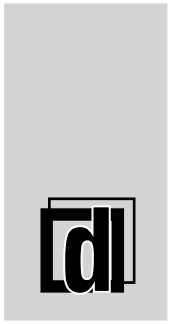
TRAINING FOR JOURNALISM

Rabin Khemchand
Hemal Thakker



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Knowledge is Our Business

TRAINING FOR JOURNALISM
By Rabin Khemchand, Hemal Thakker

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Registered Office: 4378/4-B, Murari Lal Street, Ansari Road,
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Ph. +91-11-23281685, 41043100, Fax: +91-11-23270680

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Ph. 0120-4270027, 4273334

e-mail: dominantbooks@gmail.com
info@dominantbooks.com

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

EVOLUTION OF JOURNALISM STUDIES FROM NORMATIVE ROOTS TO EMPIRICAL INSIGHTS

Hemal Thakker, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- hemal.thakker@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Since humanity realized they needed to exchange knowledge about themselves with others, journalism has existed. The study of journalism, however, is a relatively recent development. There are a number of reasons why it is useful for academics to study journalism. First, news affects how we see the outside world, ourselves, and other people. Our common realities are created and maintained by the tales that journalists tell. As a result, news has the potential to play a crucial role in tying people together on a social level. By reading tales about big and little current events, we establish an imagined community of other readers. We learn about ourselves as subjects in local, national, and increasingly global settings via the rituals of reading and debating journalistic materials. Particularly, it is believed that democracy and media 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 is, in a nutshell, the stuff that makes political action possible.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism Research, Journalism History, Journalism Education, Journalism Theory, Media Studies, News Media.

INTRODUCTION

Not many academics have such a positive outlook on the survival and future of journalism in its structured and professional form. Journalism as we know it has been declared dead and referred to as a zombie institution with the development of interactive communication technologies, and experts continue to make predictions about the end of journalism. Many theorists are particularly concerned about the likely demise of conventional political journalism because its loss would rob us of the centerpiece of deliberative politics. To paraphrase Mark Twain, reports that journalism is dead may be grossly overstated. Perhaps we're seeing the re-invention of journalism rather than its demise. Journalism promotes the fundamental narratives of modernity and serves as a repository for our collective memory, making it the principal sense-making practice of modernity as a literary form, according to Hartley. It is primarily via journalistic writings that historians and other observers of a period comprehend that age, through reports of and responses to events and individuals. Journalistic texts comprise the first draft of history [1]. News stories depict the constant drama of the conflicts between the prevailing ideology and its opponents since journalism is the principal method for expressing and acting out both consensus and disagreements in society.

Given how vital journalism is to society, it is crucial for anybody who wants to comprehend modern culture to study it. It is becoming more and more common to do this. Today, the study of journalism is a rapidly expanding discipline 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 departments in recent years. Brazilian Journalism Research, 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 [2], [3].

The area of journalism studies has developed into a mature discipline with its own body of ideas and literature. Books written for a research readership in journalism are progressively becoming available. Journalism studies as a field has been strengthened by recent publications like Journalism, Key concepts in journalism studies, journalism. A reader, and social meanings of news, a text-reader. A companion to news and journalism studies and an introductory textbook on journalism research are currently under development. However, the origins and subsequent development of this consolidating area are many and intricate. Here, we identify four distinct, but overlapping and co-existing phases in the history of journalism research: While the field originated in normative research on the function of the press in society conducted by German scholars, it rose to prominence with the empirical turn, which was especially significant in the United States, was enriched by a subsequent sociological turn, which was particularly significant among Anglo-American scholars, and has now expanded its scope with the global-comparative turn to reflect international issues [4], [5].

A Synopsis of Journalism Studies' History

On the stage of academic study, journalism studies may be seen as both a rookie and an experienced player in various respects. The majority of commentators consider that the start of academic research in the area coincided with the development of journalism as a profession and a social force in the early 20th century. Some people, however, have discovered even older precursors. James Carey and Hanno Hardt noted that many of the early ideas for study on journalism and communication originated in Germany in the middle of the 19th century. As a result, the work of critical German social theorists, which highlighted the normative impulses that gave the discipline its starting impetus, may be seen as the "prehistory" of journalism studies study. Hanno Hardt identified similarities, differences, and continuities between and among early German and American philosophers on the press in his now-classic study on Social Theories of the Press. It identified the writings of Karl Marx, Albert Schaffle, Karl Knies, Karl Bucher, Ferdinand Tonnies, and Max Weber among German thinkers of the late 19th and early 20th centuries as being especially significant in their notions of the social role of journalism [6].

The history of journalism studies in Germany, Robert Eduard Prutz's writings might be seen as the forerunner of modern journalism theory.

The History of German Journalism was published by Prutz in 1845, many years before news-paper studies became a recognized topic of study. The majority of early German theorists saw journalism as a skill practiced by more or less capable people, and they did it through a historical and normative perspective. The procedures and structures of news creation were not as important to journalism experts as what journalism should be in the context of social communication and political debate. In many respects, the macro-sociological approach to journalism has persisted in German communication scholarship often at the cost of empirical study. Although Max Weber asked for a thorough study of journalists in a 1910 speech to the first annual meeting of German sociologists, such papers was not conducted until the early 1990s [7].

Observational Turn

Only in the framework of journalism training, initially and foremost in the United States, did an interest in the structures, procedures, and personnel of news creation begin to take hold. In this way, the motivation in sharing information about their work among professional educators contributed to the beginning of empirical journalistic research as opposed to normative or theoretical study on the subject. Undoubtedly, the study of journalism emerged from professional education in the US and was often administrative in character. This new era in journalism studies was ushered in with the founding of Journalism Quarterly in 1924. The inaugural issue had, among other things, an article by Willard Daddy Bleyer of the University of Wisconsin detailing important methods of newspaper study. Bleyer had a key role in launching a new era of journalism research that treated journalism seriously as both a practical undertaking and a subject of study, as noted by Rogers and Chaffee. In the 1930s, Bleyer went on to create a PhD minor inside sociology and political science doctorate programs that already existed [8].

Other nations, including the UK and Denmark, had journalism education outside of academic institutions. Journalists there were taught via apprenticeships and skill-based short courses inside news companies. Under such circumstances, students studied classes in subjects like shorthand and journalism law since 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 could be one of the main explanations for why journalism studies have traditionally been multidisciplinary. When early communication research first appeared in the 1950s, it gave the empirical study of journalism a fresh lease of life in the United States. This study was led by eminent personalities including 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 effect strengthened the empirical shift, which used techniques like surveys and experiments to comprehend how news media function [9].

While audiences and media impacts dominated study during this time, the developing discipline of journalism studies gradually began to focus on news people and their professional ideals, as well as editorial structures and practices. The gatekeeper model, the professionalization paradigm, and theories of news values and agenda framing are only a few examples of ideas and notions that were developed from and are founded on empirical study. They have produced real journalism ideas that are still relevant and significant, and their pioneering research is among the very few works in the history of journalism studies that can be generally referred to as "classics." And although while many of their theories may appear out of date and have been supplanted by more recent study, they are nevertheless influential in the sense that they have created substantial research traditions. These traditional works may not be the most advanced in either theory or method, but they capture the imagination [10].

Social-Science Turn

Sociology and anthropology had a greater impact on journal-ism research in the 1970s and 1980s, which resulted in the area 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 introduction of qualitative approaches, most notably ethnographic and discourse analytical strategies, coincided with the growing emphasis given to cultural concerns. Sociologists such Gaye Tuchman, Herbert J. Gans, Philip Schlesinger, and Peter Golding, as well as proponents of cultural studies like James Carey, Stuart Hall, John Hartley, and Barbie Zelizer, are some of the individuals who have had 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 [11].

The Turn to Global Comparison

Finally, the 1990s saw a global-comparative turn in journalism studies. While Jack McLeod pioneered cross-cultural research in the 1960s, it took until the past two decades for the comparative study of journalism to establish a tradition of its own.1 Political changes 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 feasible for journalism scholars to connect with colleagues from a distance more often. New communication technologies have sparked the growth of organized, multinational scientific networks, and it is now much simpler to get financing for such projects. The study of journalism is becoming into an international and cooperative effort as the field itself becomes a more widespread phenomenon [12].

Currently journalism studies

Despite the relentless march of globalization, the field of journalism studies continues to be one of the most diversified in academia. Due to the field's unequal borrowing from the social sciences and humanities, this variety has been greatly influenced by many national traditions. Research in the UK and Australia has developed within a critical tradition inspired by British cultural studies, whereas US scholarship stands out for its strong empirical and quantitative concentration and use of middle-range theories. German scholarship, on the other hand, has a heritage of thinking journalism on a macro scale, inspired by systems theory and other theories of social differentiation, in contrast to French journalism study, which strongly leans on semiology and structuralism and is essentially invisible to the world academy. As a result of their extensive American education, many journalism scholars in Asia have a very American perspective. On the other hand, Latin American scholars are now changing their focus, moving away from dependence on US precedents and toward Mediterranean nations, particularly Spain, Portugal, and France [13].

Despite the field's rising globalization, Anglo-American researchers continue to dominate the major English-language journals, but with a constantly increasing number of submissions from other countries. Scholarship from or about other nations is a clear exception in Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, which until recently was the most significant home for publications in journalism studies. Only two out of the journal's 80 editors and editorial board members are from countries other than the United States, which speaks volumes about the strong American domination. JMCQ is produced by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, however numerous journalism and communication schools throughout the globe also often utilize the magazine as a source and a reference [14].

However, some academic associations, such as the International Association for Media and Communication Research and the International Communication Association, are working

hard to increase their international membership and visibility while actively promoting a more equal representation of academics from all over the world. By increasing the variety of the countries represented on their editorial boards, new academic publications, such as Journalism: Theory, Practice and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice, have purposefully positioned themselves as being more international in scope. Scholars from outside the English-speaking world still make up a small minority, and the majority of editors and editorial board members are situated in the US and the UK. In light of this, the results of a recent investigation on contributions to journalism.

Overall, the findings show that North America and Europe dominate academic output. This predominance is particularly pronounced in JS, where nine out of 10 published papers are written by someone in the US or Europe. The bulk of the papers in JTPC are from North American universities, while the majority of the publications in JS are from European schools. Less than one in ten JS writers are from outside the US or Europe. As a result of contributions from Asia and Australia, JTPC performs somewhat better, scoring around three out of twenty. Few academics from African and South American universities have made significant contributions to either publication [15].

Cushion also points out that over a third of writers in Journalism Studies and almost half of all authors in Journalism originate from American colleges. As a result, the activity of US news organizations is very well mapped, but we know very little about what happens in newsrooms and media content in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The geographical origins of authors are also strongly predictive of the region they investigate. Journalists, their methods, and the writings they create are the subject of most study that has been published in these publications and elsewhere. For instance, a review of articles published in the last ten years in the three top journals might provide insight into the interests of journalism academics. Much of the recent study on journalistic texts is being driven by the framing research paradigm in the US environment, but researchers in other countries are more likely to rely on discourse and textual analysis. But Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly has always relied heavily on content analysis, as shown by the fact that, for instance, a quarter of papers published between 1975 and 1995 did so. However, compared to the other journals, JMCQ publishes a lot more research on news audiences since it often welcomes submissions based on experimental studies inspired by the effects tradition. The third-person effect and the use of ideas like salience and attribution have both been the subject of several papers. However, the bulk of the essays continue to concentrate on the psychology and sociology of journalism [16].

The field is heavily influenced by a specific set of normative presumptions that we should do well to consider, 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 assume, as implied at the beginning of this chapter, that journalism is a helpful force of social good, necessary for citizenship, and that it constitutes a fourth estate or plays as a result, we also presume that journalists see themselves as autonomous actors for the public good and as protectors of free speech. The problems that motivated the work of the pioneering German philosophers are shared by researchers of all shades working in the field of journalism studies today. By relying on these presumptions, we fail to acknowledge the truth that the press has really been highly manipulated in many regions of the globe outside of the liberal and often libertarian Anglo-American heritage.

The use of journalism to propagate national social-its ideology in Nazi Germany and China's "watchdogs on party leashes" are just two examples of how totalitarian governments throughout the globe have shown a deep knowledge of the power of the press. We shouldn't

disregard the role that media has had in promoting atrocities, fostering bigotry, and igniting violence. This has a strong body of evidence, as shown in the examples of Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Rwanda. Since the contentious publishing of cartoons depicting the Prophet Muhammad in the Danish daily Jyllands-Posten, it has become clear that in a globalized society, assertions of free speech universalism run afoul of cultural and religious sensitivities [17], [18].

DISCUSSION

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. First, in their chapter on journalism history, Kevin Barnhurst and John Nerone present a wider background for tracing the connections between the history of journalism and journalism history study. By emphasizing the experiences of white male professionals, they contend that conventional histories of journalism essentialize journalism, treating what journalists do as an unproblematically set of existing practices and construct journalism itself as a universal subject position. The chapters by Barbie Zelizer and BeateJosephi explore the controversial and dynamic connections that exist between and among researchers, educators, and journalists. Josephi's chapter details the diversity of approaches to teaching journalism around the world, demonstrating that while the US model has been dominant in scholarship, it does little to reflect the variety of experiences and educational models that prevail globally [19]. Zelizer claims that the disconnect between journalism and the academic world echoes a broader disjunction characterizing journalism's uneven and spotty existence with the world. The importance of comprehending journalists' job by considering the environment in which news is produced is taken up in the book's second section.

The chapter on news organizations and routines by Lee Becker and Tudor Vlad that introduces this section argues that, despite the extensive and compelling research on routines that has focused our attention on the social construction of reality in journalism, we need to move beyond this perspective and instead pay more attention to the creative processes that underlie story ideation. The second chapter in this part delves more into gatekeeping, one of the oldest and most significant ideas in journalism. Although the theory's origins date back to the early 1950s, Pamela J. Shoemaker, Tim P. Vos, and Stephen D. Reese argue that it is still highly relevant and is reemerging as a vibrant field in part due to technological change within the profession and in part due to new approaches, such as field theory [20]. According to them, objectivity plays a crucial role in journalistic cultures, acting "as both a solidarity enhancing and distinction-creating norm and as a group claim to possess a unique kind of professional knowledge, articulated via work." In addition, Daniel Berkowitz demonstrates in his chapter on journalists and their sources that research on reporters and their sources needs to move towards a dynamic understanding of interaction in terms of the sustained "ability" to produce accurate information. The chapter by Jane Singer and Thorsten Quandt, which asserts that the emergence of journalistic convergence and cross-platform production has accelerated the need to renew scholarly perspectives in light of ongoing changes, echoes this call for a rethink of methodological and conceptual tools [21], [22].

CONCLUSION

The third part of the book shifts the focus from news organizations to the material they generate, examining the wide variety of theoretical and empirical viewpoints that have attempted to explain journalism's texts using a broad range of ideas. One of the few mass

communication theories that has had a long-lasting impact on other social sciences disciplines is agenda-setting, which is the topic of the first chapter in this part by Renita Coleman, Maxwell McCombs, Donald Shaw, and David Weaver. The authors draw attention to how difficult it is to distinguish agenda-setting research from the more contemporary framing approach. However, framing has a long history and rich tradition of its own, as Robert Entman, JörgMatthes, and Lynn Pellicano contend in their chapter on the subject. They contend that framing has a rather limited definition in the field of political communication research and that researchers might benefit from expanding the study of framing effects while tying it to more general issues in democratic theory.

Deirdre O'Neill and Tony Harcup's chapter on news values emphasizes the need for a careful reconceptualization by pointing out that, despite the tendency of scholars in this field to compile lists of news values, this practice hides the fact that conceptions of news values are constantly contested and shift over time and space. In his chapter on news, discourse, and ideology, Teun van Dijk shows how scholars conceptualize the specific ways in which the news is infused with the dominant ideology and helps to maintain and reproduce it. This relationship between news texts, power, and contestation has long been recognized in other areas of journalism studies. With regard to the relationship between media and markets, John McManus' chapter on the commercialization of news extends this viewpoint, concluding that "relying on unregulated markets will not render the quality or quantity of news that participatory government requires to flourish." Questions of power within the commercial press also come to the fore in S. According to Elizabeth Bird and Robert Dardenne, the issue of whose story is being conveyed should be a central concern for students of news storytelling.

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CHAPTER 2

JOURNALISM STUDIES WITH SHIFTING FOCUS AND EMBRACING GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

Utsav Shroff, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- utsav.shroff@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The book's fourth portion broadens the focus by examining research on the interaction between journalism and society. The author picks up on scholarly discussions about the state of the public sphere, calling for a new synthesis. Brian McNair's chapter on journalism and democracy points to a current pessimism about journalism's role in facilitating citizenship, but also argues that there are grounds for optimistic assessments because there is more political journalism available to the average citizen in the average mature democracy than at any previous time in history. The norms of responsible journalism are the main topic of Stephen Ward's chapter on journalistic ethics. According to Ward, modern journalism needs a more cosmopolitan code of ethics that takes both local and global circumstances seriously. Similar to this, Kyu Ho Youm's chapter on journalism law and regulation indicates that the issues posed by the multiplicity of country traditions and histories that affect their ideas of press freedom must be addressed by this field's studies.

KEYWORDS:

Embracing, Focus, Global, Journalism, Perspectives, Reimagining.

INTRODUCTION

In an era of previously unheard-of technological advancements, shifting media landscapes, and a shifting socio-political climate, this title effectively expresses the essence of a paradigm shift that is necessary for the continued relevance and growth of journalism as an academic profession. The term reimagining journalism studies highlights the necessity to depart from conventional methods and theoretical frameworks that may not be enough to grasp the complexity of modern journalism. It draws attention to the need of exploring uncharted terrain within the field and challenges academics to reconsider their assumptions. This envisioning technique enhances flexibility and creativity by asking academics to imagine original ways to conduct journalism research. This reinterpretation's shifting focus section is a crucial part [1]. Studies of journalism have often concentrated on well-known journalists, reputable news organizations, and mainstream media. However, the suggested shift in focus in the title calls for a more in-depth analysis of the journalism sector. It invites researchers to look at the sometimes-unstudied facets of journalism, such as local and regional media, independent journalists, and emerging digital platforms.

By expanding the scope of their investigation, researchers may get a deeper understanding of the diverse and dynamic nature of journalism. Embracing global perspectives highlights how crucial it is for journalism students to have a truly global perspective. In a globalized environment where information may move freely, media has an impact that transcends national boundaries. This aspect of the phrase encourages researchers to consider the interactions between many global cultural, political, economic, and technological factors. It promotes inclusivity and opposes the dominance of Western-centric ideas that have historically characterized the business by acknowledging the variety of journalistic practices observed in many locations and cultures [2], [3].

Reimagining journalism studies with shifting focus, and embracing global perspectives is, at its core, a call to action for the field of journalism studies to progress and adapt to the realities of the twenty-first century. It motivates academics to do original, interdisciplinary, and globally conscious research. By doing this, journalism studies may remain a vital and vibrant discipline that reflects the dynamic nature of journalism itself and provides insightful viewpoints on how the media landscape is changing. The spirit of innovation, diversity, and adaptability required for journalism studies to stay relevant in our interconnected and complex world is nicely encapsulated in this title [4]. The audience is often ignored in journalism studies, which is another blind spot. In his chapter on journalism and popular culture, John Hartley makes the case that differing communication paradigms, which are widely believed by journalists on the one hand and popular activists on the other, are the cause of this disrespect for the audience. Chris Atton makes a similar point in his chapter on alternative and citizen journalism, which is frequently seen as offering a much-needed counterforce to the issues with mainstream journalism. He claims that journalism studies have fetishized the producer-provider and ignores the agency of the consumer. It contends that although these genres' academic studies celebrate the empowerment and involvement they foster, they have not yet completely taken into account how audiences interact with them. Although most research on news is ultimately concerned with its impact on society, as MircaMadianou contends in her contribution on news audiences the question of the news audience has often remained an implied category [5].

Howard Tumber's chapter on reporting peace and war examines one style of journalism that has always been focused with disputes and disagreement in a global context. It illustrates how academics studying journalism have reacted to evolving war reporting techniques by developing methodologies that teach us not just about the job of war reporters but also about the ideologies and power dynamics of the societies that fight and cover war. Public service media are often seen as providing the essential balance whereas commercial media frequently emphasize conflict and excitement. Hallvard Moe and Trine Syvertsen examine the idea of public service in terms of "forms of political intervention into the media market with the purpose of ensuring that broadcasters produce programs deemed valuable to society" in their chapter on public service broadcasting in light of this normative expectation [6].

It's necessary to consider journalistic practices outside of western settings even if public service broadcasting has been a major model for shaping the media in Western Europe. Development journalism is one strategy that is especially important to less developed regions of the globe and clashes with a liberal press paradigm. In his chapter on this paradigm, Xu Xiaoge demonstrates the dominant status of this idea in Asia and Africa while demonstrating the lack of academic interest in development journalism methods. According to Silvio Waisbord, advocacy journalism is another significant paradigm that is not universally valued by journalists. A sort of "political mobilization that seeks to increase the power of people and groups and to make institutions more responsive to human needs, according to him, is advocacy journalism [7].

These chapters show how the globalization of journalism research as a whole is still lacking. The chapter by Thomas Hanitzsch emphasizes the significance of comparative research in the development of journalism studies as a genuinely global discipline. Although it is being used more often, its theoretical and methodological underpinnings remain undeveloped, and its therapeutic promise has not yet been completely realized. Herman Wasserman and Arnold de Beer argue in their chapter that the field's persistent Western dominance is a challenge for foreign journalism study. The authors contend that the inequities in knowledge creation can only be corrected by a redistribution of economic resources. Cross-cultural research

consequently continues to be a challenging task for a variety of reasons. Only globally collaborative research can address its inherent western bias, lack of generally applicable ideas, issues with demonstrating equivalence, and issues with case selection [8].

Future Research in Journalism

This paper aims to contribute to a discussion regarding the direction journalism research should go in addition to teaching us about how journalism is researched right now. Every chapter considers potential paths for study in light of the fact that society and journalism are both going through significant changes at the moment. In light of these circumstances, we think that one of the biggest difficulties facing journalism studies today is to reflect on the transnational power relations that influence its interests. It could be argued that journalism researchers have focused on "studying up" or engaging in "elite research" by paying an excessive amount of attention to elite individuals, news organizations, and texts, in contrast to anthropologists' tendency to "study down" or focus on the lives of relatively powerless and culturally distant groups. Which news articles and texts are well-documented and which are ignored has been greatly influenced by the habit of reading up. Studies of news organizations, for instance, have a tendency to concentrate on journalism as it is produced in large, often national television and newspaper newsrooms in wealthy countries. Analyses of news texts may either concentrate on significant incidents and catastrophes or on the standard news production and practices of prestigious news agencies. We would want to propose, however, that a thriving discipline of journalism studies must start to go outside of this constrained area. This implies that academics should widen the scope of their study to include elite countries, top news organizations, and well-known journalists in addition to mainstream media [9].

For starters, journalism studies have a tendency to disregard the work that is done in less glamorous journalistic workplaces, despite the fact that these workplaces are dominating in terms of the number of news workers they employ, the volume of material they produce, and the audiences for their output. Because the working circumstances of journalists vary greatly depending on economic, political, technical, and social situations, this academic disregard of a large portion of the profession it professes to research is especially troubling. The well-documented journalism cultures take the place of opposing perspectives as the universal and authoritative explanations of what journalism is all about. For instance, despite the fact that the great majority of journalists work in local or regional media, local journalists' professional standards have been especially ignored [10].

The political economy of publishing and the academy can explain the focus on elite, national, or metropolitan media organizations to some extent. Researchers may be more likely to receive institutional endorsement and prestige, grant money, publications, and promotions from a study of a well-known, national, and elite news organization than from more marginalized media practices. Furthermore, generalizations and assertions that there is a "shared culture" may be easier to make about the relatively few elite national news organizations than they are about the enormous diversity of local, alternative, or specialist media practices. In this regard, it is especially concerning that journalistic practices are neglected inside the newsroom. Research often ignores certain groups of news professionals.

The professional cultures of privileged full-time news reporters are mostly charted, as opposed to those of casualized, multi-skilled, and free-lance journalists, to name a few underrepresented groups. This is true despite the fact that the workforce for journalism is increasingly dependent on freelancers and short-term jobs. Researchers in journalism studies also tend to ignore other types of journalistic output that take place outside of the newsroom

but may nonetheless be crucial to the material that news organizations publish. This is especially true with specialty journalisms, which are typically found in the bottom levels of the media hierarchy and are distanced from the thrill of the newsgathering process. As a consequence, for instance, insufficient attention has been paid to the work of features, music, and arts journalists. Similar to this, researchers have neglected to take into account the enormous number of news professionals engaged in business journalism, a field whose growth is correlated with broader societal trends, such as the globalization of capital. Popular types of journalism have also gotten less attention, despite their wider appeal and creative ways of conveying stories [11].

Journalism studies should investigate the boundaries of journalism by looking at talk shows, free sheets, advertorials, citizen journalism and user-generated content, blogs, podcasting, and online news aggregators as highlighted by the growing significance of convergence and the effects of these developments on our understanding of journalism. As marginalized news providers, these liminal journal- ism activities have usually been disregarded, but as researchers become aware of the seismic changes they signify, their visibility in journalism studies is growing. With new communication technologies that fundamentally challenge established boundaries between information production and information consumption and raise fresh concerns about journalism's identity and positioning in a mediatized society, researchers need to reevaluate the role of journalism in a world that is becoming more globally connected and mutually interconnected.

Similar to this, journalism studies might gain from shifting their attention from media producers and texts to a more sophisticated understanding of news listeners. Separating production, content, and audiences a trend that is repeated here may prevent researchers from exploring important and rewarding lines of study. Scholars should model and study journalism as a complicated process including creators, content, and viewers in order to do credit to its significance. Researchers must tie the social, organizational, and human factors that affect news creation to the impacts of news coverage. Journalism has to be seen as a cultural activity that is primarily focused on a public negotiation of meaning. Traditional metaphors of journalism as a process of information transmission need to be rethought. If the field is dedicated to greater reflexivity about the power relations that underlie journalism practices, it also needs to produce more fine-grained knowledge about the ideological structures [12].

Studying the experiences of journalists in understudied media, professions, and regions would also help to challenge the scholarly reproduction of the dominant power relations in the globe. Instead of taking Western models and theories for granted, these models and theories ought to be challenged from a truly global perspective that does not privilege any particular local point of view, according to Pan, Chan, and Lo because, like any discursive system, journalism research articulates with the social setting where it is conducted, drawing from its inspirations, re- sources, and insights, and reflecting, speaking to, as well as shaping the setting in specific ways. More international and comparative research that takes into account cultural competence might lead to such a dramatic globalization of the area. This impetus should be maintained if journalism studies is to attain its full potential. It is undoubtedly present in the work represented by the global-comparative turn. Therefore, journalism studies must become genuinely global by focusing on areas of the globe that are often ignored by journalism academics, such as sub-Saharan Africa, sections of the Middle East, Asia, and South America. Comparative research may also provide chances for academic engagement for academics in less developed areas, particularly by giving them access to information that is not uniformly disseminated. As a pedagogical intervention,

internationalizing the field of journalism studies is all the more crucial since many academics instruct current and future journalists from regions where journalistic practice is so unlike from what is being written in the field. Studies in sociology, history, linguistics, political science, and cultural studies are all included in the field of journalism studies, which has always been interdisciplinary. Scholars of journalism have the chance to participate in discussions outside of the fields of journalism, media, and communication studies [13].

Finally, we should be aware of and critical of the power dynamics that exist between journalism studies and the linked academic and professional sectors. It has not always been simple to establish a connection between journalism studies and the domains of journalistic practice and journalism education. At the confluence of three distinct groups journalists, journalism educators, and journalism scholars with usually conflicting interests, journalism studies frequently find itself in a challenging situation. Because of this, there is frequently tension and misunderstanding between them. Journalism educators claim that journalists have their heads in the sand while journalism scholars have their heads in the clouds, and journalists claim that journalism scholars and educators have no business airing their dirty laundry.

Therefore, journalism studies need to focus more on the dissemination of information produced by scientific research to the sectors of journalism education and practice. Finally, in order for journalism studies to live up to their potential, they need do more explanatory investigations that go beyond simple descriptions as well as more systematic and rigorous longitudinal studies that thoroughly monitor changes in journalism through time. We shall be able to see and examine journalism within its historical and cultural context using such a method. To put it another way, we believe that the field of journalism studies will soon be seen as profoundly ingrained in certain historical, political, economic, and cultural settings as well as a complex worldwide environment. We overlook the complicated power dynamics that exist in these diverse and complex environments where journalism is studied at our risk [14].

DISCUSSION

Reimagining journalism studies with shifting focus, and embracing global perspectives captures a significant discussion in the field of journalism studies. It serves as an example of how journalism is a discipline that is always evolving and how our approaches need a radical rethinking. The use of the term reimagining journalism studies highlights the need to go beyond traditional paradigms and techniques, which often create gaps and blind spots in our understanding of journalism. As the media landscape evolves, journalism studies must adapt to take into account new forms of media, technology, and communication. Academics are motivated by this reinvention to look at uncommon aspects of journalism and consider cutting-edge research approaches. The need of broadening our analytical viewpoint is emphasized in Shifting Focus. Journalism studies have in the past closely examined dominant narratives, well-known journalists, and elite media organizations[15].

It's crucial to realize, however, that there are many different types of journalists and media outlets, making journalism a varied field. Scholars may now focus on less glamorous but nevertheless significant aspects of journalism, such as local and regional media, freelancers, and specialized practices, thanks to this shift in emphasis. By extending our focus, we may be able to comprehend the subject more thoroughly and precisely. It is important for journalism studies to have a worldwide viewpoint, as stated in Embracing Global Perspectives. Journalism's impact on the media environment now extends beyond regional contexts and national boundaries[16]. To fully comprehend the complexities of contemporary journalism,

academics must take into consideration the interactions between global cultural, political, economic, and technological challenges. This approach helps to challenge the field's mostly Western-centric ideas while simultaneously promoting diversity. For the discipline of journalism studies, the statement "Reimagining Journalism Studies with Shifting Focus, and Embracing Global Perspectives" serves as a call to action. It encourages academics to reevaluate their approaches, widen their horizons, and take part in a more thorough and informed analysis of journalism as a dynamic and always changing subject. This discussion demonstrates the dynamic nature of journalism studies and its potential for growth and change[17].

CONCLUSION

Reimagining journalism studies with shifting focus, and embracing global perspectives highlights the pressing need for a paradigm shift and depicts the evolving character of the subject. It denotes a departure from traditional approaches and a need to embrace a more detailed, inclusive, and global perspective. It is imperative that academia endures, since journalism must constantly adapt to the challenges and opportunities presented by swift technological advances and shifts in media consumption. By reimagining journalism studies, we can close knowledge gaps, encourage innovative research strategies, and maintain our relevance in a media environment that is always changing. The concept of "shifting focus" encourages scholars to go beyond the well-recognized and well-liked aspects of journalism. It serves as a reminder that journalism is a broad field with a variety of perspectives, approaches, and circumstances that need our attention. By extending our emphasis to encompass local, regional, and specialized journalism, we are better able to comprehend the complexity of the area. The chapter embracing global perspectives explores how interconnected journalism is now. Global impact and cross-national influence in journalism are both present. Beyond just recognizing this global component in our studies, understanding the complex interactions of cultural, political, and technological variables that affect media internationally is necessary. It encourages us to embrace the changes and pursue journalism studies in a manner that is more engaging, flexible, and inclusive in light of them. By doing this, we may contribute to a larger, more nuanced understanding of the discipline of journalism, which continues to play a critical role in our connected and rapidly changing world.

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CHAPTER 3

AN OVERVIEW OF THE MODERN JOURNALISM ANTIQUITY

Swarna Kolaventi, Assistant Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-swarna.kolaventi@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The term journalism history is of relatively recent coinage, more recent than the term journalism, of course. But the discourse now called journalism history has a longer history, one that tracks the rise of news culture as a realm of first print culture and later media culture. As each new formation of news culture appeared, new genres of doing the history of news developed. Throughout this history of journalism history, the boundary separating it from other forms of media history has been porous and blurry. Since the 1970s, journalism history has been wrestling with an identity crisis, one that in many ways anticipates the broader crisis in the identity of journalism today. Because journalism histories are so various, the best way to map them is to historicize them. This strategy has the additional advantage of showing how the project of writing histories of journalism has been part of a larger project of defining and disciplining news culture. For many scholars today, history provides and indispensable tool for critiquing professional journalism by showing its contingency and entanglements.

KEYWORDS:

Ancient, Media, Communication, Journalism, News, Writing.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism history emerged from two sources. The first was a kind of general intellectual interest in the evolution of means of communication. Many scholars trace this interest back to Plato's Phaedrus, which discusses cognitive issues related to writing. Enlightenment thinkers in Europe were particularly attentive to how literacy, then alphabetic literacy, and finally the printing press occasioned deep structural changes in social, cultural, and political life. Twentieth-century thinkers like Harold Adams Innis and Marshall McLuhan expressed the same outlook. In works of journalism history proper, this outlook often appears as a tendency to emphasize the importance of machines in shaping the course of journalism [1]. Comprehensive histories often use the introduction of new technologies, like the steam press or broadcasting, as narrative turning points, and journalists' autobiographies often dwell on the changes that occurred in newsroom technology in the course of their subjects' careers. The second source for journalism history was more occupational. As news work developed and professionalized, it constructed a history for itself by projecting its identity backward into the past. So, journalism history grew up with journalism, and its historical awareness is a feature of its actual development [2].

Prehistory

Printed newspapers first appeared in Europe at the beginning of the seventeenth century. They were a late feature of the so-called printing revolution, which at first concentrated on multiplying and extending the sorts of books that had previously been reproduced by hand, and only subsequently produced newer formats that took fuller advantage of the capacities of the printing press. Newspapers were not immediately established because the uses of newspapers were not readily apparent to printers and their patrons. But, with the rise of religious controversy following the Protestant Reformation, and the appearance of new

economic institutions and the rise of market society, activists and entrepreneurs developed newspapers as practical media. Early newspapers aimed at specific readers by the middle of the seventeenth century, such newspapers were common in the capital cities of Western Europe. Amsterdam, a leading city in both commerce and religious independence, was a particularly important location; in fact, the first English-language newspapers were published in Amsterdam in 1620. For the most part, not until the eighteenth century did it became normal for newspapers to target a more general readership with political concerns. The rise of a bourgeois public sphere transformed the newspaper from an instrument of commerce, on the one hand, and religious controversy, on the other, into an instrument of continual political argumentation and deliberation. Newspapers became central resources in the age of bourgeois revolutions. The Glorious Revolution in England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution all produced vigorous news cultures and active combat in print [3], [4].

As political systems developed in Europe and North America, norms for the conduct of politics in newspapers appeared. The newspaper became a key part of a system for representing public opinion. As newspaper discourse announced its proper role, it claimed a set of expectations for rational discourse in line with what Jürgen Habermas ascribes to the bourgeois public sphere. Historians disagree, however, on whether these norms reflected the actual sociology of the news. Many dispute the openness, impersonality, and rationality that Habermas attributes to eighteenth-century public discourse. But even if newspapers were partisan, impassioned, and exclusive, they continually appealed to norms of universal rational supervision. Prime examples of such newspaper discourse were the frequently reprinted letters of Cato and of Publius. The latter was a trio of political leaders, who published their letters, better known as the Federalist Papers. Their pseudonym refers to a figure from the Roman Republic but translates literally as public man or citizen, a rhetorical position meant to emphasize a non-partisan concern with the common good.

The eighteenth-century revolutions forged a relationship between the media and democracy. Because the basis of political legitimacy shifted from blood and God to the will of the people, the principal problem of good government became the continual generation of consent through public opinion. Political thinkers dwelt on the problem of public opinion. After some experience with the practicalities of government, they began to comment actively on the need for systems of national communication, and to encourage what we would call infrastructure development in the form of postal systems and the transportation networks they required. Until well into the eighteenth century, regulation and censorship of news culture was typically considered appropriate and necessary. The spread of news in print had coincided with and gained impetus from the Thirty Years' War, and was deeply implicated in the long series of wars of religion that followed the Protestant Reformation. The states of Europe considered the control of public discussion essential to maintaining peace and legitimacy. They, along with the Vatican, developed systems of press control that included licensing and prohibition. Printers and booksellers, meanwhile, participated in the creation of copyrights and patents. In essence, the state made grants of monopoly that assured revenue while encouraging responsible behavior [5], [6].

Freedom of the press became one of the common narratives for early journalism histories. During the age of Revolution, narratives of heroic publicists and propagandists struggling against censorship became themselves part of the public discourse surrounding contests over forms of government. Over the next century or so, a canon of liberal thought would be created, hailing figures like John Milton, Thomas Jefferson, and Thomas Paine into a long conversation with each other. This largely artificial discourse would form part of the shared culture of subsequent journalism histories. The age of Revolution proposed that democratic

governance should be based on public opinion generated by an arena of discussion governed by norms of impartial, rational discourse. But this theory always competed with the reality of the partisan uses of the newspaper. Much of the heat of early party politics in all the new democracies came from the questionable legitimacy of the tools of party competition, including the press [7].

By the beginning of the nineteenth century in most Western countries, a frankly partisan model of news culture became ascendant. Only at this point does the word journalism come into play. It is French in origin, and initially referred to the journalism of opinion that flourished in the years following the Revolution. The term migrated into English by around 1830, but still referred to partisan debate over public affairs and had a negative connotation, as a sign of political dysfunction. Though never made fully respectable, partisan journalism gradually acquired a positive justification. As democratic government became the norm, the spectacle of political combat came to seem healthy. Observers argued that, like the competition of the marketplace, political dispute served to promote a general social good. And, as most of Western Europe and North America relaxed press regulation through the early to mid-nineteenth century, a freer market in newspapers interacted with partisan journalism to create something like a marketplace of public opinion [8].

Emergence

At this point the first works of what would later become journalism history appeared. Predecessors include early chronicles that recorded the growth of printing, including newspapers among other publications. These mostly celebratory accounts of the rise of the press were usually also patriotic, inflected by a sense of the triumph of democratic government and freedom of the press. The works fell into what historians have called the Whig theory of history, a term that refers to a grand narrative constructed around the inevitable conflict of liberty and power, featuring the progressive expansion of liberty. The Whig model of journalism history was to remain ascendant well into the twentieth century, even as notions of journalism and freedom of the press changed dramatically.

Whig history leaned toward biography. Because it pivoted on the advance of a specifically liberal notion of freedom, the model tended to present narratives of strong individuals as producers of change. News organizations also tended to be personified. Examples include early biographies of newspaper publishers. An admiring former aide would set a pattern of lionizing the publisher in a popular memoir, and that view would endure, either through subsequent, expanded editions of the work or in the background of biographies by authors not associated with the prominent figure. Parton's biography of Horace Greeley established this pattern in the United States, and later writers followed it for press moguls like James Gordon Bennett, Joseph Pulitzer, William Randolph Hearst, and Edward Scripps [9], [10].

In the middle to late nineteenth century, a mass press appeared nation by nation in the United States and Europe, with the timing of its appearance tied to the persistence of taxation or other forms of press regulation. This commercialized press was more reliant on advertising revenue and consequently aimed at a broader audience than the earlier, primarily political newspapers. Newspapers segmented these more inclusive audiences by gender, age, and class, deploying new kinds of content to assemble specific readerships that could in turn be sold to advertisers. The news matter in the mass circulation press included more event-oriented news, especially crime news, and also more reporting on social and cultural concerns, or so-called hu- man interest stories. Journalism came to acquire its modern sense, as a discipline of news reporting, around that time, when it also began to distinguish itself from its other. As a mass audience grew, the popular press fed readers sensational stories, and

acquired the reputation of social marginality. Yellow journalism, perhaps named after the cheap paper produced by the new wood pulp process, or more likely named after the yellow covers on earlier cheap crime fiction, was a transnational phenomenon. Illustrated news also became popular, first in Britain, then, in a direct line of descent, in France and Spain, and then in North America and other European countries. Along with the growth of the popular press, a politics of news quality appeared. Reformers and traditional elites complained about the impact of journalism upon public intelligence and morality. The episodic character of newspaper content was said to hamper the ability of the public to engage in sustained or complex thought or deliberation, while the general taste for scandal and sensation seemed to coarsen public mores. Journalism thus took on the task of uplifting and policing news culture. This mission suited the purposes of public figures, who wanted more decorum in news culture. In the United States, one outcome of this dynamic was the discovery of an implied constitutional right to privacy. Other involved parties had other reasons to support journalists' mission to purify the news. Publishers wanted to purify their image to protect themselves from a public now inclined to think of the power of the press as a danger [11], [12].

The project of improving journalism coincided with a particular sociology of news work. News workers divided into three broad sorts: editors, who com- piled news and wrote opinion pieces; correspondents, who wrote long letters from distant places and generally had a voice and expressed attitudes; and reporters, who scavenged news from beats and transcribed meetings and other news events. The attempt to uplift journalism enhanced adjustments to this sociology. A proto-professional form of journalism appeared as a union of the positions of the reporter and the correspondent, coupled with the construction of walls of reified separation between them and editors on the one hand and business managers on the other.

Professionalization

At the beginning of the twentieth century, journalism in the West was ready to begin a professionalization project. The process was manifest in broadly based phenomena like the founding of press clubs and associations and of schools of journalism, along with the crafting of codes of ethics. In some places, journalists formed unions; in others, governments established credentialing regimes. In all developed countries, aspects of monopoly arose around the most industrialized elements of the news system, especially metropolitan newspapers and wire services, supporting the kinds of control that an autonomous profession might establish. The professionalization project required a somewhat different form of journalism history. The new schools of journalism wanted a teachable history that could provide moral exemplars for aspiring professionals. The old Whig histories were somewhat useful, but only after being cleansed of their mavericks [12].

Teaching about the news industry also called for more awareness of the conditions for business. The countries with more commercial news arenas, especially the United States, inserted a narrative of market redemption. The history textbooks most used in U.S. journalism schools saw independent journalism as a product of the market that vanquished any partisan ties. This view was evident not just in standard textbooks but also in key essays that would become canonical in journalism historyin the United States, Walter Lippmann's Two Revolutions in the American Press and Robert Park's Natural History of the Newspaper. This faith in the beneficence of market forces seems odd for a series of reasons. It seemed to require a willful forgetting of the mass market press that had given the professionalization project its urgency at the close of the nineteenth century. It also seemed to make invisible the conditions of monopoly in the wire services and in the new medium of broadcasting, which both caused the popular anxiety over media power and provided the levers for imposing standards on news culture. And it seemed to argue against the call for a "wall of separation"

between the counting room and the newsroom that was a central feature of the professionalization project [13]. Most Western countries institutionalized journalism under the professional model in the twentieth century. The project of forming journalism schools, creating codes of ethics, setting licensing standards, and forming unions contributed to what has been called the high modernism of journalism. The rise of broadcast journalism, especially when associated with monopolistic national broadcast authorities or oligopolistic commercial systems, reinforced the professionalization of news. The twentieth century wars were especially important in raising anxieties about the power of propaganda and encouraging the creation of prophylactic notions of media responsibility. And the rise of the corporate form of ownership also encouraged professionalization.

Variations existed in the West regarding the institutionalization of professional journalism. Daniel Hallin and Paolo Mancini have identified three models or media systems partisanism in southern Europe, social democracy in northern Europe, and market-based systems in the North Atlantic. But all three systems paid attention to preserving for professional journalism some measure of autonomy from existing authorities, as well as from market and party influences. Meanwhile, the model of autonomous journalism was exported to the south and east, along with the notion of freedom of the press. In the Americas, a partisan form of journalism had taken root along with national liberation movements in the nineteenth century, but in the period following World War II, especially after the 1970s, another model of investigative journalism imported from the United States supplemented and, in some cases, replaced the partisan model. In Asia, and especially in China, the notion of an independent journalism was an important part of early nationalist movements in the opening decades of the twentieth century [14].

Alternatives

Radical political theory in the nineteenth century projected an alternative vision of journalism, with a different notion of professionalism, and inspired the media systems of the communist regimes of the twentieth century. Marxism and other materialisms challenged the autonomy of the realm of ideas. In simple terms, these philosophies understand communication, and especially mediated communication, as a form of material production. Capitalist systems of communication incorporate the class structure and reproduce the class power of capitalist society. Journalism as a work routine and as an alienated occupation mystifies class power. Post-capitalist media systems, therefore, should work to expose and then overcome class power. Such systems could re-imagine journalism in two contrasting ways. Journalism could devolve to the province of ordinary citizens, or journalism could become the mission of a vanguard. The former case would absorb journalism into daily lives of citizens, but the latter case would produce the opposite: an intense professionalism of journalism practice. As it happened, the media systems of the communist countries tended toward Party vanguardism [15].

This understanding of journalism obviously proposed a different narrative about the origins of Western journalism, which became a feature of the rise of bourgeois class relations and part of the ideological apparatus that reproduced capitalist hegemony. The heroes of journalism were not the intrepid reporters but the principled partisans who criticized establishments from the mar- gins. Karl Marx himself was one such journalist. During his long exile in London, he supported himself in large part by working as a correspondent on European affairs for Horace Greeley's New York Tribune. At the end of World War II, a new world order embraced an ambiguous liberalism. The UN Charter embodied a notion of sovereignty based on the consent of the governed, and all new national constitutions acknowledged it. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights en- dorsed freedom of

expression and the right to communicate. But these formulations covered a broad range of possible interpretations and systems. What Hallin and Mancini identify as the North Atlantic or liberal model interpreted the right to communicate as authorizing the expansion of U.S.-style news media and especially the wire services that supported them. Oth- ers interpreted the right to communicate as referring to rights of the people as opposed to the media, which were saddled with a "social responsibility" to service these rights. In the United States, the notion of social responsibility was embodied forcefully in the report of the Hutchins Commission, a document that echoed but utterly failed to refer to a global discourse on press responsibility.

Post-war global conditions occasioned another powerful frame for journalism history based on a comparative media systems approach. The most influential exemplar of this approach was the book Four Theories of the Press, which produced a simplified schema based on philosophical presuppositions about the nature of humanity, the state, and truth. Many critics have pointed out the shortcomings of this approach, including its unreflexively incorporation of liberal presuppositions and its implied narrative of a natural history leading toward a neoliberal model as well as its neglect of non-Western histories and especially the global south. Post-war conditions also drew attention to the rise of a global information system. Histories of the international wire services appeared. The criticism of an unequal flow of information became part of a political movement for a New World Information and Communication Order, which took shape within UNESCO in the 1970s and reached a climax with the report of the MacBride Com- mission in 1980, but succumbed to a counterattack from the Western countries and then shifted to other arenas, including the GATT through the 1980s and the WTO in the 1990s. Critical histories of the geography of information responded to these dynamics, the most influential of which were by Manual Castells and David Harvey [16].

Journalism historians often neglect the international dimension. A few exemplary works put national histories in dialog with each other, but most re- main within national borders. The same is true for media history more generally. Because nation- al media systems are so intimately entwined in the life of the polity, scholars tend to treat them in isolation, as the nervous system of the political organism. In addition, the collection of archival materials and the funding of scholarship are usually carried out under national auspices. The end of the twentieth century in the modern West saw the erosion of the high modern moment. Globalization, the end of the Cold War, the rise of new digital technologies, the eclipse of public service models of broadcasting and telecommunications, and the weakening of tradi-tional cultural support for monolithic national identities have all undermined previous models of autonomous journalism. Recent trends in news include the rise of the 24-hour television news service, of new so-called personal media like talk radio and the blogosphere, of the tabloid form and a hybrid journalism, especially in Scandinavian countries, and of a new pattern of partisan media power associated with broadcast entrepreneurs like Silvio Berlusconi and Rupert Murdoch in the West and with the post-Soviet media explosion in Eastern Europe. With the erosion of high modernism came, on the one hand, calls to rethink the role of the press as an institution within the governing process and, on the other hand, calls for a new public journalism or citizen journalism [17].

Scholarly Approaches

As journalism history followed in the tracks of the history of journalism, it also tracked developments in historical and in media scholarship. Some of the impulses from other fields influencing journalism historians include the legal-political landscape and currents among mainstream historical scholarship. The history of law and policy is perhaps the oldest and

best-established scholarly tradition influencing journalism history. Besides the problematic of freedom of the press already traced here, legal and political developments have reified the professionalization project of journalism. Lawyers and legal scholars have shared with professional journalists the habit of doing the history of journalism as a history of autonomous individuals in conscious action. One outcome of this mindset has been the legal recognition of journalism itself. As a particular occupation or practice, credentialed journalists acquired rights before and during legal proceedings, as well as privileges in policy to accommodate their presence at close quarters with government activities, beyond the rights and privileges of ordinary citizenship. Communication encompasses all interactions affecting the polity, but the development of special rights and political practices around what journalists do means that, in the law, journalism has become different from communication.

The boundary that separates journalism history from the broader history of media and communication has been less defensible in other arenas. The history of technology, for instance, suggests that the same forces that impel other media practices also shape the practices of journalism. Telegraphic communication is a case in point. It is a commonplace that the telegraph transformed the space-time matrix of the nation state and simultaneously produced cooperative newsgathering. The result was a particular style of journalism, characterized by brevity and ultimately the inverted pyramid as a way of organizing news narratives. The standard narrative of journalism history often foregrounds the trans- formative impact of technologies: All comprehensive journalism histories discuss the camera and the steam press; many mentions as well the telephone, the typewriter, and the more recent digital technologies. In these histories, agency comes from technology in addition to, or rather than residing in, individual conscious actors [18].

In the 1970s, a different impulse came from a movement called social history. There have been many kinds of social history, but all share an aversion to event-centered history and to so-called great man history. Common to social historians was a dedication to doing history from, in the popular phrase, the bottom up. This persuasion covered a large spectrum of strategies, from the romantic notion that ordinary people make history, most influentially expressed in E. P. Thompson's Making of the English Working Class, to the impersonal histories of the long flows of civilizations and regions in the work of French Annalise historians like Fernand Braudel. For journalism historians, these impulses filtered through scholars like Robert Darn- ton, William Gilmore-Lehne, and Michael Schudson. Social history challenged the uniqueness of journalism history at about the same time that newsroom ethnography challenged the intellectual roots of journalism practice, and led some to conclude that there is no such thing as journalism history.

DISCUSSION

But obviously journalism history continues to exist, and as the academy has become more spe- cialized and trade and then academic publishing has pursued marketable formulas, journalism history has subdivided into a set of genres. Most work in journalism history falls into four genres, three of them narrow and one broad, which emerged in this order: biographical, comprehensive, event-focused, and image-focused. The oldest and probably still most common genre is the bio- graphical. Focusing on an individual actor, whether a journalist or a news organization, has two practical advantages. Such actors often produce neat bodies of primary documents, and their lives support the writing of neat chronological narratives. In any country, the dominant national news organizations, like the Times of London or il Corriere Della Sera in Italy, have been the subjects of multiple biographies. Nearly as old as the habit of press biography is the genre of comprehensive journalism histories [19]. These are almost always national. As already indicated, the first

comprehensive histories appeared in the nineteenth century, alongside the appearance of journalism as a positively con- noted term. Written to give an illustrious pedigree to the practice, comprehensive histories then became indispensable teaching tools in journalism schools. These products of professional historians usually offered progressive narratives, showing the advancing autonomy and respectability of the occupation while offering inspiration for would-be professionals. Usually focusing on exemplary practitioners, such histories often amount to a collective biography. More recent comprehensive histories have proposed more critical narratives. A common device is to focus on a particular explanatory motif, as Michael Sc Hudson did when he analyzed objectivity as a feature of democratic market society [20].

CONCLUSION

Event-oriented histories constitute a third common genre. Any particular crisis or controversy can be a useful hook for analyzing press response. The earliest of this genre grew out of journalism practice, such as the study two journalists conducted of World War I newspaper coverage. Journalists continue to produce popular histories of major events from the perspective of journalism practice. Although in the main, this genre lends itself to flat narratives of point-counterpoint, it can also afford scholars an opportunity to conduct a diagnostic exploration of the capacities or biases of a press system. The image-oriented genre attempts to expand the purview of journalism history beyond media leaders and enterprises by examining larger collectivities. Image-oriented histories have limitations and affordances similar to event-oriented histories. Studies of images of groups like women or ethnic minorities, or of entities such as a nation or religion usually are flat and obvious, but have the potential to unpack and expose the cultural work of the press. Each of these conventional genres of journalism history tends to essentialize journalism, treating what journalists do as an un-problematical set of existing practices. Another form of journalism history takes the construction of journalism itself as a problem.

The construction-of-culture tendency has recently been setting an agenda for the field. Many years ago, James W. Carey called for a history of the form of the report. Although this history remains unwritten, some recent contributions have explored how the form of the newspaper invites readers to participate in rituals of citizenship The analysis of the form of news suggests a different approach to the question of the power of the press. The traditional genres of journalism history equate the power of the press with the power of ideas, suggesting that the press has power to the degree that it can persuade the public by exposing audiences to true information and sound reasoning. This historical notion of the power of the press does not comport with scholarly understandings of the power of today's media, which point to agenda-setting, framing, and priming as ways that the media work to repro- duce hegemony, all matters concerning which traditional journalism history is in denial.

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CHAPTER 4

AN EXPLORATION OF JOURNALISM'S IDENTITY AND IMPACT

Utsav Shroff, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-utsav.shroff@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

There are several challenges involved in integrating journalism into university. While the recognizable forms of journalism take on new dimensions to adapt to the dynamic settings in which journalism functions, the study of journalism has progressed unevenly, with isolated pockets of academic expertise. As a result, there is little consensus among us on the two important terms that are the focus of our conversation. On what journalism is and how the school should connect to it, we can hardly agree. This chapter examines the many existential concerns that support journalism's coexistence with academics and offers some suggestions to enhance the uncomfortable and often symbiotic nature of their relationship. 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 in a time when journalism can be found everywhere from individual blogs to late-night television satire and is studied in fields as diverse as communication, literature, business, and sociology. Despite being studied and practiced everywhere, journalism is really nowhere. On the one hand, the development of journalism has given birth to a plethora of perennial and unresolved complaints regarding whether forms, practices, or conventions are more suited than the others to be classified as news making conventions.

KEYWORDS:

Impactful Journalism, Journalism Analysis, Journalism Influence, Journalism Integrity, Journalism Profession, Journalism Role, Media Influence.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism's inconsistent and occasional engagement with the outside world is described by a greater tension that is paralleled by the conflict between journalism and the school. The use of newspaper excerpts in George Orwell's debut book drew criticism for turning what might have been a good book into journalism according to his detractors. In 1946, his collected writings were finally released under the clear title Smothered Under Journalism. The journalistic backgrounds of literary giants like Charles Dickens, Samuel Johnson, John Dos Passos, Andre Malraux, Dylan Thomas, and John Hersey are all rife with such stories. These kinds of reactions are still frequent despite a strong reliance on journalism to situate ourselves within the larger society and to use that position as a launching pad for more nuanced means of situating ourselves and understanding the world. Given the important role that journalism plays in much of our situational information, this is perplexing [1].

Where would history be without journalists? That would be what type of literature? How can we better understand how the political system works? Despite the fact that journalism as a phenomenon touch on every aspect of how we interact as a society, the defense that it's just journalism is still often utilized. One of the sources of existential unease that encourages cohabitation is the conflict between academics and media. The most obvious uncertainty stems from the practical considerations that underlie journalism's practice, meaning that every time putative invaders like blogs, citizen journalists, late-night TV comedians, or reality television reach too close to its artificial borders, its core definition is changed [2].

Another area of misconception relates to the instructional components of journalism and academics. There are various ways we might convey what we think to be accurate, particularly as the definition of journalism changes. And yet, those who teach what makes and does not constitute journalistic practice and tradition often fall behind rather than being in front of its always altering bounds. Last but not least, one of the key areas of debate is to the conceptual elements of how the subjects that we explore in journalism connect. Over the years, academics have examined journalism through a number of perspectives, including its craft, its influence, its performance, and its technology. The creation of a complete scholarly portrayal of journalism that integrates all of these perspectives into a unified depiction of all that journalism is and might be has not yet occurred, however. As a result, practitioners are confused of what it means to think broadly about journalism since the study of journalism is still incomplete, fragmentary, and flawed [3].

In discussing these possible sources of ambiguity, this chapter also takes into account several fundamental challenges that face the study of contemporary journalism. It offers a case for a space of contemplation on the historical basis of journalism practice and research as well as the degree to which the underlying presumptions are congruent with the whole of present journalism. Which facets of journalism and its research have received significant attention, and which ones haven't? These issues are made considerably more significant when thinking about journalism studies in a global setting, where variance has not been taken into account or even acknowledged to the degree that it exists on the ground [4].

Considering interpretive communities and journalism

The sociology of knowledge is perhaps the discipline where this has advanced the most. What academics believe relies on how they think and who they think with. Thomas Kuhn is most closely connected with the concept that inquiry focuses on gaining consensus and developing shared paradigms that explain and identify topics and processes in ways that the group can comprehend. As they attempt to come to an understanding, those supporting opposite positions dispute about definitions, frames of reference, and the boundaries of inclusion and exclusion. Once a categorization framework has been agreed upon, new phenomena often adhere to it. In other words, our thinking is predetermined and favors solidarity, community, and power. Emile Durkheim, Robert Park, Michel Foucault, Peter Berger, Thomas Luckman, and Nelson Goodman are just a few of the academics who have made the assertion that the social group is essential for constructing methods of perceiving the world.

Other scholars who have made the same argument include Emile Durkheim, Michel Foucault, Thomas Luckman, and Nelson Goodman [5]. The idea of interpretive communities, initially proposed by Stanley Fish and developed in relation to journalism by Zelizer, Berkowitz, and others, helps situate the information-exchange techniques as being crucial to the knowledge that is created. Since it is acknowledged that groups with shared processes of processing information provide insight on how important issues are addressed and left unresolved, it is important to understand the individuals, organizations, institutions, and areas of study engaged in journalism's analysis. According to anthropologist Mary Douglas, true solidarity is only possible when individuals have similar mental categories. As a result, enquiry is a social as well as intellectual activity. This gives the study of journalism the chance to reflect on the influences that formed it. No one, comprehensive understanding of journalism can be found, and no single voice in the study of journalism is bigger or more credible than the others [6]. Long considered to be a rather questionable topic of study, journalism studies. When it has been discussed between these three groups, the shared concern for journalism that is independently vital to each population journalists, journalism educators, and

journalism scholars has not remained at the forefront of their collaborative efforts. Journalism's centrality and viability have instead been questioned as complaints have been made that others do not understand what is most important: journalists contend that scholars and educators shouldn't air their dirty laundry; scholars contend that journalists and educators are not theoretical enough; educators contend that journalists have their heads in the sand while scholars have theirs in the clouds. The concern for journalism has often been overlooked as everyone has been consumed with trying to stand out from the cacophony of competing voices. The ability to discuss journalism has thus been largely shaped by conflicts about who has the authority to speak for others and who is best qualified to defend that right. Every alternative perspective in the study of journalism creates a certain kind of interpretive community. Before doing so, each has devised strategies on how to define journalism in reference to its own objectives [7], [8].

Journalists

Stuart Adam defines journalists as those who engage in a broad range of news-related activities, such as reporting, critiquing, editorializing, and making recommendations for how things ought to be. There is no questioning the importance of journalism, and no one has ever claimed that it is insignificant, despite the fact that it has often been the focus of debate that has defended and condemned its performance. Instead, the present situation has highlighted the significance of journalism and the crucial role it can play in helping people understand both their daily lives and how they connect to the larger body politic. But not all of journalism's potential has come to pass. In the present day, journalists are often attacked. They are compelled by the unstable economic environment they exist in, which is defined by diminishing revenues, fragmentation, branding, and bottom-line limitations, to function as a fragile for-profit business across an expanding number of channels. The coverage provided by these media hasn't always been more thorough, and many authors have begun to juggle the same story in ways that previous generations wouldn't have recognized. With the exception of the ethnic press, all of the major American newspapers, television news, cable news, and the alternative press are losing readers. As we get closer to a new era of diminishing ambitions, modern journalism is no longer a viable economic activity [9].

Both the left and the right have attacked journalists politically, arguing for different conceptions of what "journalistic performance" is in addition to a political environment that has damaged the journalist's capacity to execute customary obligations. In more stable political systems, the competing and incompatible demands from the left and right have hampered certain aspects of media performance; nevertheless, the worldwide demise of the nation-state has raised new questions about the most effective methods for journalism to operate. The tendency of American journalists to favor reporting that appeals to "safe" political zones has led to an increase in the localization, personalizing, and simplicity of news. As a consequence, they have been involved in a number of shady alliances with the military, local interests, and the government. None of the several models of practice that journalists have learned to use have been perfectly suited to the complexity of the contemporary international political environments, and they have not always been well analyzed [10].

The fundamental viability of news reporting has been compromised by the technological demands that the blogosphere and other platforms have put on journalists. The importance of how journalists report the news has diminished along with the actuality of the coverage. As alternative websites like late-night television sitcoms, blogs, and online publications like Global Voices have taken the lead in gatekeeping, journalism is becoming a smaller part of people's information mix. In this regard, it has been said that Comedy Central's The Daily

Show viewers are better informed about current affairs than those who watch traditional news. Several ethical scandals involving journalists have also occurred. A focus on alternative media, or citizen journalism, in which the role of journalists is increasingly taken over and carried out by regular people, has emerged as a result of the incidents involving Judith Miller, Jayson Blair, or the Gilligan Affair in the United States or Britain, respectively. The public has also claimed at least in the case of the US that the news media is less dependable, less sympathetic, less moral, and more prone to cover up mistakes than to remedy them due to the same trend, which has made it easier for people to understand the limitations of journalism [11].

All of this demonstrates that journalists have not been as effective as they might have been in promoting journalism's importance and relevance across the world. A problem with changing definitions of what constitutes a journalist is whether or not organizations like the Weather Channel or Sharon Osbourne are included. Questions about whether technology constitute as credible news-producing tools also arise, such as whether or not reality television or mobile cameras do. Finally, the fundamental problem of why journalism exists has no conclusive answer. Does it actively integrate community and public citizenship or does it only function to deliver information? It is more challenging to respond because of the differences between the partisan models that are prevalent in Southern Europe and the developmental journalism that is prevalent in certain parts of Asia [7].

This is partly because journalism's self-definition is founded on a variety of contrasting viewpoints. It is crucial to comprehend how these traits complement and sometimes clash with one another since it surely mixes some of them. This is significant because there truly has never been a solution to the most basic problems of journalistic tools, and those tools haven't been valued equally. The management of photos, which sometimes appear without titles, credits, or any obvious relation to the stories next to them, has been one poorly executed aspect of journalism. But the unfair rules that govern how images communicate news have been poorly suited to how people gravitate to images during crises, when there are more images, more prominent images, bolder images, and larger images. After the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, there were 2.5 times as many photos on newspaper front pages as there were at the start of the US war in Iraq. As a result, the lack of clearly defined standards development is problematic since, despite their poor handling, graphics have grown increasingly prevalent in journalistic transmissions. The presentation of the picture has also become an open field, with people shouting foul every time journalism's visuals annoy them since their purported "correct usage" hasn't been established. This suggests that other people politicians, lobbyists, concerned citizens, bereaved parents, even militia members have been allowed to make choices in lieu of journalism, even without that profession's consent, as a result of the media's reluctance to do its duty [8].

It has also been overlooked to what a degree crisis has become the standard scenario for most of journalistic work. There is a need to be more open about how such impulses factor into news production, as crisis has increasingly become the norm rather than the exception in journalism. More often than is typically acknowledged, news stories take shape as a result of improvisation, luck good or bad and boredom. Because crises have been ignored, journalism has seemed to be much more controlled and predictable than it really is. All of this has led to a group of journalists that is somewhat estranged from both its admirers and its detractors. Givens like audience expectations, changing news making environments, or anything on the periphery of the newsroom like creativity and inspiration have largely remained unexplored. As a result, it is not surprising that in US assessments of the individuals the public trusts, journalists routinely get low marks [9].

Journalistic educators

The need to expose newcomers to the craft of journalism has gathered the journalism educators. Despite varying according to location, vernacular education has often shown the same traits. In the United States, newswriting and journalism history were introduced from English departments into the first phases of a journalism curriculum around 1900. Later, it was expanded to include ethics and the law. Other social science initiatives started to take off in the late 1920s when the goal of developing a science of journalism led to the inclusion of trade classes, also referred to as skills courses, as one-fourth of a curriculum that also included courses in survey research, economics, psychology, and public opinion research. Thus, those who taught journalism were interested in the argument over whether the humanities or the social sciences would be better at producing future journalists. For many individuals, the distinction between quantitative and qualitative reporting methods still holds true [10].

In the UK, apprenticeship-based education has a long history, and there is a widespread perception that journalism's "technical elements" lack academic rigor. The introduction of sociology and political science into the curriculum didn't occur until the late 1960s, primarily as a consequence of Jeremy Tunstall's work, and it wasn't until then that practical journalism was seen as a subject deserving of academic study. Germany and Latin America were early adopters of the social sciences, which influenced journalism education to emphasize professionalism and sociology.

In each case, educators' intellectual interest served as a conduit for connecting journalists with the outside world, but it also seriously damaged the industry, turning it into what James Carey called a signaling system. Newspapers, magazines, television, and radio are all distinct forms of journalism production. Journalism instructors first offered a conventional apprenticeship but soon started to approach journalism by splitting it down into different production techniques. This removed a point when journalism may be seen as the sum of many diverse elements. The wider university curriculum was at odds with journalistic education, according to Carey, and the ensuing curricula frequently lacked "historical awareness, critique, or self-consciousness." The vulgate eventually became accepted as a part of the vernacular in the humanities. It then started to be seen in the social sciences as a tool for influencing public opinion but as being unimportant in and of itself [11].

Journalism Professionals

The last group of people that are of interest to journalism are the academics who study it. Despite the vast amount of literature that has been written on the principles, methods, and effects of journalism, these researchers have yet to come up with a comprehensive definition of what journalism is. However, journalism is actually taught in every university course. As well as the less apparent goals of composition sequences, history, sociology, urban studies, political science, economics, and business, journalism has grown to dominate academic efforts in communication, media studies, and journalism schools. This indicates that the academy has already experienced tenfold much of what has been outlined so far in terms of developing a unique and autonomous interpretative community. Academics sometimes work within the limitations of disciplinary communities, therefore the viewpoints promoted by such groups often take the form of the subjects they research. These fields, which resemble interpretative communities, have contributed to the definition of what constitutes evidence and how it should be used. They have also determined which categories of study do not qualify. A clarification of what journalism is has been hindered by compartmentalization, which has examined journalism's component workings rather than its overall structure. 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 humanistic journalism scholars [12].

One of the adverse effects of this was that the variety of news was reduced. As a result of the fact that academics haven't established a body of work that encompasses all of journalism, they have mostly defined it in ways that favor a certain kind of hard news over alternatives.

Copy editors, graphic designers, online journalists, opinion journals, camera operators, tabloids, and satirical late-night shows have gone missing for extended periods of time as a result of the metonymic bias of academic studies, which has widened the gap between what Peter Dahlgren called the realities of journalism and its official presentation of self. In other words, the school has promoted specific focuses for thinking about journalism that fail to take into consideration the whole scope of the profession. Most of the variety in the news has vanished. Journalism as a profession has had a similar fate. The academy's efforts to professionalize journalism, which were primarily inspired by its sociological study, have informed journalists that they are professionals whether or not they choose to be, raising the stakes associated with the profession and often to the harm of those who do it. The effects of this were seen in the demise of conventional concepts of workmanship. For example, imposing codified rules of entry and exclusion has led many European journalists to adopt an anti-professionalization stance: In the UK, there has been a failure to accommodate the expanding number of recently educated journalists; in France, journalists have developed an excessively aggressive style of investigative reporting [13].

Although journalism has developed differently in each of the locations where it has been used, the majority of scholarly work has focused on the US, serving as a highly constrained but honorable gold standard for a broad variety of journalistic techniques used globally. This has left those forms of journalism performed outside of journals with a similar cruel fate. Additionally, despite the fact that much of the history of journalism has been intertwined with that of the nation-state, it is difficult to claim that this connection still holds true in the modern world. What other motivation should guide the new journalistic infrastructure, even if one of globalization's major repercussions has been to undercut the nation state's centrality? Here, the opposing cases of capitalism and religious fundamentalism serve as examples. Both 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. The implication of all of these facts is that journalism academics have not done enough to maintain the bonds that attach them to journalism in all of its manifestations. This is crucial because there is a corpus of information about journalism that primarily preaches to the choir while doing nothing to establish a common understanding of how journalism functions or what journalism is for [14].

DISCUSSION

There have been five primary areas of study into journalism within the academy: 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 indicates greater mutual exclusivity than there is in actual practice. However, the viewpoints they present give a taste of the variety of approaches that might be used to construct journalism. The underlying presumptions that each frame used to its analysis of the journalistic world reveal a lot about how various lenses on journalism have produced, at best, an incomplete image [15]. The answer to the question of why journalism matters can be found in each of these frames: sociology has addressed how journalism matters; history has

addressed how it used to matter; language studies has addressed how it matters through verbal and visual tools; political science has addressed how it should matter; and cultural analysis has addressed how it matters differently. 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. 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 newsroom studies of ethnographies of news. Sociology has established an image of journalism from which much other research flows because it has mainly emphasized the study of dominant behaviors over deviant ones and frozen instances within the news-making process for analysis rather than studying the whole phenomena [16], [17].

The focus placed on conduct and consequence in this context rather than meaning, pattern, or individual violation has advanced the idea that journalists are professionals, albeit unsuccessful ones. As early canonical work has yet to completely address more modern tendencies toward conglomeratization, corporatization, standardization, personalization, convergence, and the multifaceted character of journalistic labor in its more current manifestations, this work has remained in some ways trapped by its past. Additionally, since this work is predominantly constructed within the parameters of US sociology, its depictions of mostly major news institutions in the US have taken on a global voice in support of our conception of journalism.

CONCLUSION

The early expansions of academic journalism courses are significantly responsible for the development of history and the study of news. The history of news has played a crucial role in demonstrating the endurance of journalism and journalistic practice by using the past's lessons, victories, and tragedies as a method to comprehend modern journalism. Within this context, the things that have endured tend to be the ones that have attracted scholarly attention.

But the illustration is a rather restricted one. Historical inquiry is heavily reliant on documents rather than people, and there are three main categories of documents: journalism history writ small, such as in memoirs, biographies, and organizational histories; history writ midway, organized around temporal periods, themes, and events, like the penny press or "war journalism"; and history writ large, where the main concern is the relationship between the nation state and the news media. Based on the nation under consideration, each varies greatly, as research from Australia and France reveals.

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. This is because there hasn't been a conscious twining of the role that writing history plays for both journalists and the academy.

Finding a more effective way to mix the two has not received enough attention. Here again, the immensely rich and diverse development of journalistic practice across the globe has been overlooked in favor of a concentration on US history in general. It should come as no surprise that a significant portion of this research has struggled with the issue of who is entitled to the

past. The question of whose journalistic history is being studied historically poses a persistent problem. The assumption in the study of journalistic languages is that communications from journalists are not straightforward or too simple, but rather the outcome of created action on the side of speakers.

This region has been predominantly developed within the last 35 years or so, and its development has been distinctly European and Australian. It has evolved to cover vocal language, sound, still and moving pictures, and patterns of interaction. Formal language aspects like grammar, syntax, and word choice are combined with less formal ones like storytelling frames, textual patterns, and narratives.

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CHAPTER 5

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF MULTIFACETED DIMENSIONS OF JOURNALISM STUDIES

Somayya Madakam, Associate Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-somayya.madakam@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

There have been three kinds of language study informal study, which uses language as a backdrop without examining extensively its features, such as content analysis and semiology; formal study, such as sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, and critical linguistics; and the study of the pragmatics of language, as in the patterns of language use in the news that are shaped by narrative and storytelling conventions, rhetoric, and framing. This inquiry has gone in different directions, with framing largely focused on the political aspects of news language and narrative and storytelling targeting its cultural aspects and particularly alternative forms like tabloids or netzines. In stressing not only the shape of language itself but also its role in larger social and cultural life, this largely microanalytic work suffers from a lack of applicability to other kinds of inquiry. At the same time, though, it beginning premise that language is ideological challenges both traditional mainstream news scholar- ship as well as journalistic claims that the news is a reflection of the real.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Multifaceted, Mass Communication, Research, Scholarly Inquiry.

INTRODUCTION

Political scientists have long held a normative interest in journalism, querying how journal- ism "ought" to operate under optimum conditions. Interested in examining journalism through a vested interest in the political world, an assumption of interdependency between politics and journalism motivates this inquiry. Thus, many scholars have clarified how journalism can better serve its publics. Political science inquiry has ranged from broad considerations of the media's role in different types of political systems, such as the classic Four Theories of the Press to studies of political campaign behavior, journalistic models and roles and the sourcing patterns of reporters and officials. Also of relevance is the extensive literature on public journalism [1]. Largely US in focus, although some parallel work has been done by scholars of government and politics in the United Kingdom, Latin America and Eastern Europe, this work has considered journalism's larger "political" role in making news, such as journalism at its highest echelons the publishers, boards of directors, managing editors more often than at its low-ranking individual journalists. Many of these studies have been motivated by normative impulses and have concluded on notes of recuperation, which suggest that journalism is and should be in tune with more general political impulses in the society at large.

Finally, the cultural analysis of journalism has tended to see itself as the "bad boy" in the neighborhood. It has defined itself as querying the givens behind journalism's own sense of self, seeking to examine what is important to journalists themselves and exploring the cultural symbol systems by which reporters make sense of their profession. In assuming a lack of unity within journalism in news-gathering routines, norms, values, technologies, and assumptions about what is important, appropriate, and preferred and in its research

perspective, which uses various conceptual tools to explain journalism, much of this inquiry has followed two strains, largely paralleling those evident in models of US and British cultural studies the former focusing on problems of meaning, group identity and social change , the latter on its intersection with power and patterns of domination . This work has looked at much of what has not been addressed in the other areas of inquiry worldviews, practices, breaches, form, representations, and audiences but all with an eye to figuring out how it comes to mean, necessitating some consideration of the blurred lines between different kinds of news work such as tabloid and mainstream, mainstream and online, news work and the non- news world. The value of some of this work, however, has been challenged by the field's own ambivalence about journalism's reverence for facts, truth and reality, all of which have been objects of negotiation and relativization when seen from a cultural lens [2], [3].

Each frame for studying journalism has emerged as a singular and particular prism on the news, creating a need for more explicit and comprehensive sharing across frames. Not only would such sharing help generate an appreciation for journalism at the moment of its creation, but it would offset the nearsightedness with which much scholarship on journalism has been set in place. How scholars tend to conceptualize news, news making, journalism, journalists, and the news media, which explanatory frames they use to explore these issues, and from which fields of inquiry they borrow in shaping their assumptions are all questions in need of further clarity. Adopting multiple views is necessary not only because journalism scholarship has not produced a body of scholarly material that reflects all of journalism, but it has not produced a body of scholars who are familiar with what is being done across the board of scholarly inquiry. There is both insufficient consensus about journalism and about the academy that studies it. The result, then, is an existential uncertainty that draws from pragmatic, pedagogic and conceptual dimensions of the relationship between journalism and the academy [4].

Future Correctives

Numerous correctives can help resolve journalism's existential uncertainty. Positioning journalism as the core of a mix of academic perspectives from which it can most fruitfully prosper is essential. Recognizing journalism as an act of expression links directly with the humanities in much the same way that recognizing journalism's impact links directly with the social sciences, and those alternate views need to be made explicit as equally valued but nonetheless partial prisms on what journalism is. Keeping that inquiry porous so that it is possible to examine not only what many of us know about journalism, but how we have agreed on what we know is no less important. Similarly, keeping craft, education and research together in the curriculum will help us understand journalism more fully. In this regard, journalism studies are about making a setting to include different kinds of engagement with journalism both those who practice journalism, those who teach others to practice journalism, and those who teach yet others to think critically about what that practice means. None of this is a new idea: Everett Dennis made a similar call over twenty years ago, and such a notion underlies both the Carnegie-Knight Initiative on the Future of Journalism Education and the European Erasmus Mundus program in journalism and media [5].

In some places there has already begun to be movement toward tweaking the foundation of journalism's study. The founding of two parallel academic journals in the late 1990s Journalism: Theory, Practice, and Criticism and Journalism Studies reflects a need for a concentrated place to air the concerns about journalism that arose from academic inquiry. New research centers have developed that are devoted to journalism studies and to the study of certain aspects of journalistic performance trauma, religion, and online journalism, among others. And finally, a Journalism Studies Interest Group was recently established at the International

Communication Association, with the intention of bringing together journalism theory, research and education. In all cases, these efforts have provided a corrective to the limitations of journal- ism's inquiry in its existing frameworks. All of this is a long way of saying that we need to figure out how to make journalism simultaneously more of the world while keeping it at the forefront of our imagination. Finding a clearer template for the mutual engagement of journalism and the academy depends on our being ahead of journalism's development on anticipating where it needs to go and on envisioning broad and creative ways in which it might go there. Journalism is too important to not address the issues raised in these pages, but if it does not wrestle with them quickly, it remains questionable as to what kind of a future it will face [6].

The idea of journalism education is to raise the caliber of journalists themselves. It is seen to be the only method society can interfere to affect the growth of journalism. In other words, the kind of education that aspiring journalists acquire is important because, among the many components that make up journalism, journalists are important. "Journalism, and the educational programs that enable people 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 ideas of journalism education will be examined in this essay, particularly the notion of enhancing journalistic practice. The history of journalism education in the United States will then be examined during the course of the next century. It will cover current essential texts and look at the professionalization issue, which is seen to be the foundation of tertiary journalism education. The debate of what should be taught in journalism education and the sometimes-unrecognized ideological presumptions that underlie journalism instruction will then be outlined in the chapter. The chapter will conclude by highlighting possible future study topics [7].

Setting the Foundation

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 several points of view, nevertheless. There are several techniques to teach journalists. Thus, the broad range of journalism education is a crucial component. One simply has to be aware of the range of educational backgrounds of journalists and the proportions of those who studied journalism before becoming journalists to get the picture. Insofar as current data is available, the results indicate a clear tendency toward journalists having a university or college background.

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 significance. Newspapers with the largest readership are from Japan. Gaunt asserts that only graduates from top colleges with degrees in political science, economics, or the humanities are accepted by the most prestigious news agencies, the Asahi, the Yomiuri, and the Mainichi. The bulk of aspiring journalists obtain on-the-job training that takes the shape of a strict apprenticeship system since few colleges offer media degrees [8].

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, journalism and communication are quickly gaining popularity as fields of study in China. This is a sign of how quickly Chinese culture and the media landscape are changing. Currently, courses integrate skill development with

study of Chinese Communist thought and are seen as being behind market needs. However, despite a rise in higher education options in media, communication, or journalism degrees, as witnessed in the US and Germany, fewer journalists choose these programs as a route to employment. From 1982 to 2002, the proportion of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree graduates who went into mass communication jobs declined sharply from over half to about one-fourth," found Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, and Wilhoit in the United States. As a result, journalism education in the United States has evolved into a more all-encompassing area of mass or public communication. However, over 90% of journalists are degree-holding, which is a significant difference [9].

Similarly, in Germany, 80.5% of journalists have a degree from a university or have attended one, but just 13.0% of them have a major or minor in journalism, while another 17.0% have studied communication or the media. Importantly, 90.0% of those under the age of 35 completed an internship, and 60.0% completed the two-year, or one-year for graduates, in-house training program. Despite the fact that fundamental journalistic working methods seem to be universal, the above-mentioned paths to journalism show distinct national preferences. These statistics show that there are other paths to become a journalist in addition to collegiate journalism school. Writing about journalism education, which originates in academics and is almost exclusively restricted to postsecondary journalism school, is therefore out of step with the reality of mostly in-house training. Making the Newsmakers is the title of a book by Gaunt. The first sentence reads, "Journalism training perpetuates or modifies professional practices and shapes journalists' perceptions of the role and function of the media." The goal of journalism education, as it is being described here, is to change practice, increase the caliber of information provided, and, with the aid of this improved journalism, advance civil society's operations [10], [11].

Education in Journalism Throughout History

In the second part of the nineteenth century, in the United States, the notion that providing journalists with a college or university degree would improve their journalism was developed. The primary location to study journalism at the tertiary level was the United States during the most of the 20th century. Journalism was not widely acknowledged as a topic discipline until the 1980s and 1990s, often at brand-new colleges. The fact that the United States was a pioneer in both news journalism and journalism education is one reason why it broke new ground. Anglo-Americans invented journalism in the way that we understand it now. In continental Europe, journalism was strongly related to the literary world, which required different talents and writing abilities than a reporter for a daily roundup. The defeated US Civil War commander, Robert E. Lee, is credited with putting into practice the notion that aspiring journalists should get a college degree. In Lexington, Virginia, where he served as president of Washington College, now known as Washington & Lee University, he first provided scholarships for journalism studies as a component of a liberal arts degree in 1869 [12].

Even back then, there were questions regarding journalism's legitimacy as a field of study. When Lee took the initiative, newspapers were still tiny businesses where the editor and printer were sometimes the same person. As a result, rather than concentrating on reporting, the early courses emphasized technical printing abilities as well as writing and editing. Regardless of this earlier endeavor, James Carey said that the real start of journalism education came when Joseph Pulitzer forced money into Columbia University's rather reluctant hands to establish a School of Journalism. Instead of the undergraduate institution Pulitzer had originally envisioned, the Columbia School of Journalism opened its doors in 1912 as a graduate program. At a period when many, if not most, journalists hailed from

working-class households, Pulitzer wanted to expand the minds of journalists. By giving them the lacking liberal arts education, he hoped to accomplish his goal [13].

Different approaches were used by other journalism studies pioneers. The new research was integrated into Wisconsin University's political science and sociology PhD programs by Willard Bleyer in the late 1920s. He believed that journalism research was a crucial component of journalism education. Long-term effects resulted from the decision to include journalism under the social sciences. The Wisconsin program's empirical social sciences principles were brought with them when it was founded, and they went on to build several significant journalism schools overseas. The formation of the Association of Journalism Education Administrators and the certifying agency for journalism schools, two cornerstones of the country's journalism education structure, was also made possible in large part by Bleyer. Soon, there were three unique forms of collegiate journalism education. These either functioned as distinct departments inside liberal arts or social science institutions, or as standalone graduate or undergraduate journalism schools, like the Walter Williams program at the University of Missouri.

Wilbur Schramm contributed an additional model. At the conclusion of World War II, Schramm oversaw the University of Iowa's journalism program. Later, he founded the communication studies and research centers at the Universities of Illinois and Stanford. Despite Schramm's original decision to situate his new curriculum within the realm of journalism, communication as a field study quickly overshadowed journalism education, which was unable to shed its reputation as a vocational training program. Professors Bleyer, Williams, and Schramm, in contrast to Pulitzer, were solely 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." The argument over the professionalization of journalism and the curriculum for journalism education underscores the fact that the issue is still open-ended. This placed journalism education in the uncomfortable position of juggling academic and practical studies [14].

Although there are other nations with a history of journalism education, none have had the same influence on the field as the United States. Ecole Supersedure de Journalism, France's first journalism school, was established in 1899 and joined the Ecole de Hautes Etudes en Sciences Socials a year later. In Spain, where the national school of journalism was founded by General Franco in 1941 and put under the Falangist Party's administration, the darker side of journalism education was on display. 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 main government-controlled newspapers in Spain. Similar instances of state-run journalism schools can be found throughout the former Eastern Bloc nations, proving the underlying notion that journalism education is a crucial component, if not a tool, for forming journalists and the media [11].

DISCUSSION

Journalism studies is a dynamic and comprehensive field of academic study that includes a wide range of topics and approaches. This discourse aims to analyze the many dimensions of journalism studies with an emphasis on its complexity and significance in contemporary society. The investigation of well-established journalistic methods such news reporting, reporting on investigations, and editorial judgment is the main emphasis of journalism studies. Researchers in this field look at how media affects public opinion formation, public

education, and keeping government leaders accountable. They look at journalistic ethical dilemmas, how media ownership impacts news content, and the challenges of maintaining independence and impartiality in a constantly changing media landscape[15]. But the study of journalism goes beyond the typical workplace. Additionally, this section looks at how journalism is evolving in the digital age. The internet and social media have transformed how news is produced, distributed, and consumed. Digital technologies have disrupted traditional business models, blurred the distinction between professionals and citizen journalism, and raised questions about the reliability and accuracy of online news sources, according to researchers. The study of journalism also covers subjects like media diversity and participation. Researchers examine the impact of media on public perceptions of identity, gender, and race[16]. They look at the challenges of promoting inclusion and diversity in newsrooms as well as the harm that biased or stereotypical reporting does to groups who are underrepresented. Another facet of journalism studies is the relationship between journalism and other academic fields including political science, economics, and communication theory.

An increasing collection of study investigates the impact of media on political, economic, and societal trends. They examine the potential impact of media coverage on public opinion, international relations, and policy decisions. Additionally, there is no one academic perspective that journalism studies must adhere to. This subject encompasses a wide range of academic disciplines, including communication, social science, political science, and cultural studies. It encourages multidisciplinary research that brings together academics with a variety of backgrounds and expertise in order to fully understand the complex media ecosystem. Academics and students alike can find a wide range of topics and approaches in journalism studies, from its intersection with other disciplines to its interdisciplinary nature, and from conventional storytelling practices to the digital age, moral considerations to issues of representation and diversity. In a time when the media has a significant influence on how we think, feel, and behave, it is crucial to understand the complexity of journalism[17].

CONCLUSION

The numerous dimensions of journalism studies demonstrate how intricate and dynamic this field of study is. As we've seen, a wide variety of topics are covered in journalism studies, from ethical issues to concerns about diversity and representation, from traditional journalistic methods to the digital age.

The interdisciplinary nature of journalism further advances our understanding of how many aspects of society, including politics, economics, and culture, both influence and are influenced by media. For researchers, students, and the general public, it is essential to comprehend the complexity of journalism studies. In an era of rapid technological advancement, information accessibility, and shifting media landscapes, understanding the different dimensions of journalism is crucial.

It enables us to critically assess journalism's influence on public discourse, governmental decisions, and the diversity of viewpoints in our increasingly linked world. In the end, journalism studies provide a critical lens through which we may evaluate, query, and acknowledge the always changing role that journalism plays in our lives.

As democracy adjusts to new opportunities and challenges, journalism is at the forefront of intellectual inquiry, highlighting the intricate relationships between media, society, and democracy. In a time when information is both available and contested, studying journalism is more crucial than ever. It may help us better understand the numerous forces that affect our media environment and, in turn, how we see the world.

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CHAPTER 6

UNDERSTANDING NEWS ORGANIZATIONS AND THE DYNAMICS OF NEWS PRODUCTION

Jaimine Vaishnav, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- jaimine.vaishnav@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalists and the companies they work for produce news. News is therefore both a corporate commodity and a personal one. Media corporations used to be the exclusive avenue for the distribution of even independent freelance journalists' messages. The advanced technology used to spread media messages is supported by few people's limited financial resources. The Internet has had a huge impact on how news is produced and shared. Journalists of today are able to communicate their ideas and do their responsibilities on their own. Although the bulk of journalists continue to work for news delivery corporations, it is unclear how long this will continue to be the case. The bulk of the literature on news organizations and news construction dates back to a period when news organizations dominated and journalists were underdeveloped. But the literature has evolved along with how journalists and news organizations interact.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Media, Reporting, Newsroom, Workflow.

INTRODUCTION

The analysis of news routines the repeated tasks that journalists do while performing their duties comes next. The discovery that media outlets and journalists make news in accordance with observable patterns has had a significant impact on the study of news production. The identification of these patterns has contributed to a key theoretical proposition put out in the literature, namely that news should be seen as produced social reality as opposed to a record of actual events. One is led to assume that the concept of news routines has some significant limits after carefully examining early research on the topic as well as subsequent studies in this line. Researchers have struggled to identify consistent elements that persist throughout time, across contexts, within media organizations, and across journalists. In this chapter, we've chosen a few techniques that do vary and provided a conceptual framework to help you understand them. Using both the historical work on routines and our own, more current research, we have offered a technique to investigate and appreciate the core mandates of news work and to detect how those mandates modify routines. We believe that the data demonstrates that common aspects do alter over time, in various contexts, across media companies, and within employees. The essay continues by discussing the questions that this corpus of study into news creation brings, particularly in cases where news work and news routines do not necessarily take place in news organizations [1].

Resources

There have been three methods of examining news creation, according to Schudson. The state and economic systems are related to how news is produced, claims the political economics school of thought. For instance, Herman and Chomsky argued that the media creates news to further state interests rather than those of the individual. A second approach, mostly influenced by sociology, is to understand news production via the prism of organizational and

occupational theory. One such is Epstein's well-known investigation of the impact of television network structure on news. The bulk of the work on news building has been completed from this standpoint. A third approach focuses on significant cultural barriers to news reporting. An example of this is Chalaby's analysis of the development of French and American journalism, which emphasizes how French literary tradition has influenced its journalism. The three points of view are not wholly distinct, according to Schudson, and some of the most notable works in the organizational tradition also include major cultural and political references [2].

Tunstall made a distinction between news organizations, which he defined as editorial departments employing primarily journalists, and media organizations, which are larger entities that contain both news organizations and other types of communication units, such as magazines and publishing houses. According to Tunstall, these two categories of organizations have distinct goals and bureaucracies. Media companies will be increasingly economically oriented, and news organizations will have fewer routines. Large news organizations, according to Sigal, have all the characteristics of bureaucracies. They have a system of geographic and functional labor division. When referring to journalists, it is possible to differentiate between reporters and editors. General assignment reporters and specialized topic reporters are the two categories of reporters. News organizations also employ geographic organization [3].

When examining the three major television networks, Epstein concentrated on how they structured their news gathering, and found that there were only little differences in the procedures each company employed to produce national newscasts. According to Epstein, the mirror metaphor gives a false impression of how television news programs function. If television news were likened to a mirror, routines of news generation and selection would not matter. The idea was that all important events will be covered by television news. In Epstein's opinion, network news was a tightly focused and limited news collecting organization. For instance, Epstein found that 90% of the NBC national news during the observation period was produced by 10 teams in five important areas since that is where they had news crews [4].

In a prior analysis of the media, Warner found similarities between the organizational structure of television news and that of a newspaper. He came to the conclusion that, for example, the executive producer's position was akin to that of a newspaper editor and that, like editors of newspapers, the executive producer's major selection and distribution criteria for news were space, relevance, and po- litical balance. Halloran, Elliot, and Murdock found a striking similarity in the coverage of anti-Vietnam war demonstrations by major newspapers and television services in Britain. The media was dominated by the topic of violence. The authors suggested that rather than a deliberate attempt to distort the event, it was rather a result of what those news organizations considered to be important. In the end, it didn't really matter if different media outlets had different technological capabilities, political philosophies, and methods for gathering news [5].

In their analysis of the research on the features of news organizations, Shoemaker and Reese defined media organizations as social, formal, and often economic institutions that employ media workers to produce media content. Most often, these organizations' main goal is to produce money, especially by concentrating on target populations that are amenable to advertising. The decisions that journalists make are impacted by economic factors. It is also claimed that the size of the media firm, membership in a network or media group, and ownership have an effect on the content and methods employed to generate it [6].

The News Patterns Concept

Shoemaker and Reese defined news routines as those patterned, routinized, repeated practices and forms that media workers use to do their jobs. They claimed that these routines were created in response to the news organization's limited resources and the massive amount of potential news-making raw material. More specifically, customs, space, technology, and deadlines govern the routines. In their paper, Shoemaker and Reese state that the task of these routines is to deliver, within time and space constraints, the most acceptable product to the consumer in the most effective manner.Based on research in the sociology of work, Tuchman seems to have been the first to examine routines in the context of journalism. She insisted that a key element in the creation of news is depending on routine procedures for processing information known as news, a limited product. Tuchman introduced this idea by proposing that companies carry out activities consistently in order to better govern labor. Employees try to control the volume and speed of work since there is always too much to accomplish, according to her. According to Tuchman, journalists should have rules governing their work since they are often "asked to give accounts of a wide variety of disasters and unexpected events. Reporting on breaking news, according to her, thrives on analyzing unexpected occurrences, happenings that burst to the surface in some disruptive, spectacular way [7].

Tuchman examined how news was categorized using a system used by news personnel with a system she developed based on the sociology of labor. Tuchman claimed that news should be categorized depending on how it occurs and on the needs for the organization. News professionals categorize stories as hard, soft, spot, developing, and continuing. This prompted her to categorize news according to whether it was scheduled or unscheduled, whether or not its transmission was urgent, how it was impacted by news work technology, and whether or not the journalists could decide in advance about future coverage of the event. Tuchman contended that the journalistic categorization of news did not adequately reflect how news organizations really operate. She emphasized that her plan specifically explained how journalists and media organizations manage their work to give them time to comprehend unexpected happenings. She stated that the journalistic categorization approach failed to achieve that objective. Tuchman's early 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 labor as a whole. The second idea was that "it might be more valuable to think of news not as distorting, but rather as reconstituting the everyday world" She maintained that journalists create and reimagine social reality. Instead of concentrating on whether the final result was skewed in any way, researchers who wished to understand news should concentrate on how it was constructed [8].

She made a clear case in her 1972 paper for the American Journal of Sociology that news reporting creates its own reality rather than reflecting reality in these tales. Tuchman was troubled by sociologists' use of news articles to gauge community characteristics, and he first became interested in journalism because of this. In their first essay, Molotch and Lester asserted that the media is not an objective reporter of events but an active player in the constitution of events, and that some events are chosen for inclusion in the news above others based on the media's objectives. Their subsequent two essays all center on this assertion that news is produced by news organizations and journalists rather than being a representation of reality. According to Molotch and Lester, most observers assume a set of happenings which can be known, known to be important, and hence reported by competent, unrestrained news professionals that are objectively relevant. They said that when news deviates from this objective account of what happened, the conventional explanation is that the event was not as it was reported in the news. Understanding the media as formal institutions that follow

"routines for getting work done in newsrooms is crucial to understanding how events are turned into news, according to Molotch and Lester. Some of these practices were noted by Molotch and Lester in a study of the 1969 Santa Barbara, California, oil spill, who claim that they may become so ingrained that they become reified as 'professional norms' of 'good journalism [9].

There were at least three reasons why Tuchman, Molotch, and Lester's seminal work was significant. It first clarified how ordinary actions assist journalists in reporting news. Second, it focused on how news is influenced by power. Thirdly, it made a distinction between what journalists refer to as reality and the created reality of the news. These early authors on routines did not see these essential aspects of employment as changing over time or between media firms or employees. Instead, these routines were seen as the distinguishing elements of news reporting. In a study of what she called an oppositional radio station, Eliasoph questioned the idea that patterns were universal and discovered that the routines were, in fact, consistent. The journalists she saw at KPFA-FM in Berkeley, California, followed the identical 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 create the same kind of news. Routines were used to manage the work of the journalists for the same reason they were used by other media, but the relationship between the station and its audience, the social and political standing of the journalists, and those in charge of the newsroom shaped the characteristics of the news product [10].

Hansen, Ward, Conners, and Neuzil looked at how the development of electronic news repositories for the archiving and retrieval of previously printed articles affected newspaper news cycles. They came to the conclusion that the procedures had mostly remained the same. In a related research, Hansen, Neuzil, and Ward came to the same conclusion that the routines of news production had not been much impacted by the establishment of teams inside newspaper newsrooms to concentrate on news subjects. The absence of variety in the idea of news routines seems to have been mainly established in more recent study. Cook contends that news routines result in predictable news over time and comparable news across news channels in his research of the function of the media in politics. In work evocative of Danzger's, Oliver and Maney contrasted media accounts of civic protests with police reports of same events. They discovered inconsistencies between the media coverage and the police reports that might be accounted for by what they termed newspaper routines, such as a bias for stories concerning local officials and those involving confrontation brought on by the presence of counterdemonstrators. According to research by Wolfsfeld, Avraham, and Aburaiya, Israel's Arab population are negatively portrayed in the press because to cultural and political presumptions that are essentially set habits in Israeli society [11].

Bennett and Ryfe made the case that the media adhere to routines that are the result of organizational and professional regulations, which is in line with the Wolfsfeld et al. research. The term "rules" is important since 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 spirit, Sparrow acknowledged in his writing that the media's routines and practices need to change in response to ambiguity in the surroundings of the media organization. But it doesn't say what kind of variant it is. The notion has little usefulness in news construction research since 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 when the routines are not followed or are changed in some other manner [12]. After reviewing the literature on news routines and news production, Schudson concludes that the importance 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. While acknowledging that contribution and expressing some worry about it, Schudson believes that academics have overstated the idea that real-world events don't really matter when deciding what counts as n. Schudson used Livingston and Bennett's findings as an illustration. These analysts claim that between 1994 and 2001, the industry's technological advancement led to a dramatic increase in the volume of news based on unplanned occurrences on at least one cable news channel, CNN.

The Beats Idea

The study of news routines includes the concept of news beats. Generally speaking, news organizations build themselves up to be able to track events and gather the data required to produce news. The origin of the term beat to describe the hierarchical organization of news gathering is uncertain.

According to one explanation, the expression comes from police employment, when officers are assigned beats or geographical areas to routinely patrol. Beats have gotten a lot of attention in the literature studying how news and news routines are produced, even though the definition of beat in the dictionary is a habitual path or round of duty: as a policeman's beat. Tuchman asserts that news companies use a news net to compile the material that ultimately makes the news. It is assumed that news audiences are interested in events that occur in specific locations, that they are concerned with the operations of specific organizations, and that they are interested in particular subjects, according to her, who claims that the initial purpose of the internet was to catch appropriate stories available at centralized locations [13].

DISCUSSION

The news network, according to Tuchman, is flung through space, focuses upon specific organizations, and highlights topics as a consequence of these circumstances. The most important of these three methods for dispersing reporters is geographic territoriality. Tuchman defines a beat as a method for allocating reporters to organizations that are engaged in the creation of news and the storing of aggregated data. When Fishman undertook his now-classic observational study of news gathering in the late 1970s, the usage of beats was so prevalent that failing to utilize them was a distinguishing attribute of being an experimental, alternative, or underground newspaper. According to Fishman, the beat is a journalistic concept that has its roots in the actual working environment of reporters. Beats in the news organization have a history that goes back longer than the histories of the staff members that work them. Superiors assign reporters to beats, yet while having duty and authority for covering that beat, the reporter does not have control over it.

The beat, according to Fishman, is an area of activities that happen outside of the newsroom and consist of more than simply a random assortment of tasks [14]. Finally, the beat, in Fishman's opinion, is a social setting to which the reporter belongs. The reporter joins the beat, a web of interpersonal connections. According to Fishman, beats have a geographical and current topical aspect. Journalists talk about their beats as places to go, people to meet, and a set of topics they must cover. The narrative concept is the first stage in the generation of news, according to Gans. Reporters have a responsibility to generate 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. According to Gans, other staff members, including the senior editors and producers of the program, are also welcome to submit story ideas. Gans' conceptualization is useful since it concentrates on the idea growth that drives the story and links it to beats [15].

CONCLUSION

The vast bulk of beat writing presupposed their presence in news organizations. However, early studies of news creation revealed signs of variability regarding beats and beat organization. Early research, in instance, suggested that television newsrooms either used beat structure less often than newspapers or that such beats were generally less effectively constructed. In his investigation of decision-making in three local television newsrooms in a medium-sized midwestern market, Drew found that specific beats, specifically to cover city hall, have sometimes been deployed in television. Based on a review of newsgathering and production methods at three major US television national networks, Epstein came to the conclusion that fixed beats, with the exception of those in Washington, namely at the White House, did "not satisfy the network's basic problem of creating 'national news'". As a result, correspondents were moved from one topic to another depending on availability and practical needs when the assignment editor decided that the specific occurrence was worthy of reporting. Altheide's groundbreaking study of a local television newsroom revealed no evidence of a beat hierarchy. The reporters and editors' first concern were having enough material for the newscasts, and they relied on wire services, newspapers, press releases, phone calls, and other sources to get their story ideas. As a result, newspapers and wire agency reporters who specialize in covering beats indirectly decide the bulk of significant occurrences for television journalists. The majority of the reporters at the three stations were given particular "areas to search for news," or "news beats," according to McManus, who uncovered this in a study of three television news operations. However, the news managers' demands that we deliver daily pieces restricted our search for interesting events to only a few minutes each day. One station's assignment editor made it a practice to concentrate on a more urgent story during the reporters' weekly day off from covering their beats. The size of the station is important while gathering information. On a larger station, there will be more very active finds. McManus asserts that stories that are mostly discovered passively, as opposed to actively, get much more coverage on television networks.

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CHAPTER 7

DYNAMICS OF NEWS IDEATION FROM INSTITUTIONAL PRACTICES: AN ANALYSIS

Shweta Loonkar, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-shweta.loonkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

At least some of the many causes for the creation of beats may be linked to the notion of narrative ideation. The story proposal stage, according to Gans, is the one that is most important in the news-making process. According to Bantz, McCorkle, and Baade, story ideation is the process of developing narrative concepts. They observed that anything may become news in the television newsroom they looked at as a consequence of a procedure that started with the narrative concept. To determine what may be a story, individual news staff members evaluated the material coming into the newsroom from a variety of sources, including press releases, general mail, newspapers, magazines, reporter tips, police-fire-FBI radios, and phone calls. The daily story budget meeting, which determined which of the raw materials would become news, then discussed these story themes. It seems that television networks have explored other methods of coming up with narrative ideas. Due to their high production costs and constrained labor pools, television news organizations cannot afford to generate more stories than they can utilize.

KEYWORDS:

News, Media, Journalism, Storytelling. Production.

INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic and ever-changing world of journalism and media, the process of developing news stories is difficult. It includes a wide variety of practices, strategies, and institutional techniques that affect the regular information we absorb.

As the media industry adapts to changing audience expectations and technological advancements, it is more crucial than ever to understand the dynamics of news ideation from institutional practices.

The Dynamics of News Ideation from Institutional Practices investigates the intricate web of factors that influence the conception, creation, and final dissemination of news articles to the general public. In order to provide light on the inner workings of news organizations, their methods, and the shifting roles they play in our information environment, this inquiry goes beyond a purely academic exercise. It is an important detour into the center of contemporary journalism [1].

In recent years, the landscape of news production has undergone a major upheaval as a result of the rise of digital platforms, social media, and citizen journalism. Underlying these apparent changes, however, were institutional procedures that have always been crucial to the news-making process. Understanding the interplay between new and traditional newsroom approaches is crucial to comprehending how complicated modern journalism [2]. This exhaustive analysis seeks to provide answers to a number of crucial questions:

i. How have news organizations adjusted their institutional practices to the digital age, and how has this transformed how news ideas are generated?

ii. What role do beats play in the creation of news ideas and how have they changed over time in response to altering media environments? Beats are specific regions of coverage.

iii. How do branding strategies, news philosophies, and institutional norms combine to influence how news is selected and presented?

iv. How do advancing technology, shifting audience expectations, and the rise of citizen journalism impact the production of news items and their circulation within respectable institutions?

v. Do different media outlets use different processes to generate news stories? If true, how do these variations illustrate the development of journalism?

By addressing these issues, the dynamics of news ideation from institutional practices makes an effort to provide a complete picture of the intricate processes that underpin news creation in the twenty-first century. It recognizes that news is not only the product of a journalist's labor, but is also closely related to the institutions that produce it. Furthermore, it acknowledges that these institutions need to adapt constantly to satisfy the demands of a quick-paced, information-rich society [3].

As we embark on our journey through the dynamics of news ideation, we invite readers to look at the inner workings of media companies, the evolving duties of journalists, and the always changing environment of news production. By doing this, we want to shed light on the complex relationships between institutional activities and the news stories that shape our perceptions of the world. As a consequence, assignment editors split apart their teams to increase the likelihood that a story would be generated. Some reporters are required to come up with ideas on a given issue using the procedures employed in television news, while others are not, as an alternative to regular beats. But each of these approaches offers concepts that meet the demands of the media organization. Even though the majority of the literature on news generation views beats as a means to organize news gathering, they should be considered as a tool to develop story ideas [4].

The guiding concepts of The News Concept

It is crucial to understand why a certain media firm would choose one method for story ideation over another since story ideation is a distinctive characteristic of news, which indicates that all news organizations require story ideas. A action premise, as Hage calls it, is required to indicate when one process for narrative ideation will be engaged as opposed to another. At least one suggestion is made by recent study on how media companies react to commercial pressure. In commercial systems, media companies give their product a brand, or what marketers call an identity. The brand's identity describes the properties of the new product. As a result, media managers are compelled to create what they refer to as a news philosophy, or a viewpoint on the nature of the news product the organization will provide. This news strategy needs to affect the methods the media firm uses to generate story ideas. Recent years have seen a shift in media researchers' attention on branding in the media, notably among television stations. According to Atwater, television news organizations do modify their programming to better compete in a cutthroat industry. Stations specifically employed soft news to set their programming apart from those of competitor stations. Such product distinction is often accomplished via branding, or the creation and maintenance of groups of consumer-pleasing product attributes and values [5]. Media corporations often trademark their approach to reporting on the news, whether overtly or covertly. The organization's overall strategy for the news product is listed below. Organizations decide

which features of their communities to stress and which to minimize, how much to emphasize or underplay conflict and crime stories, and whether to mix serious and amusing news. These choices are made by the market because it wants competing news stories to stand out from one another. Businesses adopt various "news philosophies" and then sell these variations, branding their goods in line with those variances, in radio and television, where there is fierce rivalry, at least in the United States [6].

The goals of other beats

The utilization of beats in certain media enterprises but not in others may be explained by describing the ideas of news philosophy and narrative ideation, which serves as the necessary action premise. Media companies may be anticipated to differentiate themselves more in terms of news philosophy and, as a result, in terms of how they use story ideation techniques, as market rivalry heats up. Research shows that beats may play a variety of functions for newsrooms, despite the fact that the literature on news creation concentrates on beats' effectiveness as a method of collecting news. In fact, at least three distinct perspectives on beats have been published by Becker, Lowrey, Claussen, and Anderson. One interpretation of the research on news generating is that beats are used by news organizations as effective, but not necessary, methods for news collecting. Beats are a kind of labor differentiation, according to Becker and his colleagues, who were debating from the viewpoint of the sociology of organizations literature. In other words, they serve as a means of placing individuals in settings where they can work most effectively for the benefit of the whole business. According to this theory, beats would be anticipated to be developed when newsrooms grew in size for the simple reason that job specialization improves organizational effectiveness. Beats might be seen as a component of the management remuneration scheme. Beats may be used to reward great performance and penalize or discipline poor performance since they can be grouped hierarchically [6], [7].

There is no contradiction between these three descriptions of a beat. Beats may be used to collect information and generate narrative ideas. They could serve as a reward system and serve to highlight distinctions in effort. During their investigation of newspaper newsrooms, Becker and his colleagues discovered no indication that beats are used for this third function. Since beat structures varied depending on the size of the organization but fundamentally remained the same as they became more complicated, the idea that beats are tools for news production makes sense. This makes it obvious that beats may have effects that their authors did not expect. For instance, some people have discussed the potential effects of interactions between beats. Breed claims that beats give reporters significant sway. He came to the conclusion that beat reporters were now the "editor" role. According to Eliasoph, reporting on beats need not be objective depending on the power dynamics between the source and the reporter. According to Soloski, beat reporters and their sources have a "symbiotic relationship" that involves duties for both parties. This both makes their task easier and more difficult. According to Donohue, Olien, and Tichenor, journalists who often cover a beat have a common system of meaning that enables them to quickly produce articles with mostly foreseeable outcomes [8].

Aim-Oriented Study

This paper found some early support for the predicted relationship between news philosophy, story ideation, and adoption of story ideation methodologies. Researchers from the southern United States spent two days visiting the newsrooms of a newspaper, two television stations, and a medium-sized urban area. The television stations were chosen because they had almost equivalent newsroom sizes, shared comparable network-related resources, and broadcast

newscasts on a weekly basis. However, there was a legitimate cause to anticipate variations in the process that led to the creation of the final news item. The magazine was the only daily publication for the metro region. Additionally, the researchers conducted unstructured interviews with newsroom leaders and journalists. Newspapers and newscasts were produced during the observation period, and they were seen, read, and evaluated [9].

This paper provides some concise responses to the questions raised about the significance of beats. First, although not having a structure as separate by specialty as the newspaper, television newsrooms did recruit experts. Specialized subjects including the weather, sports, consumer news, and health were covered. These experts were in charge of developing stories, ideas, and other types of material in their specialized fields. The results show that since television newsrooms did not need such a complex structure, they did not have the intricate beat organization of newspaper newsrooms. Newspapers need fewer stories than television newsrooms, and the ideas for those stories might be found in a number of locations, including scanners, the casual observations of its general assignment reporters, websites, press releases, and listings of local events. According to the report, news organizations set up a mechanism to provide specialist information when they saw a need for it often. This was accomplished by choosing a person whose responsibility it was to convey this kind of information. One of the television networks that is the subject of the investigation refers to these experts as "franchise" reporters. They were required to come up with story ideas, research them, produce pieces on subjects including consumer news and health concerns. Despite not being referred to as "franchise" reporters, weather forecasters and sports reporters carried out the same duties. The station concluded it required a consistent diet of sports and weather and that hiring a specialist whose job it was to provide it was the best way to acquire it [10].

The editors of the newspaper under consideration determined that they need a consistent flow of information from a locale outside the metro area and established a beat for it. The establishment of a local beat by the newspaper met a very particular need for the publication under consideration. The publication asked for submissions from that area in an effort to expand readership there. The publication also sought to fulfill its own internal goal for a regional emphasis. The reporter assigned to cover the beat was required to submit articles and propose story ideas on a regular basis. The two under investigation TV stations used a variety of methods to come up with story ideas. While the bigger station depended more on the skills, knowledge, and organizational skills of the key assignment person, the smaller station relied more on its reporters and producers. The variations seem to be a result of how the two stations approach news in different ways [11]. It was evident that breaking news was handled quite differently by newspapers and television networks. The newspaper's staff discussions revealed a need for accuracy, completion, and a range of topics addressed. The emphasis in television newsrooms was far more constrained. In all situations, the news directors were aware of how little they could do during a program. Fundamentally, they preferred a presentation that concentrated solely on the most important aspects of local operations as opposed to one that appealed to the audience. The data unambiguously demonstrates the various daily newspapers' and television stations' approaches to story conception and development. The disparities between the television networks are not discussed at all. The discrepancies seemed significant while being little because they appeared to represent distinct news viewpoints [12].

The case study results are in line with the main hypotheses generated from the analysis of the news building literature in this chapter. Every news day began with a need for raw materials for each of the news companies under investigation, more particularly, the ideas that would be used to create news stories. The organizations developed routines or processes to ensure

their availability since they had little money to spend on buying these items. Beats were used for the newspaper in these. Even though it was a simpler sort, the television stations still required specialized expertise. The television stations often tasked staff with producing packages and they charged certain teams with coming up with, compiling, and arranging story ideas. The anticipated market demand has some influence on the new product's features. Every media outlet seemed to have a news ethos, or notion of what it was there for, which was influenced by what the people desired to read or watch. They worked hard to "brand" their goods effectively [13], [14].

DISCUSSION

According to the prologue of a special news issue of the journal Political Communication, research on news media has mostly led to one conclusion: news is rather homogeneous. The study, which contends that news is the result of a set of organizational behaviors that are constant across time, geography, and organizations, also explains this stability. The sameness of the content is a characteristic of French media as well, according to Bourdieu. Shoemaker and Cohen discovered that there were more similarities than differences among the news themes reported in a composite week of newspapers, radio shows, and television shows from ten different nations. Donsbach contends that there is more labor division among US journalists than there is in the four European nations used as a comparison. Compared to journalists in other nations, US journalists are also more likely to have their reports modified for accuracy [15], [16]. Esser discovered significant variations between German and British newsrooms in the amount of role differentiation; the German newsrooms had little to no job differentiation, while the British newsrooms had a number of jobs. Weaver discovered that the opinions of journalists from 12 different national governments regarding the roles they ought to play in society were highly disparate. As a result of the research's emphasis on the stunning content connections, Esser came to the conclusion that the present corpus of study is naïve in that it overlooks variations in routines and structure.

Cook criticized the organizational approach to the study of news, claiming that although it demonstrated the need of routines, it provided little insight into such patterns. According to Cook, the American news media is more than just a collection of several entities. He argues that the news media should be examined as a single institution since news content and the procedures needed to create it are comparable. Cook and Sparrow's emphasis on an institutional approach to news has rekindled interest in news practices. Support for this is shown by the majority of the papers and reports by Benson, Cook, Entman, Kaplan, Lawrence, Lowrey, Ryfe, and Sparrow that were published in the special issue of Political Communication [17]. According to Lowrey, the new institutional strategy is a response to earlier work and organizational behavior ideas. He draws support for this claim from sociological literature. That study ignored the context of people's activities and viewed people and their organizations as if they were entirely rational and goal-oriented. The institutionalists have concentrated on how unchallenged typification, norms, and habits may influence the atmosphere of an organization and how decisions are made. Institutional rules and procedures are unquestioningly followed. Organizations cling to them without considering their efficacy [17].

CONCLUSION

It's yet unclear how much of a difference this new methodology will make in the analysis of news production. According to Sparrow's new institutionalism-based theory, news organizations create standard operating procedures in response to three different types of uncertainty: uncertainty regarding profitability, legitimacy, and raw resources. The first and

third of these are particularly important in the literature on media economics, which claims that media organizations are inherently commercial in character. Endman contends that news institutionalism alone is insufficient to account for how foreign policy is reported in the media and advises combining it with analysis from the literature on both media and foreign policy. Still believe the organizational approach is worthwhile, as we have always said. The need for story concepts, which serve as the foundation of news, is one trait that, in our opinion, distinguishes news organizations. This need has an effect on the organizational structure and processes, which in turn affect the final news output. The creation of stories in historical writing has probably not received as much attention as it might. It is also unknown how many different ways there are to build a tale. Unquestionably, beats a topic that has been extensively covered in the literature on news production play a vital role in the formation of story ideas. There are further strategies as well. Since routines were not believed to be adjustable, research on news routines seemed to have reached a standstill. This increased emphasis on diverse methods for creating tale ideas creates a new field of research. It would be helpful to examine the origins of other narrative brainstorming methodologies on a par with this.

Thus, news philosophy is considered to be one of these precursors. There's a possibility that more guests may arrive. It may be possible to identify changes in media content that the bulk of past study has mostly missed, especially at the local level, by examining the different narrative ideation approaches. According to this article, routines should change throughout time.

It also believe that the news-production process will be significantly impacted by the separation of journalism from media corporations. A preliminary analysis reveals that use-driven websites' news agendas diverge significantly from those of the traditional media. Citizen journalists those who cover news without professional training in journalism and/or without being bound by the mainstream media are likely to also come up with original story ideas that are different from those used by the media. The processes for coming up with such ideas are also likely to change since they are very unlikely to be related to the way journalism is now done. Story conception will undoubtedly remain a crucial part of news creation. Therefore, it is the area in which future study may be most fruitfully focused.

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CHAPTER 8

UNVEILING THE DYNAMICS OF NEWS SELECTION AND PRODUCTION

Jayashree Balasubramanian, Associate Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-jayashree.balasubramanian@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The Internet, newspapers, television and radio news, news magazines, and their sources provide a constant supply of information for journalists. Without gatekeeping, it would be difficult for them to choose and mold the limited quantity of information that makes it into the news. In order for information to become news, it must be carefully chosen, written, edited, placed, scheduled, repeated, and otherwise manipulated. Scholars must comprehend the gatekeeping process and how it affects the reality that is given to the public because gatekeepers paint an image of the world for the rest of us. Since the 1950s, communication researchers have been using gatekeeping, one of the first social science ideas that has been modified and refined for use in the study of news1, continually. The key concepts of gatekeeping theory are defined in this chapter, along with the leading authors and works on the subject, the current state of gatekeeping research, significant problems with gatekeeping theory, methodological concerns, and considerations for future gatekeeping scholarship.

KEYWORDS:

Dynamics, Gatekeeping, Journalism, Media, News, Production.

INTRODUCTION

All gatekeeping studies concentrate on items, or those pieces of information that are rejected or picked, shaped, and scheduled. Kurt Lewin's social psychology theory of how to alter people's eating patterns is where the practice of tracking the flow of things first appeared. According to his idea, things were food items. Not all options are chosen. Some of them enter channels that are sometimes separated into parts that can only be accessed by going through gates. By fluctuating in strength and valence direction and acting on one or both sides of gates, forces may help or hinder the movement of objects through them. Some things are prevented from moving through the channels by weak or negative forces, and it's vital to remember that forces exist both before and after gates [1]. A television station's ability to cover live events may be slowed by the cost of microwave remote equipment, for instance, but once the equipment has been purchased and has passed the gate, it has a positive force that encourages the news producer to frequently use it to justify the expense. The last component represents the conclusion of the gatekeeping process, which includes the effects of the item's passage through the various channels, sections, and gates in addition to its selection [2].

In Figure 1, there are two hidden crucial components. The gatekeeper determines whether information enters the channel and how it is used. Gatekeepers may be persons, professional norms of behavior, corporate regulations, or computer algorithms, to name a few. While all gatekeepers make judgments, their levels of autonomy differ. Autonomy may range from a person's peculiar whims to a set of unbreakable laws that computer systems comprehend. Google, a firm that manages information, employs algorithms, which include to choose news articles for users of the news Web page news.google.com, and to transform the gatekeeping

policies of the corporation into computer instructions. The fact that Google presents its choices as current news to its large readership may give the impression that human censors lack autonomy; yet, algorithms are the result of numerous judgments, ranging from those made at the management level to those made by code writers. The result of this process is Google News, which presents a supposedly impartial view of the day. However, this objectivity is a quality of people and how they see the world, not of computer systems [4].

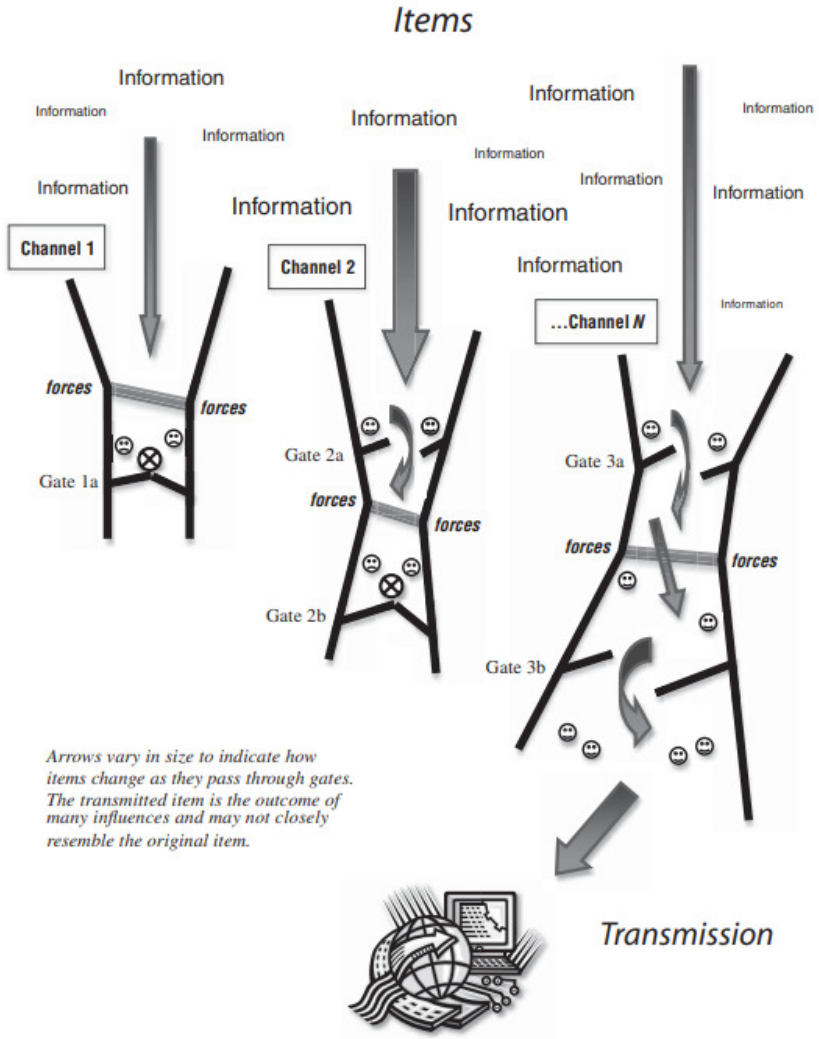

Figure 1: Illustrated the basic Elements of Gatekeeping Studies[3]**.**

The gate was seen as an in/out decision point in early gatekeeping research regarding news events, with little to no consideration for other facets of the gatekeeper's role. However, Donahue, Tichenor, and Olien stress that gatekeeping is a more complicated process that involves choices regarding the amount of time and space given to a news event, where in a publication or news program the story is placed, the use of graphics, and the number of stories about the event on one day or across days, as well as whether the story returns in a cyclical pattern. In other words, reporters may shape the narrative [5].

Early Impacts

Although audience and effect-related topics have dominated communication studies, institutional, organizational, and professional elements are crucial for comprehending the media environment. This is something gatekeeping has repeatedly brought to our attention. Gatekeeping, one of the early ideas in the subject, 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 paradigm, the gatekeeping tradition has had an impact by compellingly drawing attention to certain occurrences. This key notion has since directed several study questions across a broad range of communication activity, going much beyond the original meaning of the one defined by Lewin, a social psychologist but educated as a physicist. By defining the channels and gates governing what flowed through them, he attempted to apply the principles of physical science to human conduct. This simple but powerful approach, adaptable to many other fields, helped us make sense of the apparently many factors and actors at play in a communication situation. Lewin, like other early thinkers like Claude Shannon and Norbert Wiener, believed that psychological forces could be studied mathematically [6].

The phrase gatekeeper was first used by Kurt Lewin in a work that I stumbled upon one day. believed that it would be fascinating to investigate the convoluted sequence of "gates" that a newspaper report had to pass through to get from the real criteria event to the final narrative in a newspaper. White's 1949 study of a news editor handled the intuitively evident topic of how news organizations deal with the issue of so much information and so little space. His work helped adapt the principles of Lewin to a journalistic context and establish 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," looked at the justifications given by a news editor for accepting or rejecting a list of potential news items. Despite simply focusing on one person's choices, the approach was very 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 after analyzing the justifications offered for choosing one-tenth of the wire reports to be included 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 [7].

The model strongly implies that the fundamental cause of media distortion is the necessity to reduce a large number of global events to a small number that ultimately make the news. That indicates that news selection would be less difficult if that were less the case and editors were better equipped to make wise decisions. Additionally, the gatekeeping model allows for a variety of decision-makers along the route of selection, but many studies, including White's, have a propensity to concentrate on just one stage of that process. Mr. Given that he did not control the whole of the day's events, Gates may have been given too much credit for his ability to wield influence. Additionally, his primary responsibility was to choose news from the major wire services that were mostly equivalent, so his first selections came from a limited pool of options [8].

Warren Breed's study on social control in the newsroom, while not a "gatekeeping" study per se, is a near contemporary of White's and is often discussed alongside it. 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 see how they decided how to conduct their story selection. In a way, 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 strategy is broadcast. Breed cited the fact that "policy news may be slanted or buried so that some important information is denied the citizenry" as the pertinent gatekeeping problem [9]. Breed's contribution was to demonstrate how the most crucial gatekeeper may not be the one who is directly engaged in the selection process but may

instead be found at a higher level inside an organization with more in-fluential levels. The subjectivity of the gatekeeper would appear to significantly problematize the news process if news is what the journalist thinks it is, yet the field was sluggish to act on this crucial finding. According to Reese and Ballinger, this is because it is expected that the gatekeeper would effectively represent the community by "ensuring that the community shall hear as a fact only those events that the newsman, as the representative of his culture, believes to be true." Like White, Breed suggested that if publishers' excessive influence was reduced, the gatekeeping process might be run to the community's satisfaction using journalistic norms and other rules. Therefore, according to these viewpoints, the society should not be afraid of gatekeepers' judgments as long as they remained loyal cultural representatives [10].

For many years, this benevolent perception of gatekeepers suppressed attention to this crucial process, until relative outsiders to the communication industry forced journalistic choices back under the spotlight. Breed's theory attributed gatekeeping authority to the publisher, White to the editor's subjective opinion, but subsequent work in media sociology, done a decade or more later, positioned it at the organizational level. Herbert Gans's extremely important work, which also recognized sources of power inside the organization and the incentives journalists have to adhere to social conventions and take into account pragmatic factors. This strategy incorporates gatekeeping into an organization's ongoing and practical operations as a beneficial corrective.

Gans believes that the process by which all of the organization's components, routines, and arrangements are involved in the production of news is where the building of news is found, not in the journalist, publisher, or gatekeeping editor. This helps deflect responsibility for misinformation from certain journalists. According to Gans, the news process is figuring out how to package the daily flow of events into a saleable product for viewers. Journalists utilize "considerations" to help in the decision-making process for the answer, which must be applied without a lot of thought. They must assist prevent too high levels of uncertainty, be adaptable, simple to understand or explain to others, and effective, ensuring the greatest outcomes with the least amount of work. The efficiency and power components of the news equation are interconnected [11].

The Guardians

The gatekeeping tradition has, by its very nature, concentrated scholarly attention on the people in charge of the gates, even as it provides opportunity for channels and outside pressures: Mr. A significant area of study has been given to characterizing these people's traits in an effort to better understand the choices they are likely to make. Recent theory has struggled to define who is a journalist, but gatekeeping indirectly places that definition completely with the experts working inside news organizations all full-time reporters, writers, correspondents, columnists, news persons, and editors who are in charge of editing the creation or transmission of news articles or other information. By 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 in the most depth. Weaver et al.'s most recent national survey is a continuation of two earlier ones that examined these journalists' professional and personal characteristics and contrasted them with the broader population. This means that these findings, along with the countless and less objectively scientific polls of journalists that claim to demonstrate individual bias, are predicated on the significance of the roughly 120,000 members of this professional organization. The authors contend that since they have the ability to alter our worldviews, their composition is more important [12], [13].

Leader of the Field

According to a survey of communication journals and books, empirical studies on gatekeeping research began to pick up again in the past ten years after slowing down in the 1980s. The sociological trend in journalism studies heralded by Ganz's and others was followed by a shortage of gatekeeping scholarship in the 1980s. The research has been directed toward analyzing gatekeepers in their organizational context by the sociology of news work. Gatekeeping theory put out by White, which stressed the autonomy of individual gatekeepers in news selection, has lost appeal. 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 monitored many of the evolving journalistic practices and demographics, as was already mentioned. It's not just them. of line with the increase of female journalists, 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 no impact on the news's editorial substance. Others have looked at how race affects the choice and creation of news. The public or civic journalism movement of the 1990s has enlarged notions of the journalistic job and influenced how gatekeepers see their work [14], [15].

New waves of gatekeeping study have, however, been sparked by the advent of technology and the concomitant institutional changes. For instance, Berkowitz investigated the gatekeeping procedure in local television news whereas earlier research focused on gatekeeping at newspapers. Gatekeeping at print and electronic media was examined by Abbott and Brassfield, who discovered certain similarities in their decision-making. Recently, focus has turned to the internet environment where news is created. The recurring theme in this body of study is that as technology evolves, so will the activities and operations of news organizations. The Web, unlike print newspapers, is a fluid, worldwide, and profoundly individualized media form, according to Singer, who claims that it is not a finite, concrete media form. Some early studies of internet news trumpeted the demise of organizational impacts on gatekeeping in the new media environment, while others found no distinction between gatekeeping duties in older and newer media. Singer examines how conventional print-based news organizations have changed to operate in an online news environment and contends that print-based routines are still effective there. But first, some news. Websites have embraced the interactive nature of the Internet, opening up a channel for reader interaction. Even if the gatekeeping role is evolving in the internet news environment, Singer claims that it seems unlikely to lose all relevance any time soon [16].

Empirical study has arisen to comprehend how changes in the routines of news labor, the setting of news work, and the demographic profile of gatekeepers have affected the news that we see and hear every day. Earlier theories on gatekeeping systems have often been the foundation of these research. In order to explore new types of subsidies, such as the introduction of video news releases targeted towards electronic news organizations, the notion of the news subsidy, as stated by Gandy and others, has been applied. Gatekeeping is vibrant in part because of a corpus of knowledge that has evolved along with developments in journalism. The universal acceptance of the gatekeeping notion as it has been more generally defined may have contributed to the relative paucity of gatekeeping study in the 1980s. As previously said, gatekeeping is no longer seen as only a question of selection or as the work of a single, strong agent. Gatekeeping studies has been able to be included into the field of media sociology and has therefore regained theoretical importance thanks to a larger knowledge of gatekeeping. It was more of a big step backward than a bold stride forward for this drive toward a social viewpoint. In fact, going back to the beginning has helped

gatekeeping remain relevant. According to Lewin's "field theory," gatekeeping arose from an interplay of forces inside a social field. Lewin, the father of gatekeeping research, had highlighted the role of the gatekeeper within a "field." Lewin's field theory was based on "psychological ecology," which he coined and which later came to be known as ecological systems theory and human ecology theory. Four systems a microsystem, mesosystem, ecosystem, and macrosystem were to be used to understand individuals. These systems approximately matched the five levels of analysis that Shoemaker and Reese defined. 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. wider precision and wider breadth in reasoning about the creation and selection of news have resulted from this analytical paradigm. To better understand the variables that affect news about federal legislation, Shoemaker, Eichholz, Kim, and Wrigley examined variables across levels of analysis [17].

Essential Concerns

Even though gatekeeping research has a long history in the field of media, certain important problems persist. How we hypothesize about the many degrees of analysis for the journalistic profession is one of those important concerns that has been discussed above. We must be clear about why it is important to examine additional levels of analysis if gatekeeping is ultimately influenced by ideological reasons, as Herman and Chomsky have suggested. The so-called forces at the gates in the gatekeeping process will be another important topic that will be covered in this article. Lewin believed that factors at the gate influence which stories become news and which do not, as was previously mentioned. These factors restrict the freedom of individual gatekeepers and uniformly slant the news. Lewin's gatekeeping theory used metaphors like channels and gates, but it also claimed that "force" had some ontological reality. At least there are guidelines for information selection by gatekeepers. What, however, are those forces? Gatekeeping research and thinking have mostly avoided that issue. But it is a question worth asking and worth addressing for a number of reasons. First, we should empower practitioners to change institutional practices or alignments if society is dissatisfied with the news that journalistic gatekeepers create. Understanding the dynamics that first formed or enabled certain practices and alignments will be necessary for this. Second, Lewin's usage of "force" may have obscured the kind and use of coercive "power" in the gatekeeping process. Those with limited authority may not fully understand how hegemonic elites control the journalistic industry. Third, a coherent system of premises is necessary for theorizing. However, without defining the nature of the force at the gate, we risk holding incompatible beliefs, such as those on the nature of human reason. We might also depend on functionalist presumptions, which are not supported by actual evidence. For instance, Gans referred to even his own findings as speculative in order to accept the empirical constraints of functional analysis [18].

DISCUSSION

The key choices taken while planning gatekeeping research are the degree of analysis and the unit of analysis. The features of the unit of analysis are the variables in research. It is the subject of the measurement. Each case in a data file represents a single analytical unit, such as a Web page, magazine article, television news program, multiple newspaper front pages, reporter, editor, or producer, or corporate ethics policies. What is the theory about? is a more theoretical question to ask while analyzing research. These parts of the research are the more ambiguous than any other, in part because individuals often use the phrases interchangeably [19]. This is a consequence of the fact that the majority of quantitative communication research use survey and experimental methodologies; the level and unit of analysis are often

the person. We acquire information on specific individuals in order to put ideas about them to the test. But content analysis technique is often used in gatekeeping investigations, and the unit of analysis frequently varies from the level of analysis. Shoemaker and Reese suggest that five levels of analysis individual, media routines, organizational, extra media, and ideological are acceptable for studying communication content. On each level of analysis, more than one unit of analysis may be evaluated. Frequently, an explanation at one level is provided by making reference to facts obtained at a different level. This might result in the "ecological fallacy" if, for instance, judgments are made about news journalists based on the company they work for [20].

CONCLUSION

Micro units are researched at the individual level, yet they are not exclusive to one person. In addition to reporters, producers, and even audience members, alternative individual-level units of analysis may include news articles, television news programs, blogs, images, or even newscasts. It is crucial to decide whether the day or the newspaper will be the unit of study. We are operating at the organizational level of analysis if the unit of analysis is the newspaper. Variables are traits of certain individuals when analyzing data at the individual level. The routines used to complete work serve as the units of study in studies that examine the routine practices of communication work. For instance, a researcher interested in examining how ethics affect gatekeeping judgments can investigate the ethics codes of certain people or television companies. With variations amongst news companies, the code of ethics becomes the unit of study. Journalists could be governed by more than one code of ethics, such as those from the government and a professional association. In this instance, rather than each newspaper, each code of ethics would be its own case in the data file.

Variables are aspects of each code of ethics, such the subjects covered, when it was last changed, or how specific it is. Numerous gatekeeping studies use the organizational level of analysis, where newspaper chains or individual newspapers, blogs, television networks or stations become the unit of study and all variables are properties of them. The quantity of answers, themes of blog postings, and others may be variables. If the units of analysis are radio stations, the variables would include aspects of each station, such as profitability, signal coverage, or the proportion of the coverage area that is made up of people of Asian ethnicity. Governments, interest groups, and religious organizations are examples of units of analysis included in the social institution level of analysis. These are organizations as well, but unlike an investigation at the organizational level, examining non-media social institutions enables us to gauge each one's unique impact on the gatekeeping procedure. These units' characteristics, such as the number of public relations professionals hired, the budget allocated for outside public relations services, or the overall sum spent on public relations initiatives the previous year, are variables. Finally, we examine variables that are traits of social systems at the macro level. All subsequent layers are built on the foundation of the social system. Cities, nations, continents, and political coalitions are social system analytical units. Variables, such as the political system, volume of imports and exports, population size, or number of ethnic groups, provide information on the units under study.

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CHAPTER 9

EXPLORING THE INTERSECTION OF JOURNALISM AND SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

Thiruchitrambalam, Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- thiru.chitrambalam@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

For many years, the branch of sociology that analyzes professionalization and professional systems, the sociology of the professions, and the discipline of journalism studies have coexisted in a condition of mutual indifference. Most studies of journalistic professionalism, however, avoid engaging with the majority of the sociological literature on professional occupations and systems. Few classic professional studies in the sociology of professions even hazard a guess as to journalism's professional status, preferring instead to concentrate 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 objectivity norm and that project, and the way in which the profession is changing. At a time when many of the most significant scholarly questions about journalism revolve around issues of the occupation's power, authority, and professional status.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Media Studies, Professionalization, Professionalism, Sociological Perspectives.

INTRODUCTION

The importance of journalism is self-evident and independent of its position in a hierarchy of professions, according to researchers in this field. The first strand, which emerges from journalism itself, tends not to worry about whether journalism produces authoritative knowledge or possesses professional traits. The goal of this line of inquiry is to assess the extent to which journalism has attained professional status, often via surveys of the workforce or academic institutions. The quality of journalistic knowledge or claims to knowledge or, in Paul Starr's words, the standing of journalism's cultural authority is the subject of a second line of research that emerges from the sociology of news organizations and media studies [1]. The second strand conflates journalistic objectivity with journalistic professionalism in general, whereas the first strand suffers from its acceptance of the trait perspective on the professions. Recent research by Hallin and Mancini shows that professionalism survives in many non-American media systems even when neutrality is not the exclusive professional standard. 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 [2].

From Workplace Characteristics to Workplace Conflict

The widespread abandonment of the trait approach of occupational analysis, an approach that 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 era within the subfield of sociology dedicated to professionalization research. The trait approach's main contribution was an effort to identify and then quantify the extent to which certain professional traits were met by different occupational groups. 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 [3].

Sociologists gave up on the trait approach in the 1960s and 1970s, 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 taking their lead from Everett C. Hughes and being motivated by Max Weber's work on status and authority. The study of the profession as an idealized structural-functionalist category has largely been supplanted in sociology in the forty years following Hughes' challenge by the more Weberian study of professionalization and the professional mission. If the idea of profession is best understood as a folk term, then phenomenological research design is the most suitable 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 achieve professions via their actions. One does not seek to define what a profession is in an absolute sense [4], [5].

When the professional project was framed in this way, several components of it took on significant roles in the dominant Weberian interpretation of professional conflict in the late 1970s.

A profession's attempt to establish an organizational monopoly on a body of technically applicable abstract knowledge; the requirement for a market in which to exchange that knowledge; the connection between a profession's knowledge monopolization and the social status of its members; the interdependence between a profession's desire for social mobility and market control; and endeavors to translate economic power into social influence are some of these aspects. Indeed, sociological studies of education and higher education as a mechanism for the orderly reproduction of a class system and the legitimization of class inequalities were connected to and influenced by sociological literature about professions. Neo-Marxist studies highlighted the role of education in preparing people to acquire cultural capital to support their high position in the social order rather than technical knowledge or skills appropriate for the contemporary economy. Early critiques of the notion of objectivity in American journalism were informed by this book or had the same philosophical outlook that was critical of the legitimacy of professions and predisposed to see assertions of impartiality, detachment, or dispassion as a cover for power [6].

This disciplinary reorientation has the effect of requiring that any investigation into the subject of professionalism, objectivity, and truth seeking in the field of journalism specifically shift its focus from the question of whether journalism is a profession to the more intriguing examination of the circumstances under which journalists attempt to become professionals. Instead of describing the qualities that define professionals and then evaluating the extent to which journalists possess them, we might examine the social process through which journalists contend for professional status. This research agenda integrates the sociological study of the professions with the study of journalism and may provide fresh light on many of the traditional institutional histories of journalism, even those that reject or disregard a sociological perspective [7].

Professional journalism and research

In contrast to other academic disciplines that have embraced the study of media and society, contemporary sociology has largely abandoned the empirical investigation of journalistic organizations and news institutions at a time when the media has become more visible in the political, economic, and cultural spheres. The shift of sociologists to the expanding communications and media departments helps to at least partly explain the conundrum. Rodney Benson, Todd Gitlin, Michael Schudson, and Silvio Waisbord are only a few sociologists with major or sole positions in communication departments as opposed to sociology ones. More than sociology, communication and media studies have been the fields where these researchers' work has found an audience. Even though they specialize in the subfields of sociolinguistics and conversational analysis, certain sociologists among which the work of Steven Clayman and his colleagues stands out continue to communicate mainly to those who are also interested in sociology [8].

In the lack of research that clearly connects journalism to the sociology of the professions, two lines of inquiry have evolved in the field of journalism studies. The first kind, which may be referred to as institutional research, often looks for quantitative information on journalists' employment, education, adherence to ethical standards, etc. Most often, the news business itself or academics with strong links to professional journalism have started such studies. The Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates in the United States contains frequently updated data on the likelihood that recent journalism school graduates will find work.

Additional surveys and employment assessments have been carried out abroad, as well as in the US, to "measure" the level of professionalization that has happened in journalism, at least along the axis of higher education certification. The data paints a rather ambiguous picture. In the United States, from 1982 to 2002, the proportion of bachelor's degree holders in journalism and public communication who took positions requiring a degree fell from 50% to 25%. While a sizable percentage of respondents to the 1995 study argue that the degree of an entry-level recruit is immaterial, American newspaper editors continue to advocate verbally for the value of a journalism or communications degree. Over 90% of journalists have a degree, thus although the worth of a "journalism degree" may be debatable, the significance of higher education is undeniable. Similar situations exist in other nations with developed media systems: employers put more value on higher education overall than they do on holding particular degrees in communication [9], [10].

It is tempting to speak of journalism as a quasi, faux, or failed profession and to agree with Weaver and Wilhoit that journalism "is of a profession but not in one." In fact, many studies into journalistic professionalism have come to an end at this point. The earlier corpus of "trait theory" is repeated in basic institutional research, which halts the examination before it ever gets going. In summary, this initial line of journalism research generally bypasses 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 encourages us to think about the history, philosophy, and practice of journalism and takes us one step farther away from the often-dry study of employment statistics. Most clearly, writers who fall within the second subfield of journalism studies what we could call the "cultural histories of professional objectivity" subfield have addressed these issues [11].

Cultural theories of objectivity and professionalism

Walter Lippmann was the most wise and strong spokesperson for the notion of objectivity according to Schudson in Discovering the News. Lippmann advised journalists to develop a sense of evidence and forthrightly admit the limitations of available information; to put it another way, Lippmann advised 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, not only by journalists themselves as an occupational ideology but also by media researchers and journalism scholars as a related set of issues that could be studied historically and sociologically. In other words, knowing how objectivity emerged would be the key to knowing how professionalism emerged. One of the most current summaries of the social history of the American press was offered by Kaplan. It may talk here about at least five approaches to this history, building on and expanding on his ideas. First, journalism has been portrayed as inexorably heading toward social divergence, occupational autonomy, and professional independence by progressive history, which closely followed the development of journalism's own occupational ideology. This view sees objectivity not as a tool or a claim, but as a goal, a "best practice" made possible by historical advancement; it is regarded not as a tool, but as a normative endpoint, one enabled by modernity and the rising social difference among politics, business, and media. Although Kaplan does not mention it, the "technological" explanation for the development of objective journalism is a second, related interpretation of the connection between objectivity and professionalism. According to this explanation dismissed by the majority of contemporary historical scholarship objectivity is a literary genre that was made possible by technical advancements [12], [13].

A third body of research highlights how commercialism is fueled by economic advancements. The Commercialization of News in the Nineteenth Century by Baldasty is singled out by Ka- plan as a particularly persuasive, well researched, and ultimately misguided thesis on the connection between commercialism and professionalization. According to Baldasty's thesis, journalism that perceived the general people as customers rather than citizens was generated because of the financing structure. Discovering the News by Schudson, along with his later work, moved away from viewing the emergence of objectivity as a "inevitable outcome" of extensive social processes and changes, whether social, economic, or technological, and linked the development of journalistic professionalism to issues of group cohesion, professional power, social conflict, and the culture. Instead of focusing on technology advancements or the natural course of evolution, Schudson's first strategy in Discovering the News was to look for the roots of professional objectivity in the convergence of advances that established a democratic market society. The early 20th century view of objectivity, which considers standards of objective reporting to be a set of defensive strategies rooted in the "disappointment of the modern gaze the understanding that true objectivity is impossible," is distinguished by Schudson from the more traditional journalistic beliefs of the 1890s, known as naive empiricism, or a faith in the facts. In examining the establishment of a professional class of reporters in the context of the development of professional objectivity, many scholars, mainly historians of journalism, have followed Schudson. 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 [14].

However, current study questions the strong connection that this work suggests exists between objectivity and professionalism. The occupational standard of objectivity cannot be

considered as the only one to support and emerge from the professional endeavor; in other instances, it may not even be the most significant norm. According to Chalabi, journalism is a Anglo-American invention since it is a "fact-based discursive practice" as opposed to a literary, philosophical, or political reflection on current events. According to Donsbach and Patterson, American and European newsrooms still differ in their dedication to impartiality. Their thorough investigation of German, Italian, Swedish, British, and American print and broadcast journalists reveals that almost all US journalists claim that their political beliefs are unrelated to those of their employers. Journalists from national newspapers in Italy and Germany claim that the editorial stance of their publications closely aligns with their political beliefs. Additionally, Schudson now contends that the journalism he had considered to be modern is really more accurately classified as American, and that some of its distinguishing characteristics have more to do with American cultural assumptions than a general modernity. This is especially true of the American innovation of the interview, which many European onlookers at the time considered to be a particularly obnoxious and arrogant method of doing business [15].

However, the best argument for disconnecting the connection between objectivity and professional position in the field of journalism is made by Hallin and Mancini. For them, professionalism is defined more in terms of greater control over one's own work process, the presence of distinct professional norms, and a focus on public service rather than in terms of entry-level educational requirements, a lack of state regulation, or the ideal of objectivity. They contend that the professionalization degrees of various media systems differ. The North Atlantic and North/Central European models of journalism are both quite professionalized, whereas the Mediterranean model of journalism still retains a relatively low degree of professionalization. Being a professional does not, however, imply being devoted to impartiality or being devoid of political party affiliations in democratic corporatist nations. Instead, journalists in democratic corporatist nations believe that journalistic liberty may coexist with direct and purposeful involvement in politics. In this sense, German journalists are just as "professional" as American ones. However, the social foundations of their professions and the precise nature of their beliefs are distinct. 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, in a later argument that essentially expands and generalizes his thesis in discovering the News [16], [17].

DISCUSSION

Ethics and norms exist for ceremonial purposes, aiding in the internal cohesiveness and unity of a certain group. They may also serve as a means of defining a group in relation to other groups. On the other hand, Weberian theories for the development of occupational standards assume that they provide some kind of hierarchical control over social groupings. Within big companies, the requirement for superiors to exert control over their subordinates necessitates the adoption of a sort of overt ethical reinforcement that aids in guiding people in a logical, predictable direction. In his article, Schudson emphasizes on the social roles that the objectivity norm plays in American media, but he also concedes that a number of other moral standards would also be able to secure public support and shield journalists from criticism [18]. Schudson points out that journalists in Germany or China may use standards other than objectivity, and in fact they do. If professionalism entails the presence of an occupational autonomy supported by unique professional standards, as Hallin and Mancini contend, professional journalism may have diverse foundations throughout cultures, across history, and even in the future. Even if it does, the demise of objectivity may not spell the end of serious journalism. The fifth and final argument made by Kaplan is that prior theories of the

rise of objectivity in American journalism are insufficient because they neglect the role played by political contention in American history, and that objectivity has developed as the professional norm in America and is a byproduct of the unique shape of the US public sphere [19]. These theories often make the false assumption that the dominant societal consensus throughout press history has been centered on ideas of political liberalism and economic capitalism. Kaplan's own empirical contribution demonstrates for Detroit newspapers that Progressive Era politics, such as the dilution of the power of political parties through primary elections and other reforms, as well as the particular political ramifications of the election of 1896, contributed to the growth of a vision of public service through unbiased and independent reporting among publishers, editors, and reporters. While the most recent historical surveys have helpfully re-examined the relationship between professional norms, journalistic style, and the authority conferred by the public sphere, the best of these studies, informed by comparative studies of journalism, recognize that a variety of professional norms might provide public support and critical insulation for professional projects in journalism in other countries [20]. The important insight that Hughes and the Weberian professionalization theorists first advanced that journalism's authority, status, occupational norms, and claims to expertise can be analyzed as aspects of a professional project, of an inter- and intra-group struggle is being at least partially rediscover by scholars of journalistic professionalism.

CONCLUSION

So, following the example of theories of professionalization, we should anticipate that professions would struggle as they develop their professional projects in relation to what social indicators. According to Scarlatti Larson, organizations wanting professional status must band together to gain market dominance; they must engage in conflict to first establish and then dominate the market for their services. They must get governmental approval for their occupational monopoly; they must validate this monopoly via the license, the qualifying test, and the diploma. As marketers of human services, they must train and educate their producers. The System of the Professions by sociologist Andrew Abbott is a significant improvement of Sarfatti Larson's work while yet sharing many similarities. Abbott's most significant improvement over work from the 1970s is his argument that study of the professions must start with a focus on professional work rather than the occupational group and the structural markers of professionalism as a separate object of analysis. Abbott also criticizes Larson for her overemphasis on economic power as the ultimate basis of journalistic authority. The battle for jurisdiction, or the conflict over the relationship between knowledge and work, is the essential element of professional conflict, according to Abbott. Although in this case it is a struggle over jurisdiction rather than the structural markers of professionalism, Abbott sees the professional world as a place of competition. A profession demands exclusive privileges from society in order for it to assert authority and be recognized for its unique cognitive structure. According to Abbott, jurisdiction has a social structure that develops from this societal awareness in addition to its culture. For instance, doctors and attorneys not only assert their authority over certain professional fields but also acquire enforceable legal and political rights as a result of government engagement. Even journalists, who don't have many of the institutional advantages given to other professional groups, have attained some sort of legal status through to things like shield legislation and special access to government figures.

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CHAPTER 10

SHAPING CULTURAL MEANINGS: THE DYNAMIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOURNALISTS AND SOURCES

Ashwini Malviya, Associate Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- ashwini.malviya@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Research on journalists and the news sources they rely on centers on issues of bias, power, and influence. Whether informants or reporters had greater influence on the news in the early literature, which was engulfed by hostile surroundings, was a significant conundrum. The use of news sources by journalists to create a certain news agenda that either emphasizes or omits some themes over others is explored in one follow-up to this research. In a second extension, the issue of source power's ability to pay for the time and effort required for reporting is raised. It's common to see the interaction between journalists and their sources as a fight for influence on public opinion and consent. The burden of protecting society against corruption ultimately falls to journalists, while those in business and government are entrusted with protecting their own interests at any costs. These forms of power, however, only represent a transient ability to shape how specific issues and policies play out. After the decision is made, a new power battle begins.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural Meanings, Dynamic Relationship, Interpretive Community, Journalists, Media Influence, News Framing, News Sources, Power Dynamics.

INTRODUCTION

This paper argues that there are more factors at play between journalists and their sources than merely their power to immediately influence public opinion. Instead, their relationship has the power to shape persistent cultural meanings, which has a long-lasting but dynamic impact on society. It is also questioned if a lot of this research has Western roots. Thus, what could stem from a Western perspective to be co-optation really reflects journalistic and, more broadly, cultural reality. Particularly, there are regional and national differences in press and political systems as well as in the social standing of journalists [1]. It is important to emphasize that the term source simply refers to the people that journalists rely on for information.

These people are often authorities and subject-matter experts with connections to important institutions of society. The term news agency also has another meaning that is unrelated to this subject. Companies like the Associated Press give news information to newspapers, television stations, and websites.

A sociological perspective on the relationship between journalists and their sources in order to understand the positions of their interaction. The initial depiction of an adversarial relationship, based on efforts to affect public opinion, is followed by a negotiation for long-term cultural meanings and ideological dominance [2]. Then it transitions to a more amicable encounter between two parties who both stand to benefit. Following the establishment of these elements, the chapter moves on to contextualize what is primarily a Western research discourse. The significance of empowerment and voice for both journalists and sources is then emphasized as a key mediating factor.

The Relationship Between Reporters and Sources

The foundational principles of journalism's ethical code determine how sources and reporters interact. Therefore, this ideology must be briefly set aside in order to show its genuine character in order to understand the relationship. The two issues that need to be addressed are the underlying preconditions of the ideology and the procedures journalists utilize to carry out their duties and produce their product. The ideology of the profession is a paradigm, or a method of doing something. This paradigm should be used by journalists in order to achieve their goals. The basic tenet of journalism is that reporters gather trustworthy information and then communicate it without publicly endorsing either side of the argument. Experts and authorities serve as sources for this information, making journalists reliant on them for the crucial information in the news. Since reporters are not allowed to voice their own thoughts when reporting an event, interpretation is confined to facts like crowd sizes, descriptions of the scene, and depictions of the appearances and statements of certain persons [3]. By using this source-driven methodology, journalists become society's scientists, and the news they publish becomes the reality of their scientific report.

On the surface, this strategy seems to work well, but it ignores the reality that news organizations often have an interest in the reporting of journalists since it connects news coverage to public opinion and, ultimately, to their own success. It is simpler for power holders to keep onto their positions of control when the general populace continues to support them. Since their ability to maintain their positions of authority and implement their preferred policies is in jeopardy, there is a greater need for elected leaders to favorably influence public opinion. The media's portrayal of business and nonprofit executives helps them maintain social acceptance for continuing with their current course of action. A change in tactics can be necessary if public support is lost. Overall, there is a great deal of danger for both sources and reporters. Every news story a reporter produces puts their credibility as a reliable and plausible source at jeopardy. Similar to customers, providers often endanger their career success. Combining these two ideas suggests that the relationship between journalists and their sources is one that is carefully controlled, with each party attempting to advance their goals and preserve their social and professional status. just like Sigal stated. News is filtered by news organizations, journalistic practices, and norms, most of which obscure the individual journalist's own biases [4].

The fact that news is a product with organizational expectations presents journalists with their second hurdle. To assist assure they will provide their output on time and in a format that their peers will regard as excellent, reporters must build strategies and processes. This portrayal of the story and the interaction between the reporter and the source emphasizes this difficulty. That challenge is faced by almost every job and profession, at least in theory: a company must hire employees, employees must strategically use their skills to meet production quotas given their resources, and ultimately, customers must be happy with the product they receive, both in terms of timeliness and quality [5]. In practice, routine work helps reporters get over organizational obstacles. Although they need to talk to a variety of sources in order to create stories, their manner of reconnaissance necessitates limitations. Organizing interviews becomes a task that takes time to perform and cuts into the amount of time before the deadline since sources are not always readily available. Having a foundation set of well-known sources makes this process easier, but sometimes new sources need to be found. Additional complications include the possibility that certain sources won't comply with specific articles or won't be available when needed. Reporters have to deal with any unanticipated commentary from sources who may also wish to enter the argument. Further complicating things, unspoken corporate policy that is socially learned sometimes dictates the

lines that reporters must follow as well as the sources and topics that are taboo [6]. Once sources and journalists have spoken, whether in person or online, a new negotiation process starts. There, reporters attempt to obtain as much information as they can from their sources by directing the discussion in directions that the sources may not always want. Sources in turn make an effort to keep the gathering of information consistent with the information they are willing to provide, which is often information that is neutral, may assist their own cause, or in certain circumstances, might undermine an opponent's goal. However, sources often seek to actively influence the news via press conferences, planned activities, and leaks that may speed up the reporting process, so reporters do not always take the initiative. Sources may even attempt to further their cause by bringing attention to unplanned occurrences, such as crises and tragedies that impact other people. News is mostly derived from sources, and individuals who can provide reporters easily assembled information have a greater chance of getting seen. Smart sources who are aware of reporters' needs and have the ability to regularly provide information have grown to be a significant source of news throughout time, yet the majority of what sources give often misses the mark and disappears from the news [7]. Since sources must be scheduled, scheduling becomes a regular component of a journalist's work. Certain items become more difficult to schedule because of short deadlines or unavailable sources. Reporters learn how to track out trustworthy sources who are simple to schedule and who can provide them the information they want in a concise, manageable way. Reporters may switch to a different working mode after sources have been scheduled for interviews. In this mode, they may analyze the information they've acquired, give certain sources' statements more weight than others, and produce news articles that follow the paradigm's conventions.

Power is becoming secondary to cultural meaning-making

If a basic tenet of journalistic thought is that the media serves as a watchdog on the government and big business, then reporters' struggles to get important information from sources become crucial. This might be regarded as a power struggle between sources and reporters who are both constantly seeking for information while attempting to steer clear of what could be seen as excessive journalistic research. If a source is influential, journalists' efforts to get information from them could be thwarted. On the other side, high power reporters have the ability to synthesize more information from more sources. The two most important considerations for reporters are those of their employer and themselves. Three things stand out about the reporter. The first is experience, which enables a reporter to rise up the ranks if they remain on the field for a long period. Strength does not necessarily correspond to longevity, however. For instance, a seasoned society reporter would be helpless in comparison to national, state, or even local news outlets. As a result, another factor affecting a reporter's authority is their track record for creating stories that have an effect and are well-known to the news sources they deal with on the job. A third factor to take into account is intra-organizational power. Greater internal autonomy for reporters may result in less deadline pressure and more opportunities to develop stories [8].

The reporter's organization has an impact on power as well, albeit this is not a firm assertion. For instance, news organizations having a global or national reach sometimes have greater influence when negotiating with news providers. Already published or aired influential news stories bolster and validate that influence. For instance, the degree of effect of a widely read tabloid and a top-notch broadsheet newspaper on the same audience and sources might differ. In this instance, the level of power each individual has is closely correlated with their level of influence. When a news source from a larger sphere report on happenings in a smaller sphere, however, such vast influence may be irrelevant. If the residents of that area were not among

its viewers, a national media source covering news that mainly impacts a small geographic locale, for example, may not have much of an impact [9].

It is much simpler to assess source power. Those who are a member of a system of power and have both the authority and the freedom to discuss that knowledge are often the most reliable sources. Under some circumstances, such as those after an oil spill, sources with the capacity to affect how an event is covered by the media may briefly occupy powerful positions. Reese contends that the perceived levels of power that journalists and their sources bring to a given meeting have a substantial impact on the news story's conclusion. This balance may also influence the nature of the relationship, with interactions becoming more symbiotic and cooperative when the power dynamics between journalists and sources are about equal but more adversarial when one of the two sides is seen to be in a stronger position. Overall, the discussion suggests that the dynamic nature of the relationship between reporters and their sources relies on the specifics of an occurrence as well as the perceived power that each party brings to the interaction. The outcome of relationships between reporters and sources and who may take the initiative in negotiations for information that becomes news articles are also influenced by this power dynamic [10].

The approach to this problem has often been described in terms of having influence over the public's perception and the news agenda. Politicians and business leaders always battle to maintain the public's confidence. Thus, a source's power is merely their ability to contribute in an ongoing conversation about the news agenda. Sources are in a little stronger position because they can discuss a topic that is on the news agenda, influence how that subject appears on the agenda, and then influence the initial discussion about that issue. You have the freedom to make socially important decisions without having the consent of the majority when you have the power to select whether an issue will be covered by the media and the subject of public discussion. For journalists, power is the mirror image of these degrees. Accessing informational resources that advance public debate displays a basic level of power.

Being in a position to raise issues and spark a public debate among news outlets gives one greater influence. There isn't a clear parallel to the third degree of power, however, since journalists seldom ever want to withhold a story from the public. However, the power of journalists and sources to influence an ongoing news agenda is ephemeral and dependent on the changing sands of those in positions of authority as well as the social context in which they interact. When a new administration takes power, the news agenda's long-term survival is under jeopardy. While some issues could go, others can continue. Public perception of a former official is essentially useless unless it is relevant to those who have just moved in. In conclusion, focusing just on public opinion may mask some of the most important, long-lasting impacts when assessing the relationship between reporters and their sources. The discussion must shift to culture and the ramifications that arise as a result [11].

Investigating the concept of framing is one way to consider how journalists and their sources influence meanings. It is argued that issues may be discussed in certain settings with limitations given to the meanings that fall inside and outside of the discussion's scope by conceptualizing about news meanings in this way. When journalists or their sources present a tale in this fashion, certain depictions start to take over readers' thoughts as the story progresses. The method's weakness is that it often overlooks the bigger picture effects of framing. To say that an issue, an event, or a social group was "framed" in a certain way, therefore, principally relies on a set of norms. From the perspective of journalism studies, it is never hard to demonstrate how news framing falls short of a norm and may be seen as a "unfair" depiction. However, the implications can be investigated much more thoroughly, going beyond a discussion of which party in a source-reporter relationship has more sway to

a more comprehensive analysis of the long-term societal effects of this framing on the political dominance of specific groups, governments, or interests over others. One of the effects of the interaction between reporters and their sources which develops and reproduces a certain frame and vantage point on the social order is how events and topics are understood [12].

Another perspective on the meanings connected with the reporter-source relationship is provided by the sources' reaction to their interpretive community. An interpretive community is a cultural context where meanings are constantly constructed, shared, and recreated. Interpretive groups may be established by a physical space, an organization, a virtual internet gathering, and other social collectives. In order to interact with one another, members of an interpretive community internalize probable shared meanings and use them as the basis for their own views and interpretations of situations and occurrences. Reporters are forced to choose between the interpretations of the general public and the expert community. There are four main facets to the community of professional interpretive reporters. First and foremost, reporters are motivated by their professional philosophies, which take into consideration criteria of excellence including objectivity, independence, fairness, and a watchdog role. Second, journalists take into account the interpretive community inside the media business as well as the "policy" they have internalized via socialization while there. By discreetly implying that certain sources and organizations are preferred over others, being tolerant of some sources while being antagonistic toward others, and other similar difficulties, this second interpretive community may be at conflict with the first. The third and fourth interpretive communities are made visible by Zelizer's concept of double time, in which reporters consider both the localized meanings of events and issues that are currently occurring and a more general historical reference point that allows for constant comparison between what has happened in the past and what is happening in the present [13], [14].

The interpretive communities of sources are pitted against these four reporting factors. When a scenario or issue is raised, sources attempt to draw attention to one dominant interpretation among the various options. Corporate, governmental, and special interest sectors work to promote acceptance of the desired interpretations in order to maintain and strengthen their influence in society. For reporters or their sources, adopting these interpretations is not necessarily a conscious or deliberate choice. As a consequence of interactions within the society, they instead develop into implicit understandings, with meanings changing over time. Even while these meanings often display short-term stability, they are also fairly changeable. Finally, these two instances of journalistic practice and source communities that produce meaning show how news content is not governed by the conventional notion of socially autonomous journalists working as watchdogs or by ad hoc disputes between reporters and their sources. Instead, there are four facets of the interpretive community to which journalists must answer. In a manner similar to this, news organizations respond to the preferred interpretations that they have come to understand by living inside their own opposing interpretive communities [15].

A Global View of the Relationship between Reporters and Sources

The majority of studies on journalists and their sources have focused on Western press structures, and more specifically, how this relationship plays out in the United States. However, it is necessary to consider how far we can take this knowledge in order to grasp various press systems. Two expansions of the central query led to diametrically opposed poles. A lengthier question asks how differences across press systems should be taken into account in our understandings, while a second one asks how much emphasis should be put on variances within a single press system. It is difficult to respond to these concerns, and it

would also be difficult to assert that there is a global journalism that tends to obscure many of the long-standing distinctions between other nations and their press systems. Numerous anecdotal examples show how the norms of one system may turn into the deviations of another. What amount of research one should take on these issues is not immediately obvious. Although the social or extra-media levels seem to be the most likely, care must be taken to avoid further degrading the homogeneity of any one system. How the reporter-source link influences the news is still the major problem. We are forced to look in vain for concrete answers once we leave the comfort of a single home base for studies [16].

Transient Relationships

As a result, it is reasonable to consider the basic relationship between reporters and their sources to be portable, i.e., to exist in various forms in all press regimes, from the most authoritarian to the most libertarian. Even when examining the same subject, what may seem to have some freedom through one journalistic professional lens may appear to have a considerable bit of confinement via another. Every time, journalists continue to hold on to the fundamental belief that they must rely on the information provided to them by someone who is regarded to be in a position of authority and cannot just make up news [17].

DISCUSSION

The relationship between reporters and officials is closely scrutinized at Japanese Kisha clubs, but foreign affairs reporters in the Netherlands enjoy a great degree of freedom from official sources since they are not under as much pressure to cover the news. The news in Japan is mostly based on what authorities say, as opposed to the Netherlands, where reporters essentially have control and subjective output is the accepted norm. For American journalists, it would be very unethical for sources to pay for coverage, but Mexican journalists tolerate this practice as part of the envelope journalism system to supplement their meager compensation in a way similar to waiters. Other comparisons highlight inequalities that emerge from the blending of social and professional cultures. Even while both groups had the same attitudes on protecting source anonymity, American reporters, for example, were far less likely to compromise with a source than Israeli reporters when responding to a series of imaginary events [18].

However, sources do not want to coerce reporters via friendly connections; rather, this kind of close contact is an essential part of Korean culture in general. According to several studies, relationships in Korea develop more intimately than they do in the West. A study of Swedish and Danish media revealed a significant degree of synergy between political and economic leaders and journalists who work for local media. In contrast, independent sources are now accessible in Russia, where the situation has just changed. There is now conflict between sources and journalists there as each is attempting to maximize their newly obtained power. Sources still dominate, playing a function more like to that of what Schudson called the para-journalist who delivers favorable information rather than a fairer portrayal of the material, even if the atmosphere in New Zealand seems to be more friendly. A study of journalists in Britain and Spain found that crisis conditions create a special scenario for the connection between journalists and sources, with sources striving to win journalists' favor in order to forward their own agendas and hurt their opponents [19].

CONCLUSION

These incidents highlight both some cross-border parallels and significant disparities in the reporter-source interaction at the extra-media and societal levels. The most striking parallels lie on the authoritarian-libertarian continuum, where equal degrees of reporters' agency set

the limits of the relationship. In Altschull's idea of press systems, the situation is once again reframed such that reporters who are bound by a pro-development stance become self-limiting in their demands on official sources in the sake of national advancement. When extending research from one system to another, it is conceivable to argue that the conclusions cannot be generalized, regardless how comparable they may seem. A second, more successful strategy would be to adopt the idea of transferability, which identifies contextual and structural parallels and differences between two cases, then adjusts the findings from one to better instruct the other. This second perspective avoids both an absolutist stance that holds that little can be transmitted from one situation to the next and a reductionist attitude that downplays important differences. Transferability and comparison have the advantage of bringing out more strongly the key characteristics of each case by using contrasting instances. Comparing interpersonal ties across cultures, for instance, may help us understand differences in the amount of cooperation or conflict between reporters and officials across systems. The power that authorities have on journalists may be seen in both subtle and not-so-subtle ways when cultural ideas on gender equality are taken into account, especially in light of the gender distribution of the media workforce. In general, it is important to be alert to the context of study on reporters and their sources in order to provide a conceptual framework for future research and retain an awareness of the boundaries of interpretation when that present lens is later applied.

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CHAPTER 11

UNCOVERING POWER ASYMMETRIES AND IDEOLOGICAL INFLUENCES

Rajesh Kumar Samala, Assistant Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- rajesh.samala@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

One of the main issues with the interaction between reporters and sources is that, if the journalistic paradigm recommends consulting authoritative news sources, people who are seen to be in positions of authority will have a higher chance of being heard in the media. When high-ranking officials are quoted in the news, the connection between the reporter and the source has a tendency to legitimize or even reify the social power system. This happens because it is journalists' responsibility to provide news material that exudes factuality: when information comes from reliable sources, it may be certified as true without further investigation. In the majority of civilizations, fact-bearers are members of the ideologically dominant mainstream who speak for and convey the dominant institutions of that mainstream. The majority of sources are often men in positions of power who do not identify as a member of a minority group in their community. That is, to what extent do dominant mainstream voices dictate the news media's access to information, and to what extent do women and underrepresented groups have the chance to appear in the news and influence its interpretation? Although the solutions obviously lack strict quantitative limits, they may nonetheless be approached from that angle.

KEYWORDS:

Asymmetrical Power, Gender Dynamics, Ideological Influences, Journalism Analysis, Media Bias, News Sources, Source Diversity.

INTRODUCTION

Consider the situations when women have a voice and participate actively in the relationship if reporters' preferred news sources tend to be male mainstream leaders. The connection between female reporters and female news sources has been investigated as one key issue. In this sense, the key line of investigation is whether female reporters are more inclined to use female news sources when the possibility presents itself. According to this reasoning, female reporters will be less used to the male power dynamic and would feel more at ease interviewing female sources due to a type of gender-based companionship that wouldn't exist with male sources, who may also have more sociopolitical sway [1]. Through an analysis of the gender and race of reporters and sources who appeared on network newscasts during the 2000 presidential election, Zeldes and Fico investigated this idea. They discovered a correlation between more diversified source utilization and articles by female and minority journalists. A smaller extent of this result was also seen in numerous other investigations. Freedman and Fico looked at sources, and in particular source expertise, in the press coverage of a state gubernatorial election and found that articles featuring a female reporter's byline tended to quote female non-partisan sources more often.

However, men continued to make up the vast majority of non-partisan sources, while female non-expert sources featured far less often than their representation in the general population. Similar findings were found in Armstrong research, which showed that male sources were

cited more often and given greater prominence. Once again, the usage of female news sources was predicted by the bylines of female reporters. When Ross examined the gender issue in the context of regional British newspapers, he found that the same trends persisted, with male sources continuing to predominate the news even when the reporters were female [2].

Broader organizational and professional expectations, together with newsroom norms and practices acting as a compliance mechanism, particularly at bigger newspapers, help to mitigate the degree of variation in these results. These demands from male coworkers would restrict female reporters' ability to cover more stories, especially in environments where male leadership dominates newsrooms. However, it's plausible that female sources are a little more likely to feature in certain news genres. Additionally, some news organizations have specific policies that encourage increased usage of a variety of news sources. Use of news sources from non-mainstream racial and ethnic groups is guided by research on source gender. Latinos, Asian Americans, and Native Americans, for instance, are seldom ever used as news sources in the United States. Especially when another source is included in a news piece, African Americans appear a little more often. The balance of news sources seems to be very consistent, even in situations when there is a clear corporate strategy to use minority news sources [3].

By extending the idea of source diversity even further, certain news organizations identify as alternative or oppositional, and readers would expect their reporting to have a bigger proportion of sources who are regular people. Surprisingly, even though these elites are from outside the prevailing mainstream, oppositional journalism likewise places a greater emphasis on elites than on people. This was discovered in a research of an oppositional radio station in the US as well as an activist newspaper in the UK. The real difference in these cases is that alternative media draw on authoritative sources more closely aligned with their own ideological positions. In either case, the solution is straightforward: reporters need to gather their information from authoritative sources whom audiences will view as legitimate bearers of "facts." As a method of ensuring ideological continuity, a mainstream news agency, whether given the option of a mainstream official source or an expert from an opposing side, will choose the former [3].

Changing the Power Dynamic Between Male Sources and Female Reporters

The discussion that has come before has shown how official men tend to make up the bulk of mainstream sources that dominate the news. Sources get a strong social status as a result of this circumstance. About one-third of women work in US newsrooms overall, and slightly more than half of rookie journalists are female. When considering power, competence, and authority, this gender balance substantially falters. Only approximately 25% of people in the journalism industry with at least fifteen years' experience are female. In conclusion, female reporters generally start out in a lower status position than their male colleagues and often do not rise to that level as quickly. This disparity is confirmed by a study of female journalists and male sources in Israel, which also reveals the gendered nature of reporter-source interactions. There, male sources sometimes used the power differential to influence a female reporter, but occasionally, male sources went over and above to please a female reporter. Women porters acknowledged that they had a sexualized connection with their male suppliers, but they also acknowledged that they sometimes abused the position by flirting or seeming vulnerable in order to get more favors from them [4], [5]. Despite the fact that male sources were often engaged in sexual harassment, a study of female journalists in Tanzania revealed a similar scenario. All things considered, this conversation points to certain obvious asymmetries in the connection between the reporter and the source, creating a gendered and ideological depiction of society and its perspectives. There are significant implications for

understanding the power balance and meaning-making implications even though the majority of the work covered here is focused on US-based studies. The simplest explanation is that not all sources are equal in their interactions with reporters, with women and minorities often holding a lower position, whether as sources or as journalists [6], [7].

The study of journalists and their sources has traditionally been framed in terms of two polar positions: the adversarial stance, in which the journalist serves as the watchdog, and the symbiotic position, in which both the reporters and their sources give up something in exchange for something else. Both opinions are based on Western, often American, viewpoints. These positions have three issues. First off, there are no either-or options in this case. Instead, the components of competitive and cooperative contact seem to exist on a continuum, with the perceived strength of each side continually changing. Therefore, the rapport between the source and the reporter is always being negotiated. Second, the connection depends on the environment. Naturally, the type of it relies on the historical backdrop, but it also depends on the topics being discussed, the press system where journalists and sources interact, and even the gender and ethnicity of each party. Third, many studies have neglected to ask the question, "So what?the query. In other words, why should we care about the ruling party? The short-term solution is simpler: influencing how the news is presented gives one influence over public opinion and the capacity to influence social problems and social discussion [8].

The power to shape the news also amounts to long-term control over cultural meanings, thus the quick fix is insufficient. Although dynamic, meanings do not change as rapidly as popular opinion. When a reporter or source has the ability to shape a long-term news discourse about meanings, they also have the power to shape prevailing ideological stances and those commonsense perceptions of people, organizations, and events. The discussion's focal phrases pick up ideological connotations as well, becoming ideographs with virtually unchallenged characteristics. Then, when ideographs are used in discourse, their meanings are taken for granted and they are used as tools. For instance, "terrorism" following incidents in the US, UK, Spain, and Russia grew to automatically encompass certain social groups, political ideologies, problems, and even geographical locations. The distinction between "us" and "the other" started to be taken for granted as more social dialogue took place and the meanings became more natural. The word democracy occupies a similar space [9].

Two mediating factors the effect of culture and the function of identity were proposed in relation to this influence on meanings. It does matter where journalists connect with their sources, in part because to variations in press systems and, in part, due to the significance of the media within a given society. Similar to this, journalists' and sources' gender and ethnicity provide them socially significant characteristics that both restrict and expand the scope of their responsibilities. Female sources often have less access to journalists and are given less authority to shape their interactions once they do. Much the same applies to materials from groups other than the dominant ethnicity in a community. Similar role issues arise for female reporters as well, who have less authority and power than male reporters. Technology is yet another element at play. A soft discourse that enables journalists to separate themselves from source-based facts is television news, for instance, which has grown more opinionated and less densely sourced. Similar to how convergence has altered the situation, email has replaced face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions between reporters and their sources. The distinction between a source and a journalist has grown even more hazy as a consequence of blogging, and the function of sourcing has also changed as a result. Last but not least, the habit of using second-hand information from the Internet has complicated discussions over which sources count and how much sourcing is necessary [10].

In spite of these mediating circumstances, source will always be a crucial component of the strategic ritual of journalism. Reporters will need to depend on sources as long as they need to write about more than just their own thoughts and as long as they consider themselves to be information providers rather than analysts of events and problems. Sources speak from vested interests in their organizations and from ideological stances in their cultural worlds, despite the fact that they are often regarded as authoritative. Ephemeral social power hangs in the balance in the near term, but in the long run, the interactions between reporters and their sources and the media reports that follow have the capacity to alter people's presumptions about how the world works. Discussions about gender in the news room, without necessarily utilizing the specific terminology 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 daughters will rush into journalism, teaching, or the theater, three professions that are already overcrowded, and overlook actually valuable sectors of work, through which they may make a solid, if not lavish, life, said a concerned UK woman's magazine reader. Men claimed that the invasion of women would defeminize and even desex women. These persistent claims, which only ceased during world wars, have nothing 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 jobs. In any event, these rants show that women were able to compete in this traditionally male environment. Despite their frequent complaints that male editors, coworkers, and sources refused to take them seriously and confined them to the women's perspective, women continued to want journalism employment [11].

Working journalists and academics who were interested in gender issues tended to concentrate on women over the majority of the 20th century. This highlights the Otherness of women and the persistence of maleness as the "unmarked" ideal. It also relies on the idea that women and males are diametrically opposed, with femininity being the issue. Studies on gendered journalistic practices seldom ever question generalizations about sex or gender disparities. Instead, to assess women's position, gender and women are combined as a single, stable, and self-evident category. The topic of changing masculinity formations and how men's magazines contribute to or reproduce distinct kinds of masculinity has just lately come to light. Rarely is the manufactured link between femininity and masculinity researched. The New York Tribune crime reporter Ishbel Ross was personally commended by her editor Stanley Walker as the paragon of newspaperwomen exactly for meeting this level. At least until the 1950s, newsmen reserved their greatest plaudits for a select few women whose work was just like men's. The first book-length history of female reporters, Ross' Ladies of the Press, admitted that even prominent front-page reporters had not completely transformed newsrooms. The few women who published women's journalism textbooks adopted a pragmatic approach and urged other women to do the same. The fact of sex, sometimes known as the "woman's angle," is a tool used by female writers but must never become their primary means of attack, according to Ethel Brazelton, who taught journalism for women at Northwestern University. But since she is a woman, she has a distinct edge in the field of observing, documenting, and analyzing the interests, behaviors, and employment of women.

On the other hand, since the turn of the century, women reporters' memoirs and other self-reports have emphasized more and more how they avoided becoming sob sisters or agony aunts, regardless of remuneration. 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 first entrance point for women in the media. Pauline Frederick, for instance, originally covered women's issues for radio before being recruited by ABC to do interviews with political candidates' spouses. But it wasn't the aim of women. Women realized that these clearly gendered patterns indicated professional ghettoes rather than socialization or even many innate impulses [12], [13].

Over the course of the twentieth century, the tale became increasingly complex and contentious. As a result, males now formally claim that gender is unimportant in modern newsrooms, which they perceive to have altered due to new economic restrictions, technology, 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 can illustrate how women are overrepresented in media or how they are more often remembered for their attractiveness. It can be related to the reaction against feminism. While this is going on, the majority of female journalists themselves agree with males that gender is a non-issue. Employment discrimination on the basis of merit and professional standing is contested by women and other minorities, which are characterized by color, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and class or hyphenated combinations of these. Scholars no longer use normalized notions of women but nevertheless see gender as having intrinsic and permanent significance. Therefore, academics argue that diversity is important and that inclusion is required since women and men in journalism work differently and/or should. They contend that there will not be enough or high-quality coverage of these groups due to the actual or perceived lack of women in the media [14], [15].

Susan Estrich, a law professor and freelance opinion writer, criticized a male editor for not printing more pieces by women in 2005, which sparked the dispute. Even the few female columnists that exist "don't count as women because they don't write in 'women's voices," according to Estrich. Possibly because I see so many excellent women around me at the newspaper, possibly because so many of The Post's best-known journalists are women, possibly because I've never thought of myself as a "female journalist," said Anne Applebaum, a regular columnist for The Washington Post. Applebaum also did not believe that other women regarded themselves as female journalists with a special obligation to write about women's issues.

Women's Liberation Movement

The US news media's structure and the women's liberation movement's refusal to name spokespeople hindered the movement's ability to gain publicity, though sympathetic female reporters managed to get some women's issues, like rape laws, into the women's pages in the 1960s by appearing objective to their sexist male editors. The National Organization for Women made a lot of effort to engage the news media and build connections with female journalists. The movement received media attention, whether as a result of the pro-active information subsidies provided by women's groups or the agitprop efforts of radical feminists. Additionally, the women's movement had a significant impact on newsrooms. First, women journalists challenged discriminatory hiring and promotion practices at some news companies via regulatory and legal routes after being encouraged and motivated by the movement. Each win allowed women to advance. Less is known about the effects of content in the long run. According to a Los Angeles Times reporter, this increasing number of female reporters had a significant, beneficial effect. Women reporters are allegedly more likely to employ women, feminist groups, and "regular people" as sources, which helps newsroom diversity by covering social concerns and topics that appeal to women. Women undoubtedly took action to destroy women's sections, first at The Washington Post and other prestigious

publications, then at lesser 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 attempts were insufficient and inconsistent. Once again, newly empowered second-wave feminists criticized these passages for imposing "symbolic annihilation" that was comparable to earlier sexist forms that denigrated or punished women. removing women's pages had the direct effect of removing the one editorial slot designated for women, as emphasized in various oral histories conducted 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 famous author, felt that women didn't need their own section. Ironically, numerous US newspapers reinstated women's sections in the 1980s to appease advertisers. Both studies show how marketing considerations drive the sex-binary packaging of news and the characterization of women as engaged in lifestyle and domesticity rather than the individual values that women hold.

The second wave of the women's movement stimulated study on women's culture and work and established a market for such research. It also encouraged women to follow their interests in women's history and join the university. Long-forgotten ladies were raised from the footnote by Marzolf's trailblazing history. The next phase, according to another title, was full-bore biographies of lone persons and Great Women of the Press. Later, researchers turned their attention to more specific categories like black women, war reporters, sob sisters, and theoretically complex global histories of women's journalism. More crucially, researchers reexamined the notion that newsroom practices are the inescapable direct product of professional routines and socialization, with management defining the abilities and talents they seek in terms of what historically increased circulation and prestige. Explanations for why newsroom diversity is vital as well as the study topic itself were inspired by new ideas on how journalists' gendered identities matter. This led to a rethinking of how women react to the dynamics and structures of newsrooms, as well as what constituted news or newsrooms [16], [17].

Alternative media for women

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

Periodicals published by feminists in the 20th century are crucial forums as well. For instance, Time and Tide was founded as a result of discontent with both UK mainstream

media that denigrated women and advocacy publications that had a restricted focus on women. The feminist magazines that exploded in the US in the 1970s had a more limited audience than the previous US and UK publications; they were written for, about, and typically by a particular niche, including ecofeminists, prostitutes, celibates, older women, Marxists, feminist witches, and a variety of other interests and occupations. They also rejected traditional notions of what constitutes newsworthiness and journalistic structures with more self-aware experimentation, and they vocally condemned sexist stereotypes [18], [19].

Women who have produced second-wave women's movement organs have largely been activists, reformers, and crusaders who have little desire in making money. The US's "mouth-piece" of popular feminism since 1972, Ms., is the exception that confirms the norm. Ms. has been seen as a corrupt hybrid who has been "always firmly enmeshed in a commercial mass media matrix" despite the fact that she refused to produce "complimentary copy" for advertisers and for long years gave up all forms of advertising. Otherwise, the heads of feminist newsrooms lacked expertise in commercial journalism and did not see themselves as journalists first and foremost. Nevertheless, they offered prospects for both professional and industrial growth, particularly 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 maintained membership costs affordable for women who are unpaid or have low incomes and restricted advertising to what they judged suitable.

Therefore, given their unprofessional writing, disregard for aesthetics, lack of long-term economic plans, inefficiency brought on by communal or horizontal organization, and fixation with principle, critiques of alternative media definitely apply to feminist political journals. These criticisms make it possible to do study on how new media, such as satellite radio, public access cable channels, and Internet zines, might cover global concerns that are difficult to debate elsewhere. Women's voices were formerly mostly ignored in commercial and mainstream radio, with the exception of programs geared at assisting women in the home. The majority of reporters, hosts of news programs, and interviewees nowadays are women. More importantly, feminist public affairs programs and even radio stations controlled by women are active internationally with varied degrees of feminism. WINGS provides feminist news to radio stations, while Feminist International Radio Endeavor establishes an Internet-based worldwide news flow. Third-wave feminists also adhere to what appear to be whole new beliefs [20].

DISCUSSION

National surveys show that disparities in professional practices are not reliably predicted by gender. Men and women exhibit equal levels of work satisfaction and have similar conceptions of the function of news and the ethics 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, since men and women have distinct beliefs and objectives, they socialize differently in the workplace. They had projected that, "like females in other professions," women reporters would have distinctive beliefs, interests, and priorities that would impact how stories are investigated, sourced, structured, and produced. This was because men and women had different identities.

However, women at the major paper sourced and framed articles much like their male colleagues, according to Rogers and Thorson's content examination of three newspapers,

which revealed that women drew from a broader diversity of female and ethnic sources, particularly in positive stories [21]. Van Zoonen draws the general conclusion that, with their particular woman viewpoint, women journalists tend to be more engaged in their audience and more cognizant of context. According to her, women question the objectivity of male journalists because they think that males utilize objectivity as a defense against the empathy and sensitivity that journalism demands. War reporting is perhaps still the most contentious field for women, with viewers accusing women, particularly mothers, of placing their bodies in danger while still 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 exceptionally heated discussion among readers, journalists, and academics. The first conflict where women participated in a significant proportion was the Vietnam War.

Some women discovered that because of their notoriety, they were acknowledged at press conferences and received the first responses to their inquiries. However, women encountered discrimination and mistrust from the American troops, the Vietnamese forces, and male reporters—even when they were paid to write from and about the perspective of the woman. Because they were aware of the preconception that women were more sensitive to the human aspect of war and that these tales were more likely to be eliminated, some women detested writing human interest war stories. This means that sexism, not sex differences, was the issue, as shown by the number of women who refused to write as women or complained about having their assignments allocated based on sex stereotypes [22]. The first woman to cover Vietnam for television, Liz Trotta, hypothesized that her male colleagues were intimidated by having to compete with women. In any event, the kind of tales written by men and women were quite similar.

CONCLUSION

Results from smaller gender studies are ambiguous and conflicting. The majority of women researchers and activists believe that gender matters and should "matter" more. Women feel female journalists provide a distinct, more human viewpoint to the news, according to informal polls by the International Women's Media Foundation, while other women said that news is news and ethics are ethics. Similarly, 22 women who participated in an advocacy organization disagreed on whether women describe women's concerns differently. males still dominate the professions, according to the majority of women, who said that they respond to tales differently from males because they are more sympathetic toward women and place more emphasis on personal and emotional aspects. However, 75% of respondents do not include feminism in their reporting, and many participants felt that female supervisors are even more masculine than male counterparts. As a result of normalizing male-identified problems and integrating them into what is traditionally a masculine industry, Ross views many of her respondents as being insensitive to gender issues. Hopes that a "critical mass" of women would revolutionize the media are at least questioned by women's significant ambivalence and lack of unanimity.

Margaret Gallagher believes that gender has to be treated as a professional problem in new, innovative ways. She has done important comparative studies on the worldwide exclusion of women. Her Global Media Monitoring initiatives, however, challenge the notion that the increased participation of women in journalism in most nations would significantly alter the nature of the work. There is no one group of women. Many people are indifferent to the historical changes made by feminists and have little sympathy for the feminism movement as a whole. In conclusion, women are aware that many of their male coworkers are sexist, yet they essentially accept the structures of journalism as a profession and chose to support its compensation structure. Furthermore, the gender socialization hypothesis is unable to explain

why some women reject their gender. In large part because it ignores the crucial way to understand gender as a performance, a relational act, rather than as a role or a static and dichotomous set of differences between women and men, it neither accounts for the chicken/egg debate on the domestic front nor does it resolve the issue at the front of battle. Men and women both act gender, sometimes in a creative way and other times not, and they also inspire others to do the same.

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CHAPTER 12

UNDERSTANDING CONVERGENCE AND IMPACT ON MEDIA, JOURNALISM & SOCIETY

Simarjeet Makkar, Associate Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id-simarjeet.makkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The trendy term convergence has come to mean quick changes in media markets, production, content, and consumption. Though the concerns go beyond those brought on by the technology itself, the word typically refers to the blending or merging of formerly different media technologies, primarily based on digitization processes. The majority of journalism academics have concentrated on the convergence of newsrooms, especially in connection to adjustments in labor processes and organizational configurations related to the creation of content across media platforms. The definition of the word has been enlarged to encompass a convergence of the responsibilities of journalists and audience members inside a networked digital environment as a result of a related and more recent area of research. Convergence is defined at the outset of this chapter, along with some of its general consequences on the newsroom. Then, we go on to a number of important areas of convergence study, including the functions and practices of newsrooms, journalistic output, and user-generated content. We look at the technical, social, and ethical dimensions of convergence before offering some ideas for the future.

KEYWORDS:

Newsroom, Society, Technological Change, Digital Transformation, Communication Networks, User Participation.

INTRODUCTION

In the last 20 years, profound changes have shaken contemporary cultures all across the world. Rapid advancements in computer technology and communication networks, which have an impact on almost all facets of social life, including the business, politics, science, and arts, have been connected to many of the changes. A particularly significant change has been occurring in the way public communication is organized. When it comes to information and entertainment, the once-stable mainstream mass media system is now up against a variety of dynamic, continuously changing sources. People may access these sources through interactive devices like computers, mobile phones, personal digital assistants, and game consoles [1]. The word convergence, which originally only indicated a rising similarity between two phenomena or things that could eventually come together, like two media technologies, has been expanded to include all these implications.

Convergence is a risky term, as seen by the wide range of potential meanings! as early as the middle of the 1990s, and since then, the conversation has not really gotten more concentrated. 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 importantly telecoms, media, and information technology, are becoming more blurred. The word has also been used in the context of media to refer to technology advancements like the incorporation of online video, cross-promotional marketing initiatives among media partners, and corporate mergers [2].

All approaches to convergence include the idea of a process, albeit diverging in many ways, and the majority place emphasis on the technical foundation of improvements. This has given rise to the widespread misconception that technology "drives" media change, which is a kind of technical determinism that disregards social influences. Instead, social scientists have focused on the human side of technical advancement, for example, by documenting how people utilize and interpret new instruments. The creation of content for various media platforms, as well as the corresponding changes in work practices, technical abilities, and newsroom culture, has received the majority of attention from journalism practitioners and researchers. Therefore, the word "convergence" has a distinct meaning for journalists that is both specialized and pertinent to society [3]. However, there are some differences here as well. Converged news organizations have mostly been classified in the United States as ones where staff members from newspapers produce material for television and vice versa, generally with both contributing to an accompanying Web site. The collaborations have often produced less than complete convergence, which in an ideal world would comprise developing and creating tales based on the advantages of each media. Most entail cross-promotion of the associated companies instead, although they still include aspects of journalistic rivalry among the many newsrooms. Around the world, this fundamental kind of cross-media creation may be seen as a reasonably cautious effort to deal with technological development and related consumer expectations. For major media businesses, who often have content for many media platforms, such as television and print, and are interested in establishing synergistic methods for utilizing it, the subject of how to perform journalism in a networked digital context has been particularly relevant. Transferring material from one platform to another is the easiest method [4]. Producing simultaneous content for two media platforms, one of which is digital, has become a more popular and sophisticated method to convergence. In Figure 1, you can see how journalists are shifting away from writing stories for just one medium in favor of gathering information in a content pool and distributing it in a variety of formats, including not just the Internet but also, increasingly, portable devices like cellular phones and PDAs. As a result, journalists now need to have a more sophisticated lexicon of media technologies to successfully communicate.

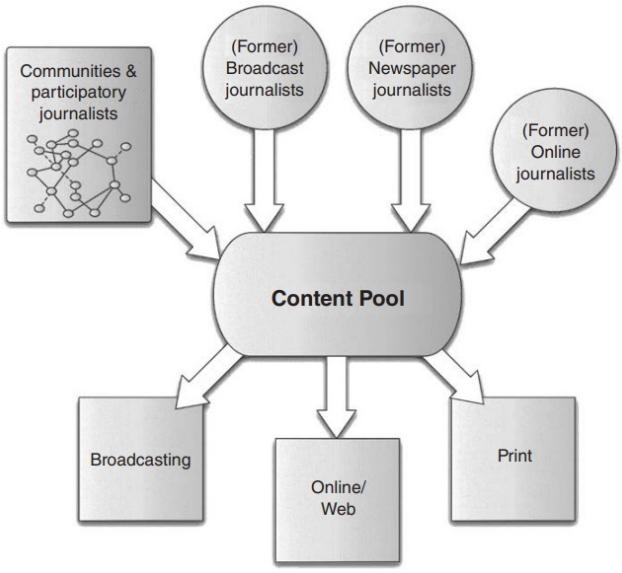

Figure 1: Illustrated the Converged production via central content pool[5]**.**

This convergence model still relies on a central institution to gather and distribute information despite these significant changes in the news producing process. This still adheres to the mass media, top-down publication model in many respects. However, when

media platforms consolidate around an online distribution platform, the other fundamental aspect of the Internet becomes more accessible to journalists' work: In addition to being built on digital information and therefore able to accommodate many sorts of content, it is also a network in the social sense of linking communicative agents, including both private people and institutionalized actors. This latter modification has broad ramifications.

Although they often include central and peripheral components and are susceptible to power laws that determine how information is distributed, networks are not always built on centralization. Their structure is not hierarchical in the conventional sense. As a result, information in different forms from users who formerly served as a more or less passive audience for journalistic output may also be included in a convergent digital news offering. This expansion of the media landscape via user and community involvement reflects a kind of convergence that will probably provide journalists with an even bigger challenge than learning new tools and skills [6].

As shown in Figure 2, information may spread from one communicator node to many others without the aid of an institutional mass media since the Internet is both a technical and social network. As a consequence, what Bruns refers to as prod use results from convergence between producers and consumers. This change has an impact on how journalists approach their work as well as how they think about their responsibilities in society. There is a chance for increased participation of people and communities as the nature of public communication changes.

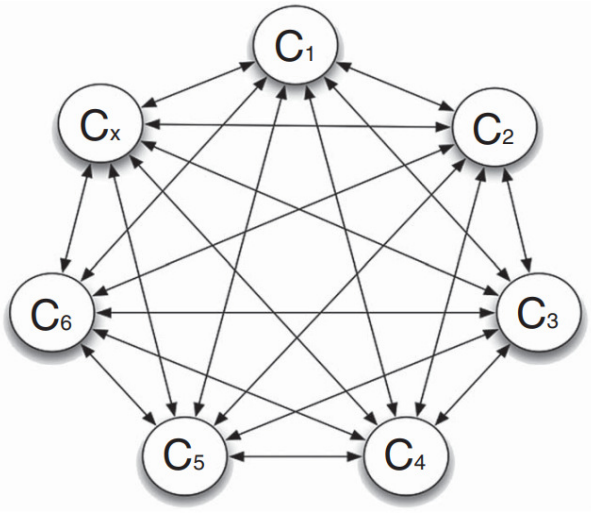

Figure 2: Illustrated the Network Communication[7]**.**

Some researchers envision a society in which institutionalized media have a diminishingrole or even disappear altogether once every citizen in the network can obtain a personalized setofinformationfromeverypossiblesourcewithouttheneedforaninstitutionalizedpre-selectionauthority called journalism. Others question whether most people want such a radical model; after all, institutionalized forms of journalism guarantee a certain productquality, reduce the complexity of social communication and the work necessary to create it, and offer society as hared meaning in the form of content tha treach esmassaudiences. Indeed, empirical signs of a very limited accept ance of participatory forms throughout many Western countries seem to support a critical position, as does along-standing pattern of un fulfilled hope that new media technologies will significantly expand participation in civic affairs. Whether today's digital technologies willproducedifferent social effects remains to be seen [8].

Regardless of what the future holds, the changes within journalism clearly are substantial,and recent developments that stress user input and the role of communities only increase thechallenges.Scholarlyinvestigationofjournalisticconvergencehasthereforebeenmulti-faceted.The following section looks more closely at research into three central aspects of convergencethatdirectlyaffectjournalistsandjournalism:itseffectsonnewsroomrolesandroutines ,aswellas on the content that journalists create, and the implications of online users' participation incontent production.

Convergence Research Studies and Perspectives

Media convergence processes are neither new nor unique to the Internet. Over the years, several advancements in media technology have caused the merger of formerly separate media goods and operations. Digital media have, however, been closely examined throughout their growth due to the pervasiveness of the present shift and the evolution of journal-ism studies as an area of study. As a consequence, academics have seen something of a paradigm shift, with frames of reference and points of view altering quickly. Continuous change has meant new venues, production structures, and work regulations for journalists who, until recently, generated material for a single media product that they alone controlled and to which they alone contributed. These modifications have had a large and erratic effect. Indeed, it is preferable to think of convergence as a contingent process in which actors could choose diverging paths as a result of various interactions among technological in nature, local, and environmental factors, as described by Boczkowski. This section examines academic investigation of these developments and elements. We start with research that looked at how cross-platform production affected journalists' jobs and daily schedules[9].

Inside the Newsroom

The manner that journalists produce news has been a major subject of academic research on convergence. It relies on a substantial corpus of research in the sociology of news that has provided insights into the process by which journalists convert events, and to a lesser degree, ideas and topics, into news products fit for public consumption. Academic research in a related field has concentrated on the social functions of journalists, notably in providing the knowledge necessary for democratic individuals to exercise successful self-government. Since the Internet and other digital technologies have taken some of the power away from journalists' hands in terms of news collecting and selection practices, the gatekeeping function has perhaps been the one that has been most directly impacted by technological advancements. To ensure that "the community shall hear as a fact those who are filled events which the newsman, as the representation of his culture, believes to be true, a journalist in a traditional media setting chooses a relatively small number of stories for distribution and rejects the rest. The idea of distinct gates through which information must pass, however, ceases to be a meaningful conception of how news reaches the public in a world where anybody may publish almost anything. If there are no gates that there can be no gatekeepers. As the mass media audience has fractured and the number of information suppliers has increased dramatically, related media positions, such as agenda setters, are also hotly debated. In addition, in a participatory, networked information environment, the journalistic standards that have developed to protect such responsibilities, particularly the carefully guarded ethic of professional independence, are susceptible to question [10].

Numerous studies on newsroom convergence have looked at how these roles and practices are affected. The most common research methods have been surveys and anthropological 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 much caution. Journalists who felt that their unique skills were valued less than before and that changes to the newsroom as a result had disrupted "professional status, traditional hierarchies, career opportunities," among other negative effects, were enraged and frustrated by the BBC's relatively early move toward convergence. Early attempts to converge newsrooms in Germany resulted in professional and sometimes even personal disagreements amongst journalists from various backgrounds. The "electronic media" ambitions for the national German daily FAZ were one example of how attempts to combine the production for various media in one firm or even an integrated newsroom led to serious organizational issues and consequent financial disaster. According to a nationwide study of newsroom managers and employees conducted in the United States in 2002, journalists believed that media firms, rather than practitioners or the general public, would benefit most from convergence [11].

Convergence provides a viable economic model in which multi-skilled journalists generate more content for little to no greater cost to the company, suggesting a structural explanation for such challenges with acceptability in newsrooms. In general, journalists who are taught to be skeptics tend to mistrust institutions when the advantages of the necessary change are murky or, to some, outright dubious. It is yet unclear if these critical or even opposing viewpoints signify more than just early, transient mistrust. Singer observed that while some journalists were dissatisfied with certain parts of convergence, they generally accepted the notion and even thought that converged operations may strengthen their public service role. Bressers and Meeds propose four areas that could aid in predicting levels of integration, focusing on the convergence of newspaper and online operations: management and organizational issues, communication and attitude problems, equipment-sharing and physical proximity problems, and workflow and content problems. Together, they point to a potentially substantial shift in newsroom culture, and other academic research has also underlined the significance of this transformation; the successful implementation of convergence is seen to depend on the blending of cultural dynamics particular to each media [12].

Stereotyping, disagreements over staffing and time management, and issues with news flow may all result from different media routines, especially those of print and broadcast journalists. Singer said that while though many print journalists still saw their internet and broadcast counterparts as apart 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 transfer perfectly across platforms, and competitive impulses might thwart even modestly demand for collaboration or information sharing across 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 for broadcast journalists. These inter-group biases also tended to be shared and accepted by members of each news culture. The author stressed the need of include both groups in planning for news companies looking to converge their newsrooms in order to reduce the likelihood that the push would be seen as originating from an outgroup and subsequently rejected. According to academics researching these and other challenges associated with managing this cultural shift, businesses must show their dedication to convergence by incorporating it into their purpose and company philosophy. It is crucial for management to communicate clearly that convergence is encouraged and anticipated. The need for thorough and targeted staff training, a carefully crafted action plan to foster understanding across all levels of the organization, and open, ongoing conversation to address any value discrepancies and dispel corporate myths were highlighted in Killebrew's overview of the problems facing managers of converged newsrooms [13].

Empirical investigations have highlighted these demands and also shown how often they are not met. The usage of a central news desk to manage stories for many platforms, something that the majority of news operations did not yet truly have, was also recognized in a study of US newspaper executives as being important. A apparent lack of training was cited by Singer as a hindrance to convergence, primarily because it encouraged anxiety about the alleged complexity of the tools required for cross-platform content development. 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 [14].

Compensation or, more precisely, the lack of it has been a big sticking point. Not surprise, news employees in the United States who participated in Huang et al.'s nationwide survey disagreed with their newsroom managers' belief that they should be rewarded for creating articles for various media platforms. Singer's case studies also showed that in certain newsrooms, resentment of what journalists saw as increased labor for no additional compensation had an impact on both general morale and receptivity to convergence. In several nations, including the United States and Great Britain, unions that represent journalists have expressed concerns about convergence. In the latter country, the National Union of Journalists has negotiated "enabling agreements" with media companies and issued convergence guidelines that address, among other things, pay, time demands, and training.

Storytelling in Multiple Formats as a Content Consideration

Through a number of content studies, a different, related line of study has attempted to explain how newsroom convergence affects content. Early studies on the Internet's potential as a unified publication channel with multimedia capabilities and interactivity implied that journalists would be liberated from the restrictions of print and broadcasting, allowing them to create new ways to tell stories that fully utilized the new medium's potential. When newsrooms really started battling convergence, however, worries arose about a degradation in the quality of reporting and news dissemination as a result of time constraints, a lack of expertise or training with new technologies, and eventually a reduction in employee numbers [15].

The outcomes of attempts to experimentally evaluate these worries have been conflicting. Some studies concur with the worries. For instance, due to frequent deadlines and pressure from rival news organizations for continuously updated content, internet journalists must work in far shorter production cycles than their newspaper counterparts. This "turbo journalism" may have an impact on news partners in converged settings since the quickest media source influences how quickly the others update their content. Additionally, at least in certain countries, the standards of certification for internet journalism seem to be lower than those for conventional print media.

The Tampa Tribune was the newspaper partner in a ground-breaking US convergence project. Huang, Rademakers, Fayemiwo, and Dunlap conducted a content study to evaluate the Tampa Tribune's "quality" on many levels, including enterprise, importance, fairness and balance, authoritativeness, and localization. Three years into its convergence experiment, the researchers discovered that the paper had not lost any quality. The majority of the convergence efforts, however, were focused on cross-promoting the television and online partner rather than considerable quantities of cross-platform reporting by Tribune journalists at the time of their investigation in 2003. According to nationwide research by Huang et al.,

over 40% of US journalists felt quality would drop, while the same percentage disagreed. The researchers came to the conclusion that there was no cause for fear that future journalists would become "jacks of all trades, masters of none" or would produce inferior reporting if they were taught across many media platforms [16].

Recent content analyses of German media outlets' major print and online publications as well as parallel research of overseas websites in four countries suggested that interactive or multimedia features were used relatively sparingly, even in "converged" online environments. Only the BBC's material incorporated and unified film, audio, and print components in the worldwide comparison, maybe because these files existed in the BBC content pool and not only because of convergent production. Additionally, the internet news products had a narrow concentration on domestic political events and were impacted by local news characteristics. The expectations that a unified technical platform would promote the removal of communication restrictions and cultural barriers were not met by these commercial goods. Similar to this, previous research discovered that linguistic and geographic barriers continue to structure Internet activity [17].

These results are consistent with those from a number of past studies of internet material. Studies conducted in the 1990s, for instance, discovered that media companies were not properly using chances to boost interaction or substantially adding connections, visuals, or music. These objections were still present in experiments that were done a few years later. Some of this criticism, however, is based on false presumptions. Many studies on online content have concentrated on the formal aspects of the websites, examining the kind and quantity of technical interaction or multimedia components. The core tenet of such an approach indicates an optimum use of the technological possibilities available: the "better" the medium is used, the more communication channels and capabilities are completely utilized.

However, earlier study on communication has refuted this notion. According to studies on media impacts, media with fewer communication channels may sometimes be more effective than multi-channel media. Maximizing the alternatives is not always the best strategy, according to the media richness hypothesis, which contends that the medium's communication capabilities must fit tasks or communicative difficulties in order to be maximally successful. These results imply that far from being a sign of lagging growth, the rather restricted use of "converged" multimedia and interactive choices in online journalism may be an economically and socially appropriate decision, in keeping with market realities and user expectations [18].

Additionally, other interesting developments are ignored in the debate, such how new media technologies could alter the environment of media consumption. For instance, mobile Internet connection may affect how well journalists' work is received by affecting how well the media is integrated into daily life. With the inclusion of mobile services, the so-called "triple play" combination of telecoms, internet applications, and entertainment media may become "quadruple play." Additionally, businesses like Apple and Microsoft are reviving the notion of the "smart home" by fusing media and entertainment capabilities with computer applications in home networks, where a "digital hub" links various gadgets and information sources. Users' perspectives on material are probably going to shift as a result of the change in household settings and information sources. Additionally, the availability of computer and network technologies in the residential setting allows people even another chance to create and share their own material. The effects of this "user generated content" will be discussed in greater depth after this [19].

DISCUSSION

As previously mentioned, a large portion of the research on convergence has concentrated on the newsroom, taking into account the people and the output connected to traditional journalism produced by major news companies. However, the modifications brought about by the switch to a networked digital media environment are more intricate. A discussion of convergence would be lacking if it did not take into account the reality that people are also creating material for various platforms in addition to journalists, and that some of this user-generated content is being shared via conventional media. The migration of media outlets and journalists online requires them to adapt to this fundamental transformation. As the Internet has grown, more individuals now have access to tools that make content creation relatively simple, thanks to improvements in both broadband infrastructure and user-friendly online production software. The introduction of the weblog or blog was a forerunner of this improved accessibility [20]. However, during crises, conflicts, and political campaigns in the early to mid-2000s, blogs' greater ramifications and influence on public communication became obvious. Initially, blogs were thought of as a diary format of little journalistic significance. Bloggers started to provide first-hand accounts of events, as well as provide information sources and public commentary during political disputes. The relationship between bloggers and journalists, as well as the overlap between blogs and journalism, is still being discussed. There is a great deal of variation in the research on the link between blogs and journalism. Blogs are described as anything from a complimentary purpose to an inconsequential phenomenon to a hazard due to the absence of quality control, the potential for manipulation, and other factors. Bloggers are considered as sources for journalists as well as competitors. However, there appears to be general agreement that blogs are separate from professional journalism and that, even though they are unlikely to do so, they will likely change journalism [21]. A conversational writing style, immediacy, and a direct connection to readers are qualities championed by bloggers and gaining relevance among mainstream journalists. However, few bloggers want to gain a large following or become journalists; instead, they usually write for more personal reasons. The majority of the material they provide is obtained from other websites on the Internet, often from mainstream media, and little of it is unique to them. But blogs may still have an impact and even set the agenda for both journalists and the general public. In addition to blogs, various types of user-generated or collaborative material are receiving more attention from the general public and academics for their value to journalism. It has been noticed for some time that publishing processes are moving away from institutionalized control and toward user-driven services, but the emergence of the "Web 2.0" concept made this trend the center of attention. In the most recent generation of Web applications, such as social networking software and collaborative formats, Web 2.0 places an emphasis on social features [22]. This socio-technical convergence, driven by both user expectations and technology advancements, combines an older history of participatory, activist media with Internet publication.

CONCLUSION

By the middle of the 2000s, several traditional media outlets started incorporating user-generated content into their own online news sites. A few others introduced experimental platforms that were mostly or entirely centered on the community, such HasseltLokaal in Belgium. However, as of this writing, collaborative formats are not widely used in the United States or many regions of Europe. However, as previously said, there are startling opportunities for a genuinely participatory media culture that overturns the institutionalized media's monopoly on publishing. Citizens may, in theory, take control of every step of the communication process. Information is significantly easier to access, and several selection

and filtering tools are accessible. As with the technology and software required for publication and distribution, processing, editing, and writing tools are affordable and simple to get. Participation is possible throughout the processes of news collection and reporting, organizing and presenting news, coordinating and managing editing processes, and delivering information technologically. By the middle of the 2000s, the majority of activity was concentrated on news commenting, collecting, and writing, but instances of moderators or communities taking up coordination and control tasks, for instance with the aid of reputation systems, had also started to emerge. Observers have questioned if these developments toward social convergence of media settings herald an increase in democracy and public participation in communication and decision-making processes. This topic, which goes beyond our examination of changes in journalism brought on by convergence, has to be answered in the context of social processes.

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