accelerated the news cycle and changed audience consumption habits. News organizations must strike a balance between the need for speed and the need to uphold journalistic integrity and standards. News organizations can modernize their processes while upholding the fundamentals of journalism by embracing technological advancements and comprehending audience preferences. The adaptability of news cycles will determine the industry's capacity to effectively carry out its democratic duty of informing societies in a media environment that is rapidly changing.

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CHAPTER 8
JOURNALISTS IN THE ROLE OF
GATEKEEPERS: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

Information from a variety of sources, such as the Internet, newspapers, television and radio news, news magazines, and their sources, is constantly being thrown at journalists. Without gatekeeping, it would be impossible for them to choose and mold the scant amount of information that makes it into the news. It involves the selection, creation, editing, placement, planning, repetition, and other manipulation of information in order to make it newsworthy. Because gatekeepers paint the world for the rest of us, scholars need to understand the gatekeeping process and how it affects the reality that is presented to the public. Since the 1950s, communication scholars have been using gatekeeping, one of the earliest social science theories that has been modified and developed for use in the study of news. This chapter outlines the key components of gatekeeping theory, the key authors and texts in the field, the current state of gatekeeping research, important theorizing issues, methodological concerns, and, finally, considerations for future gatekeeping scholarship.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Gatekeeping, Journalists, media.

INTRODUCTION

All gatekeeping studies are focused on items, those bits of information that are rejected or selected, shaped, and scheduled. The practice of tracking the flow of items dates back to Kurt Lewin's social psychological theory of changing people's eating habits. Items, according to his theory, were food products. Not all items are chosen. Some make their way into channels, which are sometimes divided into sections that can only be entered by passing through a gate. Forces help or hinder the flow of items through gates by varying in magnitude and valence direction, and acting on either or both sides of the gate. Some items are prevented from progressing through the channels by negative or weak forces, and it is important to note that forces exist both before and after gates. For example, the cost of microwave remote equipment is a negative force in front of the gate, slowing a television station's ability to cover live events; however, once the equipment is purchased and passed the gate, it becomes a positive force, leading the news producer to use it frequently to justify the expense. The final element is the result of the gatekeeping process, which includes not only being selected, but also many influences on the item as it passes through channels, sections, and gates. The gatekeeper determines whether or not information flows through the channel and what happens next. People, professional codes of conduct, company policies, and computer algorithms are all examples of gatekeepers. All gatekeepers make decisions, but their levels of autonomy vary. Individual whims to sets of unbreakable rules interpreted by computer programs are examples of autonomy [1], [2].

Essential Elements

To select news items for readers of the news Web page news.google.com, translate the company's gatekeeping policies into computer instructions. Google's choices are presented to its many readers as current news, and it may appear that the human gatekeepers have no

autonomy; however, algorithms are the result of many decisions ranging from the level of management to code writers. Google News is the result of this process, presenting a seemingly objective picture of the day, but objectivity is a feature of humans and their understanding of the world, not computer programs. Early gatekeeping research on news events viewed the gate as an in/out decision point, with little or no regard for other aspects of the gatekeeper's job. However, Donahue, Tichenor, and Olien emphasize that gatekeeping is a more complex process that involves decisions about the amount of time/space allotted to a news event, where the story is placed within a publication or news program, the use of graphics, the number of stories about the event on one day or across days, and whether the story returns in a cyclical pattern. In other words, journalists have the ability to frame a story.

Early Impacts

Although audience and effect-related issues have dominated communication research, institutional, organizational, and professional factors are crucial for comprehending the media landscape. This is something gatekeeping has repeatedly brought to our attention. Gatekeeping is one of the earliest theories in the field and is linked to Kurt Lewin, one of the "four founders" of the field named by Berelson and one of the important "forerunners" named by Rogers. Like any model, the gatekeeping tradition has had an impact by compellingly drawing attention to specific phenomena. This major concept has since guided numerous research questions across a wide range of communication activity, going far beyond the original meaning of the one coined by Lewin, a social psychologist but trained as a physicist. By identifying the channels and gates governing what passed through them, he attempted to apply the principles of physical science to human behavior. This straightforward but powerful model, applicable to many different fields, helped to make sense of the seemingly countless influences and actors at play in a communication setting. Lewin, like other early thinkers like Claude Shannon and Norbert Wiener, believed that psychological "forces" could be studied mathematically. These individuals created unifying "engineering" models that could be applied to mass and interpersonal communication regardless of "channel." Lewin had a significant impact on former journalist David Manning White, who was Wilbur Schramm's student and Lewin's assistant at the University of Iowa [3], [4].

DISCUSSION

The complex chain of "gates" a newspaper report went through from the actual criterion event to the finished story in a newspaper struck me as an interesting study, so I pursued it after I by chance came across a paper by Kurt Lewin in which he first used the term "gate-keeper." White's 1949 study of a news editor tackled the intuitively obvious question of how news organizations deal with the issue of so much information and so little space. His work helped apply the concepts of Lewin to a journalistic setting and helped start a tradition of research into the media "gatekeepers." White's widely circulated and cited 1950 article in Journalism Quarterly, "The 'Gatekeeper': A Case Study in the Selection of News," which was referred to as "one of the first studies of its kind," examined the justifications given by a news editor for accepting or rejecting a list of potential news items. Despite only focusing on one person's choices, the model was incredibly effective.

White noted "how highly subjective, how reliant upon value judgments based on the 'gatekeeper's' own set of experiences, attitudes and expectations the communication of 'news' really is" when reviewing the justifications given for choosing one-tenth of the wire stories for inclusion in the Peoria Star. His adaptation of Lewin was strongly individualistic, emphasizing the gatekeeper rather than the channel, and subsequent studies agreed, identifying journalist selectivity as the primary cause of news "bias." In White's memory of his own earlier

professional work, he had a similar insight: I quickly realized how much I disliked Westbrook Pegler's incoming columns, but I made an effort to edit his venomous prose objectively. But one afternoon, the managing editor of the newspaper called me into his office and said, "David, I've noticed lately that Pegler's columns are considerably shorter these past few weeks." I had been deleting sentences or entire paragraphs of classic Pegler, either unconsciously or with palpable awareness.

The model strongly implies that the main cause of media distortion is the need to reduce a large number of global events to a small number that ultimately make the news. That implies that news selection would be less difficult if that were less the case and editors were better able to make wise decisions. Additionally, the gatekeeping model allows for a variety of decision-makers along the path of selection, but many studies, including White's, have a tendency to concentrate on just one stage of that process. "Mr. Given that he did not control the entirety of the day's events, Gates" may have been given too much credit for his ability to wield influence. Additionally, the majority of his duties involved selecting stories from the major wire services that were generally comparable, so his decisions were initially made from a limited pool of options. Warren Breed's study on social control in the newsroom, published in 1955, is a close contemporary of White's work even though it is not a "gatekeeping" study per se. The two studies are frequently cited together. Breed, a former newspaper reporter who wrote "Social control in the newsroom: A functional analysis," spoke with a sample of newsmen at medium-sized newspapers to learn how they decided how to handle their story selection. In a sense, Breed described newspaper publishers as the de facto gatekeepers who use covert methods to make sure that only news that is in line with organizational policy is broadcast. Breed cited the possibility that "policy news may be slanted or buried so that some important information is denied the citizenry" as the pertinent gatekeeping issue [5], [6].

Breed's contribution was to demonstrate how the most crucial gatekeeper may not be the one who is directly involved in the selection process but may instead be found at a higher level within an organization with more in-fluential levels. The subjectivity of the gatekeeper would seem to profoundly problematize the news process if news is what the journalist says it is, but the field was slow to act on this crucial insight. According to Reese and Ballinger, the cause of this was the expectation that the gatekeeper would adequately represent the community by "seeing to it that the community shall hear as a fact only those events that the newsman, as the representative of his culture, believes to be true". Breed, like White, suggested that the gatekeeping process could be successful to the community's satisfaction through journalistic codes and other guidance, were the undue influence of publishers to be curbed. Therefore, according to these viewpoints, the society need not be afraid of gatekeepers' decisions as long as they remained loyal cultural representatives.

For many years, this benevolent perception of gatekeepers suppressed attention to this crucial process, but relative outsiders to the communication industry forced newsroom decisions back under the spotlight. Breed's theory attributed gatekeeping control to the publisher, White to the editor's subjective judgment, but later work in media sociology, done a decade or more later, positioned it at the organizational level. The highly influential book by sociologist Herbert Gans , which identified sources of power within the organization as well as the incentives journalists face to adhere to group norms and take practical considerations, is a key source of information. This strategy incorporates gatekeeping into an organization's ongoing and practical operations as a valuable corrective. Gans believes that the process by which all of the organization's components, routines, and arrangements are engaged in the production of news is where the construction of news is found, not in the journalist, publisher, or gatekeeping editor. This helps deflect responsibility for misinformation from specific journalists.

According to Gans, the news process is the process of figuring out how to package the daily flow of events into a product that audiences will pay for. Journalists use "considerations" to help in the decision-making process for the solution, which must be applicable without a lot of thought. They must help prevent overly high levels of uncertainty, be adaptable, simple to rationalize or explain to others, and effective, ensuring the best outcomes with the least amount of effort. The efficiency and power components of the news equation are interconnected. The competitive factors provide the most eloquent proof that these factors are not always taken into account. News organizations wouldn't need to consult one another for confirmation if considerations were automatic. In the murky world of news, journalists try to keep up with what their rivals are doing. Journalists evaluate their own work through the competition. The way journalists rely on the New York Times is one of Gans's most astute observations. The networks and newsmagazines require a judge who can act as a trend-setter and transcend medium considerations. It would need to be created if it didn't already exist.

Gans asserts that "the news is not simply a compliant supporter of elites, the Establishment, or the ruling class; rather, it views nation and society through its own set of values and with its own conception of the good social order", which is consistent with the influence gatekeeping ascribes to journalists. This strategy bases gatekeeping decisions on practical problem-solving rather than personal subjectivity. But do these choices systematically produce a range of predictable news products? Gans correctly points out that the finished product is the best part of the highlights, particularly in television due to the space constraints. The question of why the highlighting is done and which aspects of reality are most exaggerated remains unanswered by this, of course [7]–[9].

The Guardians

The gatekeeping tradition has, by its very nature, focused research attention on the people in charge of the gates, even though it leaves room for channels and outside pressures: "Mr. A significant area of study has been devoted to describing these people's traits in an effort to better understand the choices they are likely to make. Recent theorizing has struggled to define "who is a journalist," but gatekeeping implicitly places that definition squarely with the experts working within news organizations. All full-time reporters, writers, correspondents, columnists, news people, and editors who are in charge of editing the creation or transmission of news stories or other information. Extending the two categories of "neutral" and "participant" proposed by the original work of Johnstone, Slawski, and Bowman to include "disseminator," "adversarial," "interpretive," and, with a nod to the public journalism movement, "populist mobilizer," Weaver and colleagues have pursued this track the most thoroughly. Weaver et al.'s most recent national survey builds on two earlier studies that described and compared these journalists' professional and personal characteristics to the general public. This means that these reports, along with the numerous and less objectively scientific surveys of journalists that claim to demonstrate individual bias, are predicated on the significance of the roughly 120,000 members of this professional group. Because of their ability to influence how we view the world, the authors contend that their makeup matters more

Leader of the Field

According to a review of communication journals and books, empirical studies on gatekeeping research began to pick up again in the last ten years after slowing down in the 1980s. Following the sociological turn in journalism scholarship signaled by Gans and others , there was a dearth of gatekeeping scholarship in the 1980s. The field has been directed toward studying gatekeepers in their organizational context by the sociology of news work. Gatekeeping has lost favor since White's perspective, which emphasized the autonomy of individual gatekeepers

in selecting news. Since the 1980s, gatekeeping research has advanced by reexamining earlier studies in order to take the evolving nature of journalism into account. Weaver and his colleagues have tracked many of the evolving journalistic practices and demographics, as was already mentioned. It's not just them. In keeping with the rise of women in journalism, Bleske explored how gatekeeping changed or did not change when a woman served as the gatekeeper as opposed to a man. According to Liebler and Smith, the gender of the gatekeeper had little impact on the news's subject matter. Other people have looked into how race affects the choice and creation of news.

The public or civic journalism movement of the 1990s has expanded notions of the journalistic role, influencing how gatekeepers understand their work, according to Weaver et al.

New waves of gatekeeping research have, however, been sparked by the advent of technology and the accompanying institutional changes. For instance, Berkowitz investigated the gatekeeping procedure in local television news, whereas earlier studies focused on gatekeeping at newspapers. Gatekeeping at print and electronic media was compared by Abbott and Brassfield, who discovered some similarities in their decision-making. Recently, focus has shifted to the online environment where news is created. The recurring theme in this body of research is that as technology changes, so will the activities and operations of news organizations. As stated by Singer, "Unlike the print newspaper, the Web is not a finite, concrete media form; instead, its form is simultaneously fluid and global and supremely individualistic". The initial research on online news came to a variety of conclusions. While some proclaimed the demise of organizational influences on gatekeeping in the new media environment, others found little distinction between gatekeeping duties in older and newer media. Singer investigates how conventional print-based news organizations have changed to operate in a world of online news and contends that print-based practices are still effective in the new environment [10], [11].

However, some news websites have embraced the online community, providing a platform for reader interaction. Despite the fact that the gatekeeping role is evolving in the context of online news, Singer comes to the conclusion that "it seems unlikely to lose all relevance any time soon". Empirical research has emerged to comprehend how changes in the routines of news work, the context of news work, and the demographic profile of gatekeepers have affected the news that we see and hear every day. Earlier theories regarding gatekeeping mechanisms have typically been the foundation of these studies. For instance, the idea of the news subsidy, developed by Gandy and others, has been applied to research new types of subsidy, such as the emergence of video news releases targeted at electronic news organizations. Gatekeeping is vibrant in part because of a body of scholarship that has evolved along with changes in journalism.

The general acceptance of the gatekeeping concept as it has been more broadly defined may have contributed to the relative paucity of gatekeeping scholarship in the 1980s. As previously mentioned, gatekeeping is no longer viewed as merely a matter of selection or as the work of a single, strong agent. A more comprehensive understanding of gatekeeping has made it possible for gatekeeping scholarship to be incorporated into the field of media sociology and thus to regain theoretical relevance. It was more of a bold step backward than a bold step forward for this movement toward a sociological orientation. In actuality, going back to the beginning has helped gatekeeping remain relevant. According to Lewin's "field theory," gatekeeping emerged from an interaction of factors within a social field. Lewin, the father of gatekeeping research, had emphasized the place of the gatekeeper within a "field." The foundation of Lewin's field theory was what he called "psychological ecology", which was later linked to ecological systems theory and human ecology theory. According to Bronfenbrenner,

people should be viewed in the context of four different systems: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, and the macrosystem. These systems roughly matched the five levels of analysis that Shoemaker and Reese identified. These five levels explained in more detail below include the level of the individual journalist, the level of journalism routines or practices, the level of organizations, the level of extra-media, and the level of social systems. Greater precision and greater scope in theorizing about the creation and selection of news have resulted from this analytical framework. To better understand the variables that affect news about federal legislation, Shoemaker, Eichholz, Kim, and Wrigley compared variables across levels of analysis.

Theorizing about gatekeeping has a lot to gain from renewed field theory research. Original gatekeeping research was inspired by Lewin's notion of the "field," but more recent studies have looked at Pierre Bourdieu's field theory. The complexity of Bourdieu's theories and a catalog of all the ways his field theory applies to journalistic gatekeeping are beyond the scope of this chapter; much of that work has already been done by Benson and Neveu. Here, a few key contributions will be mentioned.

The relationship between the levels of analysis is the first issue Bourdieu's field theory tackles. According to Benson & Neveu, "field theory is concerned with how macrostructures are linked to organizational routines and journalistic practices, and emphasizes the dynamic nature of power." These macrostructures, organizational procedures, and journalistic standards constrain the agency of individuals. However, this is not strictly a hierarchical model where routines and practices are dictated by macrostructures, such as economic structures. Despite how important economic factors are to the majority of Western media, journalism still retains some autonomy because of "the specific capital unique to that field".

The news media's traits and practices offer gatekeepers some protection from the influence of outside forces. Second, studying isolated factors can be difficult because the field is a nexus of interrelated factors. In their conclusion, Benson and Neveu write, "the 'field' opens up a new unit of analysis for media research: the entire universe of journalists and media organizations acting and reacting in relation to one another". Few of the hypotheses put forth by Benson for empirical research appear to focus on the field as a whole.

A few examples he provides are: "Greater dependence on advertising is likely to contribute to more positive coverage of business, more critical coverage of labor unions, as well as a pro-consumerist depoliticization and ideological narrowing of news". In any case, Bourdieu's field theory gives new life to theories about how the various levels of analysis interact in a gatekeeping model.

CONCLUSION

In the world of media, journalists act as crucial gatekeepers, influencing greatly what information is made available to the general public. This study emphasizes that gatekeeping is not just an objective news curation process; it is also inherently subjective and subject to the whims of individuals, corporations, and socio-political pressures. Gatekeeping has historically evolved from traditional media to the digital era, presenting both opportunities and challenges. Digital platforms have democratized the sharing of information, but they have also amplified false and misleading information. Journalists must modify their gatekeeping tactics to this new environment in order to uphold their ethical obligations while ensuring accuracy, diversity, and fairness. The role of journalists as gatekeepers will remain crucial in navigating the delicate balance between free expression and responsible journalism as information ecosystems continue to change, helping to shape the very foundation of democratic societies.

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CHAPTER 9
EXPLORING THE JOURNALISM'S PURSUIT OF OBJECTIVITY: PROFESSIONALISM AND TRUTH

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ABSTRACT:

In this chapter, the foundational tenets of journalism are examined, with a particular emphasis on the pursuit of objectivity, professionalism, and the truth. Journalism has long been regarded as a pillar of democratic societies, charged with informing the public in an accurate and objective manner. Over time, the idea of objectivity has changed as journalists work to present various viewpoints while being aware of their own potential biases. Journalism professionalism includes upholding moral standards, conducting in-depth research, and reporting responsibly. The ultimate goal the truth remains elusive in an information-rich world and calls for critical analysis and fact-checking. This paper investigates how these principles are upheld, compromised, or redefined in the current media environment by looking at historical context and contemporary issues.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Media, Professionalism, Truth.

INTRODUCTION

For many years, the field of journalism studies and the subfield of sociology known as the sociology of the professions which studies professionalization and professional systems have coexisted in a state of mutual indifference. Most studies of journalistic professionalism, on the other hand, avoid engagement with the majority of the sociological literature on professional occupations and syllabi. Few of the classic professional studies in the sociology of professions hazard even a guess as to journalism's professional status, preferring instead to focus on the traditional professions of medicine and law. There is much to be gained, it would seem, from revisiting questions of journalism and professionalization from an explicitly sociological angle articulating a deeper understanding of journalism's troubled professional project, the relationship between the profession's power, authority, and professional status. We begin this chapter with an overview of Weberian studies of the professions conducted in the late 1970s and 1980s, including a discussion of Abbott's influential analysis of "professional jurisdiction," and then we examine the two major strands of scholarship that have emerged within the field of journalism studies in order to bring these journalistic and sociological perspectives on professionalization into dialogue [1], [2].

The importance of journalism is self-evident and independent of its position in a hierarchy of occupations, according to researchers in this field of study. The first strand, which emerged from journalism itself, tends not to worry about whether journalism produces authoritative knowledge or possesses professional traits. The goal of this line of work is to assess the extent to which journalism has attained professional status, frequently through surveys of the workforce or academic institutions. The character of journalistic knowledge or claims to knowledge, and thus the standing of journalism's "cultural authority," in the words of Paul Starr, are the focus of a second line of research that draws from the sociology of news organizations and media studies.

The second strand conflates journalistic objectivity with journalistic professionalism per se, whereas the first strand suffers from its adoption of the "trait perspective" on the professions. According to recent research by Hallin and Mancini, professionalism exists in many non-American media systems even though objectivity is not the sole professional standard. In our conclusion, we make the case that an effective mode of analysis of journalistic objectivity, professionalism, and truth seeking would adopt a modified version of Abbott's framework while continuing to build on the best work of the two strands mentioned above. According to Abbott, the study of professions begins with the study of professional work, and "the central phenomenon of professional life is thus the link between a profession and its work" that Abbott refers to as "jurisdiction." According to Abbott, jurisdiction refers to the everyday ways in which a profession both concretizes and displays its base of "abstract knowledge" or, in the peculiar case of journal-ism, knowledge real and expert but by no means abstract. We aim to combine Abbott's analysis with the two research strands previously mentioned, apply it to the debates that currently surround journalistic professionalism, and lay out a research agenda for the future [3], [4].

From Workplace Traits to Workplace Struggling

The widespread abandonment of the "trait approach" of occupational analysis, which dominated the field for decades and whose more extreme normative tendencies defined a profession as a model of occupational autonomy and self-regulation worthy of imitation, marks the beginning of the most productive period within the subfield of sociology devoted to professionalization research. The attempt to isolate specific professional characteristics and then gauge the extent to which various occupational categories exhibited them were key components of the trait approach. There is no one authoritative overview, but lists typically include the following characteristics: work based on scientific or systematic knowledge, formal education, self-governing associations, codes of ethics, a relationship of trust between professional and client , licensing or other entry-level restrictions, and widely acknowledged social status or social esteem. In the 1960s and 1970s, sociologists gave up the trait approach, moving "from the false question 'Is this occupation a profession' to the more fundamental one 'What are the circumstances in which people in an occupation attempt to turn it into a profession and themselves into professional people'". They did this on the advice of Everett C. Hughes and were motivated by Max Weber's work on status and authority. The study of the profession as an idealized structural-functionalist category has largely been replaced in sociology in the forty years since Hughes' challenge by the more Weberian study of professionalization and the "professional project."

DISCUSSION

In her analysis of the "professional project," Magali Sarfatti Larson, one of the first explicitly Weberian professionalization theorists, argues that "ideal typical constructions do not tell us what a profession is, only what it pretends to be," and that we should instead ask "what professions actually do in everyday life to negotiate or maintain their special position". According to MacDonald , "'profession' is a lay or folk term, and what the 'folk' do is assess whether an occupation is or is not a profession, is a semi-profession, or is more or less professional than other occupations. As Freidson sums up, "It is not the task of sociology to do it for them scientifically". If "profession" is a concept that has a folk definition, then phenomenological research design is the best approach. It is more important to understand how members of society distinguish between those who are professionals and those who are not, and how they "make" or accomplish professions through their actions. One does not attempt to define what a profession is in an absolute sense.

The theory of the professional project, which was first put forth by Sarfatti Larson, has remained at the core of much of the most significant work in the sociology of the professions for the past several decades. The idea combines Weber's classic analysis of occupational groups' attempts to link economic class and social status with Freidson's early, ground-breaking work on the medical field. Professionals, according to Sarfatti Larson, are collective social actors who "attempt to translate one order of scarce resources special knowledge and skills into another social and economic rewards." This effort is what Sarfatti Larson refers to as "the professional project," and she describes it as a collective intention with coherence and consistence even though the professions are not naturally existing occupational categories or the bearers of socially functional "traits."

When the professional project was framed in this way, some aspects of it took on significant roles in the dominant Weberian analysis of professional conflict in the late 1970s. A profession's attempt to establish an organizational monopoly on a body of technically applicable abstract knowledge; the requirement for a market in which to exchange that knowledge; the connection between a profession's knowledge monopolization and the social status of its members; the interdependence between a profession's desire for social mobility and market control; and endeavors to translate economic power into social influence are some of these aspects. Indeed, sociological studies of education and higher education as a system for the orderly reproduction of a class system and the legitimization of class inequality were related to and inspired by sociological writing about professions. Neo-Marxist studies highlighted the role of education in preparing people to acquire cultural capital to support their high standing in the social order rather than technical knowledge or skills appropriate for the modern economy. Early critiques of the ideal of objectivity in American journalism were informed by this work or shared the same intellectual outlook that was skeptical of the legitimacy of professions and inclined to view claims of neutrality, detachment, or dispassion as a cover for power [5]–[7].

This disciplinary reorientation has the effect of requiring any investigation into issues of professionalism, objectivity, and truth seeking in journalism specifically to shift its focus from debating whether journalism is or is not a profession to a more intriguing examination of the circumstances under which journalists make an effort to transform themselves into professionals. We can examine the social process by which journalists struggle to assert their professional status rather than outlining the qualities that define professionals and then evaluating the extent to which journalists possess them. This research agenda integrates the sociological study of the professions with the study of journalism and can shed new light on many of the traditional institutional histories of journalism, even those that reject or ignore a sociological perspective.

Professional Journalism and Research

What role has "struggle" played in the disciplinary shift from "traits" to "journalism studies"? To say that changes in sociology as a field have had no impact on research on journalistic professionalism would be an exaggeration. However, it could be argued that the connection has been indirect. In journalism studies, Zelizer writes that "despite the auspicious beginnings of sociological inquiry into journalism, much contemporary work on journalism no longer comes from sociology per se." Or, as Klinenberg argues from the perspective of a sociologist. The fact that contemporary sociology has largely abandoned the empirical study of journalistic organizations and news institutions at a time when media has become more visible in political, economic, and cultural spheres and other academic fields have embraced the study of media and society is a paradox of the discipline today.

The migration of sociologists to the expanding communications and media departments helps to at least partially explain the paradox. Rodney Benson, Todd Gitlin, Michael Schudson, and Silvio Waisbord are just a few sociologists with primary or exclusive appointments in communication departments as opposed to sociology departments. More than sociology, communication and media studies have been the fields where these scholars' work has found an audience. To be sure, some sociologists continue to speak primarily to a sociological audience, even if it is in the subfield of sociolinguistics and conversational analysis. One such example is the work of Steven Clayman and his colleagues [8], [9].

In the absence of research that explicitly connects journalism to the sociology of the professions, two lines of inquiry have emerged in the field of journalism studies. The first type, which could be referred to as institutional research, frequently looks for quantitative information on journalists' employment, education, adherence to ethical standards, etc. Most frequently, the news industry itself or academics with strong ties to professional journalism have started such studies. The Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates in the United States has regularly updated data on the likelihood that recent journalism school graduates will find employment. Additional surveys and employment analyses have been carried out abroad, as well as in the US, to "measure" the level of professionalization that has occurred in journalism, at least along the axis of higher education credentialing. The data paints a somewhat ambiguous picture. The percentage of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree holders in the United States who took jobs requiring a degree fell from 50% to 25% over the 20 years between 1982 and 2002. At the same time, American newspaper editors advocate for the value of a degree in journalism or communications, despite the fact that a sizeable minority of respondents to a 1995 survey believe that an entry-level hire's degree is irrelevant. Over 90% of journalists have a degree, so while the value of a "journalism degree" may be debatable, the value of higher education is undeniable. Similar situations exist in other nations with developed media systems: employers place more value on higher education overall than they do on the possession of particular "communication" degrees.

It is tempting to discuss journalism as a "quasi," "pseudo," or "failed" profession, echoing Weaver and Wilhoit's claim that it "is of a profession but not in one." In fact, many studies into journalistic professionalism have come to an end at this point. Basic institutional research echoes the older body of "trait theory" and halts the investigation before it even gets started. In summary, this first line of journalism research largely avoids the more complex issues raised by the unresolved occupational status of journalism. It would be far more fruitful to consider why and how the professions of reporting and news editing attained the professional status they did, as well as how journalism may be attempting to raise that status, as opposed to placing journalism somewhere on the professional spectrum between plumbers and neurosurgeons. This forces us to think about the history, theory, and practice of journalism and takes us one step further away from the generally dry analysis of employment data. Most explicitly, writers who fall under the second subfield of journalism studies what we might call the "cultural histories of professional objectivity" subfield have addressed these issues [10]–[12].

Objectivity and Professionalism in Cultural Theories

Walter Lippmann was "the most wise and forceful spokesman for the ideal of objectivity," according to Schudson in Discovering the News. Lippmann advised journalists to "develop a sense of evidence and forthrightly acknowledge the limits of available information. To put it another way, Lippmann urged journalists to "dissect slogans and abstractions, and refuse to withhold the news or put moral uplift or any cause ahead of veracity." The relationship between professionalism, objectivity, and seeking the truth would eventually come to be accepted by

media researchers and journalism scholars as a related set of issues amenable to historical and sociological study, as well as by journalists themselves as an occupational ideology. In other words, knowing how objectivity emerged would be the key to knowing how professionalism emerged. One of the most recent summaries of the social histories of the American press can be found in Kaplan. We can speak here of at least five orientations to this history by following and building on his lead. First, journalism has been portrayed as inexorably moving toward social differentiation, occupational autonomy, and professional freedom by progressive historiography, which closely followed the development of journalism's own occupational ideology. According to this theory, objectivity functions as a normative endpoint, one made possible by modernization and the increasing social segregation between politics, business, and journalism. It is not viewed as a tool or a claim, but as a goal, a "best practice" made possible by historical advancement. Although Kaplan does not mention it, the "technological" explanation for the development of objective journalism is a second, related understanding of the connection between objectivity and professionalism. Objectivity is viewed as a literary form supported by technological advancements in this explanation, which most recent historical scholarship rejects.

A third line of research identifies economic trends that support commercialism. The Commercialization of News in the Nineteenth Century by Baldasty is singled out by Kaplan as a particularly persuasive, meticulously documented, and ultimately misguided argument regarding the connection between commercialism and professionalization. The capitalistic funding mechanism, according to Baldasty's theory, "followed from the news content and indeed 'journalistic visions'", leading to journalism that viewed the public as consumers rather than citizens. Beginning with Schudson's Discovering the News, which, along with his later work, moved away from viewing the emergence of objectivity as a "inevitable outcome" of large-scale social processes and changes whether social, economic, or technological and linked the emergence of journalistic professionalism to issues of group cohesion, professional power, social conflict, and a host of other issues, a fourth strand of research on the rise of journalistic objectivity in the United States begins. Instead of looking to technological advancements or "natural" evolutionary progress, Schudson sought the roots of professional objectivity in the development of a "democratic market society" in Discovering the News.

The early 20th century view of objectivity, which views standards of objective reporting as a set of defensive measures rooted in the "disappointment of the modern gaze" the conviction that true objectivity is impossible distinguishes journalistic beliefs of the 1890s nave empiricism, or a faith in "the facts" from a more modern perspective. In discussing the emergence of a professional class of reporters in the context of the development of professional objectivity, Schudson was followed by a number of authors primarily historians of journalism. For these authors, as well as many others, objectivity is still essential to the professionalization of journalism. If you can identify the factors that led to the development of objectivity as a profession and pinpoint its inception, you will have made significant progress toward learning the "secret" of successful professional journalism.

However, current scholarship questions the strong connection that this work suggests exists between objectivity and professionalism. The occupational norm of objectivity cannot be seen as the only one to support and emerge from the professional project; in some instances, it may not even be the most significant norm. Ramaprasad's extensive surveys of non-Western journalism do not even mention adherence to "objectivity" as a major characteristic of newswork in Egypt, Tanzania, or Nepal, and the new notion of "contextual objectivity". Chalaby has called journalism as a "fact-based discursive practice" rather According to Donsbach and Patterson, American and European newsrooms still differ in their commitment

to objectivity. Their thorough investigation of German, Italian, Swedish, British, and American print and broadcast journalists reveals that nearly all US journalists claim that their political views are unrelated to those of their employers. Journalists from national newspapers in Italy and Germany claim that their political views are in line with the editorial stance of their publications. Additionally, Schudson now contends that the journalism he once considered to be "modern" is actually more accurately characterized as "American," and that some of its distinguishing characteristics have more to do with American cultural assumptions than a general modernism. This is particularly true of the American invention of the interview, which many European observers at the time considered to be an especially rude and arrogant method of conducting business.

However, the strongest argument for severing the connection between objectivity and professional standing in the world of journalism is made by Hallin and Mancini. For them, professionalism is defined more in terms of having "greater control over own work process", "distinct professional norms", and "a public service orientation". It is less defined in terms of entry-level educational requirements, a lack of government regulation, or the ideal of "objectivity" for them. They contend that the professionalization levels of various media systems vary. The North Atlantic model of journalism, which includes America and Britain, and North/Central European model, which includes Germany and Scandinavia, both maintain relatively low levels of professionalization. However, in democratic corporatist nations, being a "professional" does not always imply a commitment to objectivity or a lack of affiliation with any political party. Instead, journalists in democratic corporatist states believe that journalistic autonomy is compatible with direct and deliberate intervention in politics. In this sense, German journalists are just as "professional" as American ones. However, the social foundations of their professionalism and the precise nature of their values are different.

Schudson has argued that the "objectivity norm" in American journalism ultimately benefits the group that articulates it, either by promoting social cohesion or social control. This is essentially an extension and generalization of his thesis in Dis-covering the News. Ethics and norms are present for ritualistic purposes, aiding in a group's internal cohesion and solidarity. They can also serve as a means of defining a group in relation to other groups. On the other hand, Weberian explanations for the development of occupational norms imply that they offer some level of hierarchical control over social groups. Within large organizations, the need for editors to exert control over their reporters necessitates the use of an "overt ethical reinforcement" that directs people in a predictable, logical direction.

CONCLUSION

Even though it is difficult and constantly changing, the pursuit of objectivity, professionalism, and the truth in journalism remains crucial. A commitment to providing a balanced range of viewpoints is encouraged by the modern approach, even though it may be impossible to achieve absolute objectivity due to ingrained biases. For journalism to remain credible, professionalism necessitates strict adherence to ethical standards, including in-depth research and ethical sourcing. The pursuit of the truth as the ultimate goal necessitates ongoing watchfulness for sensationalism, disinformation, and misinformation. To maintain the integrity of their work in a time when the distinction between fact and opinion can be hazy, journalists must exercise critical thought and fact-checking. The fundamental principles of journalism remain constant as it navigates the difficulties presented by technological advancements and the evolving nature of media consumption, acting as a beacon in a sea of information and pointing both journalists and audiences in the direction of a more informed society.

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CHAPTER 10
A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW ON JOURNALISTS
AND THEIR RESOURCES

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ABSTRACT:

In the context of the contemporary media landscape, this study explores the complex relationship between journalists and their resources. Since the development of digital technologies, journalists have become more dependent on a variety of sources, including traditional media outlets, social media websites, government reports, interviews, and more. The study looks at how these sources affect the reliability, timeliness, and quality of journalistic content. It also discusses the difficulties faced by journalists in an age of information overload and the ethical issues surrounding source selection. This study offers insights into how news production has changed over time and how that change has affected public discourse by examining the mutually beneficial relationship between journalists and their resources. This chapter makes the case that there is more at stake between journalists and their sources than just the ability to influence public opinion in the short term. Instead, their interaction represents a long-lasting yet dynamic influence on society, the capacity to mold enduring cultural meanings.

KEYWORDS:

Journalists, Journalism, Media, Reporters, Technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Questions about bias, power, and influence are at the heart of research on journalists and the news sources they use. An important question in the early literature, which was surrounded by hostile circumstances, was whether sources or reporters had more power to shape the news. One follow-up to this inquiry explores the ways in which journalists' use of news sources results in a specific news agenda that either favors or omits certain issues over others. The ability of source power to subsidize the time and effort needed for reporting is a question that is asked in a second extension. According to many authors, the relationship between journalists and their sources is essentially a struggle for control over public opinion and consent. Journalists ultimately play the role of defending society against corruption, whereas those in business and government are tasked with upholding their own interests at all costs. But these types of power only represent something fleeting, namely the capacity to influence how certain problems and policies turn out. After the outcome is decided, a new power struggle starts. The Western origins of much of this research are also questioned. Accordingly, what might appear from a Western perspective to be co-optation actually reflects the pragmatics of journalistic and, more broadly, cultural realities. In particular, press systems and political systems both differ across regions and countries, as does the social status of journalists [1], [2].

It is crucial to note that the term "source" is only used to refer to the people who journalists consult for information, who are frequently officials and subject matter experts with ties to the major institutions of society. The term also refers to organizations that provide news content to newspapers, broadcast outlets, and websites, such as the Associated Press. This second usage of the term is outside the scope of this discussion. In order to understand the positions of their interaction, the chapter begins with a sociological perspective on the relationship between

journalists and their sources. A negotiation over long-term cultural meanings and ideological power follows the initial portrayal of an antagonistic relationship, which is based on efforts to sway public opinion. Next, it shifts to a more neutral exchange between two parties who each have something to gain. Once these components are in place, the chapter begins to situate what is essentially a Western research discourse in larger global contexts. The issue of voice and empowerment is then brought up as a crucial mediating factor, affecting both reporters and sources. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of how changing media technologies have altered the nature of the relationship between journalists and their sources [3], [4].

A Sociological View of the Relationship between Reporters and Sources

The fundamental tenets of the professional ideology of journalism shape the relationship between a reporter and a source. Therefore, in order to comprehend the relationship, this ideology must be temporarily removed in order to reveal what is actually there. The fundamental requirements of the ideology must be addressed first, followed by the processes that journalists use to complete their work and produce their output. The profession's ideology is a paradigm, or way of going about something in a specific way. The desired outcome is anticipated to occur if journalists follow this paradigm. Reporters gather reliable data and then present it without explicitly taking a position in the debate; this is the fundamental model of journalism. Reporters become dependent on experts and authorities as sources because they serve as the sources of this information. Reporters are not permitted to express an opinion on their own, even when covering an event, so their reporting is restricted to facts like crowd estimates, descriptions of the surroundings, portrayals of people's appearances, and quotes from those people. By employing this source-driven methodology, journalists are transformed into society's scientists, and the news they produce becomes their "scientific report" their reality.

DISCUSSION

This paradigm appears to be effective on the surface, but that ignores the fact that news organizations typically have a stake in journalists' reporting because it links news content to public opinion and, ultimately, their own success. Maintaining public support for authority figures makes it easier for them to hold onto their positions of power. The need for elected authority figures to effectively sway public opinion grows stronger because their ability to hold onto their positions of power and enact the desired policies is at risk. The media's coverage of business and organization leaders aids in preserving social approval for them to carry on with their current course of action. Losing public favor may necessitate a change in strategy. Overall, there is a lot at risk for both reporters and sources. Each news item a reporter writes puts their credibility and believability on the line. Likewise, sources frequently jeopardize their professional success. Combining the two sides of this equation suggests that the relationship between reporters and their sources is one that is carefully negotiated, with each party hoping to advance their interests and keep their social and professional standings. News is filtered through news organizations, journalistic routines, and conventions, which screen out many of the personal predilections of individual journalists. News is, after all, not what journalists think, but rather what their sources say.

The second challenge faced by journalists is that news is a product with organizational expectations. Reporters must develop strategies and procedures to help ensure they will produce their product on time and in a form that their peers will judge as "good". This portrayal of news and the reporter-source relationship highlights this challenge. The interaction between reporters and sources is what causes news to become a construction. In the abstract, nearly all jobs and professions face the same challenge: employers must hire staff, employees must strategically use their skills to meet production quotas given their resources, and ultimately,

customers must be happy with the product they receive in terms of timeliness and quality. Routinizing their tasks helps reporters, in practice, overcome organizational constraints. Although they must speak with numerous sources in order to write stories, their reconnaissance process requires limits. Because sources are not always immediately available, scheduling interviews becomes a task that takes time to complete and reduces the amount of time left until the deadline. This task is made simpler by having a basic collection of well-known sources, but occasionally new sources must be located. Some sources may not cooperate with certain stories or may not be available when needed, which complicates matters further. Reporters must deal with any unexpected input from sources who may also want to jump into the fray. Unspoken, socially learned organizational "policy" can occasionally dictate the paths that reporters must take as well as the sources and subjects that are off-limits, further complicating matters.

A second negotiation process begins when reporters interact with their sources, whether in person or online. There, journalists try to elicit as much information as possible from their sources by guiding the conversation in directions that the sources may not always want to go. In turn, sources attempt to keep the information-gathering effort in line with the details they are willing to provide, which are typically neutral details that can advance their own cause or, in rare cases, that can harm an opponent's cause. Reporters do not always take the initiative, though, as sources frequently attempt to actively shape the news through press conferences, planned events, and leaks that can hasten the reporting process. Even natural events like crises and disasters involving other people can be used by sources to draw attention to their cause. Sources are responsible for a very large portion of news, and they have a better chance of being heard if they can give reporters easily compiled information. Over time, knowledgeable sources who are able to communicate regularly and comprehend reporters' needs have become a significant source of news; paradoxically, much of what sources deliver overall has a tendency to fall short and lose prominence in the media [5]–[7].

In conclusion, scheduling becomes a regular part of a journalist's job because sources need to be scheduled. Due to tight deadlines or unavailability of sources, some stories' scheduling becomes more challenging. Reporters learn how to locate reliable sources who can be easily scheduled and who can give them the information they need in a clear, manageable manner. Once sources have been scheduled for interviews, reporters can transition to a new working mode, interpreting the information they have gathered, giving some sources' information more weight than others, and creating news stories that adhere to the paradigm's rules.

Power Perspective to Cultural Meaning-Making Focus

If the media's role as a watchdog over the government and big business is a fundamental component of journalistic ideology, then reporters' struggles to get crucial information from sources become crucial. This could be seen as a power struggle between sources and reporters who are constantly looking for information and trying to avoid what might be seen as excessive journalistic inquiry. Reporters' attempts to gather information can be thwarted if a source is powerful. High-powered reporters, on the other hand, have the capacity to assemble more information from more sources. The question of "What determines the power of journalists and sources?" is one component of this. Getting back to the original query, "What determines power?" provides various solutions for reporters and their sources. The key factors for reporters are their organizational characteristics and personal characteristics.

Three things about the reporter stand out. The first is experience, which helps a reporter who stays in the business for a long time to advance in status. However, power does not necessarily follow longevity. For instance, compared to national, state, or even local news sources, a seasoned society reporter would be powerless. Therefore, a reporter's track record for

producing impactful stories that are well-known to the news sources they interact with on the job is a second factor influencing their power. Intra-organizational power is a third factor to consider. If a reporter has more autonomy within an organization, deadline pressure can be reduced and there will be more opportunity to develop a story.

Power is also influenced by the reporter's organization, though this is not an absolute designation. For instance, news organizations that operate on a national or international scale typically have more clout when dealing with news sources. Influential news stories that have previously been published or broadcast strengthen and confirm that power. A quality broadsheet newspaper and a well-known tabloid, for instance, would have varying degrees of influence among the same sources and readers; in this case, the influence they exert closely relates to their power differential. However, that large-scale power might not matter when a news outlet from a larger sphere reports on events in a smaller sphere. A national media outlet covering news that primarily affects a small geographic community, for instance, might not have much influence if the residents of that region were not among its audience. There, the local media outlet may end up having a greater impact on how a problem or event turns out [8], [9].

It is somewhat easier to evaluate source power. The most effective sources are typically those that are situated within a power structure and have both the authority of knowledge and the autonomy to speak about that knowledge. For example, promoting an environmentalist position to the media following an oil spill, sources with the ability to promote an event to the media under certain circumstances may temporarily hold power. According to Reese, the perceived power dynamics that reporters and their sources bring to a particular interaction have a significant bearing on the outcome of the news. The nature of the relationship can also be shaped by this balance, with interactions becoming more symbiotic and cooperative when the power dynamics between journalists and sources are roughly equal but more antagonistic when one of the two parties is thought to have the upper hand. The discussion as a whole suggests that the dynamic nature of the relationship between reporters and their sources depends on the circumstances of a particular incident as well as the perceived power that each party brings to the relationship. This power dynamic also determines who can lead negotiations for information that becomes news reports and how interactions between reporters and sources play out. What this power affects is the subject of the second question".

In the past, the response to this query has typically been expressed in terms of control over public opinion and sway over news agenda. Keeping the public's trust is a daily struggle for politicians and business executives. Therefore, at the most basic level, a source's power can be summed up as their ability to participate in an ongoing discussion that affects the news agenda. The ability to speak about an issue that is on the news agenda as well as the ability to shape how that issue appears on the agenda and then shape the initial discussion about that issue puts sources in a slightly more powerful position. Being able to decide whether a topic will be covered by the media and become a topic of public debate is even more potent because it gives you the freedom to make socially significant decisions without needing the approval of the general public.

Power translates to a mirror image of these levels for journalists. Gaining access to sources of information that broaden public discourse demonstrates a fundamental level of power. It becomes a more powerful position to be able to bring issues to light and start a public discussion among news sources. However, because journalists would hardly ever want to keep a story from the public eye, there isn't a clear analog to the third level of power. However, the ability of reporters and sources to shape a continuing news agenda is ephemeral and subject to the shifting sands of those in charge and the social environment in which they interact. The long-

term viability of the news agenda is up for grabs when a new administration comes into power. Some problems would continue, while others would go away. Unless it has some bearing on those who have moved in, public opinion of an official who is no longer in office becomes largely irrelevant. In conclusion, when considering the relationship between reporters and their sources, focusing solely on public opinion can obscure some of the more significant, long-lasting effects. It is crucial to turn the conversation to culture and the meanings it contains as a result.

One way to think about how reporters and their sources affect meanings is through the concept of framing. By conceiving of news meanings in this way, it is suggested that topics can be discussed in specific contexts, with boundaries applied to the meanings that fall within and outside of the discussion's purview. When journalists or their sources contain a story in this way, certain portrayals come to dominate the way people think as the story develops. The method's flaw is that it frequently fails to take into account the larger implications of framing. Meaning that it primarily plays off of particular norms to claim that a problem, an event, or a social group was "framed" in a certain way. From the perspective of journalism studies, it is always simple to identify instances where news framing deviates from the norm and is therefore deemed to be giving an "unfair" portrayal. The implications, however, can be explored much further, going beyond a debate about whether reporters or their sources are more powerful in their interactions to a more global view of the long-term societal effects this framing will have on the political dominance of particular groups, administrations, or interests over others. The meaning of events and issues is one of the implications of the reporter-source relationship that impacts ideology itself when the interface between reporters and their sources produces and reproduces a specific frame, a specific vantage point on the social order, and so on [10], [11].

The responsiveness of sources to their interpretive community offers another viewpoint on meanings related to the reporter-source relationship. A cultural setting where meanings are created, communicated, and rebuilt on a daily basis is represented by an interpretive community. A physical location, an organization, a virtual online gathering, and other social collectives can all create interpretive groups. Members of an interpretive community communicate with one another by internalizing presumptive common meanings and using them as a foundation for their personal beliefs and interpretations of events and problems. Reporters are faced with a conflict of meanings from both the interpretive community of their sources and their professional community. The professional interpretive community of reporters has four main dimensions. Reporters are first and foremost guided by their professional ideology, which takes into account professional ideals like objectivity, independence, fairness, and a watchdog role. Second, journalists keep in mind the media organization's interpretive community and the "policy" they have assimilated through socialization while working. This second interpretive community might be at odds with the first by subtly suggesting favoring some sources and organizations over others, being lenient with some sources while being aggressive with others, and other such issues. Through Zelizer's concept of double time, where reporters take into account both current localized meanings for occurrences and issues and a more general historical reference point that provides constant comparison between what has happened in the past and what is happening in the present, the third and fourth interpretive communities are revealed .

These four reporter dimensions are up against the interpretive communities of sources. When a situation arises or a problem is brought up, sources try to highlight one dominant interpretation among the many alternatives. The main goal of corporate, governmental, and special interest sectors is to maintain and bolster their social position and power through interpretations that make their preferred meanings easier to accept. Adopting these meanings

does not always turn into a conscious or purposefully strategic action for reporters or their sources. Instead, they become implicit understandings, with meanings developing over time as a result of group interactions. Furthermore, these meanings are mildly dynamic even though they typically have short-term consistency. In conclusion, these two contexts of meaning construction journalistic practice and source communities demonstrate how news content is not shaped by the traditional idea of socially autonomous journalists serving as watchdogs or by transient conflicts between reporters and their sources. Journalists are instead accountable to four aspects of their interpretive community. Similar to this, news sources react to the preferred meanings they have learned by existing within their own rival interpretive communities [12], [13].

Globalizing the Relationship between Reporter and Source

The Western press systems, and more specifically, how the relationship manifests in the United States, have been the foundation for a large portion of the research on journalists and their sources. However, the question of how far we can take this understanding to comprehend other press systems needs to be addressed. The basic question has two extensions, and they lead to polar opposites. A second question asks how much emphasis should be placed on differences within a single press system. One extended question asks how differences between press systems should be taken into account in our understandings. It is difficult to provide an answer to these questions, and it would also be challenging to claim that there is a global journalism that tends to obfuscate many of the traditional differences between different countries and their press systems.

There are numerous anecdotal examples that demonstrate how the norms of one system can transform into the aberrations of another. It is not immediately clear at what level of analysis one should approach these examples. Although the extra-media or societal levels seem to be the most likely, caution must be exercised to prevent underestimating the homogeneity of any one system. The fundamental issue that remains is how the reporter-source relationship affects the news. However, once we leave the convenience of a single home base for study, we are left searching in vain for precise solutions.

Illustrations of Portable Relationships

Thus, it is possible to think of the fundamental relationship between reporters and their sources as "portable," meaning that it exists in all press systems, from the most authoritarian to the most libertarian, even though it takes on different forms. Even when looking at the same situation, what may appear to be a certain amount of freedom through one journalistic professional lens may appear to be rather constrained through another? Every time, journalists hold the fundamental conviction that they can't just make up stories; rather, they must trust what they've been told by someone with a perceived level of authority.

CONCLUSION

The ways that journalists interact with resources have changed significantly in a time of rapid technological advancement and a wealth of information. A more complex web of information gathering has replaced the traditional barriers that once restricted journalists to official sources. While this has broadened the possibilities for news production, it has also raised moral conundrums regarding the reliability and manipulation of sources. In order to maintain the values of accuracy and accountability while navigating this complex environment, journalists must strike a balance between utilizing the potential of a variety of resources. Journalists can continue to play a crucial role in forming an informed public discourse by modifying their methodologies to take into account new types of information and distinguishing between

trustworthy and false sources. To maintain the integrity and effectiveness of journalism in a fast-changing world, it is crucial to conduct ongoing research and reflection on the interactions between journalists and their resources.

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CHAPTER 11
ANALYSING THE ROLE OF GENDER IN THE NEWSROOM

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ABSTRACT:

This chapter examines the gender's complex role in the newsroom setting. It explores the ways in which gender affects the creation, dissemination, and reception of news. This study clarifies the intricate interactions between gender dynamics and journalism by looking at the historical context, current issues, and potential future trends. The chapter examines gender-related disparities, biases, and opportunities in the newsroom through a thorough analysis of the body of literature and empirical data. Ultimately, more accurate and representative media practices may result from a nuanced understanding of the role of gender in this situation. It also relies on the idea that women and men are diametrically opposed, with femininity being the issue. Studies on gendered journalism practices hardly ever challenge generalizations about sex or gender differences.

KEYWORDS:

Gender, Journalism, Media, News.

INTRODUCTION

Discussions of "gender in the news room," without necessarily using the precise language of "gender," go back to the late nineteenth century, when a large number of women started working in UK and US newsrooms to support themselves and their families. "Our girls will rush into journalism, teaching, or the stage, three professions already overstocked, and neglect really useful branches of employment, by which they might earn a steady, if not luxurious livelihood," a worried reader of a UK woman's magazine retorted. Men claimed that the invasion of women would defeminize and even desex women. These persistent claims, which only ceased during world wars, had little to do with the notion that women are inherently incapable of reporting. Instead, these assertions exposed the marginalization of female readers and men's desire to maintain their monopoly on high status work. In any case, these rants show that women were able to compete in this traditionally male environment. Despite their frequent complaints that male editors, colleagues, and sources refused to take them seriously and relegated them to the women's angle, women continued to demand newsroom jobs [1], [2].

Working journalists and academics debated "gender" for the majority of the 20th century with women at the center of the discussion. This highlights the "Otherness" of women and the "remainder" of maleness as the "unmarked" standard. Instead, to examine women's status, gender and women are combined as a distinct, fixed, and self-evident category. Men's magazines' role in creating or reproducing different forms of masculinity has only recently come to the forefront of discussion. Rarely is the constructed relationship between femininity and masculinity researched. Gender has mainly been invoked to raise one question could or should women reporters try to act like men, or would they be better served if women produced distinctive forms? This question arises whether the newsroom is treated as a literal site, an institution, or a set of cultural practices.

The New York Tribune crime reporter Ishbel Ross was herself praised by her editor Stanley Walker as the paragon of newspaperwomen precisely for achieving this standard. At least until the 1950s, newsmen reserved their highest compliments for a very few women whose work

was "just like men's." The first book-length history of female reporters, Ross' Ladies of the Press, acknowledged that even successful front-page girls had not revolutionized newsrooms. The few women who wrote women's journalism textbooks took a pragmatic approach and urged other women to do the same. The fact of sex, or the "woman's angle," is the woman writer's tool, but it must never be her weapon, insisted Ethel Brazelton, who taught journalism for women at Northwestern University. "But being a woman, she is possessed of a real advantage in the business of doing, recording, and interpreting women's interests, ways, and work," Brazelton insisted.

On the other hand, since the turn of the century, women reporters' autobiographies and other self-reports have emphasized more and more how they avoided becoming "sob sisters" or "agony aunts," regardless of pay. In order to put it simply, tracing the evolution of gender in the newsroom involves going from the initial consensus among women and men journalists that women's role was to write with a woman's "touch" about women for women readers, whose interests were seen as dichotomously different from men's; to a claim by women that they could produce the same "unmarked" journalism as men, who in turn disputed these claims in order to protect their status, jobs, and salaries. Women's issues served as the initial entry point for women in the media. Pauline Frederick, for instance, first covered women's issues for radio before being hired by ABC to conduct interviews with political candidates' wives. But it wasn't the aim of women. Women realized that these explicitly female forms represented professional ghettoes rather than socialization or even instincts at all [3], [4].

Over the course of the twentieth century, the story became more complex and contentious. As a result, men now claim that gender is irrelevant in modern newsrooms, which they perceive as being altered by new economic constraints, technologies, audiences, professional standards, and the overt presence of women. Ironically, recent criticisms of the feminization of newsrooms may be responses to new feminine forms. In contrast, they might illustrate how women are overrepresented in media or how people remember them more for their appearance. It might be related to the backlash against feminism. While this is going on, the majority of female journalists themselves concur with men that gender is a non-issue. Women and other "minorities" defined by race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and class challenge employment discrimination on the basis of merit and professional status. Scholars no longer use naturalized definitions of women but still treat gender as having inherent and permanent significance. Therefore, academics contend that diversity is important and that inclusion is required because women and men in journalism work differently and/or should. They claim that these groups won't be "well" reported on in terms of quantity or quality because of the actual or perceived absence of women in the newsroom.

DISCUSSION

Susan Estrich, a law professor and freelance opinion writer, criticized a male editor for not running enough columns by women in 2005, which sparked the controversy.

The Women's Liberation Movement

Although sympathetic female reporters managed to persuade their sexist male editors in the 1960s to insert some women's issues, such as rape laws, into the women's pages by appearing objective to them and sounding objective themselves , the structure of the US news media and the women's liberation movement's refusal to name spokespeople both worked against publicity for that movement. The National Organization for Women made a lot of effort to engage the news media and forge connections with female journalists. The movement received media attention, whether as a result of the pro-active information subsidies provided by women's organizations or the agitprop attempts of radical feminists. Additionally, the women's

movement had a significant impact on newsrooms. First, women journalists used statutory and legal channels to challenge discriminatory hiring and promotion practices at several news organizations after being inspired and given confidence by the movement. Each victory allowed women to advance.

Less is known about the effects of content in the long run. According to a Los Angeles Times reporter, this increased number of female reporters had a significant, favorable effect. Women reporters are allegedly more likely to use women, feminist organizations, and "regular people" as sources, which benefits newsroom diversity by covering social issues and topics that appeal to women. Women undoubtedly took action to destroy women's pages, first at The Washington Post and other prestigious publications, then at smaller publications. Since Jane Cunningham Croly founded a women's section for the New York Daily World in the 1890s, both white and black newsrooms have employed women as editors of these sections. Some women's page editors attempted to broaden these sections' racial, political, and social horizons in the 1950s and 1960s, but their efforts were insufficient and inconsistent. Second-wave feminists who had recently gained their independence criticized these sections once more for imposing "symbolic annihilation" that was comparable to other sexist forms that denigrated or denigrated women. Eliminating women's pages had the immediate consequence of eliminating the single editorial slot designated for women, as is emphasized in several oral histories sponsored by the Washington Press Club Foundation. Similar dynamics were at play in Ireland, where "real reporters" looked down on women's pages until the Irish Times allowed women to redesign the women's pages to include "serious" reporting in the late 1960s. The section was quickly eliminated because Maeve Binchy, who served as its second editor and is now a bestselling author, felt that women didn't need their own section. Ironically, some US newspapers reinstated women's pages in the 1980s to appease advertisers. Both experiments demonstrate how marketing considerations drive the sex-binary packaging of news and the construction of women as interested in lifestyle and domesticity rather than the distinct values held by women [5], [6].

The second wave of the women's movement encouraged research on women's culture and work and created a market for that research. It also encouraged women to pursue their interests in women's history and enter the academy. The next step was, as another title put it, Great Women of the Press and full-bore biographies of single individuals. Marzolf's ground-breaking history brought long-forgotten women "Up from the Footnote." Theoretically sophisticated histories of women's journalism around the world as well as more specialized categories such as black women, war reporters, and sob sisters were eventually explored by scholars. More importantly, researchers reexamined the notion that newsroom practices are the inescapable direct product of professional routines and socialization, with management defining the skills and talents they want in terms of what historically increased circulation and status. The research agenda itself was influenced by new ideas about how journalists' gendered identities matter, as well as justifications for why newsroom diversity is important. This led to a rethinking of how women react to the dynamics and structures of newsrooms, as well as what constitutes news or newsrooms.

Alternative Media for Women

The women-led news media, which began with periodicals published by young US textile workers in the middle of the nineteenth century and may have been the first sustained efforts by women to produce their own news and thereby redefine themselves, was one of the main research areas for the second-wave generation. Periodicals of the women's movement are still of interest because of their significance in explaining, defending, and sustaining women's liberation as well as in debating alternative models of womanhood. Suffrage journals covered

a wide range of topics, such as politics, law, labor, and health, in addition to voting. Their editors established their own community and were involved in other reform movements and periodicals. Their publications can also be examined in terms of newsroom policies, such as how they deal with accommodating family obligations, their dedication to journalism education, and their efforts to reform journalism along feminist lines. A gendered community of activists grew as a result of the 150 women-run UK political papers that were published between 1856 and 1930. These papers persuaded women that they could "affect social change by creating a new gender-based political culture" that commandeered public space [7]–[9].

Periodicals published by feminists in the 20th century are crucial forums as well. For instance, Time and Tide was founded as a result of frustration with both UK mainstream newspapers that denigrated women and advocacy publications that had a narrow focus on women. The femi- nist periodicals that exploded in the US in the 1970s had a more limited audience than the earlier US and UK publications; they were written for, about, and generally by a specific demographic, including ecofeminists, prostitutes, celibates, older women, Marxists, feminist witches, and a variety of other interests and professions. They also loudly denounced sexist stereotypes and were more self-consciously experimental in rejecting traditional definitions of newsworthiness and newsroom structures. Off our Backs has been published since 1970 by a collective that still works by consensus. The statement "We intend to be just; but we do not pretend to be impartial" rejects conventional principles.

Despite this, Ms. refused to publish "complimentary copy" for advertisers and abandoned all advertising for many years. Otherwise, the heads of feminist newsrooms lacked experience in commercial journalism and did not see themselves as journalists first and foremost. Nevertheless, they offered opportunities for both professional and industrial growth, including in journalism. For instance, Amelia Bloomer, who founded The Lily in 1849 as "a medium through which woman's thoughts and aspirations might be developed," was prepared to delay publication in order to mentor her own female printers. They kept subscription costs affordable for women who are unpaid or have low incomes and restricted advertising to what they deemed appropriate. Given their amateurish writing, disregard for aesthetics, lack of long-term business strategies, inefficiency brought on by collective or horizontal organization, and obsession with principle, feminist political papers are certainly subject to the criticisms of alternative media.

These criticisms make it possible to conduct research on how new media, such as satellite radio, public access cable channels, and Internet zines, can cover global issues that are challenging to discuss elsewhere. Women's voices were once only heard on shows that helped women with domestic duties because they were thought to annoy listeners even in mainstream and commercial radio. The majority of reporters, hosts of news programs, and interviewers today are women. More importantly, feminist public affairs programs and even radio stations run by women are active internationally with varying degrees of feminism. WINGS provides feminist news to radio stations, while Feminist International Radio Endeavor establishes an Internet-based global news flow. Third-wave feminists also adhere to what seem to be entirely new principles.

Empirical Evidence of Values Discrimination Based on Gender

According to national surveys, gender is not a good indicator of differences in professional practices. Men and women both share a similar conception of the function of news and assessment of the morality of reporting techniques. However, feminist theory contends that social identities, which are in turn impacted by naturally gendered experiences, disparities in upbringing, and social history, shape our ways of thinking and knowing. According to Rogers and Thorson, "men and women socialize differently into the workplace because men and

women have different values and priorities". They had predicted that, "like females in other professions," women reporters would have distinctive values, interests, and priorities that would affect how stories are researched, sourced, framed, and written because men and women have different identities. However, women at the large paper sourced and framed stories much like their male counterparts, according to Rogers and Thorson's content analysis of three newspapers, which revealed that women drew from a greater variety of female and ethnic sources, especially in positive stories. In general, women journalists, with their distinctive "woman view," tend to be more interested in their audience and more concerned with context, according to Van Zoonen. According to her, women question the objectivity of male journalists because they think that men use objectivity as a defense against the empathy and sensitivity that journalism demands [10], [11].

War reporting is arguably still the most contentious field for women, with audiences accusing women, especially mothers, of putting their bodies in danger while also offering the chance for a career-making reputation. The question of whether women and men report differently during times of war has also sparked an unusually heated debate among readers, journalists, and academics. The first conflict where women participated in a sizable proportion was the Vietnam War. Some women discovered that because of their visibility, they were acknowledged at press conferences and received the first responses to their inquiries. Margaret Gallagher, who published significant comparative research on the exclusion of women around the world, contends that gender is still a professional issue that needs to be addressed in fact, in novel, innovative ways.

Her Global Media Monitoring initiatives, however, challenge the notion that the increasing participation of women in journalism in most nations will significantly alter the nature of the work. There is no single group of women. Many people are insensitive to the historical changes made by feminists and have no sympathy for the feminist movement as a whole. In conclusion, women are aware that many of their male coworkers are sexist, but they largely accept the structures of journalism as a profession and opt to support its compensation structure. Furthermore, the gender socialization theory is unable to explain why some women reject their gender. In large part because it ignores the crucial way to understand gender not as a role, much less a static and dichotomous set of differences between women and men but as a performance, a relational act, it neither accounts for the chicken/egg debate on the domestic front nor resolves the issue at the front of battle . Men and women both perform gender, sometimes in a creative way and other times not, and they also inspire others to do the same.

Reporting on television

It is impossible to ignore the persistent focus on women's physical appearance in this situation. In 1963, Nancy Dickerson became the first woman to host a five-minute afternoon newscast. She was also the first to be marketed as an attractive woman, though she was by no means the last. A Washington Post writer named Sally Quinn, who failed miserably as a CBS co-anchor in 1973, is one example of an attractive woman who was promoted by the internet but was not yet ready for major prominence. When market researchers discovered that Jessica Savitch "scored as high with men, who saw her as a sex object, as with women, who saw her as a role model", they decided to promote the inexperienced journalist. Twenty years later, BBC war reporter Kate Adie laments the fact that even female war reporters, like herself, are judged solely on their outward appearance. According to Adie, TV executives prefer women with "cute faces and cute bottoms" to those with professional experience. And as Christine Craft showed, women's attractiveness has a finite shelf life. Craft spent eight months as a co-anchor for an ABC affiliate in 1981 after being "made over" into a platinum blonde for CBS. The

reason was that according to focus group data, she was "too old, too unattractive, and wouldn't defer to men."

Personal Harassment and Sex

The relationship between journalists and sources is one of the most researched newsroom topics. The relationship is particularly tense when the journalist is a woman because most sources are people in positions of authority, and most people in positions of authority are men. Male journalists dislike their female counterparts because they perceive it as a competitive advantage. A Chicago anchor was fired for an implied relationship with a male source, and Univision demoted a television anchor for her relationship with the mayor of Los Angeles in 2007. On the other hand, using sexuality can backfire against women. Despite this, there is a surprising lack of research on sex and sexuality, including the relationships between journalists and their sources, the significance of the public's and journalists' attitudes toward sex, and the potential effects of sexuality and sexual orientation. If female journalists had previously refrained from reporting allegations of sexual harassment, the 1990s saw a sharp rise in these claims as well as the introduction of new legal sanctions. Reporters kept implying that they transcend their bodies or that their experiences as embodied beings have no bearing on them.

CONCLUSION

An essential yet complex component of contemporary journalism is the place of gender in the newsroom. This study shows that gender has an impact on every step of news production, from story selection to audience participation. Even though there have been significant advancements in the field of gender equality, issues like stereotypes and gender-based prejudice still exist. Nevertheless, there are positive indications of change, with rising awareness inspiring programs designed to promote inclusivity and fair reporting. It takes ongoing work, policy changes, and cultural shifts to create a newsroom environment that truly reflects the diversity of society.

The news industry can get closer to fulfilling its ethical duty to provide the public with unbiased, equitable, and representative information by acknowledging the power dynamics associated with gender and working cooperatively to remove barriers.

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CHAPTER 12
A REVIEW ON CROSS-PLATFORM CONTENT PRODUCTION AND CONVERGENCE

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ABSTRACT:

The buzzword "convergence" has come to represent quick changes in media markets, production, content, and consumption. Though the issues go beyond those brought on by the technology itself, the term broadly refers to the blending or merging of previously distinct media technologies, primarily based on digitization processes. Researchers in journalism have primarily focused on "newsroom convergence," especially in relation to changes in work routines and organizational structures related to the production of content across media platforms. The meaning of the term has been expanded to include a convergence of the roles of journalists and audience members within a networked digital environment as a result of a related and more recent area of investigation. Convergence is defined at the outset of this chapter, along with some of its overall effects on the newsroom. Then, we move on to a number of important areas of convergence research, including the functions and practices of newsrooms, journalistic output, and user-generated content. We discuss the technological, social, and ethical aspects of convergence before offering recommendations for additional study.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Convergence, Media, Telecommunications, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

Behind The Buzzword: Convergence Approach

In the last 20 years, profound changes have shook contemporary societies all over the world. Rapid advancements in computer technology and communication networks, which have an impact on almost all facets of social life, including the economy, politics, science, and arts, have been linked to many of the changes. A particularly significant change has been occurring in the way that public communication is organized. Mainstream mass media, which was once a reliable system, is now being challenged by a variety of dynamic information and entertainment sources that people can access via interactive devices like computers, mobile phones, personal digital assistants, and gaming consoles. The definition of "convergence" has been expanded to include all of these implications, even though its original meaning was limited to the increasing correspondence between two phenomena or entities, such as two media technologies, that might eventually come together [1], [2].

As early as the mid-1990s, the conclusion that "Convergence is a dangerous word!" was reached due to the variety of possible interpretations, and the discussion has not gotten any more focused since. The term "convergence" has been used to describe how lines between fixed and mobile communications, broadcast, telephone, mobile, and home networks, media, information, and communication, and most notably telecommunications, media, and information technology, are becoming increasingly blurred. The term has also been used in the context of media to refer to technological advancements like the incorporation of online video, cross-promotional marketing initiatives among media partners, and corporate mergers.

All approaches to convergence include the idea of a process, despite diverging in many ways, and the majority place emphasis on the technological foundation of developments. As a result, there is a widespread misconception that technology "drives" media change, which is a technological determinism that disregards social factors. Instead, social scientists have focused on the human side of technological advancement, for example, by describing how people use and interpret new tools. The production of content for various media platforms, as well as the corresponding changes in work practices, technical proficiency, and newsroom culture, have received the majority of attention from journalism practitioners and scholars. Thus, the term "convergence" has a specific, specialized, and socially significant meaning for those working in the field of journalism [3].

However, there are some differences here as well. "Converged" news organizations have primarily been defined in the United States as those in which newspaper staff members produce content for television and vice versa, typically with both contributing to an associated Web site. The partnerships have typically produced less than full convergence, which in an ideal world would entail planning and producing stories based on the advantages of each medium. The majority, however, still include cross-promotion of the partnered products while maintaining elements of rivalry between journalists working in various newsrooms. Around the world, this fundamental form of cross-media production can be seen as a relatively cautious attempt to deal with technological change and related user expectations. For large media companies, who frequently have content for different media platforms for example, television and print and are interested in developing synergistic strategies for using it, the question of how to do journalism in a networked digital environment has been particularly important. To "shovel" content from one platform to another is the most straightforward solution.

DISCUSSION

Producing parallel content for two media platforms, one of which is digital, has been a more popular and sophisticated convergence strategy. Journalists are no longer writing stories for a single medium thanks to this cross-platform content creation; instead, they are gathering information in a content pool and distributing it in a number of formats, such as the Internet and, more and more, portable devices like cell phones and PDAs, as shown in Figure 1. As a result, journalists today need to develop a more sophisticated vocabulary of media technologies to effectively communicate. This convergence model still relies on a central institution to gather and distribute information despite these significant changes in the news production process. This still adheres to the "mass media," top-down publishing model in many ways. The other fundamental aspect of the Internet is now accessible to journalists thanks to the convergence of media formats around an online delivery platform. The Internet is a network both technologically and socially, connecting communicative agents such as individuals and institutionalized actors. It is also based on digital information, making it capable of supporting various types of content. This latter modification has broad ramifications. Although networks typically have central and peripheral components and are subject to power laws that affect information distribution, their structure is not hierarchical in the conventional sense. Instead, networks can be decentralized. As a result, information in a "converged" digital news product can also come from users, who in the past served as a largely passive audience for journalism. This expansion of the media landscape through user and community involvement represents a type of convergence that will probably present journalists with an even bigger challenge than learning new tools and techniques [4]–[6].
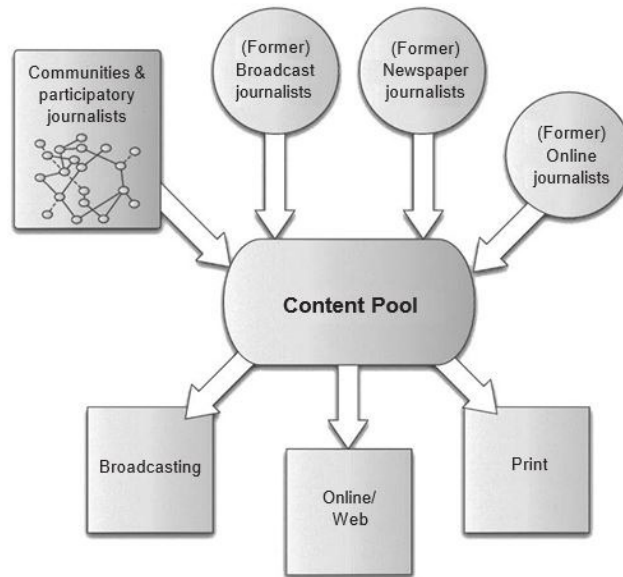
Figure 1: Converged Production Via Central Content Pool.

Information can spread between communicator nodes on the Internet without the aid of a formal "mass medium" because it is both a technological and a social network. Thus, the convergence of producers and consumers leads to what Bruns refers to as "produsage". This change has an impact on how journalists approach their work as well as how they think about those roles in society. There is a chance for greater inclusion of people and communities as the nature of public communication changes. When each citizen in the network can get a personalized set of information from every possible source without the need for an institutionalized pre-selection authority called "journalism," some researchers predict that institutionalized media will play a smaller role in society or even disappear entirely. Others question whether most people desire such a radical model; after all, institutionalized forms of journalism ensure a certain level of product quality, lessen the difficulty of social communication and the labor required to produce it, and provide society with a shared meaning in the form of content that is accessible to large audiences.

Research on Convergence

Media convergence processes are neither new nor unique to the Internet. Over the years, numerous advancements in media technologies have caused the integration of previously separate media products and functions. Digital media have, however, been closely examined throughout their development due to the pervasiveness of the current shift and the maturation of journal-ism studies as a field of study. Researchers have noticed a kind of paradigm shift as a result of the rapidly changing frames of reference and objects of observation. Continuous change has meant new outlets, production structures, and work rules for journalists who, until very recently, produced content for a single media product that they alone controlled and to which they alone contributed.

These changes have had a significant and erratic impact. In actuality, it is best to think of convergence as what Boczkowski describes as "a contingent process in which actors may follow diverging paths as a result of various combinations of technological, local, and environmental factors". This section examines scholarly investigation into these developments and elements. We start with studies that looked into how cross-platform production affected journalists' jobs and daily schedules.

Routines and roles in the newsroom

The effects of convergence on how journalists "make news" have been a major focus of academic research on convergence. It builds on a substantial body of research in the sociology of news that has provided insights into the process by which journalists turn events, and to a lesser extent, ideas and issues, into news products fit for public consumption. Journalists' societal contributions have been the subject of research in a related field, particularly in terms of supplying the information that democratic citizens require for efficient self-government. As the Internet and other digital technologies increasingly take over news gathering and selection processes, the gatekeeping role has perhaps been the one that has been most directly impacted by technological advancements.

 To ensure that "the community shall hear as a fact only those events which the newsman, as the representative of his culture, believes to be true", the journalist in a traditional media environment chooses a relatively small number of stories for dissemination and rejects the remainder. The idea of discrete gates through which information must pass, however, stops being a useful conceptualization of how "news" reaches the public when anyone can publish almost anything. If there are no gates, there can be no gatekeepers. As the mass media audience has fragmented and the number of information providers has increased exponentially, related media roles, such as agenda setters, are also hotly debated. In addition, in a participatory, networked information environment, the journalistic norms that have developed to protect such roles, particularly the fiercely guarded ethic of professional independence, are open to challenge [7], [8].

Numerous studies on newsroom convergence have looked at how these roles and practices are affected. The most common research methods have been questionnaires and ethnographic observations, usually in the form of case studies of particular news organizations. One of the most resounding conclusions is that many journalists, though not all of them, have approached convergence with great trepidation. Journalists who felt that their unique skills were valued less than before and that the changes that came along with them in the newsroom had disrupted "professional status, traditional hierarchies, career opportunities," among other negative effects, were angered and frustrated by the BBC's relatively early move toward convergence in Britain .

 Early attempts to converge newsrooms in Germany resulted in professional and occasionally even personal differences between journalists from various backgrounds. The "electronic media" plans for the national German daily FAZ were one example of how attempts to combine the production for various media in one company or even an integrated newsroom led to severe organizational issues and subsequent economic failure. According to a national survey of newsroom managers and employees conducted in the United States in 2002, journalists believed that media companies would benefit most from convergence rather than practitioners or the general public.

Such issues with acceptance in newsrooms have a systemic cause: Multi-skilled journalists could produce more content at little or no additional cost to the organization, according to a potential business model suggested by convergence. In general, journalists, who are taught to be skeptics, have a tendency to distrust organizations where the benefits of the necessary change are ambiguous or even, to some, outright suspect. It is still unclear whether these critical or even opposing viewpoints signify more than just initial, transient skepticism. Singer found that although some journalists were dissatisfied with particular aspects of convergence, they generally supported the idea and even thought that converged operations could strengthen their public service mission in her case studies of converged newsrooms in the United States.

Bressers and Meeds propose four areas that might help predict levels of integration, focusing on the convergence of newspaper and online operations: organizational and management issues, communication and attitudinal issues, physical proximity and equipment-sharing issues, and workflow and content issues. Together, these point to a potentially significant shift in newsroom culture, and other scholarly research has also highlighted the significance of this change. According to Lawson-Borders, the success of convergence depends on the blending of cultural dynamics unique to individual media.

Stereotyping, disagreements over staffing and time management, and issues with news flow are just a few of the issues that could arise from different media routines, especially those of print and broadcast journalists. Singer argued that even though many print journalists still saw their online and broadcast counterparts as distinct from them and had little interaction with them, convergence was forcing them to go through a process of resocialization. Additionally, the practices and organizational frameworks of newsrooms did not translate perfectly across platforms, and competitive tendencies could thwart even modest requests for cooperation or information sharing among convergence partners. According to a survey-based study by Filak, print journalists believed their professional culture to be superior to that of broadcast journalists, and vice versa. Furthermore, these inter-group biases tended to be shared and accepted by members of each news culture.

The author emphasized the importance of including both groups in planning for news organizations looking to converge their newsrooms in order to reduce the likelihood that the impetus will be seen as coming from an outgroup and subsequently rejected [9]–[11].In order to demonstrate their commitment to convergence, organizations must make it a part of their mission and philosophy, as well as the way they conduct business, according to scholars researching these and other challenges of managing this cultural change. Convergence is supported and expected, so management must communicate this clearly. The need for thorough and targeted staff training, a carefully crafted action plan to foster understanding across all levels of the organization, and open, ongoing conversation to address any value discrepancies and debunk corporate myths were highlighted in Killebrew's overview of issues facing managers of converged newsrooms.

Empirical studies have highlighted these needs and also shown how frequently they are not met. Inclusion of online staff in daily news planning sessions was emphasized in a survey of US newspaper executives, as was the use of a central news desk to handle stories for various platforms—something that the majority of news operations did not yet actually have . A perceived lack of training was cited by Singer as a hindrance to convergence, primarily because it encouraged anxiety over the alleged complexity of the tools required for cross-platform content production.

 Her studies also emphasized the value of open lines of communication between individuals, especially between journalists working in partnered newsrooms, and they described management's attempts to allay concerns about the motivations and values of employees by letting them decide to what extent they would participate in convergence activities, which tended to result in relatively low levels of participation, especially in larger newsrooms [12], [13].

Compensation or, more precisely, the lack of it has been a significant sticking point. Unsurprisingly, news staffers in the United States who participated in Huang et al.'s national survey believed they should be paid for creating stories for various media platforms, but their newsroom managers disagreed. Singer's case studies also showed that in some newsrooms, resentment of what journalists perceived as extra work for no additional pay had an impact on

both general morale and openness to convergence. In several nations, including the United States and Great Britain, unions that represent journalists have expressed concerns about convergence. In the latter country, the National Union of Journalists has negotiated "enabling agreements" with media companies and issued convergence guidelines that address, among other things, pay, time demands, and training.

CONCLUSION

Convergence and cross-platform content creation are essential tactics for businesses and content producers to succeed in the fast-paced digital era. In addition to maximizing audience reach, the capacity to adapt and distribute content across a variety of platforms also promotes deeper audience engagement and improved user experiences. Cross-platform content production has many advantages over single-platform content creation, including increased visibility and new revenue streams, despite obstacles like platform-specific requirements and developing technologies. Convergence must be prioritized by content producers if they want to stay competitive and current as the media landscape changes. Adopting a comprehensive strategy for content creation and convergence will make it possible to design immersive, cohesive, and memorable user experiences for audiences on a wide range of constantly growing digital platforms.

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