GRADUATION HANDBOOK TO
RESPONSIBLE NEWS JOURNALISM

Supatro Ghose
Anand Kopare

Graduation Handbook to Responsible News Journalism

Supatro Ghose
Anand Kopare

*Graduation Handbook to
Responsible News Journalism*

||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Supatro Ghose
Anand Kopare

Dominant
Publishers & Distributors Pvt Ltd
New Delhi, INDIA

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INVESTIGATION AND EVOLUTION OF JOURNALISM STUDIES

Anand Kopare, Associate Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- anand.kopare@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Journalism studies research and development constitute a dynamic area of study that has gained significance in a period of fast media upheaval. This abstract discusses the importance of studying journalism, the growth of journalism studies as an academic field, significant areas of research, and the consequences for understanding the role of media in modern society. Journalism studies use a comprehensive approach to studying journalism's practice, influence, and issues. This discipline investigates the roles of journalists, media organizations, and technology in affecting public discourse, democracy, and information distribution. The acknowledgement of journalism's tremendous effect on society has defined the transition of journalism studies from a practical profession to an academic study. It dives into issues including media ethics, news creation, media ownership, the role of technology, and the influence of journalism on public opinion.

KEYWORDS:

Digitalization, Journalism, Journalism Studies, Media Ethics, Media Literacy, News Production, Social Media.

INTRODUCTION

This guide aims to convey a sense of what we know about journalism, one of the most significant social, cultural, and political organizations. Journalism has existed "since people realized there was a need to share information about themselves with others." The study of journalism, on the other hand, is a relatively new concept. There are various reasons why scholarly study of journalism is valuable. For starters, news influences how we see the world, ourselves, and others. Journalists' tales help to shape and sustain our common reality. As a result, news may become a unique type of social glue; our intake of tales about current events big and small ties us together in a "imagined community" of co-readers. We grow to comprehend and build ourselves as subjects within local, national, and, increasingly, global settings via the rituals of consuming and debating journalistic materials. Journalism, in particular, is considered as inextricably linked to democracy[1]. It plays an important role in developing our identities as citizens, allowing for the crucial debates and deliberations between and among people and their representatives. In a nutshell, news is "the stuff that motivates political action.

No other academics are as positive about the future of journalism in its professional and organized form. Journalism as we know it has been declared "dead" and referred to as a "zombie institution" and scholars continue to hypothesize about the "end of journalism. Many theorists are concerned about the likely fall of conventional political journalism because "its loss would rob us of the centerpiece of deliberative politics. To paraphrase Mark Twain, tales about the demise of journalism may be grossly overstated. We may be seeing the re-invention of journalism rather than its demise Journalism, as a textual form, is, as Hartley puts it, the principal "sense-making practice of modernity[2]." It develops essential modernity narratives and serves as a repository for our communal memories. Journalism writings provide "the first

draft of history." Historians and other observers of an era understand that era mostly via journalistic writings, in descriptions of and responses to events and persons. Because journalism is the principal way of expressing and acting out both consensus and disputes in society, news stories reflect the continual drama of the confrontations between the prevailing ideology and its adversaries. Because journalism is so important in society, studying it is essential for anybody who wants to comprehend modern culture. Journalism studies is a rapidly expanding subfield in communication studies today[3].

Over the last few decades, the number of scholars identifying as journalism researchers has grown dramatically, aided in part by the establishment of several new journals in the field, such as Journalism Theory, Practice, and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice. Journalism Studies sections have also been established at the International Communication Association, the International Association for Media and Communication Research, and the European Communication Research and Education Association in recent years. The number of regional journals covering journalism studies is constantly increasing, including Brazilian Journalism Research, African Journalism Studies, and Pacific Journalism Review, as well as a significant number of semi-trade journals like the British Journalism Review, Global Journalism Review, and American Journalism Review. As journalism studies grew into its own discipline, it created its own body of ideas and literature. Books aimed for journalism scholars are rapidly available on the market.

The origins and subsequent expansion of this consolidating field, on the other hand, are varied and complicated. In this section, we distinguish three different yet overlapping and coexisting stages in the history of journalism research: While the field arose from normative research on the role of the press in society conducted by German scholars, it gained prominence with the empirical turn, which was particularly significant in the United States, was enriched by a subsequent sociological turn, particularly among Anglo-American scholars, and has now expanded its scope to reflect the realities of a globalized world with the global-comparative turn. Journalism studies may be considered as both a novice and an experienced hand on the stage of academic inquiry[4]. Most observers believe that academic study in the field started in the early twentieth century, accompanying the growth of journalism as a profession and a social force. However, other researchers have discovered far older precursors.

According to James Carey a number of the first impulses underpinning communication and journalism study originated in German in the mid-nineteenth century. As such, the prehistory of journalism studies study may be found in the work of critical German social theorists who stress the normative impulses that gave the discipline its starting impetus. Hanno Hardt's now-classic study on Social Theories of the Press established similarities, continuities, and differences between and among early German and American theorists on the press[5]. Similarly, The History of German Journalism in 1845, long before the field of newspaper studies was established as a study field. Most early German theorists saw journalism via a historical and normative prism, based on the belief that journalism is a trade practiced by more or less capable people. Journalism experts were more interested with what journalism should be in the context of social communication and political discourse than with the procedures and structures of news creation.

In many respects, the engagement with journalism from a macro-sociological viewpoint has persisted in German communication scholarship often at the cost of empirical study. Interest in the methods and institutions of news creation, as well as the individuals involved, emerged only in the framework of journalism education, first and foremost in the United States. In this way, empirical study on journalism, rather than normative/theoretical work, most likely began

when professional educators were interested is sharing information about their work. In the United States, the study of journalism arose from professional education and was often administrative in character. Journalism Quarterly's founding in 1924 later renamed Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly signaled the beginning of a new era in journalism studies. Among other things, Bleyer was essential in ushering in a new era of journalism research that treated journalism seriously as both a practical enterprise and an object of study. Bleyer went on to establish a PhD minor inside pre-existing doctorate programs in political science and sociology in the 1930s.

Journalism education took occurred outside of the academy in other nations, such as the United Kingdom and Denmark, where journalists were taught via apprenticeships and skills-based short courses. Under such circumstances, journalist education was seen pragmatically, therefore students studied classes on areas such as shorthand and journalism law. Because of the separation of journalism training from the academy, this model lacked a more reflective and scholarly approach, which has resulted in most journalism scholarship coming from social sciences and humanities disciplines that have taken up journalism among many other interests in countries where this has been the template for journalism training. This might be one of the primary reasons for journalism studies' historically multidisciplinary character. When early communication research arose in the 1950s, it gave the empirical study of journalism a fresh push in the United States. The roots in the social sciences had a significant influence on the formation of journalistic knowledge.

This influenced the empirical turn, which used methodologies such as experiments and surveys to examine the workings of the media. While most study during this time period focused on audiences and media impacts, the burgeoning field of journalism studies gradually focused on news people and their professional ideals, as well as editorial structures and routines. These experts' groundbreaking study is one of the few works in the history of journalism studies that can be agreed upon as classics. They have developed true journalism ideas that continue to be influential and significant. And, although many of their concepts may seem antiquated and have been superseded by later study, they remain relevant to the field in the sense that they have built key research traditions. They may not be the most advanced in either theory or method, but they capture the imagination. In the 1970s and 1980s, sociology and anthropology had a bigger influence on journalism research, resulting in what might be defined as a sociological shift in the field.

DISCUSSION

The emphasis shifted to a critical engagement with the conventions and routines of journalism, professional and occupational ideologies and cultures, interpretive communities, and concepts related to news texts, such as framing, storytelling, and narrative, as well as the growing importance of the popular in the news. This scholarship tradition, which was often focused on work in and of national and elite news organizations, not only allowed for a better understanding of news production processes through descriptive work, but also paved the way for an understanding of journalism's role in constructing and maintaining dominant ideologies Wahl-Jorgensen & Franklin, 2008.Finally, in journalism studies, the 1990s saw a global-comparative shift is a Political shifts and new communication technology have expedited the worldwide growth of international and comparative study. Journalism scholars are increasingly finding possibilities to connect with colleagues from other countries, thanks to the end of the cold war and increased globalization[6]. New communication technologies have accelerated the development of structured worldwide networks of scientists, while financing for foreign research has become much simpler to get. Because journalism is

becoming a more global phenomenon, studying it is becoming an international and collaborative undertaking.

Despite the ongoing march of globalization, journalism studies remains an incredibly diversified intellectual activity. This variety has been deeply affected by diverse national cultures, as a consequence of the field's unequal borrowing from the social sciences and humanities. The United States' study stands out for its strong empirical and quantitative concentration, as well as its use of middle-range theories, while research in the United Kingdom and Australia has evolved within a critical tradition influenced by British cultural studies. French journalism research, on the other hand, is heavily influenced by semiology and structuralism and is largely unknown to the international academic community, whereas German scholarship has a tradition of theorizing journalism on a macro scale, influenced by systems theory and other theories of social differentiation[7]. Many Asian journalism scholars were educated in the United States and hence have a strong American slant. Scholars in Latin America, on the other hand, are reorienting themselves, shifting away from dependence on US precedents and toward Mediterranean nations such as Spain, Portugal, and France.

Despite the field's rising globalization, the leading English-language publications continue to be dominated by Anglo-American researchers, which was the most prominent home for publications in journalism studies until recently, relies mainly on US contributions, making study from or about other nations an outlier. The journal's editorship and editorial board reflect the journal's strong American dominance, with just two out of 80 editors and board members originating from outside the United States, the magazine is widely utilized as a source and reference in many media and communication institutions throughout the globe.However, some academic associations, such as the International Association for Media and are actively advocating for a more equal representation of scholars from around the world, and are working to increase their international membership and visibility. Journalism: Theory, Practice, and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice are among the new academic publications that have purposefully positioned themselves as international in nature by increasing national diversity on their editorial boards. However, the majority of editors and editorial board members are situated in the United States and the United Kingdom, while researchers from outside the English-speaking world remain in the minority.

Such preoccupations are reflected in this handbook, which is organized around a critical engagement with significant theoretical and empirical traditions, fields of study, and academic controversies in journalism studies. The book is divided into four thematic parts that address research on news production and organizations, news content, journalism and society, and journalism in a global context[8]. The book's arrangement reflects the goal of addressing the wide dimensions of journalism studies They contend that traditional histories of journalism, treating what journalists do as an unproblematic set of existing practices," and that they "construct journalism itself as a universal subject position," focusing on the experiences of white male professionals. According to Zelizer, the disjunction between journalism and academia "echoes a broader disjunction characterizing journalism's uneven and spotty existence with the world." Josephi's chapter examines the range of ways to educating journalism throughout the globe, indicating that, although the US model has been prominent in academics, it does little to reflect the diversity of experiences and educational models that exist elsewhere.

The second section of the book expands on the importance of understanding journalists' job by examining the background of news creation. This section is introduced by Lee Becker and Tudor Vlad's chapter on news organizations and routines, which contends that, while work on routines has been particularly extensive and compelling, drawing our attention to journalism's

social construction of reality, we must move beyond this perspective by paying more attention to the creative processes that underpin story ideation. The second chapter in this part delves further into one of the most ancient and influential journalism theories: gatekeeping. Although the theory's roots date back to the early 1950s, as Pamela J. Shoemaker, argue, it remains highly relevant and is resurfacing as a vibrant area, in part due to technological change within the profession and in part due to new approaches, such as field theory.

The notion of neutrality,they argue that objectivity plays an important role in journalism cultures, operating "as both a solidarity-enhancing and distinction-creating norm, as well as a group claim to possess a unique kind of professional knowledge articulated through work." Similarly, Daniel Berkowitz argues in his chapter on journalists and their sources that the study of reporters and their sources requires a dynamic view of interaction in terms of the prolonged "ability to shape ongoing meanings in a culture[9]." While several key approaches to understanding news production have ignored power issues, "feminine" news, arguing that we can instead draw on feminist perspectives to think up new journalistic genres and newsroom cultures. The third portion of the book shifts from news organizations to the material they generate, examining the profusion of theoretical and empirical approaches that have attempted to explain journalism texts via a variety of ideas, one of the few mass communication theories that has had a long-term impact on other social science fields.

The authors emphasize the difficulty in differentiating between agenda-setting research and the more contemporary framing viewpoint. However, framing has its own rich past. They argue that framing has been too narrowly defined in political communication research, and that researchers would benefit from widening the study of framing effects while relating them to wider problems of democratic philosophy. This relationship between news texts, power, and contestation has long been recognized in other areas of journalism studies Teun van Dijk demonstrates how scholars conceptualize the concrete ways in which the news is infused with the dominant ideology and contributes to its maintenance and reproduction in his chapter on news, discourse, and ideology.

Power issues in the commercial press are also raised in the fourth portion of the book examines studies on the link between journalism and society from a larger perspective. In his chapter on journalism and democracy, Brian McNair acknowledges current pessimism about journalism's role in facilitating citizenship, but argues that there are grounds for optimism 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 emphasis of Stephen Ward's journalism ethics chapter. Ward says that today's journalism requires a broader cosmopolitan ethics that considers both global and local concerns.

Another gap in journalism studies is the audience's under appreciation. In his chapter on journalism and popular culture, John Hartley contends that this disrespect for the audience is the outcome of many communication paradigms widely held by journalists on the one hand and popular activists on the other. He claims that journalism studies have fetishized the producer-provider and ignores the consumer's agency. He contends that, although these genres celebrate empowerment and involvement, researchers have failed to adequately account for audience interaction with them. The contribution on news audiences, most research on news is ultimately concerned with its impact on society, but the question of the news audience has frequently remained an implied category.

Howard Tumber's chapter on reporting peace and war examines one style of journalism that has always been focused with conflicts and disagreement in a global environment. It shows

how journalism academics have adapted to evolving war reporting techniques by inventing methodologies that reveal not just the work of war reporters, but also the ideology and power relations of the cultures that fight and cover war. While commercial media generally emphasizes conflict and thrill, public service media is often seen to offer a necessary balance. In light of this normative expectationWhile public service broadcasting has been a crucial paradigm for media structure in Western Europe, it is also vital to examine journalistic practices outside of Western settings. Development journalism is one strategy that is especially important in less developed regions of the globe and runs counter to a liberal press paradigm. In his chapter on this paradigm, Xu Xiaoge demonstrates the concept's centrality in Asia and Africa, while also illustrating that academic interest in development journalism methods remains underdeveloped.

Advocacy journalism is another significant paradigm that Advocacy journalism, he argues, is a kind of "political mobilization that seeks to increase the power of people and groups and to make institutions more responsive to human needs taken together, demonstrate the reality that the globalization of journalism research is still in its early stages. The chapter by Thomas Hanitzsch emphasizes the importance of comparative study in the development of journalism studies as a genuinely worldwide field. While it is becoming more popular, it is still philosophically and methodologically immature, and its heuristic potential has not yet been completely realized. Another issue in international journalism study is the country's continuous Western dominance, as Herman Wasserman and Arnold de Beer contend in their chapter. According to the authors, only a transfer of economic resources may correct the inequities in knowledge creation. For various reasons, cross-cultural research therefore remains a laborious task. Its inherent western bias and lack of generally applicable ideas, as well as issues with demonstrating equivalence and case selection, can only be remedied by worldwide collaborative research.

Around that time, journalism acquired its current meaning as a discipline of news reporting, and it also started to distinguish itself from its "other." As the popular press expanded in popularity, it fed people dramatic news and earned a reputation for social marginalization. Yellow journalism was a multinational phenomenon, maybe called after the inexpensive paper created by the new wood pulp process, but more likely named from the yellow covers of older cheap crime fiction. Illustrated news became popular, first in the United Kingdom, then in France and Spain, and finally in North America and other European nations[10]. A politics of news quality emerged with the expansion of the popular press. The influence of journalism on public intellect and morals has been criticized by reformers and conventional elites alike. The episodic nature of newspaper material was supposed to impair the people's capacity to engage in prolonged or complicated thinking or debate, while the widespread thirst for controversy and sensation seemed to coarsen public mores.

As a result, journalism took on the duty of elevating and monitoring news culture. This objective matched the needs of public officials, who want greater civility in news culture. One result of this dynamic in the United States was the finding of an implicit constitutional right to privacy. The additional people engaged had additional motivations to help journalists' quest to clean up the story. Publishers sought to clean up their image in order to shield themselves from a public that increasingly views the press's power as a threat. In turn, news employees wanted to raise the prominence of their employment. The initiative to improve journalism coincided with a study of news work sociology. Editors compiled news and wrote opinion pieces correspondents wrote long letters from distant locations and generally had a voice and expressed attitudes; and reporters scavenged news from beats and transcribed meetings and other news events. The quest to improve journalism resulted in changes to this

sociology. As a result of the merging of the roles of reporter and correspondent, as well as the creation of walls of reified separation between them and editors on the one hand and business managers on the other, a proto-professional type of journalism emerged. The enhanced independence that resulted from this redefined journalism was seen in the emergence of muckraking in the United States, as well as various forms of expose journalism overseas.

Journalism in the Western world was set to embark on a professionalization drive around the turn of the twentieth century. The process manifested itself in broad-based phenomena such as the establishment of press clubs and groups, as well as journalism schools, as well as the development of codes of ethics. Journalists created unions in certain countries, while governments developed credentialing systems. Monopolies evolved around the most industrialized components of the news system, particularly urban newspapers and wire services, in all developed nations, enabling the forms of control that an independent profession would create. The professionalization effort necessitated a somewhat different kind of journalistic history. The new journalism schools want a teachable past that might serve as moral models for budding professionals. The ancient Whig histories were fairly helpful when they had been purged of their outliers.

Teaching about the journalism sector also called for a greater understanding of the commercial environment. Countries with larger commercial news venues, particularly the United States, inserted a market redemption story. The history textbooks most often used in journalism colleges in the United States portrayed independent journalism as a commercial product free of partisanship, but also in key essays that would become canonical in journalism history. For a variety of reasons, this belief in the beneficence of market forces seems strange. It seemed to need a deliberate disregard for the mass market press, which had given the professionalization effort momentum at the end of the nineteenth century. It also seemed to render invisible the monopolistic circumstances in wire services and the new medium of broadcasting, which both created public unease about media dominance and offered levers for imposing norms on news culture. And it seemed to argue against the professionalization project's primary appeal for a "wall of separation" between the counting room and the newsroom. In the twentieth century, most Western nations organized journalism using the professional model. The process of establishing journalism schools, developing codes of ethics, establishing licensing requirements, and establishing unions contributed to what has been referred to as the high modernism of journalism.

The emergence of broadcast journalism, particularly when connected with monopolistic national broadcast authority. The twentieth-century conflicts were particularly crucial in heightening concerns about propaganda's potency and driving the development of preventive conceptions of media duty. Professionalization was also aided by the increase of corporate ownership and its attendant criticism. There were differences in the West when it came to the institutionalization of professional journalism.Daniel Hallin and Paolo Mancini 2004 identified three "media systems": partisanism in southern Europe represented by the polarized pluralist system, social democracy in northern Europe represented by the democratic corporatist system, and market-based systems in the North Atlantic represented by the liberal system. However, all three regimes prioritized professional journalism's independence from existing authorities as well as business and political influences.

In an era when journalism extends from personalized blogs to satirical relays on late night television and its study appears in fields as diverse as communication, literature, business, and sociology, rethinking journalism's place in the academy may appear to be an unnecessary attempt to raise concerns about the future viability of a phenomenon that appears to be everywhere. However, in spite of being ubiquitous, journalism and its study are nowhere. On

the one hand, the evolution of journalism has created a long line of recurring and unanswered complaints about whether form, practice, or convention is more fitted than others to qualify as a news making convention.

CONCLUSION

To summarize, the examination and growth of journalism studies is an important scientific undertaking that gives insight on the dynamic and significant function of journalism in modern society. This academic subject offers unique insights into journalistic practice, its influence on public debate, and the problems brought by the digital era. Journalism studies provide a solid framework for studying and criticizing these shifts as journalism continues to adapt to new technology and ways of communication. It promotes media literacy, ethical journalistic practices, and equips people to interact critically with news material. In an information-overloaded society, knowledge earned via journalism studies is essential for people, journalists, politicians, and scholars. It improves our capacity to manage the complicated media ecosystem, defend democratic ideals, and promote responsible information distribution.

REFERENCES:

[1]   C. M. Carr, "Sport Psychology: Psychologic Issues and Applications," *Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Clinics of North America*. 2006. doi: 10.1016/j.pmr.2006.05.007.

[2]   R. V. R. Thomas, "Clinical psychology," *Int. Rev. Psychiatry*, 1992, doi: 10.3109/09540269209066336.

[3]   A. J. Finch, Jr., J. E. Lochman, W. M. Nelson, III, and M. C. Roberts, *Specialty Competencies in Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*. 2014. doi: 10.1093/med/9780199758708.001.0001.

[4]   A. Iudici, A. Salvini, E. Faccio, and G. Castelnuovo, "The clinical assessment in the legal field: An empirical study of bias and limitations in forensic expertise," *Front. Psychol.*, 2015, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01831.

[5]   A. Iswara, "Pengaruh Bimbingan Dan Konseling Komprehensif Dengan Pendekatan Kognitif Sosial Terhadap Efektivitas Pembelajaran Peserta Didik," 2017.

[6]   M. C. Roberts, "Innovations in specialty training: The clinical child psychology program at the University of Kansas," *Prof. Psychol. Res. Pract.*, 1998, doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.29.4.394.

[7]   B. Hicks and J. Baggerly, "The effectiveness of child parent relationship therapy in an online format," *Int. J. Play Ther.*, 2017, doi: 10.1037/pla0000033.

[8]   S. A. Wiebe and S. M. Johnson, "Creating relationships that foster resilience in Emotionally Focused Therapy," *Current Opinion in Psychology*. 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.05.001.

[9]   A. S. Elstein, "Heuristics and biases: Selected errors in clinical reasoning," *Academic Medicine*. 1999. doi: 10.1097/00001888-199907000-00012.

[10]   H. Ijzerman, E. C. E. Heine, S. K. Nagel, and T. M. Pronk, "Modernizing relationship therapy through social thermoregulation theory: Evidence, hypotheses, and explorations," *Front. Psychol.*, 2017, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00635.

CHAPTER 2

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ONPUBLIC RELATIONS IN NEWS JOURNALISM

Suresh Kawitkar, Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- suresh.kawitkar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Public relations (PR) is important in news journalism because it influences the interaction between media companies and their viewers. This abstract investigates the significance and influence of public relations in news journalism, as well as its methodologies and ramifications for the media environment. The strategic communication practice of managing information between companies and their publics is known as public relations. In news journalism, public relations experts act as go-betweens for news outlets and their sources, which include companies, government organizations, non-profits, and people. In news journalism, public relations operations include a variety of actions such as writing press releases, scheduling press conferences, and granting media access to events and spokespersons. These initiatives seek to create the narrative about a company or issue and get media attention. The effect of public relations on news journalism is enormous. It has the potential to affect news agendas, framing, and story selection. Public relations may also improve access to information and expert sources, so improving the quality and variety of news material.

KEYWORDS:

Bias, Media Landscape, News Journalism, Objectivity, Public Relations, Transparency.

INTRODUCTION

Public Relations (PR) is a growing and more important aspect of today's business. Media-scape. Despite scholarly and public interest in propaganda, particularly during times of conflict, In contrast, comprehension of normal domestic propaganda PR or spin is very restricted. According to popular belief, contemporary public relations was established in the United States in the early twentieth century, then exported all over the world. A deeper historical examination reveals that spin was used as a capitalist strategic reaction to the menace of the expanded franchise and organized crime Miller and Dinan define labor as "effort." The following expansion of the public relations sector is constantly monitored. The connected to corporate globalization and systems of neoliberal governance Deregulation and privatization are two examples.

This chapter, in particular, criticizes appropriation by defenders of public relations and advocates for a new synthesis of communication, power, and political theory Using Habermas as a model, I discuss the public sphere [1][2]. This notion complicates comprehension of Source studies are defined as the communication interactions that exist between sources (for example, spin doctors). The media and the general public. Instead, we contend that public relations often bypasses the media. It aims to address certain audiences, such as elite decision-makers and power brokers. To be clear, we are not suggesting that the media is irrelevant; in fact, we recognize the function of the media. The role of the media in reinforcing and legitimizing "systematically distorted communication "Journalism's troublesome role. However, it is apparent that elite communications have their advantages

own circumstances of existence and results. We focus on the restructuring of journalism in the United Kingdom and the United States, in particular.

We contend that the potential of modern journalism relations is to dissolve independent journalism in the fluid of commercial values, false news, and source produced material. Given the trends in the commercialization of news creation and the methods through which professionals. We may name this process "neo-liberalization" since public relations tends to benefit strong interests [3]. We also feel that, although the trends discussed below are most developed in the United States and the United Kingdom (home to the world's biggest public relations companies), there is convincing evidence that they exist elsewhere.

The same techniques and practices are used all around the world, the identifies three significant interrelated events that are interconnected in numerous ways. The twentieth century was defined, the expansion of democracy, the expansion of corporate power, and the expansion of corporate propagandas a technique of insulating corporate power from democratic scrutiny. The inception and unstoppable growth of contemporary spin occurred throughout the twentieth century [4]. With the assurance Intellectuals and elites on both sides of the Atlantic started to be concerned about the expansion of the franchise. The titans of business and government were at the heart of this endeavor. What brought these individuals together was their conviction in the importance of manipulating public opinion, and their efforts in behalf of political and commercial elites aiming to undermine or manipulate democratic institutions reform.

For British propagandists, this meant their experiences in times of conflict and catastrophe of crushing Irish nationalists during and after the 1916 insurrection, as well as attempts to defeat the Germans in World War I for the pioneers of the US public relations business, their experiences within the Creel Commission. These propagandists were strongly affected by the conflict [5]. The Conscious of propaganda's ability to affect popular views and behaviors, and the held the belief that the lessons learned from wartime propaganda might be applied to the administration of during more calm times, democracy. During World War II, there was a revived and strong interest in the use of propaganda methods.

The main Nazi propagandist, Joseph Goebbels, was influenced by Edward Bernays' book, Crystallizing Public Opinion, a fact that Bernays kept quiet about until much later in his life. Following World War II, many active in propaganda and intelligence also returned leaving the military with a clear feeling of propaganda's potency. The emergence of Nazism was a result of in common thinking, this is a testimonial to the strength of propaganda. However, the history of Propaganda and public relations demonstrate that the Nazis learned a great deal from the Western powers. Where are we now? The modern media ecology is defined by the ongoing proliferation of media outlets and the rising convergence of media businesses. These developments are also seen in the promotional sectors, with the introduction of a variety of Omnicom, Interpublic, and WPP are examples of megacorporation's that possess several worldwide public relations consultancies and networks.

In Britain, there were "perhaps" 3,000 public relations professionals, in 2005, a "conservative estimate" stated that 47,800 persons worked in public relations in the United Kingdom Chartered Institute of Public Relations [6]. The Institute for Public Relations As news organizations cut down on journalism, there is a greater emphasis on "information. "Press announcements, video news releases, briefings, trails, and exclusives provided by spin physicians to increasingly pressed journalists. Miller and Dinan, 2000, 2008). While these tendencies are most pronounced in the United States and the United Kingdom, The similar dynamic is at work all around the world. The current public relations sector is massive in size

and breadth. As a result, idealized notions of investigative journalism, independent newsgathering, and the press's institutional position as the vital fourth estate is becoming more untenable. As a result, it is possible it may be necessary to examine certain public communication ideas in order to properly assess the present situation Communication crisis. The strains released by the market transition beginning in 1979/80 have had significant consequences. The number of national newspaper journalists has remained the same since the 1960s, but the size of newspapers has doubled; the same is true in the United States. People are doing twice as much labor. The main casualty is news [7]." The Fleet's demise Street, as newspapers relocated to Docklands in East London, was representative of the exclusion of many journalists from firsthand knowledge of the political process. According to Cohen According to (1998), most journalists are now headquartered "in the compounds of Canary Wharf and Wapping, London. Where barbed wire and security patrols emphasize their separation from the populace whose lives they are attempting to save are intended to inform. The Press Association receives news over the phone or via public relations firms. Which has reduced its previously broad coverage or the fleeting enthusiasms of a merger of the media and public relations industries is obvious, particularly in corporations.

However, UBM also owns PR Newswire, a distribution service for companies and the public relations sector news organizations such as ITN and the Press Association. PR Newswire is also the parent company another subsidiary, a contentious internet monitoring firm that touted a spying on activist organizations and business opponents [8]. After Business Week revealed it in the page advertising this was deleted from the, and PR Newswire even removed to the convergence of the public relations and media sectors is still in its early stages. However, it is a propensity undercuts the potential of autonomous media. This trend is exacerbated by the advent of infomediaries and fake news. Among the trends is the move toward direct business contact.

One early example was the collaboration between ITN and Burson Marsteller is one of the world's largest and least ethical public relations firms. Corporate Television News was situated within ITN headquarters and had full access to ITN archives. Shell, as well as other business customers. Graham Lancaster, a famous lobbyist in the United Kingdom, died in 1999. (Then of Biss Lancaster, now acquired by global communications behemoth Havas) elaborated on his point of view that public relations firms "will increasingly" control their own channels for consumer distribution, superseding "media." PR channels will evolve into "infomediaries," but the most crucial characteristic that they must possess is have an apparent independence—in other words, they must be false news stations. Further blur the distinction between spin and reportage. Editorial Intelligence includes a variety of activities of Journalists, public relations professionals, and lobbyists are examples of professional communicators.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of public relations is to convey information, "tell the truth persuasively," and to enable journalism. The authority to interpret, for better or worse Public relations has nothing to conceal. We distribute news releases and Public briefings are known as press conferences and launches. The exception being the PR is transparent and mutually beneficial "off the record" quote. However, journalists' egos often cause them to make mistakes. They refuse to accept their participation in public relations, resulting in years of running doctored rather than admitting interference. Hobsbawm's thesis aims to "level" journalism and public relations, implying that one is, at the very least, neither is worse than the other. Journalist-source conflict is meaningless, and Editorial Intelligence is a kind of conflict.

According to Hobsbawm, will combine consulting and analysis of a think tank with the precision of a directory and the inside scoop of a newspaper." to break down the "traditional hostility between journalism and public relations by bringing the two together at a conference "In the Caribbean freebies, blatant backscratching, and undeclared interests, public relations meet journalism. A connection to a public relations firm, rather than a seat on a high-powered advisory board, should be considered career death for a writer. Journalists should approach public relations with suspicion, scrutinizing potential reasons and probing probable connections. As it stands, The Westminster Village is a confined place for politicians, hackers, and public relations professionals, making for an often-chaotic environment. Unhealthy, though casual, closeness. An organized "network" such as EI's, with over 1,000 members. When hackers and gures officially join forces, they risk institutionalizing a clique where no one knows. The Domestic attempts to control the information environment are the most sophisticated in the United States, where huge networks of think tanks, lobbying firms, and front groups exist organizations linked with neoliberal and neoconservative inclinations. One such example is tech Central Station (TCS), which looks to be a form of think tank on the internet at first sight magazine. A closer examination reveals that TCS has "taken aggressive positions on one or more issues."

Like a business lobbyist, he takes one side or the other of intra-industry arguments TCS is produced by the DCI Group, a renowned Washington "public affairs" firm specialized in public relations, lobbying, and "Astroturf" campaigning "many of DCI's clients are also sponsors of the location. TCS not only runs the sponsors' banner advertisements; it also actively promotes its contributions. The support the policy stances of such firms, on TCS and elsewhere" In Washington, something entirely new has emerged: journalistic lobbying principally by the influence industry [9]. Lobbying firms that traditionally specialized in acquiring face-to-face access to important decision-makers have diversified. The goal of the new game is to dominate the whole field. The intellectual environment in which policy choices are made, which includes sponsoring anything from think tanks to issue commercials to phony grassroots pressure organizations. However, the institution that media, which has the biggest influence on the intellectual environment in Washington, has also proved to be the most difficult for Until recently, Such trends represent a significant danger to independent media and competent oversight. Governmental institutions and policy making. The public relations profession undoubtedly needs the impression of independent media in order to maintain a credible veneer, yet the path detailed above refers to newly developing political communication source tactics that are actively attempting to Colonize or control the information environment. As a result, our models for understanding modern political journalism must account for the growth of promotional culture as well as these new developments.

The public sphere has grown in popularity and significance as a paradigm for analyzing political communication. Perhaps part of the concept's appeal is that it is elastic and sufficiently flexible to enable a range of uses the argument is that it aims to "hold liberalism to its emancipatory ideals" by emphasizing on the linkages between democratic polities' institutions and practices, as well as the necessary material resource base for any public realm" Much of the public sphere argument is media-centric, focusing on the role of the mass media in molding public discourse [10]. However, Habermas' view of political communication is more complicated, and the model allows for both public and private conversations, implying a larger idea than the function of mainstream media, as well as online and virtual communications, elite communications, and lobbying activities. The latter is a critical component in our case for the

A common critique leveled towards public sphere theories is that they are idealized, A public communication model. Argument and reason take precedence, and participants are sincere and seek consensus. There is no room in this idealized paradigm for strategic communication and the display of private information. As generalizable public interests. As a result, much of public relations practice has no place. In a reasonable, deliberative democracy. Of course, in the real world, public relations is becoming more crucial. In political and public communication, the public sphere paradigm must be changed.

Take into consideration this actual fact. Currently, the most established field of study in political communications is concerned with political parties, their news management, and spin strategies. It often excludes commercial and NGO media relations, but ignoring such organizations' less visible communicative activities lobbying and corporate social responsibility (CSR) organizations, think tanks, and policy planned activities. This void is explained in part by a preference for media over research more widely on communication. This implicit paradigm, in our opinion, should be thrown on its head. They begin with economic, social, and political institutions, concentrating on their efforts to achieve to their own interests (especially via communication). From this vantage point, news is and political culture are examples of broader communication tactics used. Beginning with All too frequently, the media causes people to overlook or disregard larger concerns, as well as (for some) apathy.

The model of the neoliberal public sphere described here is attentive to the multiplicity of communication strategies used by the diverse array of competing interest groups and coalitions that develop to construct the public sphere. In political communication and lobbying, and how this ties into a larger power/resource matrix context. It acknowledges strategic communication and emphasizes components of political communication that are not directly aimed at the mainstream media or the general public, but rather at certain decision-making, or "strong," publics. A powerful public is a "sphere of institutionalized deliberation."Publics" may be regarded as supporting democratic (Habermasian) discourse as harming democracy by shielding decision-making from public pressure. Social interests' communicative methods might be focused on a variety of overlapping fields, such as mass media, intra-elite communications, and policy formulation. However, the point remains Education, religion, and science are all examples of communication and socialization settings. A quick examination of the vast literature on collective political action and organized labor Interest group politics demonstrates the importance of industry, especially huge firms, as significant players. Participants in public policy discussion. Even the research on emerging social movements' collaborative activity motions.

The ability to communicate we may use spin as a strategic political communication tool for our goals. The use components of Habermas' approach, emphasizing interpersonal communication and those the primary drivers of "systematically distorted communication" are actors. The allows for strategy and interest issues. However, before delving into these aspects of political communication, an understanding of the public realm is required that progresses from a broad conceptualization to a narrower application of the idea addressing issues of public relations and true democracy. The public realm is a basic social phenomenon, much as action, actor, affiliation, or group. The collectivity, although it eludes traditional sociological ideas of "social order". Public relations research and study are a very small subset of the social sciences and business disciplines. Within media and communication studies, public relations is often categorized as a subset of production activity. PR is just one, minor component of the larger marketing mix taught in business schools. "Public relations grew out of a highly practical context and subsequently developed a theoretical apparatus to

support the analysis and legitimation of its professional activity" As a result, the PR literature places a considerable focus on concerns of method, efficacy, strategy, and professionalization. Professional anxiety is evident in the literature on the standing of public relations in relation to advertising and marketing as well as earning a proper place on the corporate board as strategic advice and the dubious status of public relations in society at large.

PR method, strategy, and efficacy research is often conducted in terms of business goals and management objectives. There has been a lot of interest in this area of study on problems of inter-cultural communication and how PR develops ties and enables communication in a globalized setting. One line of research in this field looks at the interaction between multinational businesses' worldwide communication tactics and the local cultures where the publics, or audiences, for these communication programs are situated. Another way to comprehending current corporate public relations looks at globalization from both above and below. The former examines the role of corporate PR in managing debates about social responsibility and supply chain practices. What is notable about most of the current study on public relations is that media relations are just one part of business communication. This implies that our concept of public relations must shift away from issues of media coverage and representation and toward source techniques and communication power outside the media.

The study of the relationship between sources and the media has moved away from "media-centrism" studies that focused only on the perspective of media workers. Source media studies look at the role of sources and their communication tactics with the media and the broader public. It is now well recognized that research into disputed media discourses, in which official and oppositional actors compete for policy discussion in the mass media, is well established. Recent reflections on this field of research include Deacon both far more sophisticated than PR apologists and attentive to concerns of power and ideology. According to Davis behind the current media interest in a few key "spin doctors" has evolved a substantial layer of "cultural intermediates" with a significant impact on news production and decision-making processes." Politics has gotten even more "mediatized" as a sort of public relations democracy has emerged.

However, the framework Davis provided in his examination of the UK's public relations democracy prohibited consideration of several extremely significant PR activities, like lobbying, government relations, and regulatory affairs. Davis focuses on the news and media agenda, and how corporate community relations, Corporate Social Responsibility CSR programs, think tanks, elite policy planning groups, and other such micro initiatives act to keep grievances and issues from being recognized as such by publics. Davis does make a reference to corporate and governmental power, noting the "conscious" efforts at control that may be undertaken via ownership and management, and implying that elements like ideology and the economics have a part in news creation. He criticizes radical political economy accounts of media power for lacking "a significant focus on micro-level influences and individual agency," objecting to research that is "too reliant on work that stresses macro and wider political and economic trends and has not adequately tested this thesis with micro-level empirical work that observes active agents". This challenge is somewhat addressed by research on source-media relations. However, Davis's fundamental argument is whether the development of public relations affects journalism, rather than the larger question of whether the expansion of public relations destroys democracy.

Davis contends, in a significant expansion of his viewpoint that "critical inquiry into the links between media, communication, and power must look beyond the elite-mass media-audience paradigm". He specifically urges us to consider intra-elite communication and the activities

of sources at key sites of power in contemporary society, emphasizing "the micro and less visible forms of communication at these sites, as well as the private actions of powerful individuals", whose networked actions and decision making have broader social implications. Davis used this method in his research on financial elites at the London Stock Exchange, Westminster's political village, and the policy networks of development NGOs. This approach avoids assuming elite coherence or unity of purpose, instead focusing on how elites utilize media and communication, as well as how the media influences elites, institutions, and their networks. In this environment, journalists do more than just report on the powerful; they serve as a resource for elites as they scan the policy and political horizon. Despite this focus, the growth of professionalized communications, cultures, and related elite networks that exclude journalists seems to be becoming more Davis points to diplomatic, financial, and international commerce networks as examples of disembodied tendencies. Davis' argument has advanced significantly. However, in the opinion of 260, there is still a long way to go. It is vital to conceptualize this as a communication and power issue, as opposed to the function of mass media organizations in power relations. The latter overlooks the broader issues of lobbying, think tanks, and policy planning organizations, all of which rely heavily on communication and mediation. These communication networks and fora, in our opinion, are among the least visible, most exclusive, and politically significant venues in the current public sphere. There seems to be a lack of critical attention around these places, which is rather perplexing considering the developing consensus in modern liberal democracies about the parliamentary complex's waning importance.

Davis contends that critical inquiry on the links between media, communication, and power must look beyond the elite-mass media-audience paradigm in a significant advancement of his theory. He correctly calls for us to focus in particular on intra-elite communication and the sources' activities at the major centers of power in modern society, emphasizing "the micro and less visible forms of communication at these sites, and on the private actions of powerful individuals". Whose networked actions and decision-making have wider social implications. In his research on the financial elites at the London Stock Exchange, the political community at Westminster, and the policy networks of development NGOs, Davis uses this method. The focus of this strategy is on how elites utilize media and communication, as well as how elites, institutions, and their networks are influenced by the media, rather than assuming elite coherence or unity of purpose.

In this situation, journalists serve as a resource that elites may use to scan the political and policy horizon rather than just reporting on the wealthy.

The rise of professionalized communications, cultures, and related elite networks that exclude journalists seem to be becoming more significant notwithstanding this tendency International economic, financial, and diplomatic networks are cited by Davis as exhibiting similar disembodied tendencies. The trajectory of Davis' argument has advanced significantly. However, there is still a ways to go. It is important to conceptualize this as a matter of communications and power, as opposed to the part that institutions of the mass media play in power relations. The latter overlooks more general inquiries about lobbying, think tanks, and organizations that prepare policies, where communication and mediation play a crucial role. These communication platforms and networks are among the least accessible, most exclusive, most politically significant areas of the modern public sphere, in our opinion.

Given the increasing agreement in modern liberal democracies that the parliamentary complex is losing importance, it is quite perplexing that there does not seem to be any critical coverage of these venues.

Rather of emerging spontaneously from the public sphere, organized interests such as corporate organizations "occupy an already constituted public domain...anchored in various social subsystems and influence the political system through the public sphere." The punishments and incentives they depend on in negotiations and covert pressure tactics cannot be used in a clear way in the public domain. This suggests that business can only translate its social influence into political power to the degree that it conducts policy negotiation in secret or persuades the public when an issue receives broad notice and becomes the focus of public will formation.

CONCLUSION

Finally, public relations is an important component of news journalism since it shapes the connection between media companies and their sources. PR professionals' strategic communication initiatives have a considerable effect on news agendas and substance. While public relations may help journalists get access to information and sources, it can also raise ethical issues. Journalists must walk a fine line between serving the public interest and avoiding excessive influence from public relations initiatives. Understanding the importance of public relations in news journalism is critical for both media professionals and readers. It emphasizes the need of openness in public relations strategies, as well as the need for a watchful and independent media in order to protect the integrity and credibility of news reporting. As media landscapes develop, the link between public relations and news journalism will remain fluid, needing continual inspection, ethical concerns, and a dedication to provide the public with accurate and balanced information.

REFERENCES:

[1]   C. M. Carr, "Sport Psychology: Psychologic Issues and Applications," *Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Clinics of North America*. 2006. doi: 10.1016/j.pmr.2006.05.007.

[2]   R. V. R. Thomas, "Clinical psychology," *Int. Rev. Psychiatry*, 1992, doi: 10.3109/09540269209066336.

[3]   A. J. Finch, Jr., J. E. Lochman, W. M. Nelson, III, and M. C. Roberts, *Specialty Competencies in Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*. 2014. doi: 10.1093/med/9780199758708.001.0001.

[4]   A. Iudici, A. Salvini, E. Faccio, and G. Castelnuovo, "The clinical assessment in the legal field: An empirical study of bias and limitations in forensic expertise," *Front. Psychol.*, 2015, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01831.

[5]   A. Iswara, "Pengaruh Bimbingan Dan Konseling Komprehensif Dengan Pendekatan Kognitif Sosial Terhadap Efektivitas Pembelajaran Peserta Didik," 2017.

[6]   M. C. Roberts, "Innovations in specialty training: The clinical child psychology program at the University of Kansas," *Prof. Psychol. Res. Pract.*, 1998, doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.29.4.394.

[7]   B. Hicks and J. Baggerly, "The effectiveness of child parent relationship therapy in an online format," *Int. J. Play Ther.*, 2017, doi: 10.1037/pla0000033.

[8]   S. A. Wiebe and S. M. Johnson, "Creating relationships that foster resilience in Emotionally Focused Therapy," *Current Opinion in Psychology*. 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.05.001.

[9]   A. S. Elstein, "Heuristics and biases: Selected errors in clinical reasoning," *Academic Medicine*. 1999. doi: 10.1097/00001888-199907000-00012.

[10]   H. Ijzerman, E. C. E. Heine, S. K. Nagel, and T. M. Pronk, "Modernizing relationship therapy through social thermoregulation theory: Evidence, hypotheses, and explorations," *Front. Psychol.*, 2017, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00635.

CHAPTER 3

ANALYSIS OF NEWS JOURNALISM IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT

Puneet Tulsiyan, Associate Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- puneet.tulsiyan@atlasunveristy.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Global news journalism is a dynamic and powerful force that is essential to educating, reshaping, and reflecting the societies of the globe. This examination looks at some of the most important aspects of international news reporting, including its many sides, difficulties, and transformational effects. Thanks to technical breakthroughs that enable quick transmission, news journalism crosses geographical borders in this age of globalization. However, it faces urgent problems including censorship, press freedom, and media consolidation. The advent of digital technology has changed the environment, promoting citizen journalism and igniting debates about false news. Social media now serves as both a tool and a field of conflict for the spread of news. There are still ethical problems, and maintaining high-quality journalism is still expensive. News reporting affects foreign events, affecting how the general public views and how governments react to global concerns. Our comprehension of foreign events is, however, impacted by the degree and slant of international news coverage. The viability of the industry depends on new revenue structures and encouragement of investigative reporting.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Democracy, Digital, Ethics, Global.

INTRODUCTION

The "journalist" paradigm of advocacy has traditionally been a crucial component of the press ever since someone chose to start a newspaper to spread personal viewpoints. One may argue that up to the rise of the concepts of objectivity and "professional reporting," journalism was primarily "advocacy journalism," serving as a propaganda weapon for political groups, a platform for press moguls with political aspirations, and a means for journalists to engage in political action. When Max Weber said that journalism "remains under all circumstances one of the most important avenues of professional political activity, he was referring to the kind of reporting he defined in his book Politics as a Vocation. Weber's observation is still relevant to journalism now just as it was in Germany at the beginning of the 20th century.

Different pathways led to the evolution of advocacy journalism on both sides of the Atlantic. The varied growth of press systems and journalistic principles is one source of the reasons. According to Hallin and Mancini, advocacy journalism has historically flourished in well-established European democracies in newspapers and magazines that openly support party perspectives [1]. This is especially true in pluralistic and corporatist media environments. Its development has been inextricably linked to political parties' history of communication. Partisan perspectives were often indistinguishable from news reporting since parties have traditionally had a discernible influence on the press [2]. Editorial stances affected how information was treated generally and how news was covered. The assertion of a journalistic identity closely linked to partisan ideas was supported by the institutional connections between political parties and the press as well as the presence of strong partisan identities in

society at large. In all of the democracies in Europe, journalists historically treated news reporting as a vehicle to engage in politics and advance ideologies that are often tied to certain political parties.

The historical hold of parties on political communication has decreased in recent decades as a result of the triumph of market forces in media systems and the waning of party identities. Political parties no longer have the same sway on the media that they previously did, despite the fact that this process has progressed throughout the area with varying intensity and speed. However, studies show that among European journalists, the concept of advocacy still represents a desired journalistic ideal [3]. The historical development of advocacy journalism in the US has been quite different. The gradual collapse of the partisan press and the concurrent emergence of the commercial press between the mid-1800s and the 1920s created distinct circumstances for advocacy journalism. Advocacy journalism was pushed to the outside of the press system when objectivity became the normative goal of professional reporting.

Advocacy journalism was less closely associated with political parties than it was in European democracies. This was a result of the market's unbridled power and the two major political parties' enduring communication shortcomings [4]. In contrast, advocacy journalism has traditionally been linked to nineteenth-century movements that supported workers' rights, abolitionism, and women's voting, as well as turn-of-the-century muckrakers who exposed governmental corruption and dishonest corporate practices. They openly combined politics and facts and promoted the notion of the journalist as a social advocate. As mainstream media outlets adopted the idea of objectivity during the 20th century, advocacy journalism remained niche and neither major political party had organic relationships with major media outlets.

The most significant publications mainly prohibited advertising. Journalistic advocacy in a global context 373 articles ranging from editorials to op-ed pages [5]. During the 1960s and 1970s, in particular, alternative newspapers continued to serve as the principal carriers of advocacy journalism, such as the journals of the anti-war, feminist, LGBT, environmental, and ethnic rights groups. They eloquently conveyed the political opinions of a wide range of social movements, advocacy organizations, and activists-turned-publishers. Historically, Western Europe has been more accepting of advocacy journalism than the United States. In the latter, the decision to uphold objectivity as the supreme journalistic standard served as a safeguard against competing viewpoints, such as the belief that "journalists are advocates." Even today, a professional fantasy closely associated with ideas of objectivity and political distancing continues to serve as the benchmark for evaluating the virtues of advocacy journalism). Instead, the lack of agreement on journalistic standards and the historical greater hold that political parties had over national political communication provided favorable circumstances for advocacy journalism in Western Europe.

Questions of whether advocacy journalism is desirable for public life and democratic government got diverse responses since historically, advocacy journalism has had a different presence in the mainstream press in the United States and Western Europe. While European publishers and journalists have supported advocacy journalism, the mainstream US press has harshly attacked it. Publishers' and journalists' organizations in the US have steadfastly fought any alternatives to the concept of objectivity and political neutrality. For instance, arguments in newsrooms and academia regarding journalistic standards in the early 1970s demonstrated the resistance of editors and academics to allowing advocacy journalism in the newsroom. Leftist analysts argued that when political and economic interests influence news coverage, objectivity is not possible, questioned whether it is appropriate to produce

comprehensive and critical news reports of powerful interests, and saw it as merely a discursive justification for professional legitimacy.

They believed that the standard of "objectivity" served as an excellent cover for support of ideologies and policies that preserve the status quo. Conversely, proponents of objectivity among academics and practitioners firmly thought that the latter was the greatest countermeasure against advocacy journalism. They saw the latter as being indistinguishable from propaganda and saw it as being opposed to the fundamental principles of a democratic press, such as impartiality and honesty. Additionally, in the environment of inflamed politics and rising political mistrust during the Vietnam War and the Watergate affair, they felt advocacy journalism to be problematic. Advocacy journalism has recently found a home in the mainstream media, despite opposition from those who uphold the US journalism canon. This is evident in the vociferous conservatism of Fox News, the outspoken partisan positions of cable news anchors and commentators, and the editorializing of news content in some tabloids. Instead of progressive reporters as Janowitz and other press historians anticipated in the 1970s, journalists and news organizations with right-wing views have smuggled advocacy journalism into the corporate press. Instead questioning the fundamental assumptions of the existing political-economic system, as is the case with the alternative press, advocate-journalists are common in news organizations that vehemently support some of this system's core ideological tenets. In conclusion, advocacy journalism is still present in both progressive journals that carry on the legacy of alternative and radical news, as well as mainstream news organizations with obvious right-wing editorial biases.

DISCUSSION

Outside of the West, advocacy journalism's trajectory more closely reflects the European than the US experience. It has long been believed that the press should support certain political viewpoints in nations with a tenuous democratic past. Advocacy journalism sometimes reflected the opinions of official parties, much like the traditional main party machinery in Western democracies. Other times, advocacy journalism reflected the opinions of certain publishers and journalists affiliated with a particular government or other political agenda.

The political economics of the press is a factor in the preservation of the "journalist" paradigm of advocacy journalism. News organizations are expected to serve as platforms for advancing political agendas as long as governments and politicians have a significant level of influence on press economies. Despite the fact that commercial pressures and globalization have altered media systems over the last several decades, this fundamental organization has essentially remained the same. Government and private monies continue to be the main sources of funding for the media in many nations across the world [6]. The ability to access public funds, party treasuries, and private wealth is essential to the continued operation of news organizations. The inability of the market and the government to pay news coverage often gives powerful influence to government officials, lawmakers, and big business. Journalism cannot hardly be anything else than advocacy journalism under these circumstances. There are few, if any, buffering mechanisms that may reduce the impact of editorial politics on newsrooms.

Advocacy journalism is still favored by the fact that governments and political financiers still control press finances and have a tendency to bulldoze any indications of press independence. Newsworthiness, fairness, audience interest, and public service should take precedence above personal politics, according to the Anglo-American press's understanding of the ideal of professional journalism. Professional ethics are the barrier against the introduction of "the personal" into news; they do not eradicate, but rather regulate, personal sympathies. The news

value of information, news collecting techniques, news framing, source selection, and other factors should all be based solely on professional considerations [7]. However, it has historically been difficult for people in the global South to put these concepts into effect. Professionalism is often choked off by the combined demands of publishers and owners who see news organizations as "house organs" and political and commercial interests influencing content via covert and obvious means.

Despite indications of growing professionalism, there is still a gap between ideas and actuality. Maintaining reporting above the political fray is not possible as long as fundamental political and economic conditions are not present. In the heyday of authoritarian and totalitarian control, media outlets and reporters were forced to toe the party line or risk being persecuted for speaking out against it. When newsrooms were expected to dance to the official song, it was difficult to keep reporting and politics apart. When control was enforced "from above" via direct ownership, official censorship, and blatant repression, professional practice norms were not essential.

The end of one-party and military dictatorships provided an opportunity to redefine journalistic standards. In Asia, Africa, and the Americas, professional identities and roles are changing, according to recent research on journalistic norms there is still no agreement on standards in journalism. Both objectivity and partisanship fall. Reporters continue to have doubts about the relevance of objectivity and the idea of "journalists as social mobilizers. "Journalists often execute balancing acts between personal politics and workplace Realpolitik, holding to professional values and adhering to editorial standards. They are more than objective recorders of reality or ardent political advocates [8]. Advocacy journalism is less constrained when journalists do not have strong allegiances to the standard of impartiality or when it is not expected to be maintained in daily practice.

The "journalist" paradigm is not the only option for modern advocacy journalism, neither in the global North nor the global South. The "civic" form of advocacy journalism has significantly expanded in recent years. The "civic" model, in contrast to the "journalist" model, which conveys the political viewpoints of journalists, depicts the advocacy work done by civic organizations to advance social change. Through advocacy journalism, organizations that have historically had little access to the news media seek to enlighten the public, influence policy discussions, and promote awareness. Journalism that advocates for civic change is motivated by the idea that the news media should be an instrument for social change.

The Civic actors try to influence news coverage because it helps to both raise public awareness and determine policy objectives and agendas. They see journalism as a different kind of mobilization that may influence how "public problems" are defined. Civic advocacy is the result of a rising awareness among civic organizations of the role that the media plays in the formulation of societal issues and the need of approaching the media as a tactical ally. The current professionalization of media strategies used by social movements and interest groups is linked to civic advocacy journalism [9]. Up until recently, it was only practiced in liberal democracies in the North, where a variety of social movements and interest groups made conscious efforts to influence news coverage of health-related issues. Similar movements have recently become more powerful across the global South. Many groups, from land rights to environmental movements, have used advocacy journalism to further their objectives.

Civic advocacy journalism reflects significant shifts in the political and media landscape over a wide swath of the global South. First, in political environments with, at best, shaky

traditions of democratic government, and the fall of military dictatorship and one-party systems has prepared the ground for the intensification of citizen mobilization. Civic groups with demands and identities that transcend conventional political divides have emerged in emerging democracies as a result of the crises of contemporary political ideologies. Social activism on issues like children's rights, immigration, domestic abuse, and the environment scarcely fits within traditional ideological and party frameworks. Multiple issues that describe civic mobilization are too numerous to be adequately captured by the outdated divisions that characterized national politics and articulated identities [10]. Conservatives and liberals, capital and labor, or urban and rural interests have traditionally defined the foundation for political mobilization and identity, but these distinctions fail to account for the variety of problems that motivate civic engagement.

Second, the transition to democracy changed the environment in which journalism was practiced. Undoubtedly, situations differ across news companies and between nations. Journalists still confront several challenges, including statelessness and the demands of industry and government. News organizations have significant challenges, especially if they are critical of the prevailing political and economic forces. However, the absence of official state censorship and the atmosphere of oppression allowed for a progressive opening to other viewpoints in news reporting, including previously ignored or actively repressed civic groups. Civic groups are now better able to influence news coverage thanks to the introduction of new methods of public engagement and improvements to the media environment.

Journalism that promotes civic causes has been made easier by recent media innovations. This trend has progressed at a variable rate because media economics and systems vary among nations. The growth of "niche" publications, the expansion of cable and satellite radio and television, the consolidation of specialized sections in print and broadcast news e.g., science, health, food, environment, education, the popularity of talk shows and newscasts, and the emergence of countless news websites on the Internet have all contributed to the proliferation of media options. Additionally, the amount of news has increased, creating more possibilities for public advocacy.

These changes resulted from the combination of legal changes, technological innovations, and economic calculations. First, the combination of privatization, deregulation, and technological changes has enlarged the number of news outlets. In most of the global South, the news media landscape is considerably different in countries where governments had historically controlled news mainly through direct media ownership or direct censorship. Today's media systems are dotted with a variety of commercial, religious, semi-public, and community radio and television stations with a diversity of agendas and interests. Second, a wide variety of innovations in information technologies have also contributed to the multiplication of media offerings as represented by cable and satellite television stations and Internet Web sites. New information technologies offer novel avenues for advocacy and social activism (Bennett, 2003).

Third, the process of news segmentation has resulted in the opening of "niche" news directed to specific c audiences. Although profit seeking, rather than a commitment to social justice, has been driving this process forward, it has opened opportunities for civic advocacy journalism by creating platforms for news coverage on issues related to social justice. These processes have mixed consequences for media democratization. On the one hand, the unbridled power of business interests and the absence of strong countervailing forces raise concerns about whether recent changes are leveling opportunities for public expression or, instead, are tilting the balance further in favor of the powerful. On the other hand, the

multiplication of news outlets, particularly in countries with a long tradition of government media monopolies and manipulation of news content, offer justify able reasons for moderate optimism. Today's media landscape may not be a "brave new world" of unrestricted speech and equal opportunities.

Among social movements promoting social change, the dilemma of civic groups serving as both "news sources" and "news subjects" has long been an issue. The question of whether the media help or hinder social movements has long been up for discussion. In the past, protest groups have either engaged gingerly or avoided contact with the media altogether. News coverage generally presents a distorted perspective of oppositional movements, which may be explained by asymmetrical power dynamics and the political objective of corporate media. These worries still exist. In order to provide alternatives to corporate news, they have really sparked the growth of alternative news and the continuing democratic media movement. Such choices are consistent with the history of oppositional groups that, in response to silence or bias in the media, gave priority to developing their own platforms for advocacy. They accept the premise that the alternative press plays a crucial role in organizing publics, raising concerns, and debating ideas.

Civic advocacy journalism indicates a particular attitude among groups working for social change in the framework of this tradition. It reflects the understanding that in an era of "mediated" politics, media visibility is essential to advancing political agendas. It conveys the choice to engage the mainstream media as a possible "strategic ally" in the fight to promote reforms and the understanding that communication methods must take into account traditional news biases. Civic advocacy groups pragmatically interact with the mainstream media, in contrast to oppositional movements that fundamentally challenge the status quo, primarily because they value the media's influence over particular actors such as decision-makers and funders as well as society at large. They collaborate with a number of news organizations rather than concentrating only on their own medium. They interact with the mainstream media on their terms rather than challenging them. Civic groups have embraced public relations concepts in the interest of social change at a time when public relations is responsible for the creation of a significant amount of daily news. They hold press conferences, release press releases that focus on well-known "news hooks," stage "media events" with celebrities from the worlds of politics and entertainment, capitalize on common "news events" (such as accidents, official announcements, natural disasters, and "media panics," for example), and assemble a team of experts to offer opinions and background information.

Standard PR techniques are only one aspect of civic advocacy journalism's media toolkit. It mixes news management with shrewd street theater while straddling the traditions of traditional news management and radical politics. It takes tactics from protest movements, such rallies, sit-ins, marches, and other public theatrical performances (like musical performances, plays), to get media attention. Some social movements have combined street theater into sophisticated forms of media management, most notably AIDS and environmental organizations. This involves the planning of provocative acts and theatrical displays meant to derail or hijack official gatherings like G8 summits and conferences of international financial institutions. Such activities are examples of communication jujitsu because they take advantage of media coverage of official events for their own ends. These media strategies are frequently linked to the initiatives of ACT UP and Greenpeace which have respectively influenced the advocacy repertoire of environmental movements opposing nuclear power plants, deforestation, and whaling as well as the Treatment Action Campaign and the Sexual Rights Campaign in South Africa.

Civic advocacy journalism rigorously conforms to accepted reporting methods and regulations even if it seeks to advance social improvements. It uses traditional news routines and standards to attract media attention rather than working to reinvent journalism. The acceptance of established news-gathering practices and news conventions, such as dramatic, conflict-driven, sensationalist, event-centered, and celebrity journalism, is reflected in the "institutionalization" of media advocacy. Strategies are similar over the world because "what is news" appears to be becoming more and more the same despite political, economic, and cultural variations. Civic advocacy journalism isn't quite a revolution in news production; rather, it takes a traditional approach to news management with a dash of innovation and takes use of modern media's biases to advance social justice causes. We may list the circumstances that support advocacy journalism. The lack of a consensus about journalistic ethics and principles, as well as media-savvy citizen groups, are prerequisites for current advocacy journalism, notwithstanding significant historical variances across press systems.

When these circumstances are present, it is more possible that journalists would publicly support certain causes, and mobilized populations will utilize mainstream media to influence news agendas, public opinion, and policy objectives. Reporters and sources both serve as advocates and sometimes work closely together. When none of these requirements holds true, other situations are discovered. Advocacy journalism is more likely to be civic advocacy journalism in nations where journalists are restricted by the values of objectivity, fairness, and other "God-terms" of contemporary journalism and when organized organizations mobilize to support media coverage and policy. Advocacy journalism is likely to be connected with advocate-journalists when standards of objectivity for journalists are lax or nonexistent, and when collective action for certain social concerns is weak or nonexistent.

Second, the usage of identical journalistic standards in the definition of news globally may be growing. This is supported by the fact that civic movements in the global South use similar media advocacy techniques. While there are still significant disparities across press systems and journalistic cultures, journalists generally agree on the definition of what is news? While working in newsrooms that might not always require journalists to balance sources, accurately document facts, and adhere to other principles that are frequently associated with the conventions of contemporary Anglo-American journalism, similarities about who, what, when, and why is news are discernible around the world. In this regard, the acceptance of certain general guidelines to establish newsworthiness seems to be connected to the worldwide rise of the notion of professional journalism.

Global and local organizations utilize a same set of "source strategies" globally to engage in advocacy journalism, which is explained by an increasing uniformity regarding "what is newsworthy" across newsrooms worldwide. Perhaps two of the most well-known examples of advocacy organizations using public relations and street theater to get attention throughout the world are Greenpeace. Anti-tobacco organizations in Japan use media methods that aren't all that unlike from those of their counterparts in the US and Europe Hajime, 2003). The mobilization strategies of anti-vaccination groups in the United Kingdom and Nigeria reflected different forms of political participation and decision-making. In conclusion, since identical standards are used to assess news, global civic advocacy increasingly depends on a shared set of news making techniques. This phenomenon merits additional study and may be a byproduct of globalization.

Third, the advocacy journalism situations discussed in this chapter highlight issues about the connections between local and global activism. The viability of international forms of civic activity has lately been extensively examined in the literature on collective action and social movements. It's critical to draw attention to parts of these challenges that are directly related

to advocacy journalism and the media's role in fostering social change on a global scale. When combined with local efforts, can global campaigning successfully influence news coverage, given that local news hooks are preferred by journalists? What transpires when international advocacy conflicts with the objectives of local and national governments, the leading defenders of daily news?

Analyzing local reporting methods is necessary to comprehend how globally focused advocacy movements efficiently assist locally focused advocacy. Studying how transnational networks influence governments, community groups, and news organizations, which in turn determine the parameters for what and how is reported, is one way to approach this topic. Another option is to examine the development of certain problems in the national and local public spheres to ascertain how regional and global influences have influenced the emphasis and framing of concerns.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there are unprecedented potential and difficulties for news journalism in a global environment.

While managing the complexity of the digital era, it continues to play a crucial role in sustaining democratic norms, openness, and accountability. The significance of international news reporting goes well beyond just reporting the facts; it also forms the stories that shape our world and affects how we react to its problems.

On a worldwide scale, news journalism is at a turning point. In our linked world, it acts as both a beacon of truth and a battlefield for false information. It is essential to acknowledge the significant importance of news journalism and the duties that come with it as the digital revolution reshapes our information ecology.

REFERENCES:

[1]   C. M. Carr, "Sport Psychology: Psychologic Issues and Applications," *Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Clinics of North America*. 2006. doi: 10.1016/j.pmr.2006.05.007.

[2]   R. V. R. Thomas, "Clinical psychology," *Int. Rev. Psychiatry*, 1992, doi: 10.3109/09540269209066336.

[3]   A. J. Finch, Jr., J. E. Lochman, W. M. Nelson, III, and M. C. Roberts, *Specialty Competencies in Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*. 2014. doi: 10.1093/med/9780199758708.001.0001.

[4]   A. Iudici, A. Salvini, E. Faccio, and G. Castelnuovo, "The clinical assessment in the legal field: An empirical study of bias and limitations in forensic expertise," *Front. Psychol.*, 2015, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01831.

[5]   A. Iswara, "Pengaruh Bimbingan Dan Konseling Komprehensif Dengan Pendekatan Kognitif Sosial Terhadap Efektivitas Pembelajaran Peserta Didik," 2017.

[6]   M. C. Roberts, "Innovations in specialty training: The clinical child psychology program at the University of Kansas," *Prof. Psychol. Res. Pract.*, 1998, doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.29.4.394.

[7]   B. Hicks and J. Baggerly, "The effectiveness of child parent relationship therapy in an online format," *Int. J. Play Ther.*, 2017, doi: 10.1037/pla0000033.

[8]   S. A. Wiebe and S. M. Johnson, "Creating relationships that foster resilience in Emotionally Focused Therapy," *Current Opinion in Psychology*. 2017. doi: 10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.05.001.

[9]   A. S. Elstein, "Heuristics and biases: Selected errors in clinical reasoning," *Academic Medicine*. 1999. doi: 10.1097/00001888-199907000-00012.

[10]   H. Ijzerman, E. C. E. Heine, S. K. Nagel, and T. M. Pronk, "Modernizing relationship therapy through social thermoregulation theory: Evidence, hypotheses, and explorations," *Front. Psychol.*, 2017, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00635.

CHAPTER 4

A BRIEF DISCUSSION INVESTIGATION OF JOURNALISM EDUCATION

Shefalika Narain, Professor
Department of ISDI, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- shefalika.narain@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The dynamic sector of journalism education is crucial in forming the next generation of media professionals. This study examines the many components of journalism education, evaluating its value, standard, and capacity to change with the ever-evolving media environment. Curriculum analysis, faculty credentials, technology and facilities, ethical training, diversity and inclusion, digital literacy, links to industry, evaluation, adaptability to industry changes, and certification are among the important aspects to be explored. This research aims to identify the advantages and disadvantages of journalism education programs by thoroughly analyzing these components.

KEYWORDS:

Accreditation, Curriculum, Digital Literacy, Diversity, Ethics, Faculty, Industry Connections.

INTRODUCTION

By enhancing the quality of journalists, journalism education is thought to enhance the quality of journalism. it is seen as the "one way society can intervene to influence the development 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 individuals to practice and upgrade their journalistic skills, are essential tools for the underpinning of key democratic principles that are fundamental to the development of every country. The main components of journalism education will be examined in this chapter, especially the notion of enhancing journalistic practice [1][2]. 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 idea that journalism education lays the groundwork for the attitudes and information of future journalists is one of its most important components. There are many opinions on what should be taught to journalists, however. 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 recent statistics are available, the findings indicate a clear tendency toward journalists having a university or college degree [3]. 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 World Association of Newspapers, 2005, reflecting the region's steadily growing geopolitical and demographic importance. Newspapers with the largest readership are from Japan. The Asahi, the Yomiuri, and the Mainichi, the most prominent news agencies, according to Gaunt exclusively hire graduates

from reputable institutions who possess degrees in political science, economics, or the humanities [4]. 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. In the first decade of the twenty-first century, journalism and communication are quickly gaining popularity as fields of study in China. This is a sign of how quickly Chinese culture and the media landscape are changing. Currently, courses are perceived as falling behind market needs since they blend skill-building lessons with studies of Chinese Communist thought, However, despite a rise in higher education options in media, communication, or journalism degrees, as witnessed in the US and Germany, fewer journalists choose these programs as a route to employment. "From 1982 to 2002, the proportion of journalism and mass communication bachelor's degree graduates who went into mass communication jobs declined sharply from over one-half (53 percent) to about one-fourth," according to Weaver, Beam, Brownlee [5]. Due of this, journalism education in the United States has evolved into a more all-encompassing field of mass or public communication (ibid). On the other hand, over 90% of journalists have a degree.

Similar to the United States, just 13 percent of journalists in Germany have a major or minor in journalism, and another 17 percent have studied communication or media Weischenberg, Malik, & Scholl, 2006, p. 353. However, 80.5% of journalists in Germany have a university degree or have attended school at some point. Importantly, 90% of those under the age of 35 completed an internship, and 60% completed the two-year, or one-year for graduates, in-house training program. Despite the fact that fundamental journalistic "working practices appear to be universal, "the above-mentioned approaches to journalism show distinct national preferences. These that there are other ways to become a journalist than via collegiate journalism school. This puts academic literature on journalism education, which is mostly focused on university journalism education, out of step with the reality of primarily in-house training [6]. Making the Newsmakers is a book by Gaunt (1992), who writes in the introduction that "Journalism training perpetuates or modifies professional practices and shapes journalists' perceptions of the role and function of the media." 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.

In the second part of the nineteenth century, in the United States, the notion that journalists should have a college or university education to improve their journalism was created Weaver, 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 field until the 1980s and 1990s, often at brand-new colleges. The fact that 44 JOSEPHI the United States not only invented journalism school but also news journalism is one reason why the nation made new ground [7]. The Anglo-Americans invented journalism as we know it today. In continental Europe, journalism was strongly related to the literary world, which required distinct talents and writing abilities than a daily rounds reporter.

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. Accordingly, the early courses didn't only concentrate on reporting but also on writing and editing as well as technical printing abilities (Johansen, Weaver, & Dornan, 2001, p. 471). Regardless of this prior attempt, James Carey said that the establishment of a school of journalism at Columbia University did not happen until Joseph Pulitzer forced money into the rather reluctance of the university Carey, quoted in Johansen et al., 2001, p. 475. Instead of the undergraduate institution Pulitzer had

originally envisioned, the Columbia School of Journalism opened its doors in 1912 as a graduate program Adam, 2001 [8]. At a period when many, if not most, journalists hailed from working-class households, Pulitzer wanted to expand the minds of journalists. In order to do this, he sought to provide them the inadequate liberal arts education.

Different approaches were used by other journalism studies pioneers. The new research was integrated into Wisconsin University's political science and sociology PhD programs by Willard Bleyer in the late 1920s. He believed that journalism research was a crucial component of journalism education. Long-term effects resulted from the decision to include journalism under the social sciences. According to Chaffee, quoted in Johansen et al. (2001), "founders of many major journalism schools elsewhere came from the Wisconsin program and carried its empirical social sciences assumptions with them." The Association of Journalism Education Administrators now also known as the Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass Communication) and the accrediting body for journalism programs. 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.

DISCUSSION

Wilbur Schramm contributed an additional model, at the conclusion of World War II, Schramm oversaw journalism education at the University of Iowa. He subsequently established communication studies and communication research institutes at the Universities of Illinois and Stanford (Rogers, 1994, p. 29). Despite Schramm's original decision to situate his new communication program inside the realm of journalism, communication as a field of study quickly eclipsed journalism education, which was unable to shed its reputation as a vocational training school. Professors Bleyer, Williams, and Schramm, in contrast to Pulitzer, were solely interested in journalism, not journalists. A communication research education 45 institute might be a source of prestige for a journalism school that may have been denigrated by academics in other fields due to the perception that journalism education is similar to that of a vocational school.

Although there are other nations with a history of journalism education, none have had the same influence on the field as the United States. The darker side of journalism education was shown in Spain, where General Franco established the country's national school of journalism in 1941 and put it under the Falangist Party's supervision. The most significant training facility in Spain was the national school of journalism, which was managed by the government until the early 1970s. This journalism school was a requirement for employment with the main government-controlled newspapers in Spain. In the former Eastern Bloc governments, there are comparable instances of government-controlled journalism school, proving the core tenet that journalism education is a crucial component, if not a tool, for forming journalists and journalism.

Whether journalism should be seen as a trade or a profession remains the central topic in journalism education today. The implicit respect shown to journalists and the required educational background are the key differences between the two. A trade is defined as the regular exercise of a profession. If journalism were treated as a trade, just the occupational training necessary to perpetuate practice would be required; no previous education would be necessary. If journalism wants to be a profession, then this claim would need to be supported by at least a defined educational track. But as was already said, journalists come from a wide range of educational backgrounds, and the majority of them get on-the-job training from the

media company they join. Due to this, the discussion of journalism education has been "framed as scholars versus practitioners", which has resulted in a rift between the academic community and the business community that shows no evidence of resolving. This duality is also seen as one of the key issues in journalism education at higher institutions, with debate focusing on how much emphasis should be placed on theoretical versus applied content. But this argument hides a bigger, unrelated problem. The deeply held ideological viewpoints of journalism education are made clear when one examines the theoretical topics covered in journalism studies. For the majority of people in the Western world, democracy's political system is intrinsically intertwined with media and, by extension, journalism education. One of the crucial issues in journalism education that is still seldom discussed is the significance of this connection. Journalism researchers and educators will need to challenge the long-held belief that journalism education only exists in democracies as a result of recent developments in global politics and the media landscape.

Since the concept of professions first emerged in the English-speaking world, here is where the professionalization argument is most fiercely contested. Marx, Weber, and Durkheim, who are considered the founders of sociology, are said to have been "relatively vague about the role of professions [9]. This is the cause of this. In other words, different people have different ideas about what professionalization in journalism entails, and this variation is reflected in the literature. According to journalist is a designation that persons engaged in a wide varied variety of activities assign to themselves. Journalism is an ambiguous vocation. It shouldn't come as a surprise that the dean of British media sociology made such a noncommittal statement. In contrast to the United States, the United Kingdom did not establish university-based journalism programs until the late 20th century. In the UK, journalism has historically been seen of as a trade for which the necessary skills may be learned on the job.

Hallin believes that journalism is "very different from the classical professions law, medicine, architecture, engineering in that its practice is not based on any systematic body of knowledge. He is also aware of journalism's lack of objectivity toward commercial and political factors. Nevertheless, despite these negative aspects, Hallin regards professionalization i.e., formal, college-based education as having the ability to protect journalists from monetary pressures and political instrumentalization [10]. In Comparing Media Systems, Hallin and Mancini (2004) develop these concepts further by comparing the journalistic profession to the following standards, autonomy, unique professional norms, and public service orientation. According to these standards, journalists have never attained a level of autonomy similar to that of physicians and attorneys, according to Hallin and Mancini. They are used by huge businesses when the manufacturing process is impacted by several factors.

Journalists have frequently been successful in achieving relative autonomy within those organizations." Hallin and Mancini note significant differences in the direction and pace of the evolution of journalistic standards with respect to professional norms. They also contend that standards can only be developed in professions that have some degree of autonomy, and they raise the possibility that journalistic practice is too often governed by outside parties Hallin and Mancini warn against accepting journalists' assertions that they are there to serve the public at face value. In contrast to other professions claiming professional status, journalism lacks esoteric knowledge, so journalists' claims to autonomy and authority are dependent on their claims to serve the public interest to a particularly large extent.

This suggests that the ethic of public service may be particularly important in the case of journalism. The American professional ethic of objectivity varies significantly from public

service, which is so important to Hallin and Mancini means adhering to certain norms and accepting the uniformity of practice that this implies." They recognize, however, that in a world where ideologies are many and sometimes at odds with one another, such standards are difficult to come by and that American "disdain for any model of journalism that violates the precepts of private ownership and individual autonomy prevents a more widespread consensus. Internet use has also challenged preconceived ideals of professionalism. On the one hand, a growth in the "communication autonomy" of people has framed journalism as "intervention" rather than a useful channel for information. On the other hand, confrontational journalism has been seen as being constrained by the professional norms of objectivity and impartiality. Because of this, some people worry that professionalization would make journalism more exclusive and elitist rather than inclusive. While the professionalization issue is less heated than it once was in the early twenty-first century, discussions concerning journalism school curriculum have never stopped. It is believed that journalism education, which is increasingly being offered by tertiary institutions across the world, serves as both a precursor to and a remedy for journalism. Its dual function is both a strength and a weakness.

It not only distances collegiate journalism education from the industry, but it also solidifies the enmity between academia and the business side of the media. "Media owners and managers do not generally welcome critical perspectives on media practices, especially if they are contrary to commercial considerations, this division, and the result of the fact that many journalism schools are based on the idea that reporting is an individual act of freedom and responsibility rather than a societal structure contained inside and controlled by corporate media. This acknowledgment helps a great deal to understand why the university and industry are at odds, but it is unlikely to end the debate over how to influence journalism. And it's not an equal playing field either. While journalism programs may work to change the way journalism is done, their effectiveness is determined by how many internship opportunities they provide and the kind of employment its graduates are able to get. In other words, journalism schools are reliant on the industry, yet the business community is not quite persuaded of the worth and value of journalism degrees.

However, one of the most compelling reasons in favor of journalism education is the fact that it enhances journalists' employment prospects. Many nations may relate to what has been written about Portugal: "Traditionally, journalism has not been a prominent profession. It was a vocation with poor qualifications and low pay due to censorship and the lack of specific academic qualifications. While there are some nations where the pay for journalists is adequate, such as the United States. Delano (2000) had to write, "No Sign of a Better Job: 100 Years of British Journalism" as a conclusion for Britain, which, until recently, favoured on the job training for journalists. Why hadn't journalists "been able or willing to exert the influence inside their professional world that they are able to wield outside it," Delano questioned. However, Britain has just lately accepted higher education for journalists, unlike the United States, and the precarious professional standing of British journalists may actually be cited as evidence in support of university education for journalists.

Even while the graduatization of journalism is happening quickly, this fact should be balanced by the reality that only approximately 25% to 30% of those who study journalism end up working in the field. To fully understand the dynamics that influence journalism, research into journalism education must also take into account the training that students get outside of higher institutions, such as in newsrooms or the media sector. Researchers also need to be aware of geopolitical changes throughout the world. American media outlets have changed. According to a list of the 100 newspapers with the biggest circulation, 75 of them

are Asian WAN, 2005. No other continent can compare to Asia in terms of audience size. Thus, Asia, and in particular China and India, produces the majority of journalists worldwide. However, the topic of Asian journalism education has scarcely come up yet. The discourses on journalism and journalism education have historically been dominated by Americans. As a result, there is now a sense that journalism education is supported by just one legitimate kind of journalism. Future articles on journalism education will need to accommodate a wider variety of journalisms, nevertheless. The addition of the British model of journalism significantly broadens the perspectives of journalism, even while maintaining within the confines of the discourse's dominating language, English. Compared to the American model, which is exclusively commercial, the British model provides components that are far more internationally flexible due to its twin strands of public service and commercial media. One example is the Qatari broadcaster Al Jazeera, which was mainly modeled after BBC standards and procedures. It is impossible to limit journalism education research to solely democratic nations. The book by Splichal and Sparks demonstrates how journalism education may be seen as a force for change, and it is important to examine the peculiarities of journalism education in partially free and non-free nations. Studying journalism education from a wider global perspective is the only way to help attempts to create a society that is informed and deliberate.

In fact, the routes taken historically by the two nations may be understood as the confines within which the conversation concerning the condition of journalism education now proceeds. The curriculum is "one of the most contentious and problematic issues" in journalism education because there are "those who advocate a singular focus on vocational training and those who would have journalism students follow a much broader program of study, No one disputes the need of teaching skills, which are defined as interviewing, reporting, researching, sourcing, writing, and editing; nonetheless, potential employers have questioned the value of studying the nature and practices of journalism. They do not argue against journalists with university education; rather, they argue against having them major in journalism or communication studies rather than get a degree in another subject. Therefore, journalism is taught as a postgraduate degree in many Western nations as a supplement to earlier courses, such as those in history, politics, law, economics, or business.

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. The focus placed on conduct and consequence in this context—rather than meaning or transgression or the individual has advanced the idea that journalists are professionals, although unsuccessful ones. As early canonical work has yet to fully address contemporary trends toward conglomeratization, corporatization, standardization, personalization, convergence, and the multiple often differently normative nature of journalistic work in its more recent forms, this work has remained somewhat entrapped by its past. Additionally, since this work has been predominantly organized inside the boundaries of US sociology, its depictions of mostly mainstream American news institutions have taken on a global voice in support of our understanding of journalism.

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 been crucial in demonstrating the endurance of journalism and journalistic practice by using the past its lessons, successes, and tragedies 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, which relies more on documents than

on actual people, can be broken down into three main categories: journalism history writ small, which includes memoirs, biographies, and organizational histories , history writ midway, which is structured around temporal periods, themes, and events, such as "the penny press" or "war journalism" and history writ large, According to research from Australia and France, each varies significantly depending on the nation under consideration (Kuhn, 1995; Mayer, 1964). A deliberate twining of the function that writing history serves for both journalists and the academics has been absent from this discussion: The broad, so-called objective histories that adhered to the paradigm of German historicism are not reflected in the history of journalistic practice written largely at US journalism schools with the intention of validating journalism as a field of research. Finding out how to better mix the two hasn't received enough attention. Here again, the highly rich and diverse development of journalistic practice across the globe has been overlooked in favor of a concentration on mostly US history and its progressive tilt. 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 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 mostly just been developed in the last 35 years or so, and its development has been distinctly European and Australian. The blending of language's more formal elements, such grammar, syntax, and word choice, with its more informal ones, like storytelling. It has expanded to include vocal language, music, still and moving pictures, and patterns of interaction frames, textual patterns, and storylines. Examine the course offerings, their content, and how they relate to market demands in journalism institutions' curricula. Analyze the relationship between more recent digital media abilities such as multimedia storytelling, data journalism, and social media reporting and more established journalism skills (such as reporting, writing, and editing. Expertise and qualifications of the faculty Look at the credentials and background of the journalism faculty. Are they academics, professionals in the business, or a combination of both Examine the faculty members' knowledge of emerging technologies and trends in the industry. Technology and Infrastructure Examine the equipment and technology that journalism students have access to, including newsrooms, broadcast studios, editing software, and multimedia tools.

Practical experience and an internship, Examine the chances for internships and hands-on learning offered to journalism students. Exist any collaborations with media organizations? Analyze the quality of the mentoring and direction that interns get. Legal and ethical education: Look at whether media ethics, ethical reporting, and legal issues are covered in journalism curricula. Examine the methods used to educate students to negotiate the ethical complexities of contemporary journalism. Inclusion and Diversity Examine initiatives to encourage inclusiveness and diversity in journalism school, both in terms of the student body and the output. Study the extent to which prejudice, representation, and inclusion concerns are covered in journalism curricula. Integration of technology and digital literacy Evaluate how effectively journalism programs educate students for the digital era, taking into account their aptitude for using digital tools, data analysis, and technological adaptation. Journalism schools are closely associated with media companies, news organizations, and professional groups examine your options for networking and employment. Evaluation and Results, Examine the metrics used by journalism programs to gauge student achievement. Take a look at graduates' post-graduation experiences, such as their rates of employment and career paths. Examine the methods used to get input from students, alumni, and business partners in order to continually enhance journalism education. Standardization and Accreditation check to see whether journalism programs adhere to industry standards and are recognized by the appropriate certifying authorities. A thorough investigation of journalism education may include surveys, interviews, document analysis, and benchmarking against industry best

practices. The objective is to guarantee that students get journalism education that provides them with the information and abilities necessary to succeed in the rapidly changing industry of journalism.

CONCLUSION

Journalism education is a key component of the media and journalism's continual development. As we consider its relevance, it becomes clear that journalism's quality and effect are significantly influenced by the techniques, information, and ethics taught to aspiring journalists. Journalism education nowadays must go beyond the limits of the past. The ability to traverse the digital world, embrace multimedia storytelling, and critically assess information should be given to pupils. However, fundamental journalistic principles like truth, impartiality, and responsibility shouldn't be sacrificed in the sake of this progress. There are several obstacles to overcome, including the need of adjusting to rapidly evolving technology and the necessity of promoting diversity and inclusion in newsrooms. Finding the ideal mix between academic grounding and practical application continues to be difficult. These obstacles can be overcome. Journalism education may develop into a dynamic force that builds a journalism profession prepared to handle the challenges of our world via cooperation among educators, business leaders, and legislators. A new generation of journalists will be developed as a result of this investment, and they will be ready to inform, interact with, and critically investigate the problems that shape our day.

REFERENCES:

[1]   N. M. Prastya, "Analisis Framing dalam Riset Public Relations," *INFORMASI*, 2016, doi: 10.21831/informasi.v46i2.10565.

[2]   J. Lewis, A. Williams, and B. Franklin, "A compromised fourth estate?: UK news journalism, public relations and news sources," *Journal. Stud.*, 2008, doi: 10.1080/14616700701767974.

[3]   A. S. de Beer, "News from and in the 'dark continent': Afro-pessimism, news flows, global journalism and media regimes," *Journal. Stud.*, 2010, doi: 10.1080/14616701003638509.

[4]   P. Schlesinger and H. Tumber, "Fighting the war against crime: Television, police, and audience," *Br. J. Criminol.*, 1993, doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.bjc.a048288.

[5]   M. Moritz and R. Streitmatter, "Unspeakable: The Rise of the Gay and Lesbian Press in America.," *J. Am. Hist.*, 1998, doi: 10.2307/2567370.

[6]   С. Чугров, "Scientific Article: a Fruit of Creative Art, Craft, or Relevation?," *Полис. Политические исследования (Polis. Polit. Stud.*, 2015, doi: 10.17976/jpps/2015.03.11.

[7]   S. Allan, "Histories of Citizen Journalism," in *Citizen Journalism: Global Perspectives*, 2009.

[8]   A. Burns, "Oblique Strategies for Ambient Journalism," *M/C J.*, 2010, doi: 10.5204/mcj.230.

[9]   N. S. Panagiotou, "Global media ethics: Problems and perspectives," *African Journal. Stud.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/23743670.2015.1008187.

[10]   J. Fischer, "To Create Live Treatments of Actuality: An Investigation of the Emerging Field of Live Documentary Practice," 2014.

CHAPTER 5

A BRIEF DISCUSSION CHRONOLOGY OF NEWS JOURNALISM

Mohamed Jaffar A, Professor

Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India

Email Id- mohamed.jaffar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The growth of media and communication throughout history may be seen in the history of news journalism, which is a fascinating trip. This study examines the significant turning points and evolutions in news reporting from its beginnings to the current digital era. The influence of technology improvements, social and political changes, and changes in audience consumption habits are highlighted as it explores the evolution of print, broadcast, and internet journalism. Following this timeline helps us better grasp how news journalism has changed to keep up with the rapidly evolving information world and how it still plays a significant role in influencing public opinion.

KEYWORDS:

Age, Chronology, Communication, Digital Media, Evolution.

INTRODUCTION

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 field coincided with the development of journalism as a profession and a social force in the early 20th century. Some people, many of the first ideas for study on journalism and communication originated in Germany in the middle of the 19th century. As a result, the critical German social theorists' writings might be considered the "prehistory" of journalism studies study, underlining the normative impulses that provided the field with its first impetus. In his now-classic study on Social Theories of the Press. Similar to Löffelholz, who researched the history of journalism studies in Germany before newspaper studies became a recognized field of study [1][2]. Based on the idea that journalism is a trade practiced by more or less competent people, the majority of early German theorists approached the subject via a historical and normative lens. 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 [3]. In many respects, the macro-sociological approach to journalism has persisted in German communication scholarship often at the cost of empirical study.

It wasn't until the context of journalism school, first and mostly in the United States that an interest in the structures, procedures, and personnel of news creation started to take shape. 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 [4]. There is little doubt that the study of journalism emerged from professional education in the US and was often administrative in character Singer, 2008. This new era in journalism studies was ushered in with the founding of Journalism Quarterly in 1924 later renamed Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly. The first issue had, among other things, an article by Willard Daddy Bleyer of the University of Wisconsin summarizing the main techniques to newspaper study. Other nations, like the UK and Denmark, had journalism education that didn't happen in a university setting [5].

Instead, journalists were taught in news organizations via apprenticeships and skill-based short courses Wahl-Jorgensen & Franklin, 2008. Under such circumstances, students studied classes in subjects like shorthand and journalism law since the education of journalists was seen as pragmatically important. Due to the separation of journalism training from the academy, a more reflective and scholarly approach was missing from this model, which has resulted in the majority of journalism scholarship coming from social sciences and humanities disciplines that have taken up journalism among many other interests in countries where this has been the model for journalism training, this could be one of the main explanations for why journalism studies have traditionally been multidisciplinary.

While audiences and media impacts dominated study during this time, the developing field of journalism studies gradually began to focus on "news people" and their professional ideals, as well as editorial structures and practices [6]. The gatekeeper model, the professionalization paradigm and establishing an agenda are only a few examples of ideas and concepts that were developed from and based on empirical study. These researchers' pioneering study is one of the select few works in the history of media studies that can be universally referred to as "classics." They have produced real journalism ideas that are still vital and influential. They continue to be significant to the field inasmuch as they have built significant research traditions, even if many of their concepts may appear outdated and have been supplanted by more recent study. Although they may not be the most cutting-edge in terms of theory or methodology.

As sociology and anthropology's influence on journalism study increased in the 1970s and 1980s, the field of journalism research began to take on a sociological bent. The emphasis shifted to a critical engagement with journalism's conventions and routines, professional and occupational ideologies and cultures, interpretive communities, and concepts related to news texts, like framing, storytelling, and narrative, as well as the expanding significance of the popular in the news [7]. The introduction of qualitative procedures, most notably ethnographic and discourse analysis techniques, coincided with the growing focus on cultural concerns. Sociologists. 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 constructing and maintaining dominant ideologies while also allowing for a better understanding of news production processes through descriptive work.

Political shifts and new communication technologies have expedited the worldwide development of international and comparative study. 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 [8]. 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. The diverse academic career. Due to the field's unequal borrowing from the social sciences and humanities, this variety has been significantly affected by many national traditions. Research in the UK and Australia has developed within a critical tradition influenced by British cultural studies, whereas US scholarship stands out for its strong empirical and quantitative concentration and use of middle range theories.

In contrast, German scholarship has a tradition of theorizing journalism on a macro scale, influenced by systems theory and other theories of social differentiation, while French journalism research heavily draws on semiology and structuralism and is largely invisible to the international academy. Since many journalism scholars in Asia had their education in the US, they have developed strong American affinities [9]. 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. Despite the field's increasing globalization, Anglo-American researchers continue to have a dominant position in the major English-language journals, but with a continually rising level of contributions from other countries. Scholarship from or about other nations is a clear exception in Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly JMCQ, which until recently was the most significant home for publications in journalism studies. JMCQ largely relies on US contributions. Only two out of the journal's 80 editors and editorial board members are from countries other than the United States, which highlights the strong American hegemony in the field. JMCQ is produced by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication AEJMC, however many journalism and communication schools throughout the globe rely heavily on the magazine as a source and a reference.

DISCUSSION

However, some academic associations, such as the International Association for Media and Communication Research IAMCR and the International Communication Association (ICA), are working hard to increase their international membership and visibility while actively promoting a more equal representation of scholars from all over the world. By increasing the diversity of their editorial boards, new academic publications including Journalism: Theory, Practice and Criticism, Journalism Studies, and Journalism Practice have purposefully positioned themselves as being more international in scope. Scholars from countries other than the US and the UK are still a minority, and the majority of editors and editorial board members are situated in those countries.

The results of a recent study on contributions to journalism are presented against this backdrop. 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. However, the Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly has historically relied heavily on content analysis, as shown by the fact that this technique was used in one-fourth of the papers published between 1975 and 1995. However, compared to the other journals, JMCQ publishes a lot more study on news audiences due to the frequent contributions that rely on experimental research influenced by the effects tradition. The third-person effect and the use of ideas like salience and attribution have both been the subject of several papers. However, the bulk of the essays continue to concentrate on the psychology and sociology of journalism.

The field is strongly influenced by a specific set of moral presumptions that we would do well to reflect on, notwithstanding the power of an empirical tradition that has prevailed from the early years of communication research and the rising significance of global perspectives: We presumptively believe that media serves as a "fourth estate" or serves as a "watchdog role" by offering a check on the abuses of government authority, as was suggested at the beginning of this chapter. As a result, we also presume that journalists see themselves as autonomous agents 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. From the employment of journalism to promote national socialist ideology in Nazi Germany,

totalitarian governments across the globe have shown a deep knowledge of the power of the press. We shouldn't dismiss the reality that media has been used to support atrocities, spread hate, and incite conflict. For instance, the situations in Rwanda, Liberia, and Sierra Leone have all received extensive documentation. Relatedly, it has become clear that assertions of universal free speech rub up against cultural and religious sensibilities in a globalized world ever since the controversial publication of cartoons depicting the Prophet Muhammad by the Danish newspaper.

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.The development of specialized methods for regularly gathering and disseminating information has been a hallmark of technology and trade throughout history, which has led to a steady rise in "the scope of news available to us and the speed with which it is transmitted," according to one history of journalism. News was mostly spread by word of mouth prior to the invention of the printing press. News was carried back to the mainland by returning traders, sailors, and travelers. Peddlers and roaming actors then picked it up and distributed it from town to town.

The fact that they were often not meant for the broad public and were constrained to a certain range of themes meant that none of these periodicals entirely matched the present standards for real newspapers. Early publications contributed to the emergence of what is now known as the newspaper, which occurred about 1601. Long news reports known as "relations" known as Relaciones in Spain were published in England and France in the 15th and 16th centuries. Broadsheet-style news articles that covered a single event were produced and often updated. For larger tales that were often written in the form of letters, these publications also appeared as pamphlets and compact booklets, sometimes with woodcut pictures. In this situation, literacy and oral culture were kind of coexisting side by side because of the low literacy rates in compared to today and the frequency with which these news periodicals were read aloud.

By 1400, businesspeople were preparing handwritten accounts of significant news events in German and Italian towns and sharing them among their contacts. Around 1600, the notion of printing this substance first surfaced in Germany. The so-called Messrelationen trade fair reports, which began in the 1580s as semiannual news collections for the significant book fairs at Frankfurt and Leipzig, were early predecessors. The first real newspaper in 17th-century Europe, the information was passed from newsletter to newsletter via well-established methods. Two networks, one connecting France, Britain, Germany, and the Netherlands, and the other connecting Italy, Spain, and Portugal, had their hubs at Antwerp. War, military affairs, diplomacy, royal business, and rumors were among the favorites. After 1600, official newsletters were printed by the national governments of France and England. The first English-language weekly magazine, A Current of General News," was printed and circulated in England in 1622.

Due to many technological, commercial, political, and cultural developments in the 19th century, newspapers became significantly more significant in all major nations. Large circulations were made feasible by fast presses and inexpensive newsprint made of wood. The number of prospective readers increased dramatically as elementary education quickly spread. Both local and national publications were sponsored by political parties. By the turn of the century, advertising had established itself as a reliable source of income for newspaper publishers. Due to the competition to have the greatest circulation, partisanship was often downplayed to encourage readers from all parties to purchase a publication. In the 1860s and

1870s, there were around 6,000 newspapers in Europe; by 1900, that number had quadrupled to 12,000 newspapers. Most newspapers in the 1860s and 1870s consisted of four pages of editorials, speeches that were already published, passages from books and poems, and a few tiny local advertisements. Because they were pricey, the majority of readers read the most recent edition at a café. Major national newspapers like the London Times, London Post, Paris Temps, and others were available in every capital city. They were costly and targeted at the top National political figures. Every ten years, presses became quicker, and the introduction of mechanized typesetting in the 1880s made it possible to produce a sizable morning newspaper overnight.

The far costlier rag paper was substituted by inexpensive wood pulp. The professionalization of news gathering, handled by specialized reporters, was a significant cultural breakthrough. Liberalism paved the way for journalistic freedom, the repeal of newspaper tariffs, and a significant decrease in government censorship. There was a major increase in outreach to a bigger subscriber base as businesspeople interested in making money replaced politicians engaged in forming party stances. The cost decreased to one cent. Sensationalism, comics which were yellow, a focus on team sports, less coverage of political intricacies and speeches, a new emphasis on crime, and a much-enlarged advertising section, which featured big department shops in particular, were all employed by "Yellow Journalism" in New York. Previously disregarded, women are now offered several advice articles on family, home, and fashion-related matters, and advertising is increasingly targeted toward them.

Journalism has a lengthy and complicated history that spans many centuries and has changed along with advancements in technology, politics, and culture. Here is a summary of significant events in journalistic history. Ancient civilizations like the Egyptians, who utilized hieroglyphics to record significant occurrences, are the ones who may be credited with developing the oldest kinds of journalism. The "Acta Diurna" system, often known as "Daily Acts," was used in the Roman Empire to notify the populace about governmental activities and other news. Journalism underwent a revolution when Johannes Gutenberg created the printing press in the 15th century. It made it possible to produce newspapers and pamphlets in large quantities, increasing public access to information.

Newspapers first appeared in Europe and North America in the 17th and 18th century. These magazines, which included news, editorials, and ads, were often supported by governments or political parties. "The London Gazette" (1665) and "The Boston News-Letter" (1704) are two notable examples of early newspapers. The American Revolution was significantly influenced by journalism. Publications like Thomas Paine's "Common Sense" and "The Federalist Papers" influenced the political conversation of the day. In 1791, the First Amendment to the United States Constitution was passed, guaranteeing freedom of the press. The emergence of the "penny press" at the beginning of the 19th century increased the public's access to and affordability of newspapers. This signaled a change in journalism's partisanship in favor of a more commercial approach. Newspapers like Joseph Pulitzer's New York World and William Randolph Hearst's New York Journal used sensationalized reporting and exaggeration, sometimes referred to as "yellow journalism," to increase readership in the late 19th century. Newspapers started receiving news from news organizations like Reuters (established in 1851) and the Associated Press (AP, founded in 1846), enabling for the quick transmission of information across regions and nations.

With the introduction of radio news broadcasts in the 1920s and television news in the 1950s, the 20th century saw breakthroughs in broadcast journalism. In this time, notable individuals were Walter Cronkite and Edward R. Murrow. Online journalism flourished in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, when many people turned to news websites, blogs, and social media

platforms as their main news sources. A number of issues, including false news and the demise of print media, have influenced modern journalism. The era of citizen journalism, in which people without formal journalistic training utilize internet platforms to report on events and topics, was also brought about by the digital age. Credibility, prejudice, and the evolving commercial strategies of media companies are problems for modern journalism. The importance of ethical issues and proper reporting is still paramount. Journalism has undergone constant change throughout its history as a result of cultural and technical breakthroughs. Today, journalism embraces a variety of media formats and keeps evolving to meet the possibilities and difficulties of the digital era.

From roughly 1500 to 1700, handwritten newsletters known by various names ragguagli were the quickest and most effective way for military and political news to spread throughout Italy before the development of the first regularly published printed newspapers in the mid-17th century. Handwritten advice, which were used to swiftly transmit political, military, and economic news, became popular across Italy as a result of each court's wish to be aware of the actions of rival and even ally courts. Over time, in order to fulfill the great demand for such a commodity, the formerly free knowledge was finally marketed by experts and supplied by couriers. Italian newsletter writers known as menanti, reportisti, or gazzettieri started news services in the middle of the 16th century; the frequency of which may have been determined by the local postal system. Rome and Venice in the early modern period served as both the avvisi's birthplace and apogee.

It is easy to see why these two cities in particular should have been in the forefront of the creation of a "news service." One answer may be found in Vittorio Siri's statements, which he used to justify why he decided where he would work as a modern historian. He claims that he required "a city like that which Plutarch sought for a historian, that is, where there was a great and powerful court, full of ambassadors and ministers," where "more than in any other city in the world one could see a multitude of personages and soldiers who had been ambassadors at all the courts of Europe and where civil questions were managed by nobles, where people practiced who possessed refined judicial abilities and were knowledgeable about the affairs of state," and where "civil questions were Siri had been talking about Venice, but Rome, the seat of the Catholic Church, was also comparable.

In fact, Maiolino Bisaccioni, one of the numerous daring historian-gazetteers of the time, had said only a few years earlier that "Rome, as you know is the place where all the news in the world is found."In the two cities, the advice had a different tone and substance. Roman advice included ecclesiastical, political, and criminal intrigue that benefited from rival groups that were prepared to leak official information or state secrets for their personal gain. Then the nobles and representatives of the church and government read these. The partisan and sometimes scandalous remarks on current events were so offensive that the Pope suppressed them, and numerous copyists were either put to death or imprisoned. Prospero Farinacci, a renowned Roman jurist, contended that the disclosure of official secrets by newsletter writers constituted a crime that required punishment on a par with the crimen leased maiestatis.

It wasn't until the first part of the seventeenth century that printed advice became common in Italy Possible explanations for this include customers preferring the status provided by handwritten material over the "vulgar" print, copyists' resistance to using printing technology (which they saw as a danger to their job security, and the ease with which censorship may be avoided in hand-written form. Manuscript newssheets lost prominence by the late 1630s due to their low readership and exorbitant price. No evidence has been found to support the theory that Amador Massi and Lorenzo Landi published the first newspaper printed in Italy in Florence in 1636. As a result, the newspaper Genova, published in 1639, will be regarded as

the country's first printed newspaper. Unpredictably printed newssheets were becoming commonplace in several Italian towns by the middle of the eighteenth century. The Gazzetta di Mantova, the oldest continuously running newspaper in the world with the same name, was founded in June 1664.The Giornale de' Letterati, the first scientific journal to be published in Italy, was styled after the Philosophical Transactions and the Journal des sçavans.

It was first published in 1668, Despite having little political impact, the Giornale de' Letterati was crucial in distributing research and cultural work done outside of Italy as well as news about Italian culture throughout Europe.Through its colonies and informal economic contacts with merchants in key cities, Britain had a significant impact on the world. They need current market and political data. There were many periodicals in Jamaica that expressed the opinions of the white plantation owners who kept slaves. These publications included the Jamaica Courant, Cornwall Chronicle, Cornwall Gazette, Royal Gazette, The Diary, and Kingston Daily Advertiser. The Watchman was the first anti-slavery journal in Jamaica when it was established in 1826 by two free colored men named Edward Jordan and Robert Osborn. The criticism of the hierarchy of slave owners became too much in 1830, and the Jamaican colonial authorities detained the editor Jordan and accused him of constructive treason. Nevertheless, Jordan was ultimately found not guilty, and in post-Emancipation Jamaica, he rose to the position of mayor of Kingston. Joshua and Jacob De Cordova, two Jamaican Jewish brothers who were aspiring merchants and part of the new class of light-skinned Jamaicans taking over after abolition, created the Gleaner Company in the 1830s. The Gleaner served as the new establishment for the next century, but in the early twentieth century, a burgeoning Black Nationalism movement fought for greater political participation and rights. Osmond Theodore Fair Clough established Public Opinion in 1937 with this purpose in mind. Radical writers Frank Hill and H.P. Jacobs backed Fairclough, and the inaugural issue of this new publication attempted to rally the populace behind a new nationalism. Strongly supporting the People's National Party (PNP). Winston Churchill, the British prime minister, made it clear that he had no intention of preside "over the liquidation of the British Empire" despite Public Opinion's calls for self-government. As a result, the Jamaican nationalists in the PNP were dissatisfied with the toned-down constitution that was given to Jamaica in 1944. Because Churchill's lieutenants were "all over the British Empire implementing the real imperial policy implicit in the statement by the Prime Minister," Mains stated in an essay, "Now we know why the draft of the new constitution has not been published before." The Public Opinion offices were raided by British colonial police, who took Mais' manuscript, arrested him, charged him with seditious libel, and sentenced him to six months in prison.

Britain had a big influence on the globe via its colonies and unofficial business relationships with merchants in important towns. They need up-to-date political and financial data. The Diário de Pernambuco was founded in Recife, Brazil, in 1825. El Mercurio was founded in Chile's Valparaiso in 1827. The most important newspaper in Peru, El Comercio, was first published in 1839. The Journal do Commercial was established in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1827. La Prensa and La Nacion, Argentina's newspapers, were founded in Buenos Aires considerably later, in 1869 and 1870, respectively.In Jamaica, there were various publications that published the viewpoints of the white plantation owners who owned slaves. The Jamaica Courant, Cornwall Chronicle, Cornwall Gazette, Royal Gazette, The Diary, and Kingston Daily Advertiser were some of these newspapers. When The Watchman was founded in 1826 by two free coloured men called Edward Jordan and Robert Osborn, it was the first anti-slavery publication in Jamaica. In 1830, the level of criticism of the hierarchy of slave owners reached an all-time high, and the colonial authorities in Jamaica imprisoned the journalist Jordan and charged him with constructive treason. Jordan was finally declared innocent, and

in Jamaica after emancipation, he attained the office of mayor of Kingston.Despite appeals for self-government from Public Opinion, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill made it plain that he had no intention of overseeing "the liquidation of the British Empire." Because of this, the toned-down constitution that was delivered to Jamaica in 1944 displeased the Jamaican nationalists in the PNP.

CONCLUSION

The history of news journalism is evidence of its flexibility and tenacity in the face of social, political, and technical changes. News journalism has developed continuously to satisfy the demands and expectations of its audience from its modest origins as handwritten newsletters in ancient Rome and China to the 24/7 global news cycle of the digital era. The invention of the printing press in the 15th century was a turning point since it democratized access to news and made it possible to spread knowledge across a larger audience. This development paved the way for the expansion of newspapers and the development of investigative journalism. The 20th century saw the development of broadcast journalism, with radio and television becoming as effective channels for informing the general public. The influence of broadcast journalism on society was best represented by iconic occasions like the televised Kennedy-Nixon debates and the World War II radio broadcasts.

REFERENCES:

[1] A. Wake, "Journalism training aid by Australians: A case study in Solomon Islands," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2016, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v22i2.68.

[2] K. Davies, "HRECs and journalism research: The uneven playing field," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2014, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v20i1.189.

[3] M. Á. Del Arco Bravo, "Enseñar o aprender periodismo. El modelo pedagógico de la Fundación García Márquez para el Nuevo Periodismo Iberoamericano (FNPI)," *Estud. sobre el Mensaje Periodístico*, 2015, doi: 10.5209/rev_esmp.2015.v21.n2.50899.

[4] M. Opgenhaffen, L. D'Haenens, and M. Corten, "Journalistic tools of the trade in flanders: Is there a fit between journalism education and professional practice?," *Journal. Pract.*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/17512786.2012.753208.

[5] K. Windschuttle, "The Poverty of Cultural Studies," *Journal. Stud.*, 2000, doi: 10.1080/146167000361221.

[6] M. McCombs and M. Funk, "Shaping the Agenda of Local Daily Newspapers: A Methodology Merging the Agenda Setting and Community Structure Perspectives," *Mass Commun. Soc.*, 2011, doi: 10.1080/15205436.2011.615447.

[7] A. N. A. C. Rocha Pessôa Temer And M. J. Sousa Santana Joffe, "Formação De Jornalistas E Ensino Universitário: Perspectivas De Docentes De Jornalismo Sobre A Implantação Das Novas Dcns.," *Major Journal. High. Educ. Perspect. From Profr. About Updat. Dcns.*, 2018.

[8] M. J. Robinson, "Public Affairs Television and the Growth of Political Malaise: The Case of 'The Selling of the Pentagon,'" *Am. Polit. Sci. Rev.*, 1976, doi: 10.2307/1959647.

[9] G. Treadwell, T. Ross, A. Lee, and J. K. Lowenstein, "A numbers game: Two case studies in teaching data journalism," *Journal. Mass Commun. Educ.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1077695816665215.

CHAPTER 6

NINE ABSOLUTES COMMANDMENTS IN JOURNALISM: AN OVERVIEW

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

ABSTRACT:

A set of fundamental rules that act as compass points for moral and responsible journalism are known as the "Nine Absolute Commandments in Journalism." These commandments encapsulate the essence of the profession, emphasizing truth, objectivity, and accountability. In this overview, we provide a concise summary of these commandments, highlighting their significance in shaping the practice of journalism.The legitimacy and integrity of journalism are based on the Nine Absolute Commandments in Journalism, which are more than just a list of guidelines. These principles have been covered in this review; they act as a compass for journalists, guiding them as they negotiate the challenges of their line of work while maintaining an unyielding dedication to responsibility and the truth. The significance of truth as the cornerstone of journalism is emphasized by these commandments. It is essential to pursue factual truth in today's information-rich society.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Commandments, Ethics, Journalism, Objectivity.

INTRODUCTION

Accuracy and Truthfulness, Journalists have a duty to convey the facts and to ensure that the data they provide is accurate. They need to make an effort to provide a true and accurate description of what happened. Journalists should steer clear of any conflicts of interest that can jeopardize their neutrality and independence. They shouldn't let their own prejudices color their reporting. Fairness and Impartiality, Journalists should be fair and unbiased to all the people they are reporting on, providing them the chance to refute any accusations and offer their side of the story. Privacy and Sensitivity, when reporting on private issues, particularly those affecting vulnerable people, journalists should respect people's rights to their privacy and show compassion. Accountability and Corrections, when mistakes are made, journalists should fix them right away and provide a clear explanation of how they were fixed. Additionally, they must to be prepared to accept accountability for their reports.

Journalists should be open and honest about their information-gathering processes and sources. They need to differentiate between news and opinion with clarity. Minimization of damage, Journalists must take into account any possible damage that their reporting may have on specific people or groups, and they must work to lessen that harm while upholding the public's right to know [1]. Independence from Commercial and Political Influence, Journalists should avoid being subjected to excessive pressure or political or commercial interests that might taint their reporting. Public Interest, when making editorial choices, journalists should put the public interest first [2]. They ought to disseminate information that promotes a strong democracy and upholds the public's right to know.

It's crucial to remember that these standards are broad ones, and that the practice of journalism may be complicated with a variety of ethical conundrums. There may be subtle variations in how various organizations and journalists understand and put these concepts into practice. Additionally, ethical issues may change in response to novel difficulties and

technological advancements in the media sector [3][4].Another fundamental principle, objectivity, requires journalists to put aside their own viewpoints and offer a fair account of the events. Readers and viewers are more likely to trust journalists to provide them an unbiased knowledge of the world as a result. Accountability is also very important. Journalists must take responsibility for their work and make public, fast corrections of any inaccuracies. The relationship of trust between journalists and their audience is strengthened by this rule. The Nine Absolute Commandments remind us that journalism is a public duty as well as a career. Public opinion may be informed, educated, and shaped by journalists. These commandments serve as a reminder of the enormous responsibility that comes with this authority.

The Nine Absolute Commandments in Journalism are ageless and act as a guide for journalists all across the globe. They provide as evidence of the lasting qualities of honesty, impartiality, and responsibility that must continue to guide the profession in a dynamic media environment. By upholding these rules, journalists defend journalism's noble goal and guarantee that it will continue to be a foundation of democracy and a vital source of information for future generations. People need trustworthy, factual information that has been placed in an insightful context in order to make good decisions [5]. Journalism pursues truth in a more pragmatic manner than in an absolute or philosophical sense, Kovach and Rosenstein state that "all truths, even the laws of science, are subject to revision, but we operate by them in the interim because they are essential and effective." They go on to say that journalism looks for "a practical and functional form of truth." The pursuit of "the truths by which we can operate on a daily basis" is different from the search for "the truth" in the abstract, philosophical, or scientific meaning. The process leading to this "journalistic truth" starts with the skillful gathering and verification of information.

Then, subject to additional inquiry, journalists attempt to present a fair and trustworthy explanation of their meaning. Journalists should be as open as possible about their sources and procedures so that readers may evaluate the material on their own. Even in a world where there are more voices than ever, "getting it right" is the cornerstone upon which context, interpretation, remark, critique, analysis, and discussion are formed. Over time, the bigger truth comes out in this forum [6]. Citizens need information providers that are committed to locating, validating, and contextualizing news as they meet an ever-increasing flood of data, not less. It prioritizes commitment to the people.

The ultimate loyalty of the journalistic publisher must be to the public, regardless matter whether the publisher is a media company with advertisements and shareholders as its top interests or an independent blogger. They must make an effort to put the needs of the general public and the truth above their personal interests or preconceptions. The core of the journalistic business model is a dedication to the public; journalism that is supplied "without fear or favor" is seen as having more value than information from other sources. Journalism should strive to offer a representative image of the many social groups that make up society as part of its commitment to the citizenry [7]. Certain folks become disenfranchised when they are ignored.

The premise that has guided the development of the contemporary news sector has been the conviction that authority creates a large and devoted audience, which, in turn, leads to financial success. In this sense, the businesspeople in a news institution must also cultivate - not abuse - their audience loyalty above everything else. Technology may evolve, but trust that has been developed and fostered will remain constant. Its core is a verification discipline. Journalists depend on a field of expertise to validate information. Although there isn't a set standard as such, every journalist employs certain techniques to evaluate and verify material

in order to "get it right. "Being unbiased or impartial is not one of the fundamental tenets of journalism. The journalist is not and cannot be impartial since they have to make choices. However, journalistic techniques are unbiased [8]. When the idea of objectivity first emerged, it did not mean that reporters were devoid of prejudice. Instead, it advocated for an open approach to evidence and a consistent technique of assessing material, exactly to prevent personal and cultural prejudices from impairing the work's objectivity. The approach, not the journalist, is objective. Such criteria may be identified by gathering many witnesses, being as transparent as feasible regarding sources, or getting input from all parties. Journalism differs from other types of communication like propaganda, advertising, fiction, or entertainment because of its commitment to fact-checking. Its practitioners must remain impartial toward the clients they serve.

DISCUSSION

Dependability is based on independence. On one level, it refers to refraining from being duped by insiders, intimidated by authority, or corrupted by personal gain. It refers, on a deeper level, to a spirit of independence, openness, and intellectual curiosity that enable the journalist to see above their own class or economic standing, race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or ego. According to Kovach and Rosenstein, journalistic independence is not neutrality. Even while editorialists and commentators are not impartial, their truth, intellectual fairness, and capacity for informing are what give them credibility, not their allegiance to a certain cause or result. Despite our freedom, journalists must guard against falling victim to nihilism, elitism, or hubris. It must act as an impartial power monitor. Unusually, journalism may act as a watchdog on those whose influence and status most directly affect people.

Additionally, it can give the silent a voice. Independent power monitoring is "watching over the powerful few in society on behalf of the many to guard against tyranny," according to Kovach and Rosenstiel.Early journalists made it clear that it was their duty to look into society's hidden nooks and crannies [9]. Even journalists often misunderstand the watchdog duty to mean "afflict the comfortable." Watchdog journalism may undoubtedly upset the apple cart, but the idea was far less confrontational when it was first proposed in the middle of the sixteenth century. Instead, it tried to reframe the function of the journalist as something more than a mindless stenographer who would "search out and discover the news." The watchdog duty encompasses more than just keeping an eye on the government.

According to Kovach and Rosenstein, "the first journalists firmly defined as a key premise their obligation to study hidden facets of society. The environment they described captivated the attention of a people that was mainly uneducated, resulting in an instant and fervent following. In addition to making the administration and use of power visible, the watchdog's mission also includes making the consequences of that authority known and understood. Reporting on both triumphs and failures falls under this category. This watchdog freedom must be protected by journalists by refraining from trivializing it or using it for selfish benefit. It needs to provide a stage for public criticism and accommodation.

The duty that the news media bears as common bearers of public discourse serves as the foundation for the specific rights that news and information providers have in democratic nations. These rights might range from regulations defending content and free expression to subsidies for distribution or research and development reduced postal rates for print, broadcasters' use of the public spectrum, creation and control of the Internet. But these benefits are not prescribed nor unchanging. Instead, they are granted due to the need for a wealth of knowledge. They are based on the idea that journalism will provide a consistent stream of higher-quality material that individuals and the government can utilize to make

wiser choices because of its values and practices. This agreement has often been made between the government and journalistic media. The new digital media formats, however, put a duty on everyone who "publishes" information, whether they do it for money or just for their own enjoyment. When verifiable facts is used as the starting point for the marketplace of ideas, rather than merely bias and conjecture, civic discourse is sustained and serves society most effectively. Journalism should also make an effort to adequately depict the many interests and points of view that exist in society and to contextualize them rather of focusing simply on the diametrically opposed edges of discussion. The public debate must not ignore areas of agreement or situations where issues are not merely highlighted but also resolved in order to be accurate and true. Therefore, journalism involves more than just contributing one's voice to the dialogue or offering a forum for discussion. Journalism has a duty to provide verifiable facts and intellectual rigor to the conversation in order to elevate the level of discourse. The quality and efficacy of citizen decision-making are worsened rather than improved by a forum that disregards the truth. It must make an effort to keep the important engaging and relevant.

Journalism is narrative writing with a goal. It should do more than just draw in viewers or list the significant. It must strike a balance between what readers are aware of wanting and what they cannot foresee yet need. Writing tutors Roy Effective newswriting, according to Peter Clark and Chip Scanlon, is the nexus of civic clarity the knowledge people need to function and literary grace the reporter's narrative skill set. In other words, part of the journalist's job is conveying information in a manner that will encourage people to pay attention. Thus, journalists must work to make the momentous engaging and relevant.

How well a work engages and educates its audience is a good indicator of quality. As a result, journalists must constantly consider what information is most valuable to residents and how best to provide it for assimilation. Journalism should cover more than only governmental affairs and public safety, but when it becomes bogged down with minutiae and meaningless details, it trivializes civic discourse and, ultimately, public policy. Our contemporary cartography is journalism. It offers a road plan for people to go through society. Like any map, its usefulness relies on its proportionality and completeness, which prioritizes the important above the unimportant. A key component of being accurate is maintaining proportion in the news. A map is less trustworthy when it exaggerates occurrences for sensational effect, ignores others, stereotypes, or is very unfavorable.

The most complete maps provide information for all impacted areas, not simply those with desirable demographics. The best tales include a range of backgrounds and viewpoints. Despite being arbitrary concepts, comprehensiveness and proportion do not lose any of their importance. Its practitioners need to be free to follow their own conscience. Writing for a news organization or contributing online in the public as a professional journalist involves one's moral compass and calls for a strong sense of personal ethics and accountability. Because "news" is significant, individuals who provide it have a duty to speak honestly about their own conscience and to enable others to do the same. They must be prepared to challenge their own work and disagree with that of others when fairness and accuracy require it.By encouraging people to voice their thoughts, news organizations do good to promote this independence. Conversation and debate foster the intellectual variety of ideas and voices required to comprehend and effectively report on a society that is becoming more and more varied.

It is of little use having a varied newsroom if the many voices are not heard or spoken. Additionally, it is a self-interest issue. By pointing out mistakes, highlighting significant omissions, challenging incorrect assumptions, or even disclosing misbehavior, employees

who are urged to raise their hands may "save the boss from himself" or defend the news organization's image. The most crucial quality for a freelance writer or internet contributor is probably ethics. More and more, people who create "the news" operate alone, whether from a home office, a story's setting, or a journalistic cubicle. They are free to publish their work without editing, a second pair of eyes, or any other kind of peer review. While crowdsourcing by the audience may allow mistakes or disinformation to be found and corrected, the author's reputation and the standard of public discourse are still hurt. In terms of news, citizens also have rights and obligations. More than ever, the typical individual today works like a journalist. There is probably a shortened version of the journalistic process involved when writing a blog post, leaving a social media remark, sending a tweet, or "liking" an image or article. When information is found, it must first be judged to be credible, evaluated for strength and worth to others, decided what to pass on and what to disregard, and then the best method of sharing it must be selected before pressing the "send" button. Although it could just take a few seconds, this is basically what reporters do. But there are two elements that set this journalistic-looking procedure apart from the final result that constitutes "journalism." Intention and purpose come first. Giving people the knowledge, they need to make better choices about their lives and society is the goal of journalism. The second distinction is that journalism entails the deliberate, methodical application of a discipline of verification to generate a "functional truth," as opposed to just something that is fascinating or instructive. Although the method is important, the final product the "story" is what counts when evaluating journalism.

In the information-rich world of today, when news is accessible everywhere at any time, a new connection is developing between those who provide journalism and those who read it. A gatekeeper who determines what the public should and should not know is no longer the role of the modern journalist. The person is now in charge of managing and editing their own circulation. Journalists nowadays must confirm information that the customer already knows or is likely to obtain, and then assist them in understanding what it means and potential applications. Kovach and Rosenstein explain that as a result, "the first task of the new journalist/sense maker is to verify what information is reliable and then to order it so that people can grasp it efficiently." To "give citizens the tools they need to extract knowledge for themselves from the undifferentiated flood of rumor, propaganda, gossip, fact, assertion, and allegation the communications system now produces" is one aspect of this new journalistic obligation. Like many other guides in API's Journalism Essentials section, this one is largely based on the findings and recommendations of the Committee of Concerned Journalists, a group of journalists that includes reporters, editors, producers, publishers, owners, and academics. For ten years, they helped thousands of journalists discuss what they did, how they did it, and why it was significant. Tom Rosenstein, a former executive director of API, and Walter Dean, the author, formerly served as co-chairs of the committee.

The media serves as a conduit between the people and the government. It serves as a leader, motivator, or informant for a robust democracy at all levels. Ethics are the internal moral principles, ideas, and beliefs that individuals employ to analyze or understand a situation and then choose how to act appropriately. It is their right to carry out their social obligations, but the media must adhere to ethical standards while gathering and presenting news to the public by assuring impartiality and fairness. What a moral media professional ought to do is what media ethics is all about. The media ethics are moral principles that media professionals must willingly uphold in order to maintain and foster public trust, their own credibility, and to avoid betraying the trust and confidence of the public. These principles include reliability, respect, responsibility, fairness, truth, and self-control. The nature of this research is descriptive.

Its objective is to enlighten the people, not to stress and disorient them. Journalism is the public in small, to put it another way. And both excellent and terrible experts might work in it. "Do not hurt" is the second "golden rule" of journalism, and it applies to journalists who cover conflict-related topics. The introduction of official journalism education, as in most other North European nations, was mostly a post-war phenomenon, notwithstanding some significant pre-war attempts for the teaching of journalism in the Nordic countries. The internal apprentice system was unable to produce enough journalists to meet demand as a result of the development of television and the rise of conventional media outlets like the newspaper and radio. Additionally, the idea that journalism should develop into a profession and need a formal education system was supported by the growing significance of journalism in society. Although the power connections between these players seem to have varied, leading to a variety of arrangements, press organizations and universities often collaborated on projects for formal journalism programs.

In contrast to the frequently more cautious development of other programs, journalism programs frequently began as independent institutions before being nationalized and incorporated into the college and university system. This reflects the high level of trust in governmental institutions in the Democratic Corporatist model. The geographical and institutional dispersion of institutions providing vocational training has also been influenced by regional and other interests, which has led to the Nordic nations' current mosaic of journalism programming. The Danish School of Journalism in Aarhus, which separated itself from the University of Aarhus in 1960 and started to be run by a board of journalism experts, was the exclusive source of journalism education in Denmark until the late 1990s. It effectively retained a monopoly on journalism education until the late 1990s, when two considerably smaller university-based education programs were founded in Roskilde and Odense, offering practical training for both beginning and seasoned journalists. A Nordic training for journalists, often lasting three months, has also been held in Aarhus for more than 50 years. Norway has institutionalized a more diversified approach to contemporary journalism education.

It began as a journalism school run by the press in 1965 and eventually became a part of Oslo University College. A number of coastal communities created competing programs. Gimlekollen, a Christian Lutheran institution, opened its journalism school in 1981, and it received approval to become a complete college in 1996. Programs at the former universities of Oslo and Bergen, the former in collaboration with its city's university college, one in Kautokeino for the native Sami people, and others at a major business school and an international college are examples of later establishments. However, both of these institutions later discontinued their respective programs. Sweden exhibits a pluralism like to this. In Stockholm, a journalism institute was founded in 1960. A comparable institution was founded in Gothenburg two years later, and both were included in the university system in 1977. Many new programs were developed throughout the 1980s and 1990s, including those at Souderton University, Mid-Sweden University in Sundsvall, and Linnaeus University in Kalmar. Short journalism programs have also been made available by universities in Ume, Uppsala, and Lund. A variety of autonomous vocational programs are also provided in various formats.

In Finland, the Civic College in Helsinki, a semi-academic institution that usually trains public workers, offered short courses for journalists in 1925. The institution was improved in 1960 to become the University of Tampere, and in 1966 it started to provide academic journalism programs as well as vocational programs. The Swedish School of Social Science began offering a journalism curriculum in 1962. In Finland nowadays, there are three

universities and a few polytechnics that offer journalism programs. Two universities the University of Tampere and the University of Jyvaskyla offer master's degrees in the Finnish language, and the Swedish School of Social Science at the University of Helsinki grants bachelor's degrees in Swedish with the option of pursuing a master's in communication. Iceland did not have comparable journalistic programming until considerably later. The Nordic Journalism Centre's classes in the Danish city of Aarhus were highly well-attended, and the Union of Journalists helped its members locate suitable training programs both within and outside of Iceland. In 1987, the University of Iceland began providing a one-year program in practical communication, which in 2004 was expanded to a two-year Master's program in journalism. The University of Akureyri has been providing a BA degree that combines journalism and conventional media studies since 2003. The journalism education programs offered in the Nordic nations vary from one another in a few significant ways. As a consequence of a proactive governmental strategy to promote the countries less populated areas, numerous regional institutions in Norway offer journalism programs. In contrast, Denmark, a smaller nation (in terms of land but not in terms of people), has just one journalism program for a long time. The linguistic barrier in Finland has led to the programming of journalism in both languages. The most significant academic journalism programs in Sweden were first formed outside of the traditional institutions, in part due to challenges in developing a new professional education inside a traditional academic setting. Kaarle Nordenstreng (2009) draws this conclusion after reviewing the state of journalism education in 33 European nations.

Although we concur with this categorization on a European level, we shall argue that, in contrast to most other European nations, the Nordic region offers a generally shared and somewhat varied model for journalism education. Unlike Germany, which typically only accepts students with good academic backgrounds into its journalism programs and provides in-house training. The Scandinavian nations have an integrated approach where the programs include both hands-on media production classes and more academic disciplines, often accepting young students with minimal formal education or job experience. The "graduatization" of journalism, as defined by Splichal and Sparks (1994), is also well underway in the Nordic nations, where obtaining a Bachelor's or Master's degree in journalism has come to be expected as a need for employment.

In Sweden, colleges are now the primary entry point for journalists under the age of 35, accounting for around 70% of all journalists in that age group. In contrast, only a small percentage of young journalists in Poland are graduates of academic journalism programs. 2015's Gromacki. Because of the numerous parallels between their educational and media systems and the relative absence of language barriers, Nordic journalism professors often go outside of their own region for models and ideas for their own curricula. The creation of the first journalism schools took place in close cross-border cooperation in the 1950s and 1960s, and in 1963 a Nordic network for journalism education was established, which is now home to Nordic journalism instructors.

According to Yin (2003), the Nordic system of journalism education falls somewhere in the middle of being exceptional and conventional. The Nordic nations are an area with a unique structure and heritage for media and journalism higher education, while being a part of Western Europe. The emphasis on this case's unique characteristics and internal variations demonstrates how journalists are made differently from other media systems' (especially the UK and US media systems') more thoroughly detailed situations. The organization of the national state, its media markets, the educational system, national and journalistic cultures, and other factors all play a role in how journalism is connected to a particular societal

situation when these comparisons are read in an anthropological light. Thus, the modest but rapidly expanding worldwide academic literature on the topic gains a wide-ranging collection of analyses of a (at least globally) rather little-known instance from this book. On the other hand, it's important not to overstate the argument for Nordic uniqueness.

CONCLUSION

The fundamental ideas that underpin moral journalism are encapsulated in the Nine Absolute Commandments in Journalism. They stress the significance of honesty, responsibility, independence, and serving the general welfare. These rules serve as a moral compass for journalists, guiding them as they make their way through the challenging world of news reporting in a responsible and ethical manner. Respecting these guidelines not only preserves journalism's integrity but also highlights how important it is for educating and enlightening society. These tenets are more important than ever at a time when falsehoods and misinformation abound, acting as a standard for ethical reporting in a media environment that is quickly changing. By creating a common marketplace for pedagogical ideas, normative ideals, and practical methods of teaching journalism, this network aided by the small size of the Nordic teaching community has strengthened the social ties of this group and contributed to the rapid spread and remarkable homogeneity of the journalism curricula in the Nordic countries.

REFERENCES:

[1]   M. Buchanan, "WikiLeaks: News in the Networked Era," *Information, Commun. Soc.*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/1369118x.2013.766229.

[2]   M. Conboy, "Journalism and the Democratic Market Society: Decline and fall?," *Journal. Stud.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/1461670X.2017.1336935.

[3]   J. W. Carey, "American journalism on, before, and after september 11," in *Journalism After September 11, Second Edition*, 2011. doi: 10.4324/9780203818961-11.

[4]   R. A. Eaman, *The A to Z of journalism*. 2009.

[5]   K. O. Harbor, "Media morality in a postmodern era: A model for ethics restoration in the mass media," *Media Watch*, 2014.

[6]   S. Pérez-Seijo, "Origen y evolución del periodismo inmersivo en el panorama internacional," in *De los medios y la comunicación de las organizaciones a las redes de valor*, 2014.

[7]   S. Mobasheri, "A Quantitative Analysis of the Human Resources Activity of the Iranian Cyber Army," *J. Glob. Commun.*, 2014, doi: 10.5958/0976-2442.2014.00010.x.

[8]   A. Wake, "Journalism training aid by Australians: A case study in Solomon Islands," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2016, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v22i2.68.

[9]   K. Davies, "HRECs and journalism research: The uneven playing field," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2014, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v20i1.189.

CHAPTER 7

A BRIEF DISCUSSION COMMODIFY OF NEWS IN JOURNALISM

Raj Kumar, Assistant Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- raj.kumar@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

In the current media environment, the monetization of news in journalism is a complicated and diverse phenomenon. With the main objective of generating profit, this process entails turning news articles and information into commercial goods. This abstract examines the fundamentals of news commodification, along with its ramifications and possible outcomes. The corporate ownership of media outlets, the expansion of digital platforms, and the growing dependence on advertising income are a few of the elements that contribute to the commercialization of news. In this profit-driven strategy, journalistic ethics and the public's right to knowledge often take a backseat. It is possible for sensationalism, prejudice, and the prioritizing of entertaining material above useful information to occur when news items are chosen and packaged to appeal to bigger audiences and increase ad income.

KEYWORDS:

Advertising Revenue, Commodification, Corporate Ownership, Digital Platforms, Editorial Independence.

INTRODUCTION

The process by which news, which is historically seen as a public utility and a way of educating the public about significant events and topics, is seen as a commodity to be purchased and sold for profit is referred to as the "commodification" of news in journalism. The integrity and quality of journalism will be significantly impacted by this change. The journalism industry's monetization of news is shown in the following aspects. Profit-Oriented Strategy: The main reasons for traditional journalism's existence were to enlighten the public and act as a check on corporate and governmental power. Profit, however, takes on a more important role as a result of the commercialization of news. Advertising and subscription income generating are given priority by media organizations, particularly those controlled by major businesses. Sensationalism News organizations may use sensationalism as a strategy to draw in more viewers, readers, and advertisers. This entails putting greater emphasis on news items that are more likely to get attention, often at the price of material that is more significant but less dramatic. Exaggerated headlines, strong language, and the preference for celebrity rumors or crime tales over objective reporting are all examples of sensationalism [1], [2].

Infotainment In order to make news more interesting and lucrative, entertainment is increasingly being included. Hard journalism and investigative reporting may become less prominent in favor of lighter, more entertaining fare as a result of this. Online journalism is especially vulnerable to being commercialized via click bait and virility. Aiming to increase clicks and shares, headlines and content often prioritize sensationalism and controversy above truth and in-depth reporting. The advertising's impact in a world where news is commoditized, marketers have a big say in what is published. Journalistic integrity may be jeopardized if media outlets avoid news that could anger sponsors or advertisers.

Narrowing of Viewpoints, as news organizations compete for readers, they may design their articles to appeal to certain demographics or ideological groupings, which reinforces preexisting opinions and fosters echo chambers. This may reduce the variety of viewpoints and voices in the media environment. Investigative journalism decline, in a commoditized news climate where rapid, readily consumable stories are valued, investigative journalism, which often needs time and money, may be sidelined. This may result in a dearth of in-depth reporting on important topics. Journalists' job insecurity as media companies reduce expenses in an effort to increase earnings, journalists may experience job instability. The job of seasoned journalists might be hampered by layoffs, freelancing agreements, and a preference for quantity over quality.

Ethical issues, since journalists may feel under pressure to lower their ethical standards in order to fulfill financial targets, the commercialization of news may generate ethical questions. This might undermine public confidence in media and fuel claims of bias and false information. Electronic transformation the monetization of news has escalated with the growth of social media and digital media. User-generated content and interaction metrics are often given top priority on these platforms, which encourages sensationalism and the desire for virility. Media companies and journalists must place a higher priority on ethical reporting, openness, and a dedication to the public interest than profit-driven motivations in order to counteract the commercialization of news in journalism. The general public's media literacy is also essential for separatingtrustworthy, high-quality news from sensationalized or biased information [3], [4].

Nearly as ancient as the business of generating money by selling news are accusations of commercialization. The majority have happened in the United States, where news has been created by commercial organizations for more than 150 years and where almost all news is created to make money. Commercialization is a recent issue in Eastern Europe, a region where the state once had control over the media. It may become a future issue in China. The commercialization was perceived as contributing to a broader evil class dominance or hegemony in Western Europe, where Karl Marx's ideas were adopted into media studies by Antonio Gramsci, the "Frankfurt School" academics, and subsequently the Cultural Studies movement. In more recent times, the neo-Marxist presumption that all media are instruments of class dominance has been challenged by post-modernism and active audience theories.2 Over the last two decades, as European governments have started to enable commercial broadcasting, commercialization has elevated to the top of intellectuals' concerns. Commercialization is the process of turning anything into a company.

However, the phrase has a corruptive connotation and is defined as "to emphasize the profitable aspects of, especially by scarifying c quality or debasing inherent nature". Concerning commercialization indicates that without this taint, profit-driven news organizations may operate in the public's best interests. Therefore, a definition of commercialization includes the contentious premise that, under certain circumstances, business-based media may in fact benefit the public. On the basis of that assumption, I would define the commercialization of news as any action taken to increase profit that interferes with an attempt by a journalist or news organization to increase public knowledge of the problems and events that affect the community they purport to serve [5], [6].

The Mercury News' goals for its most popular page during the month of March 2005 seem to be considerably more focused on earning profit than on fostering public understanding. No matter how weird or funny, the war in Iraq was a problem and a set of events that had a much bigger effect on the South San Francisco Bay area than one woman's botched Condit is important to have some grasp of market economics and business logic in order to use this

notion practically. In fact, I contend that economics must be considered in order to understand how journalism has changed in the latter quarter of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st, especially in light of how it interacts with government policy, technical advancements like the Internet, and economic trends. Economics is crucial for both diagnosing and resolving the problems with modern journalism.

The conflict between the public service objectives most news media declared to be their mission and the demand of their owners for the greatest return on their investment has existed since the early days of the Penny Press in the middle of the 19th century, according to Marion Marol's (1991) lively history of American press criticism. At that point, corporations took over political parties and small printers' sponsorship of the news. Over the course of the 20th century, commercialism decreased as ethical rules were implemented, journalists' educational attainment increased, and their desires for careers in journalism increased. Commercial meddling, however, seems to be on the rise, at least in American news media, during the last 20 years, and especially over the last few years as competition for readers and advertising on the Internet has increased.

Since the middle of the 1980s, American news firms have started treating it more like a commodity, a simple good for sale, rather than as a public trust. The fragmentation of large audiences caused by consumers using the new news and entertainment options made available first by cable and satellite television, then by the Internet, has made this economic rationalization of journalism worse. Contrarily, these new technologies undermine the financial viability of the news providers democracy requires, particularly in the United States, while simultaneously opening up a cornucopia of content ranging from comedy to Congressional hearings and democratizing expression by giving almost everyman (and woman) a chance to express themselves to almost everyone.

As a result, we are now seeing the most intense era of change and upheaval in journalism since the introduction of the Penny Press more than 150 years ago. An economic analysis of news predicts a temporary decline in journalism's costly but essential watchdog function, less diverse professional-caliber coverage as fewer owners exercise greater economies of scale over more newsrooms, and an erosion of ethical standards as public relations copy and advertising are "repurposed" as news as we enter the 21st century with fewer paid journalists Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2007. But if we comprehend how market factors impact news, we may suggest solutions to guarantee a consistent supply of the journalism that participatory governance demands.

DISCUSSION

Social critics were the first to voice their outrage about the commercial slant in the news. Many people worked as journalists. In 1910, Edward Ross, Will Irwin, and Upton Sinclair all criticized the Yellow Press for being phony, sensational, and biased, established and funded by Time Magazine publisher Henry Luce after World War II, may have provided the most succinct description of an inherent conflict of interest between the economic and public service aspects of news media: "The press is caught between its desire to please and extend its audience and its desire to give a picture of events and people. Despite the Hutchins Commission's warnings about newspaper ownership concentration, the news media would grow significantly in the second half of the 20th century, incorporating broadcasting, book publishing, and non-media enterprises in sizable global conglomerates like Disney, News Corporation, and Time Warner. They would also start to look for funding for growth from Wall Street investors around this time. Ben Bagdikian, a former ombudsman for the Washington Post, documented the growth and danger of these conglomerates in his book.

The Media Monopoly, which has seen seven editions since its first release in 1983. The number of international corporations in charge of the majority of informational media decreases practically every time. Bagdikian contends that ownership is crucial since many firms claim to provide tremendous flexibility to the journalists, producers, and authors they employ. Some do provide a lot of flexibility. The parent firms, however, seldom ever abstain from exploiting their control over the public's perception when their most delicate economic interests are at issue. Doug Underwood, a different ex-journalist, issued a warning about the economic rationalization of newspapers in the 1980s. He called them "green eyeshade" modifications in newsroom management and news coverage. In the 1993 book When MBAs Rule the Newsroom, managers with business degrees replaced journalists. Underwood conducted interviews with hundreds of journalists and found multiple instances of journalists catering to readers rather than providing them with information, of new advertiser-friendly regulations, and of a growing dependence on public relations to find and report the news.

Although each of these social critics looked at economic influences on news, none of them created theories of commercial bias or employed economics as a weapon. We must look on campus for them. As communication programs grew on college campuses in the second half of the 20th century, its staff started to analyze news using methods from the social sciences, particularly economics. However, the majority of their economic study was intended to help and educate managers for the sector, not to assess media performance Underwood, 1993. In fact, until recently, most people did not consider economics to be a viable instrument for examining journalistic accountability. James N. Rosse, a former media economist at Stanford, expressed it succinctly in 1975: "Although I have studied the economics of mass media seriously for more than ten years, I have studiously avoided the topic of media responsibility until now.

The problem generates issues that are difficult to analyze economically. Media Economics, a useful tutorial written by Robert Picard in 1989, applies fundamental economic ideas to media, notably newspapers. Additionally, it gave more attention to management issues than to how markets and monopolies impact journalistic quality. As more newspaper firms collected money on the stock market and attempted to appease investors' expectations for increased profits, Picard has turned to the commercialization of news in more recent times. Newspapers nowadays mostly consist of commercialized news and features made to amuse, appeal to a wide audience, be cost-effective, and keep readers whose attention may be bought by advertisers. As a consequence, news that might offend readers are downplayed or avoided in favor of those that are more palatable and entertaining to bigger audiences, stories that would be expensive to cover, and tales that pose financial risk [7], [8].

Stephen Lacy is perhaps the most influential media economist, at least in the US. His study is highly statistical and focused on newspapers. Over the last 15 years, Lacy has evaluated newspaper quality, its impact on readership and ad sales, and whether increasing newsroom spending improves financial performance. His most recent study, conducted in 2005 alongside René Chen and Esther Thorson, is particularly pertinent. They looked at information from hundreds of small and mid-sized publications between 1998 and 2002.The study team discovered that newspapers with higher newsroom investments outperformed other publications in terms of pre-tax profits as well as revenues per copy from circulation and advertising. The failure to invest in the newsroom "could be a form of slow-motion suicide, where a company's disinvestment gradually alienates core readers and reduces the attractiveness of newspapers as advertising outlets," Lacy and his colleagues argue. This argument is supported by an earlier study (Lacy & Martin, 1998) of the failed Thomson newspaper chain, whose CEO boasted about cutting newsroom costs.

The development of public [stock] ownership of news media. The reduction of newspaper competition. The expansion of other information and advertising sources, such as cable television and the Internet. Local markets were impacted by Trend 1. Both local and national markets have been impacted by trends two and three. Beginning in the late 1980s and early 1990s, trend three placed pressure on local businesses to maintain high, stable profits. Direct, umbrella, and intercity competition helped in certain areas to resist that pressure, but as competition vanished in the majority of major towns. A fresh perspective on news commercialism was developing in the 1970s. It became known as the political economics of the media because it concentrated on the nexus between politics and media. This kind of analysis was invented by Canadian economist from Gramsci in 1971, through "Frankfurt School" theorists Theodor Adorno and Max Horkheimer in 1972, to Stuart Hall and Raymond Williams' cultural studies perspective, European academics were perplexed as to why the underprivileged and working classes would support politicians whose policies kept them in poverty. The media was cited by political economists as the main culprit.

The role played by the media in cementing the consensus in capitalist society is only occasionally characterized by overt suppression or deliberate distortion," Murdock and Golding stated in a seminal study from 1974. Instead, the routines of news reporting result in systematic distortions that characterize anything posing a challenge to the status quo as untrue or fleeting. They said that journalistic impartiality limited the range of most discussions to only two options, neither of which endangered preexisting class relations. The authors said that "most generally," "news must be entertainment; it is, like all media output, a commodity, and to have survived in the market-place must be vociferously inoffensive in the desperate search for large audiences attractive to advertisers.

The transformational thinking of the German social philosopher Jurgen Habermas was reinterpreted in the UK by Garnham 1990. Habermas stated in 1989 that bourgeois society in Western Europe had established a "public sphere" in the 18th century via newspapers and other publications, coffee shops, and social gatherings. This public sphere influenced government policy and resulted in parliamentary rule. This public arena was distinguished by reason, a diversity of opinions, and a commitment to the common good. However, in Habermas' opinion, the public sphere was undercut by contemporary corporate and state-controlled media. By using Habermas' vision of the public sphere as a blueprint for democratic media that could be attained by state-sponsored outlets like the BBC and even by corporate newspapers and broadcasters under the appropriate circumstances, Garnham contributed to the popularization of Habermas Curran, 2004.

At the University of Pennsylvania, C. Edwin Baker teaches law, yet his way of thinking is that of a media economist. The fundamental tenet of market-based news media that they provide the public what they want is attacked by Baker, like all of the writers mentioned above. But in his book Media, Markets and Democracy from 2002, Baker offers four original arguments, expanding on Bogart's claim that media create preferences for audiences rather than fulfilling them, Baker contends that individuals utilize media equally for discovering and forming new preferences for material as they do for expressing preexisting ones. They must first be exposed to a variety of offerings content they may not yet be aware they value for that to happen. People do not get what they want to the degree that the market limits options to the material that is most profitable for media owners and advertising [9], [10].

Baker's most notable contribution has less to do with the detrimental effects of market-driven journalism and more to do with how society fails to sufficiently reward the media for beneficial externalities. Few or no news is consumed by apathetic individuals. Thus, they hardly make a dent in media firms' bottom lines. However, they benefit greatly from good

journalism. If the nation makes intelligent or foolish choices about welfare, war, the supply of medical care, the environment, and a wide range of other problems, people will be greatly benefited or hurt. The level and nature of other people's political activity determines whether these effects are negative or positive. This involvement is significantly influenced by the media, for both consumers and non-consumers, one of the biggest benefits of professional journalism is the reduction of corruption among public officials who are wary of being exposed in the media. "Deterrence, however, means that the media has no 'exposé' no product to sell to its audience and therefore no opportunity to internalize the benefits it produces.

According to economic theory, a product will be under produced if a producer is unable to realize part of its value. Economic theory gives an explanation for why corruption deterrence is so uncommon: corruption deterrence is completely uncompensated, and what produces deterrence investigative reporting is highly costly and poorly paid since rivals may supply the discoveries practically instantly. Following Oscar Gandy's 1982 work envisioning public relations as a "information subsidy," comes a second understanding of the economics of journalism. According to Baker, media is biased away from those who cannot afford to finance news gathering and toward the issues and points of view of those organizations and persons who can afford public relations counsel.

One ubiquitous and generally undetected subsidy that shapes content is provided by public relations, while another is provided by advertising. When a media outlet cannot directly charge for the product, such as in broadcast news, they generate more material that is sponsored by advertisements and less content that is unsponsored. He claims that "this skewed subsidy is strikingly unfair," particularly when media content considers a person's citizenship rather than just their status as a customer. The commercialization of news, by using economic theory in a novel way, Baker challenges the neoliberal view that free markets are the best way to distribute news. Additionally, it offers a justification for requesting government funding for investigative reporting and coverage of politically significant issues, particularly those affecting citizens whose interests are not supported by advertisers or public relations professionals.

Recent research has shown us that depending on uncontrolled markets will not provide the kind or volume of news that participatory governance needs to flourish. Here, I recommend two key areas of study research of non-market, or at the very least, non-profit financial models for news producers and assessments that result in solutions for the infirmities of news product marketplaces. An exciting opportunity for the establishment of new low-cost news media has arisen as a result of the collapse of the business model of mainstream media, the rapid uptake of broadband Internet connections in developed countries, and the development of affordable digital broadcast equipment. This is because, it eliminates the need for multi-million-dollar presses, increasingly expensive paper, and a fleet of delivery trucks, which together account for about two thirds of the revenues of the average newspaper.

In order to fill the growing holes in commercial news output, the time may be right for nonprofit organizations like foundations and maybe colleges to explore forming partnerships with public broadcasters. However, how should these collaborations be best supported and set up? In We the Media 2006, Dan Gillmor presents a vision of "citizen journalists" delivering news stories that are considerably more diversified and suited to their communities than those offered by traditional media. The possibility prompts a number of research queries: Will the audience for amateur reporting be large enough to pay the producer? When journalists may have covert conflicts of interest, how can customers tell whether information is trustworthy? Should there be professional or state licensing? How might a network of people with little free time coordinate labor-intensive depth or investigative reporting which forms of citizen-

paid journalist collaboration provide the best outcomes? The second broad research objective would focus on reducing inequalities among the several marketplaces that shape news.

My own initiative, gradethenews.org, has worked to improve consumers' capacity to distinguish between "junk journalism" and more wholesome cuisine. We have attempted to make the former more professional and the latter less by educating customers. We have acknowledged a few victories. But when options decrease, consumer education becomes less effective. Newspapers in the US are increasingly grouped geographically under one owner/operator. Research showing discrepancies between the news provider's performance and the public service standards it promotes may enhance customer expectations for quality by putting owners in the hot seat, even if consumers could not penalize the cluster owner by picking an alternative paper. Content analyses that demonstrate, the omission of significant issues and the perspectives of certain communities, such as ethnic minorities and labor groups; the preference for articles that foster interest in advertised products over stories of civic violations of the standards of ethical journalism, such as passing off advertisements as news, making factual errors, protecting sacred cows, etc., could be considered as such evidence.

If people were more aware of the importance of news and the criteria for evaluating it, the market for news consumers would function more effectively. There is now a thorough book about news 16 available. Nationwide news commercialization 231 literacy has not yet been released. We still lack web-based algorithms that help users assess the value of the news. We may have a foundation for rewarding or funding media that contributes to society if we had "Nielsen ratings" for news quality rather than merely audience size. There hasn't been much investigation on how to change the investor market to favor higher-quality media. Interesting concepts have been put up, such as Mathewson's (2005) arguments for changing the tax code to allow newspapers to become non-profit organizations in order to decrease both excessive tax demand and federal tax obligations. The Newspaper Guild has promoted employee-ownership models. But a lot of study is required to discover the ideal format for such broad recommendations. If reporting expenses were kept as low as possible, the market for sources may function more in the public's best interest. How should government improve corporate reporting standards in light of the growing influence that businesses have so that media have more opportunity to hold the private sector accountable? Could federal rules protecting journalists' identities, as suggested by Baker, be passed to boost the number of whistleblowers? Could such efforts be taxed to produce press subsidies for societal interests that cannot afford PR if public relations sub-sidizes reporting on subjects of importance to those who can afford such representation? If strategies were created to lessen its influence on content, the advertising market may function more in the public's best interests. For instance, Bagdikian has proposed a tax on all media advertising, which might be used to fund public affairs reporting. Machesney has argued in favor of a powerful journalists' union that might fend off unethical practices like reporting advertisements as news. According to universal consensus, democracy only helps create effective governance to the degree that voters have access to trustworthy information and make informed decisions at elections and other occasions. Of course, in actuality, a lot of democratic decisions are based on prejudice and ignorance. Voting is a democratic right, and people use it for a variety of reasons, not usually based on reason or thorough consideration. However, from a normative standpoint, the democratic ideal is one of making informed decisions, and political journalism's outputs play a significant role in this. The material that allows voters to compare rival candidates and parties is provided by journalists. Even if they will have their own political opinions, journalists need to be impartial, objective recorders of political realities. Political journalism can be partisan, but when it does, it shouldn't pretend to be objective reporting or exclude the

kind of objective, balanced reporting that is associated with outlets like the BBC, the Financial Times, or US TV networks from the public eye. According to recent research, "high-quality, independent news journalism is vital to the development of an informed populace that is able to engage actively in society and politics by providing accurate and intelligent information and analysis about current events.

CONCLUSION

The core ideals of journalism, such as impartiality, truth, and the public interest, are seriously threatened by the monetization of news. Media companies and journalists must reconcile their ethical obligations with their financial viability, even if profit-driven journalism is a fact of the modern media environment. In order to mitigate the negative consequences of news commercialization, news consumers must develop media literacy and critical thinking abilities. These abilities enable people to distinguish between excellent journalism and sensationalism and false information.By exposing readers to material that supports their preexisting opinions, the commercialization of news may lead to the development of news bubbles and echo chambers, which can exacerbate polarization and obstruct constructive public conversation. Additionally, corporate owners or sponsors may exert pressure on journalists to follow their editorial objectives, which might compromise their editorial independence.

REFERENCES:

[1]   N. Richardson, "Fake News and Journalism Education," *Asia Pacific Media Educator*. 2017. doi: 10.1177/1326365X17702268.

[2]   H. Bhaskaran, H. Mishra, and P. Nair, "Contextualizing Fake News in Post-truth Era: Journalism Education in India," *Asia Pacific Media Educator*. 2017. doi: 10.1177/1326365X17702277.

[3]   E. C. Tandoc and S. K. Oh, "Small Departures, Big Continuities?: Norms, values, and routines in The Guardian's big data journalism," *Journal. Stud.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/1461670X.2015.1104260.

[4]   K. N. Dörr and K. Hollnbuchner, "Ethical Challenges of Algorithmic Journalism," *Digit. Journal.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/21670811.2016.1167612.

[5]   W. Weber and H. M. Rall, "Authenticity in comics journalism. Visual strategies for reporting facts," *J. Graph. Nov. Comics*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/21504857.2017.1299020.

[6]   W. K. Keong, "Whither objective journalism in digital age: Malaysia's mainstream versus alternative media," *Media Watch*, 2017, doi: 10.15655/mw/2017/v8i1/41275.

[7]   D. Harte, A. Williams, and J. Turner, "Reciprocity and The Hyperlocal Journalist," *Journal. Pract.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/17512786.2016.1219963.

[8]   R. K. Nielsen and L. Graves, "News you don't believe: Audience perspectives on fake news," *Reuters Inst. Study Journal.*, 2017.

[9]   M. D. Breen, P. Easteal, K. Holland, G. Sutherland, and C. Vaughan, "Exploring Australian journalism discursive practices in reporting rape: The pitiful predator and the silent victim," *Discourse Commun.*, 2017, doi: 10.1177/1750481317697858.

[10]   M. Smith, "Pacific journalism education and training— the new advocacy era," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2017, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v23i2.333.

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS OF AGENDA SETTING IN JOURNALISM

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

ABSTRACT:

Setting the agenda is an important part of journalism because it affects the subjects that attract public attention and shapes societal debate. This examination looks at the idea of agenda setting in journalism, concentrating on its workings, results, and current problems. This research emphasizes the critical role of media in not only reflecting but also shaping public agendas via the examination of agenda-setting theories, such as the agenda-setting theory and the two-step flow theory.Agenda setting is the practice of having some problems presented often and prominently in the media such that significant portions of the public start to see those concerns as being more important than others. Simply said, a topic is more significant to people if it gets more attention. Since this initial, straightforward explanation of the phenomenon, agenda setting has developed into a more comprehensive theory that includes a "second-level" that describes the transfer of attribute salience for those issues as well as many other "objects," such as political figures. Furthermore, inter media agenda shaping shows how elite media convey to other media their agenda on crucial problems.

KEYWORDS:

Agenda Setting, Journalism, Media Influence, Public Discourse, Media Landscape.

INTRODUCTION

The study of agenda-setting effects has sparked discussions about priming, framing, obtrusiveness, the "need for orientation," which identifies the circumstances in which these effects are enhanced or diminished, and, most recently, the implications of these effects for attitudes, opinions, and observable behavior. A meaningful theory should be relevant for at least 30 years, yet agenda setting has shown to be a theory that is both broad and deep [1][2]. It has been referred to as the mass communication theories' "most worth pursuing" One of the few ideas developed by academics of mass communication has since been adopted by several other fields, including business, political communication, health communication, and more. The writer Walter Lippmann, whose book Public Opinion made the case that the news media shape our perception of the world, is credited with providing the theoretical underpinnings of this mass communication theory. Although this occurred in 1922, it wasn't until 1950 that Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw gave the phenomenon Lippmann described its now-familiar name. Since that time, agenda setting has developedinto one of the main study issues in our discipline.

Lippmann (1922) provided the first insight into how media messages affect the "pictures in our heads," but modern researchers have substantially built on that notion. Ironically, Lippmann was pessimistic about journalism's capacity to disseminate the knowledge required by people to properly govern themselves. Research on the consequences of mass communication similarly portrayed a bleak picture twenty years later [3]. Numerous studies revealed that the impact of the media on individuals was little to nonexistent. This was the age of the "limited media effects" paradigm, which marked a significant departure from past views on the influence of the press and the notion that propaganda could be used as a "magic

bullet" to alter people's attitudes, beliefs, and even conduct. The latter development of evidence supporting the media's agenda-setting function was a crucial link in a line of inquiry that would usher in a paradigm change in how we see the influence of mass media. Three US presidential elections in a row were used as the "natural laboratory" for the first research of agenda shaping because they included an ongoing stream of political communications that ended on Election Day.

The initial research, performed among indecisive voters during the 1968 presidential election, demonstrated a virtually perfect link between the media's agenda of topics and the public's agenda of issues [4][5]. One of the 15 scientific milestones in mass communication has been this study. After establishing strong connections between media and public agendas, the next stage was to demonstrate a cause and effect relationship and the timeline. Was the public setting the agenda, or were the media setting the agenda? A panel research that was undertaken in Charlotte, North Carolina, during the 1972 presidential election was the second significant experiment. A thorough examination of the full 1976 election year in three cities was the subject of the third research in the opening trio. In conjunction with content studies of the media messages, nine rounds of panel interviews examined how individuals learnt about topics. The Chapel Hill study's noteworthy results included the high level of connection between various media sources.

A comparable amount of coverage of the same concerns appeared in newspapers, television, and magazines, which sparked studies on inter-media agenda setting and illustrated the significance of elite news organizations, notably the New York Times, in determining the media's agenda. Research on inter-media agenda formation is encouraged by the abundance of media channels on cable and the Internet. The Charlotte study from 1972 was also a forerunner of studies on how different media affect public opinion. Compared to newspapers, TV news had a more immediate impact on Charlotte voters. But this result is seldom constant. Evidence accumulated through time indicates that, about half of the time, there is no difference in the influence of TV and newspapers; the other half of the time, newspapers typically have a stronger impact. The restricted number of topics the public deemed relevant at any one moment was another crucial discovery produced by the early research.

Only a handful of the many concerns vying for the public's attention gain prominence because of the public's attention span, time constraints, and inability to concentrate on more than five to seven topics at once. However, the news media's agenda-setting function is crucial in drawing attention to the issues that the public sector and the government may seek to address. Without consensus on what matters, communities would find it difficult to advance the common good. Beyond elections, Eaton (1989) looked at 11 concerns across 41 months in the late 1980s, including unemployment, nuclear catastrophe, poverty, and crime, and found a similar agenda-setting impact. Not only for national concerns, but also for local ones, agenda shaping has been studied. Is agenda-setting a phenomenon that only exists in America? In no way. The shaping of agendas at the national and local levels, in elections and non-elections, via media and television has been shown to occur all over the globe. However, for agenda-setting effects to arise, political and media systems must be somewhat open. Media agenda setting does not take place in nations where one political party is dominant and the media is under government control.

This occurred with the broadcast media in Taiwan in 1994; all three TV stations were under government control. With all other variables held constant, this comparison of media systems provides a strong affirmation of the general public's capacity to distinguish between news that is true and that that is false. Effects and Qualities of Agenda-Setting on a Second Level Agenda The "first level" of agenda setting currently refers to the fundamental notion of

agenda setting, which postulates that the topics that get the most attention in the media also receive the most attention from the general population. The "second level" of agenda setting examines how the media debate problems or other topics that are topics of interest, such as public people, as opposed to the first level of agenda setting, which focuses on how much media attention a subject or issue gets. Here, the emphasis is on the qualities or traits that characterize situations, persons, or other newsworthy subjects, as well as the tone of those qualities or traits. The basic outcome is the same: the characteristics and voice that are highlighted in the media's descriptions are those that are most prominent in the public's thinking.

The effect of the media on the topics that command the public's attention is addressed at the first level of agenda creation. The second level is concerned with how individuals comprehend the subjects of their attention. Using Lippmann's expression "the pictures in our heads," first level agenda planning is concerned with what the pictures are about. The photographs are actually the focus of the second level. The substantive and emotive components of these images make up the two dimensions of the second level. People can distinguish between the numerous facets of issues thanks to the substantive dimension of characteristics. For instance, the candidates' ideologies, credentials, and personalities are examples of substantive traits when it comes to journalistic coverage of political candidates.

DISCUSSION

As an example, corruption had a significant role in the 1996 Spanish election. Even non-election topics might exhibit variations in characteristics over time. When it comes to economic difficulties, for instance, inflation may be significant at times, while other times unemployment or budget deficits may be more crucial. Each of these substantive traits may develop an affective quality, a positive, negative, or neutral affective tone. Not simply how often those substantive aspects are discussed in connection with a candidate, it's vital to know if a particular candidate is characterized favorably, negatively, or neutrally on substantive traits like morality and leadership ability. These agenda-setting effects of second-level attributes have received a lot of support. Second-level agenda-setting effects with respect to the characteristics of the candidates in the 1996 Spanish national election were discovered by McCombs, Lopez-Escobar, & Llamas support for second-level impacts has also been discovered for a number of public concerns, including the environment and economic difficulties.

The distinctions between attribute agenda setting and framing are hotly contested in academic circles. Some claim they are unique, while others deny it. "The way events and issues are organized and made sense of, especially by media, media professionals, and their audiences," is the definition given for framing [6]. In order to support a certain issue description, causal interpretation, moral assessment, and or therapy proposal, one must choose a few components of a seen reality and make them more prominent. Both framing and creating an attribute agenda draw attention to communicators' and their audiences' points of view, how they interpret current events, and, in particular, the elevated position that some characteristics or frames may have in a message's content. A frame may be advantageously distinguished as a highly particular instance of attributes if it is defined as a dominating viewpoint on the object and a widespread description and characterization of the object.

Takeshita discovered a strong correlation between media coverage and public perceptions of Japan's economic difficulties at both levels of analysis using a different method based on a hierarchical conceptualization in which frames are macro categories that act as bundling devices for lower-order attributes. Other methods to framing, which have minimal

resemblance to agenda-setting theory, focus on the history and application of broad cultural and societal viewpoints that may be found in news reports and among the general public. Only little success has been achieved in theoretical attempts to draw a line between agenda setting and framing based on the two knowledge activation features of accessibility theoretically connected to agenda setting and application. Focusing specifically on the accessibility of issue attributes, it was discovered that while accessibility did rise with increased newspaper consumption, the attribute agenda that resulted among the public did not mirror the agenda that was presented in the news and did not replicate the effects of agenda-setting that had been observed across four decades by earlier studies. What manifested was a novel interpretation of media impacts, in which the relative degree of elevated salience for the characteristics among newspaper readers, as compared to those who were ignorant of the problem, substantially followed the media agenda.

Other studies have examined the "so what" question the effects of agenda setting on the general public's ideas, attitudes, and behavior. Scholars have connected agenda setting research with "priming" studies that look at how media agendas affect public perceptions and concerns as part of this endeavor [7]. Weaver, McCombs, and Spellman, who hypothesized in their panel study of the effects of Watergate news coverage that the media do more than just teach which issues are most important they also may provide "the issues and topics to use in evaluating certain candidates and parties, not just during political campaigns, but also in the longer periods between campaigns," can be credited with beginning this focus on the implications of agenda setting for public opinion.

Their hypothesis was confirmed a decade later when demonstrated what some cognitive psychologists have referred to as "priming" making specific issues or attributes more salient and more likely to be accessed in forming opinions. They did this through controlled experiments that linked television agenda-setting effects to evaluations of the US president. Weaver (1991) also discovered that, even after controlling for various demographic and media use measures, growing concern over the federal budget deficit was associated with greater knowledge of the issue's potential causes and solutions, stronger and more polarized opinions about it, and a greater likelihood of taking action on the issue.

Theoretical explanations for these correlations, particularly those between agenda setting and behavior, have not been well developed, according to Willnat, but the combination of agenda setting and priming has strengthened the theoretical underpinnings of these effects by giving us "a better understanding of how the mass media not only tell us 'what to think about,' but also 'what to think,'" as Cohen (1963) put it [8]. All academics agree that agenda framing has the side effect of priming. Some have claimed that agenda setting and priming share the same fundamental information storage and retrieval mechanisms, where more current and important information is easier to obtain. Regardless of these arguments, it is plausible that a growth in the importance of certain concerns and specific aspects of these issues does have an impact on public opinion possibly in an indirect way.

Public behavior might be impacted by media attention given to certain situations. According to the university's dean of admissions, extensive news coverage of crime and violence, including a murder and rapes on the University of Pennsylvania campus, played a significant role in the significant decline in applications from prospective first-year students, mostly women. While other similar colleges had an increase in applications over the same time period, this drop happened and Phillips 1997 found that an increase in unfavorable economic headlines had a negative impact on subsequent leading economic indicators such as average weekly manufacturing hours, average weekly initial claims for unemployment, new orders of consumer goods and materials, vendor performance, contracts and orders for plant and

equipment, building permits, etc. after analyzing a time series of New York Times headlines from June 1980 to December 1993. The findings of Blood and Phillips "suggest that the amount and tone of economic news exerted a powerful influence on the economic environment.

The investigation of elements that diminish or increase the impacts of agenda setting was the focus of a second phase of study after the fundamental link between the media agenda and the public agenda had been established. The two main categories in the search for these auxiliary factors that change the agenda-setting effects are audience characteristics and media characteristics, such as the distinctions between TV and newspapers mentioned earlier. Here, we underline the unique characteristics of our audience. The 1972 Charlotte presidential election research created the psychological notion of "need for orientation," which analyzes individual variations among individuals in their need to grasp a novel place or circumstance by consulting the media. Relevance and uncertainty are two lower-order ideas that are used to define the need for orientation. Relevance is the quality of having importance on a personal or societal level.

When individuals do not believe they are fully informed about a subject, uncertainty occurs. Significant levels of uncertainty and significance result in a significant demand for direction and often highly potent media agenda-setting impacts. More individuals pay attention to news articles when they believe something is significant yet are under informed about it. In contrast, there is less need for orientation and less demand for further knowledge when an issue is unimportant, and as a result, agenda-setting effects of the media are often modest. By explicitly measuring both orientation toward subjects, the first level of agenda formation, and orientation toward characteristics, the second level of agenda making, Matthes (2006) has recently enlarged the idea of need for orientation.

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

Two further significant sources are first-hand knowledge and interactions with others. People lack first-hand experience with the majority of the topics that have been explored thus far. You must rely on the media for knowledge on the conflict in Iraq if you haven't served as a soldier there. Not all problems, however, are thus out of reach [9]. Anyone who has ever lost a job may understand unemployment without the help of the media. People are considered to have "obtrusive" experiences with issues when they are directly relevant to them and do not typically need more information from the media. The subjects that are least likely to compel people's attention and with which they have little to no personal experience are those that, if they are prominent on the media's agenda, are most likely to do so.

The unemployment problem, for instance, might be intrusive to some individuals but not to others. Media coverage has less influence on agenda-setting for intrusive concerns that people see on a daily basis, but it has a considerably greater impact on how significant such

issues are to people when they don't directly experience them personally. Some problems are mostly bothersome or unbothered by everyone. For instance, whereas local road maintenance, the expense of living, and taxes are mostly obtrusive for most individuals, foreign affairs, the environment, energy, government expenditures, and pollution are generally inconspicuous. The strength of agenda setting for other concerns, such as unemployment, relies on whether a person has ever been jobless or knows someone who has. The significance of evaluating obtrusiveness as a continuum rather than as a binary variable is shown by these middle-range problems.

There is a lot of evidence showing agenda-setting impacts in many different situations, despite the fact that elections and political campaigns are popular settings for agenda-setting research. These topics include healthcare. According to several research, entertainment media may also establish the agenda. The majority of agenda-setting studies focus on the media's verbally defined content. Nevertheless, a few have added visuals, such pictures or television footage, and discovered proof of agenda-setting visual impacts [10]. The size of an image was found to affect readers' perceptions of relevance in Wanta's (1988) first-level study. Coleman and Banning (2006) looked at the second-level impacts of candidate pictures on television and discovered significant connections between the way George W. Bush and Al Gore were framed on television and how the public felt about them in the 2000 election. In the 2004 election, this analysis was expanded upon and reproduced. Furthermore, the inclusion or exclusion of images may have far-reaching effects, there were equivalent levels of famine, malnutrition, and drought in Brazil and Ethiopia, but only Ethiopia had access to captivating images and video, which led to widespread media attention and international relief operations.

There is mounting evidence that viewers blend or mix the agendas of different media, so being influenced by a variety of agendas. Although researchers have lately made the shift to include audiences and the media choices they make inside the broad agenda setting hypothesis, agenda setting still creates a relationship between medium and audience. The decisions that audiences make are influenced by their own preexisting beliefs and attitudes as well as, as we've seen, by their desire for direction. The general news media are used by audiences, as well as a range of specialized media that fit their individual lives and worldviews, including talk radio or television programs. According to agenda-setting studies, journalists and editors have a significant amount of influence on the key issues that matter to viewers as well as many subtopics. However, we are also aware that a lot of individuals utilize websites or other news sources to round out their first impressions and find perspectives on current events that align with their own expectations. From the audience's perspective, this endeavor is known as agenda merging.

How does merging of agendas operate? The Charlotte Observer and the New York Times used different descriptive words to characterize Dale Earnhardt, Sr.'s 21-year career as a NASCAR racer before he was killed in an accident in 2001. Recently, Ericson and colleagues sorted these words. Only a few adjectives remained the same throughout his career, with various descriptive words being employed at the beginning, middle, and conclusion of his career. Early descriptions included terms. This implies the significance of audience participation to convey the information effectively. The message itself and any personal thoughts one may have about particular linguistic components are combined by the listener. The media create the agenda, but the public also adopts it based on pre-existing beliefs and characteristics. Agenda-melding implies that audiences have a significant role in mixing, modifying, and absorbing information.

Further proof of a connection between agenda setting and conduct in the 1990 Texas governor's race was discovered by Coleman. The amount of problem concern over time, after adjusting for demographics, media exposure, and dependence, was a significant predictor of real votes in this race, accurately forecasting 70% of respondents' actual reported votes for governor. Blood and Phillips (1997) conducted a time series analysis of New York Times headlines from June 1980 to December 1993 and discovered that an increase in unfavorable economic headlines had a negative impact on subsequent leading economic indicators average weekly hours for manufacturing, average weekly initial claims for unemployment, new orders of consumer goods and materials, etc. This finding is one of the most dramatic revelations of the behavioral influence of news media emphasis. The findings of Blood and Phillips "suggest that the amount and tone of economic news exerted a powerful influence on the economic environment and further, that the economic news agenda was generally not being set by prevailing economic conditions.

The fact that single correlational research cannot conclusively demonstrate causation is one of the many objections leveled at the content analysis plus survey approach to investigating agenda formation. There are still doubts over which happened first: public opinion that influenced what the media reported or media coverage that influenced public opinion, notwithstanding the early research' effort to quantify media content prior to public opinion polls. As a result, agenda setting has sought to two additional techniques to support its fundamental research by defining a cause-and-effect hierarchy. Experiments and longitudinal investigations both meet the prerequisite for proving time-order. The main components of longitudinal research include content analysis and many waves of public opinion polling. For instance, nine rounds of questioning were conducted for the 1976 election panel research. Although this kind of proof is based on "real world" data derived from the views of the general public about current events, it is nevertheless subject to a number of unavoidable limitations. Researchers used controlled studies to prove definitively that media coverage may influence the public's agenda.

News ideals were secondary to national affiliations in a study of the role of national identity in the coverage of international news in Britain. Journalists were less likely to adhere to professional news principles the closer a story was to a national story of interest. While primarily professional-driven, observed that Arab satellite stations' coverage of the 2003 fall of Baghdad "was also tainted to varying degrees with cultural, political, and historical considerations. "While there is a presumption that adhering to news values is implicitly more "professional," removing bias of any kind, including political bias, this can be problematic because news values may lead to uniformity, negativity, and reduction to stereotypes, emphasizing what would be considered Western professional news ideals did not adequately prepare graduates for the harsh political and legal restrictions they would face upon graduation. According to Lee, conventional news ideals, which emphasize conflict, are a barrier to peace journalism, which examines conflict's roots and potential solutions. Ndlela found that coverage of the Zimbabwean issue as it appeared in the Norwegian press mostly fit with Galtung and Ruge's negative factor, leading to stereotypical frames and imbalanced reporting that portrayed the situation as racial rather than political. Developments were handled in later reporting as discrete incidents that lacked a larger or historical context also mentions the emphasis placed by Western news values on conflictual criteria and bizarre and exceptional events. He calls for the "gradual institutionalization of an additional value" to enable development news that reflects and mobilizes the process of social, cultural, and political change. Wu (2000) discovered that news values alone could not explain coverage, and that economic interest, information accessibility, and the production cost of international news were also factors in determining the amount of information coming from abroad.

CONCLUSION

Agenda setting in journalism is a complex process having substantial effects on the flow of information and the shaping of public opinion. It emphasizes the influence of media sources in shaping what topics the public views as essential. The advent of new dynamics brought about by the digital age, such as the growth of online platforms and user-generated material, has made the process of creating agendas even more challenging. Ethics and responsible reporting are becoming more and more important as journalism develops in order to preserve the integrity of this crucial position. To navigate the complicated information environment and promote a well-informed and democratic society, journalists and news consumers must have a deep grasp of agenda shaping. The methodological contributions of the first agenda-setting research at Chapel Hill are sometimes neglected. A content analysis and a public opinion poll were used in this 1968 research to create the concept of a time-lag. Today's agenda-setting studies continue to regularly count and rank-order the amount of media pieces on certain subjects using content analysis, then poll the public to find out their opinions on the "Most Important Problems" of the day. The public's agenda for significant problems and the media's agenda for key issues are associated using Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient.

REFERENCES:

[1]   K. A. Rohde *et al.*, "Insomnia and relationship with immunosuppressant therapy after lung transplantation," *Prog. Transplant.*, 2017, doi: 10.1177/1526924817699960.

[2]   J. T. Gage and S. Barnet, "A Short Guide to Writing about Art," *Coll. Compos. Commun.*, 1985, doi: 10.2307/357452.

[3]   R. V. R. Thomas, "Clinical psychology," *Int. Rev. Psychiatry*, 1992, doi: 10.3109/09540269209066336.

[4]   M. Deuze, "Convergence culture in the creative industries," *Int. J. Cult. Stud.*, 2007, doi: 10.1177/1367877907076793.

[5]   M. L. Verduin, "Handbook of Psychodynamic Approaches to Psychopathology," *J. Psychiatr. Pract.*, 2017, doi: 10.1097/pra.0000000000000211.

[6]   I. Becker, V. Gjergji-Lama, G. Romer, and B. Möller, "Characteristics of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria referred to the Hamburg gender identity clinic [Merkmale von kindern und jugendlichen mit geschlechtsdysphorie in der Hamburger spezialsprechstunde]," *Prax. Kinderpsychol. Kinderpsychiatr.*, 2014.

[7]   Q. Gong and P. Le Billon, "Feeding (On) Geopolitical Anxieties: Asian Appetites, News Media Framing and the 2007-2008 Food Crisis," *Geopolitics*, 2014, doi: 10.1080/14650045.2014.896789.

[8]   L. M. Housman and J. E. Stake, "The current state of sexual ethics training in clinical psychology: Issues of quantity, quality, and effectiveness," *Prof. Psychol. Res. Pract.*, 1999, doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.30.3.302.

[9]   K. Davies, "HRECs and journalism research: The uneven playing field," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2014, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v20i1.189.

[10]   L. M. Tuten, H. E. Jones, C. M. Schaeffer, and M. L. Stitzer, *Reinforcement-based treatment for substance use disorders: A comprehensive behavioral approach.* 2011. doi: 10.1037/13088-000.

CHAPTER 9

INSPECTION OF LAW AND REGULATION IN JOURNALISM

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

ABSTRACT:

This analysis investigates the complex interactions between law and regulation in the media industry. It emphasizes how crucial it is to preserve a careful balance between defending press freedom and encouraging ethical journalism. Legal frameworks have been established throughout history to achieve this balance, aiming to protect the ideals of a free press while limiting the spread of incorrect or damaging information. New issues have arisen in the modern digital age, notably in the context of online misinformation and privacy. In addition to highlighting the need of upholding journalistic values like honesty, fairness, and impartiality, this research highlights the crucial role that journalists play in navigating these complications. In order to maintain the integrity of journalism within society, the abstract emphasizes the importance for journalists to be aware about changing legislation and to modify their activities.

KEYWORDS:

Ethics, Journalism, Law, Media Regulation.

INTRODUCTION

The investigation and evaluation of the legal framework and regulations controlling the practice of journalism constitute the inspection of law and regulation in journalism. A democratic society's foundational pillar, journalism serves the public's informational needs, holds those in positions of authority responsible, and promotes the free flow of ideas and information. There are rules and regulations in place to govern and sometimes regulate the conduct of journalism in order to guarantee that it functions successfully and ethically. Availability of the Press, the freedom of the press is protected by law or the constitution in many democratic states. This freedom is necessary to guarantee that journalists may report without worrying about being censored or facing punishment. Investigative journalism is made possible, and material that can be critical of the government or other strong organizations can be shared.

Journalism must strike a balance between the freedom of the press and the need to report truthfully and fairly. Laws against defamation serve to shield people and organizations from untrue and destructive remarks. Journalists need to use caution to prevent discrediting someone's reputation by releasing inaccurate material. Journalists often look into and report on topics of public interest, which may include acquiring information on specific people. Journalists' access to and publication of information concerning private people is governed by privacy regulations [1][2] . A challenging legal problem is how to strike a balance between the public's right to information and a person's right to privacy.

National Security and Confidentiality: Journalists may get sensitive or secret information that might have repercussions for national security. The handling of such material by journalists and the circumstances under which they are required to reveal their sources are governed by laws and regulations. Source protection and shield laws: In certain countries, shield laws exist to safeguard journalists from being forced to disclose their sources in court. These regulations

aim to support informants and safeguard investigative reporting. The extent and force of such rules may change, however. Media Ownership and Regulation: The concentration and ownership of the media have a significant impact in the social function of journalism. In order to preserve a diversity of viewpoints in the media landscape, several nations have restrictions in place to prevent monopolies and guarantee diversified ownership of media businesses. Journalism is often influenced by ethical guidelines and codes of conduct established by professional organizations such as the Society of Professional Journalists in the United States, in addition to legal requirements. These rules include topics including truthfulness, equity, and preventing conflicts of interest [3][4].Internet and digital media: New legal and regulatory difficulties, such as those relating to online hate speech, misinformation, and platform liability, have developed with the growth of digital journalism and online platforms.

Cross-Border and International Issues: Reporting on global news and events is a common part of journalism. When working across borders, journalists may run into legal snags since national laws and regulations might differ greatly. Laws and rules governing journalism are constantly changing, especially in reaction to technology breakthroughs and shifting media environments. It's critical for media companies and journalists to remain up to date on legal changes that might affect their job. Journalists must examine and comprehend these laws and rules because they support responsible and ethical reporting and uphold the core values of a free press. In order to negotiate the complexity of media law and regulation and guarantee they operate within the law while performing their essential role in society, journalists and media organizations often contact legal professionals.

The focus of journalism law, sometimes referred to as media law or mass communication law, is press freedom. What exactly is press? What qualifies as free or unfree press? What function should or must press freedom serve? The government uses these and related issues as a guide for defining the limits of journalism legislation [5]. Journalism law has been influenced throughout time by the press's effects on people, society, or politics. Additionally, a fascinating new component has been brought to the mix by modern media technologies. What's the next step for us? In order to better comprehend the field of journalism law as it is and as it should be, it is crucial at this point to examine studies on the subject from an international and comparative legal perspective.

Press freedom is often considered in connection with speech freedom. As a result, according to tO, the theoretical underpinnings of journalism law often merge with those of free speech. Nevertheless, freedom of the press differs from freedom of expression. In the former, "institutional press freedom from government control" is discussed, but in the latter, "individual freedom to speak and publish without interference from the State" is meant. As a result, press freedom has often been examined from an institutional viewpoint. Journalistic freedom, which centers on journalists' independence from the owners and editors of their news outlet, may be distinguished from press freedom as an institutional idea [6]. Though some academics call for legislative restrictions to defend the independence of working journalists from media owners, few libertarian press regimes acknowledge journalistic freedom.

Every nation, whether it is under common or civil law, has its own set of rules governing journalists. When comparing press freedom to conflicting values, the origins and goals of these media laws reflect the political and sociocultural value judgments of each culture. While some nations choose to enact direct press restrictions, others opt for indirect press rules. Those laws may or might not be a result of the constitution's guarantee of a free press. Whatever the case, a nation's media laws depend less on a unique press act or a constitutional

guarantee than they do on the "political philosophy" that guides them [7]. Journalism legislation may vary depending on a free press's heritage, culture, and norms. Unsurprisingly, the writers of an early media law book wrote the following about press laws in France and Germany in the late 19th century: "[I]n each nation, complaints tend to center more on the administration of the law than the legislation itself. "Freedom from prior restraint the great central principle of the liberty of the press stands unchallenged. The situation of journalism law is the same as that of other laws; it is flux. Indeed, the practice and organization of journalism as in reporting, editing, and presenting news are evolving. Anyone with a computer may now connect in real time with a possible worldwide audience thanks to the Internet revolution in communication. Bloggers and citizen journalists' "new" journalism contests "old" journalism's rules. Technology is only one aspect of how journalism law is changing. It is linked to the media law's increased globalization. Press freedom is now better understood within the context of international and comparative law.

But developing a transcultural media law paradigm is still a theoretical issue. Is media law so nation-specific that its applicability to other nations has little meaning? Or, would their regional distinctions mostly not matter since media law and structures especially in increasingly international or global societies are so much a part of a transnational whole. It seems that US media legislation is still applicable to foreign nations. This is due to the exceptionally extensive American experience with the freedom of speech and the press as a right, not necessarily because it is superior to other laws. But in the future, it's conceivable that American law won't be as relevant to the rest of the globe. In general, there's good reason to suspect that national media law will continue to deteriorate, substantive transnational media law will expand, and such expansion will fundamentally challenge the approaches to freedom of expression that have been pursued in the U.S. for over 200 years, according to US telecommunication policy scholar Herbert Terry's assessment in August 2007.

DISCUSSION

With these considerations in mind, let's go on to a discussion of journalism law's historical background, the law's effect on research, methodological concerns, journalism law as a research field, and critical journalism law issues. Other academics who are not journalists have made significant contributions to the literature on media law by rethinking the First Amendment's press provision and conceptualizing the right to free expression. For instance, philosopher. The proposed that although non-political communication is subject to regulation, political speech must be completely protected by the First Amendment. However, it is unclear how the Meiklejohnian paradigm of protected versus unprotected speech would apply to the commercial media. The provocatively revisionist Legacy of Suppression by historian Leonard Levy, published in 1960, questioned the then-common understanding that the First Amendment forbade seditious libel explicitly.

Journalism law did not become a distinct main topic in journalism, mass communication, or legal practice until the late 1960s and early 1970s. In American journalistic law for education, the "contemporary period" began in 1960. "With a mass new constitutional law in hand, and more to come, wrote of the contemporary era of journalism law, "the new legists' [sic] assigned themselves the research, writing, and tutorial burden to prepare media practitioners and their own successors to interpret and use properly the new dimensions of media law." A new case law book, Mass Communication Law, was published in 1969 by George Washington University law professor Jerome Barron and University of Minnesota journalism professor Donald Gillmor. Law of Mass Communications was written in the same year by journalism professors Harold Nelson and Dwight Teeter at the University of Wisconsin-

Madison. The two publications were released at a period when media law textbooks and reference materials were required for the disciplines of journalism and mass communication.

During his tenure as editor of Journalism Quarterly, the top academic publication for journalism educators in the United States, from 1973 to 1989, noted an increase in media law research and attributed it in part to the use of computer databases like Westlaw and Lexis as well as to the doctoral programs at Minnesota, Southern Illinois, and Wisconsin.The establishment of Media Law Reporter as a weekly loose-leaf service in January 1977 may have been the turning point in journalism and media law for American academics and practitioners. The goal of Media Law Reporter was to address the rising demand from professionals in the fields of education, journalism, and law for timely reporting on significant court judgments that have an impact on the media. For the American communication law bar, it remains to be "virtually required reading" and the most complete court reporter on US 282 youm mass communication law.

The early history of journalism law, however, showed more than passing interest in foreign and international legislation on press freedom. In 1926, a compilation of legislation from close to 50 nations was released under the title The Press legislation of Foreign Countries. It came born as a consequence of the UK Foreign Office's need to compile the "latest information" about press regulation worldwide. The Zenger case from 1735 in colonial America is one of several court rulings on press freedom that served as the foundation for modern American media law. Americans demanded a Bill of Rights with a guarantee of press freedom after the Zenger case created a precedent. William Blackstone, an English judge who lived in the 18th century, defined press freedom as the absence of previous constraint (Blackstone, 1765–69). His definition is as important today [8]. The landmark US Supreme Court decision Near v. Minnesota which for the first time in American history addressed prior restraint as a First Amendment problem, marked the beginning of the more organized development of journalism law for research in the United States.

Although contempt of court and copyright were also covered, libel dominated study and instruction in the early stages of journalism law. For instance, Hale's book from 1923, which also covered privacy, news gathering, and advertising, was almost entirely dedicated to libel law. Scholarly study on journalistic law was often more descriptive than prescriptive. However, "The Right to Privacy," an essay by Samuel Warren and Louis Brandeis published in a legal review in 1890, stands out as an exception. The law of privacy was established by the two Boston attorneys who advocated invasion of privacy as a brand-new tort in their essay. Its implications for practice and theory go beyond US law. International and foreign law are also starting to more often recognize privacy as a right.

Prior restraint is one of the most common concerns in journalism law that continues to get interest from academics. The following is an example from Thomas Emerson's examination of the prior restraint theory in free speech law at Yale Law School, Governmental limits on speech or other forms of expression cannot be placed before they are published. It makes no mention of the issue of whether or not expression-related offenses may result in further sanctions. Thus, the concept only addresses restrictions on the style of governmental control over speech. The communication cannot be prohibited in advance via a system of prior restraint, even if it is punishable afterwards or may otherwise be regulated.

Significantly, the traditional American legal notion of press freedom as a negative idea has been questioned. Jerome Barron, a law professor at George Washington University, proposed that press freedom be added to the list of rights protected by the First Amendment in 1967 [9]. Regarding his original First Amendment view, Barron remembered stating that "Private

censorship can be as oppressive and pervasive as public censorship." But I didn't only want to draw attention to how media concentration and technology have made the potential of private barriers to expression a terrifying reality. To address the reality of private censorship, I wanted the law to act. International and foreign law accommodates the public's right to engage in the media via the right of reply, in contrast to American law where access to the media is almost nonexistent, with the exception of political candidates (Youm, 2008). An international agreement that includes a right of reply is the UN Convention on the International Right of Correction. The right of rectification, which was influenced by French law, was created to provide officials, not ordinary citizens, and this authority. The UN Convention has been ratified by more than 20 countries as of this writing. The American Convention on Human Rights and the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) are two regional human rights accords that acknowledge the right to respond. The European Union and the Council of Europe have enacted a number of treaties and resolutions on the right of reply that are applicable to both domestic and international broadcasting since 1974. Most lately, genuine accusations made online have been included in the right of reply. Individually and together, the experiences of European nations with the right of reply seem to demonstrate that the right of reply and freedom of speech are not inherently at opposition.

The right to react differs from nation to nation. A small number of nations expressly guarantee it as a fundamental right, while many more regard it as a matter of statute. The two most important nations that favor the right to respond are France and Germany. They meant for it to allow the slandered to answer to the slanderer, i.e., the news media, when France and Germany made the right of reply a legal requirement in the nineteenth century and other nations followed them throughout the first part of the 20th century [10]. Reputation and associated personal interests continue to be a major factor in upholding the right of reply in many of those nations in Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America with right of reply laws.

The US Supreme Court has had at least as much of an influence on journalism law during the last 40 years as it did in prior times. The Court has put 284 YOUM constitutional legislation on press freedom into practice, fine-tuned it, and done all of this at once. Prior restraint, the journalist's privilege, "burning the source" (i.e., voluntarily breaching the confidentiality agreement with news sources), the fairness doctrine, the right of reply, advertising, copyright, freedom of the student press, freedom of information, obscenity, indecent broadcasting, cable regulation, and Internet communication are just a few of the numerous media law issues that the Court has addressed since 1969.

Commercial speech is one of the most significant recent developments in US media law. The US Supreme Court approved the commercial speech First Amendment exemption in the early 1940s, but it was later overturned in the middle of the 1970s. Most importantly, Virginia State Board of Pharmacy v. Virginia Citizens Consumer Council, 425 U.S. 748, 1976 marked the Supreme Court's change of heart regarding the doctrine of commercial speech, which was based on the consumer's right to the "free flow of information" even though the information was purely commercial advertising.

The right to information is commonly acknowledged as being integral to the freedom of expression and the press (Mendel, 2008). Only a few journalists frequently employ freedom of information (FOI) laws for their job in the United States, nevertheless. Systematic investigation as a case study is urgently needed due to the discrepancy between the high theory behind FOI legislation and their actual use in the United States. In addition, a comparative analysis of the discrepancy between theory and practice for journalism under FOI legislation is warranted. Furthermore, the significant use of the US federal FOI Act by foreigners has received little notice. Consequently, it presents opportunity for research

qualitative or quantitative. "Sunshine laws" involving government meetings are few, in contrast to freedom of information, which is recognized as a right in approximately 70 nations. With regard to open meetings regulations since 1976, the United States seems to be the lone exception. The general indifference for the public's right to attend meetings of governmental agencies among journalists, attorneys, and parliamentarians is the norm rather than the exception.

The US Supreme Court has not yet explicitly addressed media law, including issues of choice of law, jurisdiction, and the execution of decisions from foreign courts. When American media outlets are sued overseas for defamation and other reasons, many lower courts have ruled on the First Amendment rights of such organizations. The Internet age is expected to bring up these still new media law concerns often, which forces academics and practitioners of journalism to comprehend "the basic moral engine that drives each nation's media laws" International and comparative media law has just recently seen more sparse and shallow investigation. Additionally, media law has not yet become a significant area of study in international and comparative law. However, it has acquired popularity among academics and legal professionals recently. Eric Barendt, a renowned expert on media law in the UK, and others have looked at press freedom and international and comparative law.

By studying the ECHR, England and Wales, the United States, France, Germany, and Australia, Barendt's 2005 book Freedom of Speech serves as an example of comparative studies in the field of freedom of speech. ARTICLE 10 in London and other free speech groups have conducted research and published articles on "a science of defective information" on comparative media law, which is very significant. In eight European nations as well as the United States, Canada, and Australia, Press Law and Practice by ARTICLE 19 (Coliver, 1993) provides an informative analysis of how press freedom is weighed against other social and individual interests. On specialized media law themes, many treatises have been produced. It is hardly unexpected that book-length monographs have focused on privacy and libel. The first version of Peter Carter-Ruck's book Carter-Ruck on Libel and Slander, which analyzes the domestic legislation of more than 60 nations as well as international law on defamation, was published in 1952 and has been in print ever.

International Privacy, Publicity, and Personality Laws, which describes the privacy laws in 29 nations, including Hong Kong, is also important. The International Libel & Privacy Handbook by Charles Glasser, chief counsel of Bloomberg News, is a valuable contribution to the body of work on this topic. The book examines 19 countries when addressing libel, privacy, and related concerns, even though it uses American law as its analytical framework. Media law that are country-specific are becoming more common outside of Anglo-American and European nations. The Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) in Singapore should be commended in this regard. Since the early 1990s, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Thailand have all had English-language media law texts produced by AMIC.

In Southeast and South Asia, there has been a "constant call for a review of existing media laws and for press accountability and professionalism," and the AMIC Asian media law series was created in response to that request (Carlos, 2006). Since the middle of the 1990s, a number of legal and journalism academics have released books on media law regarding their respective nations. China (Fu & Cullen, 1996), Hong Kong Weisenhaus, 2007, and South Korea (Youm, 1996) were among the nations whose press laws were popular book topics. However, there is a growing demand for study on national media laws since it will probably be a valuable resource for people interested in international and comparative law. The law is a subject of "substance knowledge," and its study refers to "specific legal research

methodologies." In the meanwhile, legal journalism research has to be contextualized for both its target audience and the researchers themselves. As a result, it is necessary to consider substantive concerns and difficulties in the framework of the law as a whole.

Legal issues relating to communication cannot be studied in isolation, either in terms of topic matter or methodology. Nearly all research projects in the wide field of communications contain legal, economic, political, or social issues, and sometimes it is hard to distinguish between the strictly legal and the other components. According to Fred Cate, a law professor at Indiana University, methodology is not a topic that legal academics include in their research and teaching in the classroom. But he went on to say that "Law is not as devoid of methodologies as generations of doctoral students and I may have surmised, although law's analytical tools may not be as clearly defined as in the social sciences".

The objectives of the legal study at hand may necessitate using different research techniques in journalistic law. They do, however, coincide when the goal of the study is to provide "a means for understanding and for explaining communication and law". Although the theoretical means are controversial, the multidisciplinary approach to communication law fosters more eclecticism in research approaches (Bunker, 2001). We are currently observing the emergence of at least three strains of legal scholarship in mass communication. The first is the continued articulation of traditional, documentary research; the second is socio behavioral methods; and the third is the critical-qualitative method. Many people are unhappy with the narrow emphasis of communication law studies and with the idea that media law academics should support the media businesses.

The various strategies used by various countries to strike a balance between press freedom and reputational interests tied to culture demonstrate how cultural studies may provide novel insights into media law. Furthermore, the idea that culture cannot be ignored by free speech jurisprudence in international law is supported by hate speech, pornography, and other culturally contingent expression. Regardless of whether a single approach or a variety of methodologies are employed for legal research, the main concern is this: From the standpoint of journalism and mass communication, why should we perform legal research?

This fundamental issue may be answered by stating that legal study on journalism offers a historical and contemporary overview of the institutional and no institutional conflicts between the government and the media as well as between the media and nongovernmental actors. Such journalism law study has both short-term and long-term advantages. However, for a piece of study to be considered "good legal scholarship," it must make a claim that the reader may accept as being innovative, nonobvious, valuable, and sound. Unless legal research serves one or more meaningful purposes, whether theoretical or applied, it will most likely be an exercise in otiosity, regardless of the instrument or approach utilized. A guide to different sorts of legal research in journalism is made up of five purposes of legal research.

A variety of exciting legal issues have previously been highlighted by 289 periodicals and other popular literature of various kinds. He was extraordinarily astute in his 1946 "briefing on a few specific problems" that the fields of law and media may work together to overcome. To varied degrees, the issues Siebert identified are still fundamental to journalism law. Libel, privacy, broadcasting, the reporter's privilege, diversity of jurisdictions, fair trial vs. free press, cameras in the courtroom, contempt of court, constitutional law, press freedom as a positive vs. negative right, and media monopolies and their "private censorship" are some of the areas where law and journalism intersect. Siebert's enumeration of several issues with journalism legislation was not only focused on the US. Libel law is one example. The most

frequent legal risk to the news media in the US is still defamation, one of the oldest legal actions accessible against the media.

CONCLUSION

Many proponents of free speech universality are forced by the cultural studies method to reevaluate their oversimplified claim that a society's cultural norms and traditions have no bearing on the fundamental ideals of freedom of speech and the press. Examining legislation and rules pertaining to journalism demonstrates the intricate and dynamic interaction between press freedom and the need for ethical reporting. Although journalists perform a critical role in informing the public, their profession is not without difficulties and ethical dilemmas. Legal systems have been developed throughout history to achieve a balance between defending the right to free speech and halting the spread of untrue or damaging information. New difficulties arise in the current digital era, such as concerns about internet misinformation and privacy. To sustain the values of honesty, fairness, and impartiality, journalists must traverse various legal and regulatory environments. They must also be knowledgeable of their legal obligations and rights. Maintaining the credibility of media in society necessitates that journalists keep updated about changing legislation and modify their activities appropriately**.**

REFERENCES:

[1]   H. Afdjani, "Efek Psikologis Pemberitaan Media Massa Terhadap Khalayak Ditinjau Dari Teori Peluru, Agenda Setting Dan Uses and Gratification," *Academia.Edu*, 2007.

[2]   J. Dutton, "Counterculture and Alternative Media in Utopian Contexts: A Slice of Life from the Rainbow Region," *M/C J.*, 2014, doi: 10.5204/mcj.927.

[3]   A. Ruch and S. Collins, "Zoning Laws: Facebook and Google+," *M/C J.*, 2011, doi: 10.5204/mcj.411.

[4]   K. M. Ellis, "Breakdown Is Built into It: A Politics of Resilience in a Disabling World," *M/C J.*, 2013, doi: 10.5204/mcj.707.

[5]   C. Gerlitz and B. Rieder, "Mining One Percent of Twitter: Collections, Baselines, Sampling," *M/C J.*, 2013, doi: 10.5204/mcj.620.

[6]   A. Kustritz, "Transmedia Serial Narration: Crossroads of Media, Story, and Time," *M/C J.*, 2018, doi: 10.5204/mcj.1388.

[7]   C. Rocavert, "Aspiring to the Creative Class: Reality Television and the Role of the Mentor," *M/C J.*, 2016, doi: 10.5204/mcj.1086.

[8]   A. Chadwick, "Hybrid Norms in News and Journalism," in *The Hybrid Media System*, 2013. doi: 10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199759477.003.0009.

[9]   R. M. Livingstone, "Let's Leave the Bias to the Mainstream Media: A Wikipedia Community Fighting for Information Neutrality," *M/C J.*, 2010, doi: 10.5204/mcj.315.

[10]   K. Irwin and J. Morton, "Pianos: Playing, Value, and Augmentation," *M/C J.*, 2013, doi: 10.5204/mcj.728.

CHAPTER 10

EXPLORING THE IMPORTANCE OF NEWS IN REAL LIFE

Umesh Daivagna, Professor
Department of ISME, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- umesh.daivagna@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

Our perspective of the world, our judgments, and civic involvement are all significantly shaped by the news. The significance of news in everyday life is explored in this research, along with its varied effects on people and society. A thorough examination reveals that news is an essential information source that helps people keep informed about current affairs, politics, the economy, and other topics. It gives people the ability to engage in democratic processes, make informed decisions, and hold government officials responsible.News also creates a feeling of community by bringing together individuals who have similar interests and concerns. It reduces barriers of distance and culture and promotes social cohesiveness and empathy. The emergence of false news and echo chambers, however, pose a danger to the accuracy of information distribution in the digital era. The digital age is thus a time of opportunity as well as difficulties. To maximize the advantages of news while minimizing its possible drawbacks, it is essential to analyze news sources critically and to advance media literacy. In conclusion, news is a fundamental component of our information society, and educated and active citizens need responsible news consumption.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Civic Engagement, Community, Democracy, Digital Age.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of the news audience has often remained an assumed category, despite the fact that the majority of study on news eventually focuses on its influence on society. Although news is a genre that has been extensively studied, its audience has not always drawn as much attention as other facets: Examples of topics that have undergone extensive study include the economics of production, news work, news sources, and representation, as seen in the chapters of the current edition [1][2]. These discoveries prompted scholars to observe that the sociology of news does not account for its viewers. This is not entirely true, however, since there is a growing amount of research on how to process news, some of it groundbreaking. What is needed, in Silverstone's opinion, is a more ritualistic and mediational approach to news as a dynamic element of social and cultural life rather than study on news watchers. Following the historical background of the study of news audiences, the major emphasis will be on two significant traditions in the field.

The first strategy is connected to the development of British Cultural Studies, particularly Stuart Hall's work from 1980 and his groundbreaking "Encoding/Decoding" methodology. Here, the focus is on how viewers understand the news. The "exciting phase of audience research" that Hall's work sparked led to the development of the second strategy that I shall outline. These studies use an anthropological approach to their research and treat news consumption as a ritual [3]. The chapter will explore the current difficulties in the research of news audiences after evaluating the advantages and drawbacks of each technique. These include the necessity for comparative study, the fuzziness of the lines between consumption and production, and new communication technology. All of these indicate potential study areas and force us to once again question the value of the word "audience."

The perception of news viewers has gone through many pendulum swings, much as the perception of media impacts. From the early notions of omnipotent media in the interwar era to the paradigm of "limited effects" and finally to the current orthodoxy, what is frequently referred to as the media malaise thesis, audiences have been viewed as either passive recipients of media messages and thus vulnerable or as active agents capable of producing their own meanings. The term "media or video malaise thesis" is a little misleading since it is scarcely a thesis but rather a collection of research that demonstrate the negative consequences of watching television news, and it gained popularity between the late 1960s and the early 1970s.

According to some scholars, watching television news fosters a pessimistic outlook on the world and even political disaffection, particularly among regular watchers, since it emphasizes conflict and exaggerates the bad. The debate has recently been centered on two well-known authors: Pippa Norris (2000) and Robert Putnam (2000). Pippa Norris (2000) argued that news consumption promotes a positive feedback loop of civic engagement, while Robert Putnam (2000) argued that television viewing contributes to civic disengagement. Putnam contended that mass media, and television in particular, had led to the decrease of civic involvement and the dissolution of communal relationships utilizing an astonishing quantity of data from the US General Social Survey [3]. Putnam contends that although newspaper reading historically contributed significantly to American democracy, it has been supplanted by television news, which is itself on the wane and becoming tainted, if not completely replaced, by the expansion of entertainment culture.

In her thorough analysis of US and European Surveys, Norris found less evidence to support the media malaise argument. Instead, she discovered a positive relationship between news media and higher levels of political awareness, trust, and mobilization. According to her, individuals who "read more newspapers, use the internet, and follow campaigns tend to be more informed, trusting of the government, and participative [4]. Norris provided an explanation for this by arguing that news media users are already inclined to engage in civic life. People's involvement with the news media also raises their interest in politics and lowers the obstacles to greater civic participation, which is where the "virtuous circle" starts.

The audience remains an inferred category in a significant portion of this important literature, it is fair to argue (Livingstone, 1998a), and inferences are confidently drawn from the correlation between abstracted message content and similarly abstracted individual or aggregate reactions. Only in the 1980s, when audience research began to take off, did audiences begin to draw attention and gain awareness.Stuart Hall's "Encoding/Decoding" paradigm, which was first published as a working paper of the Centre for Culture Studies in Birmingham in 1973 and later reissued in 1980, was a turning point not just for the study of news audiences but for media studies more generally. Hall's (1980) contribution marked the start of a "exciting phase of audience research" by bringing together theoretically two hitherto opposing traditions, the critical and administrative.

Hall brought together the agenda of the critical tradition (concerns with power and ideology) and the empirical focus on audiences which had traditionally been associated with the positivist tradition of media sociology and the study of media effects in his article, which he wrote as a critique of positivist media sociology. Which had been the dominant paradigm of communication research Gitlin, 1978). To "incorporate both the vertical and the horizontal dimension of the communication process," according to Hall's approach. Hall saw the exchange of ideas as a dynamic circuit [5][6]. He suggested that several methods of encoding and decoding may be used to represent the same event. Despite Hall's claim that there is a favored interpretation, signals are by nature polysomic. Hall defined three potential decoding

positions: the dominant-hegemonic, the negotiated, and the oppositional, drawing on Parkin's (1971) political sociology. The "Encoding/Decoding" paradigm was first used empirically in Morley's (1980) nationwide research. Morley looked into how various audience segments interpreted the well-known current affairs show Nationwide. Each group had a separate demographic profile and was homogeneous.

The research proved that readers' interpretations of the book were constrained by "cultural differences embedded within the structure of society" that influence and affect their readings of the text. Thus, it was believed that a text's or message's "meaning" resulted from the interplay between the codes that the text itself contains and the codes that various audience segments occupy. The "Encoding/Decoding" paradigm and Morley's research have come under fire for class determinism, linearity, and the introduction of two dubious phrases, the "preferred reading" and the "negotiated decoding." Morley himself addressed each of these issues in a later (1992) reflection essay. The concept has also been criticism for placing too much emphasis on interpretation while downplaying other processes that are crucial to deciphering news, such comprehension. According to Morley, it is possible that audience members' rejection of the dominant message on occasion can be attributed to a lack of understanding (due to low literacy and educational capital) rather than an oppositional interpretation, in which case there is nothing to celebrate. Nevertheless, despite these critiques, Hall's model and Morley's study have played a crucial role in expanding the area of audience research and putting "audience which has hitherto been devalued, marginalized and presumed about in policy and theory into the public eye." This visibility is important from a theoretical, empirical, and political standpoint, according to Livingstone.

DISCUSSION

Research on audience participation was conducted by members of the Glasgow University Media Group, which is widely renowned for its examination of news production and content (Eldridge, 1993). The research by Philo (1990) that looked at how news concerning the British miners' strike in 1984–85 was received was excellent. Following a similar approach to the nationwide research, Philo and his colleagues conducted interviews with a variety of audience groups. Philo discovered that those who depended on the media had the greatest levels of belief in the prevailing media frame. Because violence was a prevalent feature in the news coverage, many who relied heavily on television news assumed that most picketing was violent. On the other hand, people who disagreed with the media's version of events either had firsthand knowledge of what happened, knew the strikers and their families, or had access to other sources of information. Similar to this, Greek study emphasizes the value of first-hand experience in difficult news stories.

As part of a wider ethnography of news consumption, the research looked at how two events were received: an incident involving Greek and Turkish ties and a global catastrophe, namely the Kosovo war in 1999. While the news language in both the national event and the Kosovo crisis was predominantly ethnocentric, the research found that viewers' reactions were clearly dissimilar. While some of the respondents in the Kosovo case study resorted to an ethnocentric discourse in keeping with the news's substance, viewers during the national event questioned the prevailing news discourse. Personal experience is one reason for the discursive transformations. The majority of respondents who questioned the information in the news did so by referencing their own personal experiences (such as their participation in mandatory military duty), which gave them the courage to do so. On the other hand, since people in Kosovo did not directly witness the fighting, they were less able to evaluate the news reports. As a result, the events in Kosovo were primarily mediated. The research also discovered a second cause for the viewers' discursive changes: by seeing news stories about

an event involving Greek and Turkish ties as private, "family" matters, viewers felt at ease criticizing the news's predominate language.

However, during the Kosovo war, many respondents thought that in order to react to an international conflict that they saw as a danger to their culture and identity from the outside, they had to adopt the prevalent nationalistic rhetoric and establish their identity. This final point highlights the fact that news reception is a relational and dynamic process that involves not only local audiences and national news, but that is also, ineluctably, transnational. In her study of how the news about the Intifada in the 1990s was received in Israel, she discovered that the news only served to confirm pre-existing beliefs. As news shows often reflected the prevailing attitude, they supported hardline views in Israeli society. According to Liebes, who researched how news is received in family settings, the media serves as a vehicle for kids to develop their ideologies. Oppositional interpretations were rare in such a volatile socio-political climate and were reliant on the media literacy abilities and educational background of the viewers.

Numerous findings are mentioned in the literature on news viewers. Although interpretation cannot be predicted in advance, research confirms that it is limited by a number of factors, such as the text itself and the ideological climate that has shaped it comprehension and the educational capital that this implies; pre-existing beliefs and tastes; social class and other demographic determinants; the existence of alternative sources; and the degree of exposure to and dependency on the news media. Thus, it becomes clear that, contrary to what has frequently been criticized, most studies of news audiences have struggled with ideas of power and attempted to map how it manifests itself in the context of news reception. Additionally, audience researchers have acknowledged that "the power of viewers to reinterpret meanings is hardly equivalent to the discursive power of centralized media institutions to construct the texts which the viewer then interprets," a statement shared by other scholars working in the same tradition.

In accordance with this paradigm, research are mostly text-based and focus on news viewers and news content. The audiences are seen as the readers and interpreters of the news as a text and as a medium. Perhaps both the strength and the weakness of this strategy lie in the intense concentration with the text. On the one hand, the text offers a direct connection to issues of ideology and power; on the other hand, the text's drawback is that reception is examined in isolation without awareness of the social context and how much it may be influenced by the media. According to the aforementioned quotation, the news' format is nearly as important as its substance, which is its most thoroughly studied component. Even more important than what is said is how it is said.

Additionally, Silverstone (1994) noted an apparent contrast between news as a routine and permanent marker point in people's daily lives something that inspires reassurance and news content, which is often about conflict and tragedy. The media, according to Silverstone is the key institution in the mediation of threat, risk, and danger" from the outside world. According to Silverstone, the development of trust is the outcome of "the dialectical articulation of anxiety and security [7]. Our nightly news viewing is ritualistic, both in terms of its mechanical repetition and, much more significantly, in how it presents the familiar and the unexpected, the comforting and the dangerous, via its fragmented logic. In Britain, no significant news item will start or conclude without a moving title sequence that transcends the ordinary and helps viewers return to their daily lives. One may argue that Anderson's Imagined Communities has the germs of a ritualistic approach to news consumption. One of the few political theorists who has written on the function of the print media and how it contributed to the rise of nationalism is Anderson. He believed that the formation and

consolidation of the imagined community that gave rise to the modern country were triggered by "the convergence of capitalism and print technology" (p. 46). By reading the same newspapers or books, readers of print capitalism were able to simultaneously communicate across the nation-state and start to identify with one another as members of an imagined community. A hypnotic confirmation of the solidity of a single community, embracing characters, authors, and readers," was provided by the simultaneity made available by print media.

Naturally, Anderson's case is theoretical and old. His objective was not to research news readers to see if an imagined society had really emerged. However, his claim may be supported by actual data, and studies have shown that viewers of television news often use it as a point of reference. This occurs not just because individuals are watching the same news articles at the same time, but also because television news is a consistent time and activity marker in people's daily routines [8]. Family mealtimes and news viewing often overlap; viewers plan their activities around the news rather than the other way around (Jensen, 1995). These findings confirm television's "structural" functions, in which television news serves as a regulating source inside the home (Lull, 1990).

It becomes clear that news is much more than simply information at this point. The incisive study by Berelson, who carried out ground-breaking research during the 1945 newspaper strike in New York City, has early data of the non-informational uses of newspapers. Berelson discovered that during the strike, his respondents missed reading for pleasure more than they missed the newspaper's substance (such as news concerning political and economic issues). Additionally, he identified additional non-informational uses of the newspaper, such as the fact that it offered conversational subjects, which the respondents claimed to have missed.

Other non-informational applications of television news have come to light recently. For instance, it has come to light that some individuals use television news as a platform for airing grievances or comments. According to Canclini (2001), individuals in Mexico turned to radio and television to seek the justice and respect that the conventional institutions of civil society lacked. Similar instances from an ethnography of news consumption in Greece have shown that television news programs often serve as the actual go-betweens between commercial interests and state institutions. In order for governmental institutions to take their grievances seriously, people sought to be heard on radio and television newscasts.

Research has also shown a connection between news consumption and identity performance. Watching the news is a sign of becoming an adult for British Asian youths in Southall, London (Gillespie, 1995). The teens in Gillespie's research would interpret British news for their parents since they were more educated than their parents' generation, earning them a higher position of respect and responsibility in the home. Greek news watching was a method for those who belonged to an ethnic minority in Greece to make a statement about their citizenship and belonging to the "country they live in" [9]. As a result, "watching the news" takes on much more meaning than just "watching"; it may serve as a declaration of one's identity, a goal, a desire to take part in a cultural or political narrative, a habit, or a tool for coping with the pressures of daily life. These may be a few of the factors that contribute to people's "need to keep up" (an almost universal finding, according to Jensen's comparative research), as well as their tendency to get addicted to the news and refer to themselves as news junkies.

Interestingly, research has also shown that news consumers often report a strong sense of obligation about following the news, despite solid evidence for the non-informational uses of news. According to studies from Norway and the United States, watching the news has been

linked to the need to keep informed. People exhibit worry or humiliation when it is perceived that they are out of touch with current events since this conventional perception has been so internalized. Such observations highlight how naturalized and taken for granted the news' presence in daily life has become. This is maybe the greatest illustration of the influence of news.

The group discussion technique has numerous benefits, the primary one being that it enables the researcher to assess how ideas are formed in society, supporting the notion that group talks are a microcosm of the thinking society. Considering how costly and time-consuming qualitative research is, group interviews have a considerable benefit since they enable the inclusion of more interviewers in the study design. On the other hand, one-on-one interviews may allow for more in-depth questioning. There is a worry that group conversations would force a false consensus, which would silence criticism [10]. This is manifestly untrue in the instance of semi-structured interviews. One-on-one interviews could be more appropriate for delicate subjects and, some contend, when respondents are chosen from underprivileged backgrounds. The majority of interview-based techniques focus on the news text, whether it be the whole broadcast, a news report, or photos from a news story.

Although there have been research using interviews that have looked at consumption, the focus is, as expected, on interpretation, However, an ethnographic method is best suited to comprehend consuming as a series of actions. The researcher may get entry to the realm of routine activities via participant observation. The television text (the news) is explored as one of several media and, ideally, even non-media related) practices rather than being assumed to be significant (as it is in a text-centered approach). The categories of analysis may be formed from the data using a bottom-up approach. Importantly, ethnography permits the observation of not just people's discourses but also participant observation and interviews.

Ethnographers establish enduring relationships with the informants by immersing themselves in the study environment. This in-depth awareness of people's lives enables the development of a connection based on trust and empathy, which is essential for comprehending the personal facets of daily life that the media are a part of. Trust allows the ethnographer to enter people's homes and build the required rapport, both of which are essential, particularly if the study has a sensitive component. The ethnographer may comprehend subtleties that would otherwise go overlooked by using empathy.In addition, without separating these concerns from those of macro-structural processes, an anthropological perspective on news consumption "can inform our understanding of media power as it operates in the micro-contexts of consumption." Morley asserts that "macro structures can only be reproduced through microprocesses," drawing on Giddens' structuration theory from 1984.

As a result, the news text, as well as how it was received and in what setting, can all be studied. Incorporating the many levels of analysis allows one to pursue empirical validation and solve the media power puzzle. Because these have been the primary methodologies for the study of the audience in the traditions created within the setting of British cultural studies, I have only so far concentrated on qualitative methods. Quantitative techniques, which are still often utilized in impacts research, may be quite helpful and, of course, provide a sample the much-needed representativeness. Several studies have gathered amazing data on media consumption trends, particularly news consumption. One such research was done by Gauntlett and Hill (1999), who based on a thorough survey made insightful discoveries about British news watching preferences. Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches may provide excellent results since the later method adds representativeness and breadth while the former provides depth and detail. Couldry, Livingstone, and Markham's (2007) research.In order to trace the "circulation of meaning" such a comprehensive approach necessitates that

the study's emphasis be expanded beyond the point of interaction between texts and audiences (the conventional focus of reception research). In this way, it is important to consider audiences with the other aspects of the mediation process, such as media creation, media texts, media as technologies and objects, and the social and cultural setting. Arguments in favor of a theory of mediation draw on the cultural or ritual model of communication and some of the recent advancements in the study of media consumption and media anthropology that have already been covered in the preceding sentences. Silverstone's contribution, however, is his call for scholars to formalize a wholistic strategy. A multisided ethnography may be developed to do this methodologically. Multifaceted ethnographic research, which was developed in the context of the postmodern turn in anthropology, shifts away from single sites and local situations of conventional ethnographic research "to examine the circulation of cultural meanings, objects, and identities in diffuse time-space." The "circulation of meanings" was also at the center of the definition of mediation, so take note of the focus on this concept. Multisided ethnography enables the integration of the levels of analysis by allowing the study of both production and reception.

The ethnographic technique is highly adapted to detect the times of media impact, as well as audience resistance, given the dispersed nature of media power. The two biggest developments in news programming are the advent of rolling news networks and 24/7 news, as well as the surge in popularity of blogs and citizen journalism. The way news is produced and presented has fundamentally changed, and this has a direct impact on how news is consumed. First of all, the distinction between producers and consumers is becoming hazier as a result of new media and technological convergence, posing the question of whether the word "audience" is really appropriate. We have seen an explosion of blogs and independent news outlets in recent years, which is sometimes referred to as the development of citizen journalism. International news organizations like the BBC and CNN have simultaneously urged their readers to contribute their photos and texts, which are subsequently utilized as part of the reporting, to the news gathering process.

This has proven especially effective during times of crisis. For instance, the response to the 2005 London bombings was extraordinary. People began sending images "within minutes of the first problems," and the BBC received "more than 1000 pictures, 20 pieces of amateur video, 4000 text messages, and around 20,000 emails, many of which were first-hand accounts" in the hours after the events.

Of fact, it is often debatable whether such grassroots contributions contradict the fundamental principles of news creation and news content, particularly when they are used by journalists to supplement the mainstream reporting. There is no denying that the audience has undergone a fundamental change in identity; individuals are now not just spectators, prospective sources, and witnesses of events, but also reporters of those events. Audiences have never previously been allowed to "talk back" in such a direct and obvious manner. It remains to be seen how blogs will affect the field of information now that the initial excitement and fervor about their democratic effects has subsided. Will they live up to the expectations of grassroots independent and possibly radical media, or will there be a process of consolidation during which blogs will give in to market pressures with the consequent consequences for their content. Our preconceived notions of the "national audience" and the custom of watching the nightly news are being challenged by the emergence of rolling news networks. Even while nightly news broadcasts are still widely watched, they are no longer the exclusive media sources for the news-related cultural narrative.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, news is a crucial component of our everyday lives since it shapes our perceptions, influences our choices, and keeps us connected to the outside world. It acts as a source of information that keeps us informed about important news, politics, economics, and other topics. News encourages democratic involvement and responsibility by empowering people to be active members of their communities. Additionally, news strengthens the social fabric of our neighborhoods by encouraging empathy and a feeling of community among all kinds of people. Fake news and echo chambers are problems of the digital age, which emphasizes the need of media literacy and critical thinking.As we go through the digital era, appropriate news intake is crucial. We can maximize the advantages of news while minimizing its possible drawbacks by being watchful, fact-checking, and seeking out other viewpoints. In the end, news continues to be a fundamental component of our information society, and our capacity to meaningfully interact with it is essential for a community that is informed, connected, and resilient on a global scale.

REFERENCES:

[1]   A. Wake, "Journalism training aid by Australians: A case study in Solomon Islands," *Pacific Journal. Rev.*, 2016, doi: 10.24135/pjr.v22i2.68.

[2]   L. C. Bernard, "Making Up for Lost Time: An Evolutionary and Developmental Perspective on Personality," *PsycCRITIQUES*, 2011, doi: 10.1037/a0026164.

[3]   W. Weber and H. M. Rall, "Authenticity in comics journalism. Visual strategies for reporting facts," *J. Graph. Nov. Comics*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/21504857.2017.1299020.

[4]   P. H. Ornstein, "Empathy and the therapeutic dialogue: An historical-conceptual overview of self psychology and a brief clinical example.," *Subj. self Lacan Am. Psychoanal.*, 1996.

[5]   A. M. Waters, R. T. Lebeau, and M. G. Craske, "Experimental Psychopathology and Clinical Psychology: An Integrative Model to Guide Clinical Science and Practice," *J. Exp. Psychopathol.*, 2017, doi: 10.5127/PR.038015.

[6]   K. T. Moloney, "Future of story: Transmedia journalism and National Geographic's Future of Food project.," *ATLAS Inst. Grad. Theses Diss.*, 2015.

[7]   A. Söylemez, "Cognitive Behavior Therapy with Couples and Family Relationships," *J. Fam. Couns. Educ.*, 2017, doi: 10.32568/jfce.284678.

[8]   P. K. Duncan, "The Uses of Hate: On Hate as a Political Category," *M/C J.*, 2017, doi: 10.5204/mcj.1194.

[9]   N. Richardson, "Fake News and Journalism Education," *Asia Pacific Media Educator*. 2017. doi: 10.1177/1326365X17702268.

[10]   S. Lancaster and D. I. Smith, "What's in a name? The identity of clinical psychology as a specialty," *Aust. Psychol.*, 2002, doi: 10.1080/00050060210001706666.

CHAPTER 11

EVOLUTION OF REPORTERS AND SOURCES IN JOURNALISM

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

ABSTRACT:

Technology developments and altering cultural standards have been major driving forces in the evolution of reporters and sources in journalism throughout history. This research investigates these changes, charting the transition from print journalism's conventional form to the digital era. Thanks to the democratization of news creation via social media and internet platforms, reporters have changed from being information gatekeepers to initiating open discussions. In addition, sources have changed from being largely official and institutional persons to a wide range of citizen journalists and eyewitnesses. Information transmission has become more democratic as a result of this change, but it has also led to questions about the reliability and veracity of the sources. The article discusses the difficulties and possibilities that this change brings for the future of journalism. It's critical to find a balance between welcoming new sources and sustaining ethical norms and journalistic integrity as media continues to adjust to a quickly changing environment.

KEYWORDS:

Citizen Journalism, Digital Age, Evolution, Journalism, Reporters, Sources, Technological Advancements.

INTRODUCTION

Power struggle resumes once Power, and influence are at the heart of research on journalists and the news sources they use. An important dilemma in the early literature, which was surrounded by hostile circumstances, was whether sources or reporters had more power to shape the news. One follow-up to this inquiry explores the ways in which journalists' usage of news sources results in a certain news agenda that either prioritizes or omits some subjects over others [1][2]. The capacity of source power to subsidize the time and effort needed for reporting is a question that is asked in a second extension. The relationship between journalists and their sources has often been portrayed as a struggle for control over public opinion and consent.

Journalists ultimately play the job of defending society against corruption, but those in business and government are tasked with upholding their own interests at any costs. But these types of power only reflect something fleeting, namely the capacity to influence how certain problems and policies turn out. This chapter makes the case that there is more at stake between journalists and their sources than just the ability to influence public opinion in the near term. Instead, their connection constitutes a long-lasting but dynamic effect on society: the capacity to mold enduring cultural meanings.

The Western origins of much of this research are also questioned. What could seem like co-optation from a Western viewpoint really reflects the pragmatics of journalistic and, more generally, cultural realities. This is because press systems, political systems, and the social position of journalists all differ between regions and nations.\It is crucial to note that the word "source" is only used to describe the persons that journalists consult for information, often officials and specialists with ties to the major institutions of society. The phrase also refers to

companies that give news material to newspapers, television outlets, and websites, such as the Associated Press

In order to grasp the positions of their interaction, the chapter opens with a sociological viewpoint on the connection between journalists and their sources. A negotiation for long-term cultural meanings and ideological power follows the first portrayal of an antagonistic relationship, which is based on attempts to sway public opinion [3]. Next, it shifts to a more neutral interaction between two sides who both have something to gain. The chapter then takes what is basically a Western research discourse, with these components in place and starts to integrate it into larger international contexts. The issue of voice and empowerment is then brought up as a crucial mediating aspect, affecting both reporters and sources. The chapter concludes with a short discussion of how changing media technologies have changed the nature of the relationship between journalists and their sources.

The fundamental ideas of the professional philosophy of journalism a reporter and a source. Therefore, in order to comprehend the connection, this ideology must be momentarily removed in order to see what is really there [4][5]. There are two issues that must be resolved: The fundamental requirements of the ideology come first, followed by the methods journalists use to complete their tasks and generate their work. The profession's ideology is a paradigm, or means of going about something in a certain way. The intended outcome is anticipated to occur if journalists adopt this paradigm. Reporters obtain reliable facts and then provide it without openly taking a position in the discussion, which is fundamentally how journalism operates. Reporters grow reliant on experts and officials as sources since they serve as the sources of this information. Even while covering an event, reporters are not permitted to express an opinion of their own, thus the interpretation is limited to things like crowd estimates, location descriptions, portrayals of how individuals looked, and what those people said. By using this source-driven methodology, journalists transform into society's scientists.

This paradigm appears to work well on the surface, but that ignores the fact that news organizations typically have a stake in journalists' reporting because it links news content to public opinion and, ultimately, their own success) [6][7]. For those in positions of power, maintaining popular support strengthens their capacity to hold onto that position. The need for elected officials to positively influence public opinion is greater since their capacity to hold onto office and carry out their chosen policies is at stake. The media's coverage of company and organization leaders aids in preserving societal approval for them to go on with their existing course of action. Losing public favor may necessitate a shift in strategy.

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

This portrayal of news and the relationship between the reporter and the source emphasizes the second challenge faced by journalists: that news is a product with organizational expectations. Reporters must devise strategies and procedures to help them produce their product on schedule and in a manner that their peers will deem "good". The interplay between reporters and sources is what causes news to become a construction. In nearly all

jobs and professions face the same challenge: employers must hire staff, employees must strategically use their skills to meet production quotas given their resources, and ultimately, customers must be happy with the product they receive in terms of timeliness and quality.

DISCUSSION

Routinizing their work helps reporters, in practice, overcome organizational constraints they must speak with several sources in order to write tales, their reconnaissance method requires limits. Because sources are not always immediately accessible, organizing interviews becomes a chore that takes time to complete and reduces the amount of time left before the deadline. This process is made simpler by having a core collection of well-known sources, but sometimes additional sources must be located (Berkowitz, 1987; Berkowitz matters further, certain sources may not cooperate with certain stories or might not be accessible when required. Reporters must cope with any unexpected input from sources who may also want to get into the conflict. Unspoken corporate "policy" that has been socially learnt may occasionally specify the paths that reporters must follow as well as the sources and subjects that are off-limits, further complicating matters.

A second negotiating process begins when reporters interact with their sources, whether in person or online. There, journalists try to elicit as much information as possible from their sources by leading the discussion in places that the source may not necessarily want to go. In turn, sources make an effort to keep the information-gathering effort in line with the information they are prepared to supply, which is often material that is neutral, may advance their own cause, or in certain situations, can harm an opponent's cause However, sources often attempt to actively influence what becomes news via press rele*as*es, news conferences, scheduled events, and leaks that might hasten the reporting process. As a result, reporters do not always take the lead [8][9]. Even natural events like crises and tragedies impacting other people may be used by sources to draw attention to their cause.

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

If the media's position as a watchdog over the government and large business is a fundamental component of journalistic philosophy, then reporters' battles to get essential information from sources become crucial. This may be seen as a power struggle, with sources trying to stop what can be seen as excessive journalistic enthusiasm on the part of reporters who are continuously looking for information. Reporters' attempts to acquire information may be blocked if a source is powerful. High power reporters, on the other hand, have the capacity to assemble more information from more sources. The issue of "What determines the power of journalists and sources" is therefore a component of it.

The first query, "What determines power?" has a variety of possible responses for reporters and their sources. The key factors for reporters are their organizational characteristics and

personal characteristics (Herman & Chomsky, 1988). Three things about the reporter jump out. Experience comes first, since a reporter who stays in the industry for a long time rises in prestige. However, strength does not always follow longevity. For instance, compared to national, state, or even local news sources, a seasoned society reporter would be powerless. Therefore, a reporter's track record for producing impactful stories that are well-known to the news sources they interact with on the job is a second element influencing their power. Intra-organizational power is a third issue to consider. If a reporter has greater autonomy inside an organization, deadline pressure might be reduced and there will be more chance to build a story.

Power is also influenced by the reporter's organization, albeit this is not a certain statement. For instance, news organizations that operate on a national or worldwide scale often have more clout when dealing with news sources [10]. Power is strengthened and established by prior reputations for disseminating or broadcasting important news items. A high-quality broadsheet newspaper and a well-known tabloid, for instance, would both have varying degrees of power over the same sources and readership; in this case, the amount of influence each has is directly related to the amount of power it possesses. However, such large-scale power could not matter when a news outlet from a bigger sphere reports on events in a smaller sphere. A national media outlet reporting news that primarily affects a tiny geographic locality, for instance, may not have much influence if the citizens of that region were not among its viewers. There, the local media outlet may end up having a greater impact on how a problem or incident turns out.

It is considerably easier to evaluate source power. The most effective sources are often those who are situated inside a power system and have both the authority of knowledge and the autonomy to talk about that knowledge. Under specific circumstances, sources with the potential to influence the media might temporarily hold positions of authority, such as after an oil spill when environmentalist positions were promoted to the media, the perceived power dynamics that reporters and their sources bring to a particular encounter have a significant bearing on the conclusion of the news story. The character of the connection may also be shaped by this balance, with interactions becoming more symbiotic and cooperative when the power dynamics between journalists and sources are about equal but more antagonistic when one of the two sides is seen to have the upper hand.Overall, this debate argues that the dynamic nature of the connection between journalists and their sources depends on the circumstances surrounding a particular incident as well as the perceived authority that each side brings to the interaction. This power dynamic also determines who may lead negotiations for information that becomes news stories and how relationships between reporters and sources play out.

The response to this issue has often been expressed in terms of influence over public opinion and the news agenda. Maintaining a favorable public image is a daily concern for public officials and corporate executives. Thus, power for a source may be defined most simply as having a voice in a discussion that is currently on the news agenda. A little more influential position for sources is to not only be able to comment on a topic that is on the news agenda, but also to influence how that topic comes to be on the agenda and then shape the first conversation about it.Being able to decide whether a topic will be covered by the media and become a topic of conversation is even more potent since it gives one the freedom to make socially significant choices without needing the approval of the general people.]Power corresponds to a mirror reflection of these levels for journalists. Gaining access to sources of knowledge that extend public discourse demonstrates a fundamental amount of authority. The ability to raise concerns and start a public discussion among news providers increases in

importance. However, since journalists would seldom ever wish to keep a story from the general public, there isn't an obvious counterpart for the third degree of authority.

However, the ability of journalists and sources to shape a continuous news agenda is transitory and is subject to the whims of those in command as well as the social environment in which they interact. The potential of the news agenda to endure when a change in government is in place is up for debate. Some problems might persist, while others would go away. Unless it has any bearing on individuals who have already moved in, public opinion on an out-of-office office becomes basically meaningless. In conclusion, when evaluating the connection between reporters and their sources, concentrating just on public opinion might obscure some of the most significant, long-lasting effects. It is crucial to turn the conversation to culture and the implications it bears as a result.

One approach to think about how reporters and their sources affect meanings is via the notion of framing. By considering news meanings in this manner, it is suggested that topics may be debated in specific ways, with specific bounds imposed on the meanings that fall inside and outside of the discussion's purview. When journalists or their sources contain a story in this manner, certain portrayals begin to dominate the way people think as the story develops. The method's flaw is that it often fails to take into account the greater implications of framing. Meaning that it primarily plays off of certain standards to claim that a problem, an event, or a social group was "framed" in a certain manner.

It is usually simple to demonstrate from the viewpoint of journalism studies how news framing misses a standard and might be seen as a "unfair" portrayal. The implications, however, can be explored much further, moving beyond a debate over which party in a source-reporter relationship has more influence to a more global view of the long-term societal effects of this framing on the political dominance of particular groups, governments, or interests over others. The meaning of events and issues is one of the implications of the reporter-source relationship that has an impact on ideology itself when the interface between reporters and their sources produces and reproduces a specific frame and a specific point of view on the social order.

The responsiveness of sources to their interpretative community offers another viewpoint on meanings related to the reporter-source connection. A cultural setting where meanings are created, communicated, and rebuilt on a daily basis is represented by an interpretative community. A physical location, an organization, a virtual online meeting, and other social collectives may all create interpretive groups. In order to communicate with one another and to inform their interpretations of events and situations, members of an interpretative community internalize commonly held assumptions about meaning. Both their professional interpretative community and the interpretive community of their sources have different connotations for reporters.

The professional interpretative community of reporters has four primary aspects. In addition to keeping in mind professional ideals like objectivity, independence, fairness, and a watchdog role, reporters are also guided by their professional ideology and the interpretive community of their media organization, as well as the "policy" that they have socially learned through daily interactions on the job. It's possible that this second interpretative community will overlap with the first. The giving tacit instructions on preferring certain sources and groups over others, being kind with some sources while being harsh with others. Through Zelizer's concept of double time, where reporters take into account both current-day localized meanings for occurrences and issues and a more general historical reference point that provides constant comparison between what has happened in the past and what is happening

in the present. These four reporting aspects are up against the interpretative communities of sources. When a situation arises or a problem is brought up, sources try to highlight one prevailing interpretation among the many alternatives. The main goal of corporate, governmental, and special interest sectors is to maintain and bolster their social position and power via interpretations that make their preferred meanings easier to accept (Berkowitz & TerKeurst, 1999). Adopting these interpretations does not always turn into a conscious or purposefully planned action for reporters or their sources. Instead, they become implicit understandings, with meanings developing through time as a result of group (and cross-group) interactions. Furthermore, these meanings are somewhat dynamic even though they often exhibit short-term stability. In these two contexts of meaning construction journalistic practice and source communities demonstrate how news content is not formed by the traditional idea of socially independent journalists serving as watchdogs or by transient conflicts between reporters and their sources. Journalists are instead accountable to four aspects of their interpretative community. Similar to this, news providers react to the favored interpretations they have learnt from existing inside their own rival interpretative communities.

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

Thus, it can be said that the fundamental connection between reporters and their sources is "portable," meaning that it occurs in all press systems, from the most authoritarian to the most libertarian, even if it takes on diverse forms Even when looking at the same issue, what may seem to be a certain amount of flexibility via one journalistic professional lens may appear to be fairly confined through another. Every time, journalists have the underlying conviction that they cannot just make up news and must instead depend on what they have been given by someone with a perceived position of authority.

For instance, while foreign affairs reporters in the Netherlands have a high degree of freedom from official sources because they are not under as much pressure to produce news, the relationship between reporters and officials is tightly regulated at Japanese Kasha clubs In contrast to the Netherlands, where reporters are effectively in control and subjective output is the acknowledged standard, news in Japan mostly consists of what officials say. Sources are paid by reporters in other systems, which is highly unethical for American journalists but is accepted as a part of the "envelope journalism" system by Mexican journalists (and those in several other countries) to subsidize their low wages in a way similar to restaurant waiters

Other comparisons draw attention to disparities that result from a fusion of society and professional cultures. For instance, although both groups expressed a similar concern for maintaining source confidentiality, American reporters were significantly less likely to negotiate with a source when compared to Israeli reporters in their responses to a series of fictitious scenarios). However, sources are not attempting to co-opt reporters through friendly interactions in Korea, according to several studies that have found that the relationship becomes more personal than is typical in the West (Berkowitz & Instead, this type of close friendship is an important part of Korean culture in general. A significant degree of synergy between political-economic elites and journalists working for local media was discovered in a study of Swedish/Danish media**.**

These instances point to certain international similarities in the reporter-source interaction, with minor and significant differences at the extra-media and society levels. On the authoritarian-libertarian spectrum, where equivalent degrees of reporters' agency define the relationship's bounds, are where the most obvious similarities exist. One stance to adopt when adapting research from one system to another is to claim that conclusions from one system cannot be applied to another, regardless of how similar they may seem. Adopting the idea of transferability, which identifies contextual and structural similarities and contrasts between two examples, and then modifies the findings from one to better inform the other, would be a second, more productive viewpoint. This second position steers clear of absolutist views that claim that not much can be transferred from one circumstance to another as well as reductionist approaches that ignore significant distinctions.Transferability and comparison have the benefit of making the important traits of each instance more prominently highlighted by the contrasting examples. For instance, comparisons of interpersonal connections between cultures may be utilized as a starting point to comprehend variations in the synergistic or conflictual levels between reporters and officials among systems. The influence that officials exert over reporters may also be highlighted in subtle and not-so-subtle ways by taking into account cultural perspectives on gender equality, particularly in light of the gender composition of the journalistic workforce.

Overall, the key to building a conceptual framework for new research and maintaining an awareness of the limits of interpretation when that current lens is subsequently used is to keep vigilant to the context of study on reporters and their sources. 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. Reporter-source interactions that include high-profile official sources often serve to legitimize or even reify the social order Manning, this happens because it is the responsibility of journalists to create news material that exudes factuality: reliable sources' assertions may be considered as fact, validating the news without the need for further investigation into the accuracy of that "fact. The subject of "Who gets a voice" pertains to the connection between the reporter and the source. That is, to what extent do media sources get information dominated by mainstream voices, and to what extent do women.

CONCLUSION

Finally, the development of journalists' sources and reporters is a reflection of the dynamic character of the industry as it adjusts to the needs of a constantly shifting information environment. The digital technology has ushered in a new era of journalism, moving away from the previous position of reporters as gatekeepers and toward their present function as facilitators of open debates. The variety of sources has expanded as a result of this change, moving away from being dominated by institutional authority and toward a varied group of

contributors, including citizen journalists and eyewitnesses. While this shift has democratized the sharing of information, it has also raised issues with the veracity of sources and the quality of the information. Journalists must carefully navigate this environment while keeping moral principles and journalistic integrity while using new sources and tools. The success of journalism depends on finding the correct equilibrium between fundamental values and cutting-edge prospects presented by the digital era.

REFERENCES:

[1] R. Araya *et al.*, "Kazakhstan gears up to launch social health insurance - Bull World Health Organ," *BMC Health Serv. Res.*, 2016.

[2] V. Prahassacitta, "Citizen Journalism in Cyber Media: Protection and Legal Responsibility Under Indonesian Press Law," *Humaniora*, 2017, doi: 10.21512/humaniora.v8i1.3695.

[3] W. R. Bishop, "Illiberal Reformers: Race, Eugenics and American Economics in the Progressive Era by Thomas C. Leonard," *Labour / Le Trav.*, 2016, doi: 10.1353/llt.2016.0079.

[4] G. Stobbe, *Just Enough ENGLISH GRAMMAR*. 2013.

[5] P. Sturges, "Corruption, transparency and a role for libraries," *Innovation*, 2009, doi: 10.4314/innovation.v37i1.42724.

[6] G. Brock, "The Leveson Inquiry: There's a bargain to be struck over media freedom and regulation," *Journalism*. 2012. doi: 10.1177/1464884912443495.

[7] I. Mergel, "OpenCollaboration in Public Sector: The case of social codign on Github," *Gov. Inf. Q.*, 2012.

[8] A. V. Shishkina, F. B. Beshukova, I. N. Khatkova, and R. S. Zhazhieva, "Mass media as a factor for the sense of justice formation in the Russian society," *Mediterr. J. Soc. Sci.*, 2015, doi: 10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n5s2p65.

[9] P. Bradshaw, "Online Journalism: The Essential Guide," *Digit. Journal.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/21670811.2014.987546.

[10] D. Goldberg, "Dronalism: Journalism, Remotely Piloted Aircraft, Law and Regulation," *FIU Law Rev.*, 2015, doi: 10.25148/lawrev.10.2.8.

CHAPTER 12

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON MORALITY OF NEWS JOURNALISM

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

ABSTRACT:

News reporting's morality is a complicated, multilayered topic with ethical issues at its center. Aspects of journalistic ethics that are important to this subject include honesty, impartiality, transparency, and the duty of journalists to serve the public interest. It becomes clear that upholding these ideals is difficult via a consideration of the moral conundrums that journalists encounter in the modern media environment.A kind of applied ethics known as journalism ethics is defined as an investigation of the proper conduct for journalists and news organizations in light of their social obligations. A subset of applied media ethics called journalism ethics looks at both the "macro" issues of what news organizations should do given their social responsibility and the "micro" issues of what certain journalists should do in specific circumstances. Because they are people who must adhere to general ethical principles like telling the truth and causing the least amount of harm, as well as because they are professionals with the social power to shape the political agenda and influence public opinion, journalists have rights, duties, and norms as members of news organizations.

KEYWORDS:

Journalism, Morality, Ethics, Truthfulness, Objectivity, Transparency, Responsibility, Digital Age.

INTRODUCTION

The principles of responsible journalism, or journalistic ethics, date back to the seventeenth century, when professional journalism first emerged in Europe. This chapter traces the development of modern journalism ethics, examines and critiques key paradigms, and makes recommendations for further research. The chapter starts with a perspective on ethics as a practical normative activity with the goal of resolving issues, integrating ideals, and assisting people in leading moral lives, both as individuals and as society. The use of graphic or changed imagery, anonymous sources, editorial independence, verification, and standards for new media are the key areas of contention [1][2]. The chapter discusses four current research techniques and five phases in the evolution of journalistic ethics.

First, in the seventeenth century, ethical speech for journalism was developed. The Fourth Estate, or the expanding newspaper press, of the Enlightenment public realm, had a "public ethics" as its ideology. Third, throughout the nineteenth century, the liberal press doctrine. Fourth, this liberal concept was developed and criticized during the 20th century, leading to an alternative ethics for interpretative and activist journalism as well as a professional ethics of objective journalism supported by social responsibility theory. Fifth, there is a lack of agreement in today's "mixed media" ethics on the rules that apply to all forms of media. Four theories—liberal theory, objectivity and social responsibility theory, interpretative theory, and an ethics of community and care are explained using these steps. The chapter then examines critiques of contemporary methods from a variety of academic fields, including sociology of culture and critical and post-colonial theory.

The chapter finishes by stating that a fundamental rethinking of journalistic ethics is necessary in light of the recent media revolution and these new challenges. For the multi-platform, international journalism of today and future, journalism ethics need a more robust theoretical foundation, a more suitable epistemology, and new standards. In light of the finest principles now accessible, ethics is the investigation, assessment, and advocacy of what constitutes right behavior and virtuous character. Ethics asks more than just "how should I live?" It poses the question of how we should live morally sound lives, that is, in kindness and right relationship with one another, a task that can include giving up personal gains, performing tasks, or facing persecution.

According to Ward (2007), ethical reasoning is the process by which individuals evaluate, weigh, and adapt their beliefs in light of new, new technologies, and new social circumstances. The limits of ethics shift. Animal cruelty, aggression against women, the environment, and gay rights are now included in the definition of ethics (Glover, 1999). The normative basis for social behavior is ethical reflection. The never-ending task of developing, putting into practice, and evaluating the moral principles that govern interpersonal relations, define social roles, and support institutional structures is known as ethics. As a result, ethics, particularly in journalism, is primarily a practical endeavor that looks for justifications for decisions on how to behave [3][4]. Is it moral for journalists to provide police access to their private sources? Is it moral to pry into a politician's personal life to look into allegations of wrongdoing? The theoretical study of the ideas and justification techniques that provide moral justifications for behavior is included in the field of ethics. However, there is also a practical goal at play here: to make ethical judgments more well-informed through improving deliberation and clarifying guiding principles. We are reassured that "the problems we have followed into the clouds are, even intellectually, genuine not spurious" by an emphasis on the practical in ethics.

Therefore, if an issue regarding journalism examines behavior in light of the basic public aims and social obligations of journalism, it is an ethical question as opposed to a matter of wisdom, tradition, or law. A narrative that sensationalizes the private life of a public figure may be ethically wrong because it is untrue and unjust, even if it is technically "safe" to print. But there isn't always a conflict between ethical ideals and other kinds of values. An ethical tale may be well-written, lawful, and career-enhancing [5][6]. What one considers to be an ethical issue in journalism ultimately relies on how one views the fundamental goals of journalism and the values that support those goals. As a result, there is opportunity for disagreement on the level of theory and principle as well as on the level of application of norms and practice.

There are five distinct phases in the development of journalistic ethics. The first phase of journalism's development was the creation of an ethical discourse throughout the 16 and seventeenth century in Western Europe. A periodic news press comprising "newssheets" and "news books" published under governmental supervision was first produced by printer-editors using Gutenberg's press in the middle of the fifteenth century. Editors promised readers that they presented the unbiased truth based on "matters of fact" notwithstanding the archaic methods of their news gathering and the politicized tenor of their era. The development of a "public ethic" as the tenet for the burgeoning newspaper press of the Enlightenment public sphere was the second stage. Journalists said that they served as the people's tribunes, defending their freedom against the government. They supported change, then ultimately revolution. The press was a force to be lauded or feared by the end of the eighteenth century, and the post-revolutionary constitutions of America and France included

guarantees of freedom. The Fourth Estate concept the press as one of society's governing institutionswas based on this civic ethic.

The development of the Fourth Estate concept into the liberal philosophy of the press throughout the nineteenth century was the third step. The foundation of liberal philosophy was the idea that a free and independent press was essential for safeguarding individual freedoms and advancing liberal change. The simultaneous growth and critique of this liberal theory during the twentieth century constituted the fourth stage. The criticism and the development were both in reaction to flaws in the liberal paradigm. The "developers" were journalists and ethicists who built an objective journalism professional ethics, supported by social responsibility theory. Objectivism attempted to control a free press that was becoming more sensational (or "yellow") and controlled by commercial interests.

Investigative reporting and activist (or advocacy) journalism are two examples of more interpretive, partial types of journalism that were undertaken by the "critics" of journalism, who criticized the limitations of objective professional reporting. By the late 1900s, when journalism reached its fifth stage, a period of "mixed media," it was facing several challenges to its liberal and impartial professional paradigm. In addition to the fact that more amateur citizen journalists and bloggers were doing journalism, these communicators were also using interactive multi-media that questioned the concepts of careful verification and gate-keeping. Because of this, there has been and still is controversy over the fundamental concepts of what journalism is and what journalists. We may better understand the four normative theories of the press that are now informing this fifth stage if we keep these phases in mind. Liberal theory, objectivity and social responsibility theory, interpretative theory and activist theory, and an ethics of community and care are the first four theories.

DISCUSSION

Even if simply to serve as a theory to be updated or challenged, liberal theory continues to serve as the foundation for contemporary conversations. From John Milton and David Hume to J. S. Mill and Thomas Paine, liberal press views were part of liberalism, a political reform movement for the growing middle. The goal of liberalism was to increase individual freedoms and eliminate the advantages associated with race and religion that characterized non-liberal, hierarchical society. In terms of economics, liberalism favored laissez-faire behavior; in terms of press philosophy, it favored a free exchange of ideas. Within certain parameters, Mill's On Liberty emphasized the advantages of freedom for both individuals and society (Mill, 1965). From the penny press to the mass commercial press of the late 1800s, this emerging liberalism provided the ethical worldview for both the elite liberal publications, like The Times of London, and the egalitarian popular press.

According to liberal doctrine, journalists should create a free press that educates the public and serves as a watchdog on governmental abuses of power. The liberal perspective is still used to support calls for a free press in opposition to media limitations such the censoring of objectionable viewpoints and the wrongful use of libel laws to prevent publication.3 Independence and Social Responsibilities As previously mentioned, the liberal theories of objectivism and social responsibility theory sought to address a growing sense of disappointment with the liberal expectation that an unchecked press would serve as a responsible educator of people on issues of public importance. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, that vision faded as a mass commercial press evolved into a news industry controlled by press barons.

One solution was to create the concept of an impartial news media with codes of ethics and other professional characteristics. In order to make the case that society permits professional

journalists to report freely in exchange for responsible coverage of important public problems, the liberal concept of a social contract. Objectivity was a prevailing ethical ideal for mainstream newspapers in the United States, Canada, and elsewhere from the early 1900s through the middle of the 20th century, while it was less well-liked in Europe [7][8]. Major journalistic organizations in the United States had by the 1920s developed formal standards that required neutrality in reporting, independence from industry and government influence, and a clear separation between news and opinion. As a consequence, a complex system of newsroom regulations were created to guarantee that journalists published.

The "proactive" and "restraining"4 concepts in professional codes of ethics were born out of the liberal social contract and were translated into more specialized norms, standards, and practices. According to proactive principles, journalists are required to report freely and without fear or favor on subjects of public importance, as well as to publish the most accurate and complete information possible. The main proactive elements of the majority of Western codes of ethics are to "seek truth and report it" and "act independently." Journalists are urged to use this freedom to publish in a responsible way by restraint norms. The need to "minimize harm" to tales' most vulnerable subjects, such as children or those who have experienced trauma, as well as the obligation to be transparent about editorial choices are examples of restraint principles.

The professional model encourages the application of concepts in a comprehensive, situational manner. Journalists are required to consider morals, ethics, facts, anticipated outcomes, rights, and the effect on their own reputations in each given circumstance. Journalists will have to choose which principle to follow when norms conflict, such as when telling the truth conflicts with the aim to limit damage, such as by not revealing a sensitive fact [9]. There are 299 cripples in order. Journalists are challenged by the ethical reasoning process to find a "reflective equilibrium" between their ideals and intuitions. The social responsibility idea, created by academics and journalists in the United States, was another liberal reaction. Societal responsibility theory emphasized these overlooked obligations whereas liberal philosophy acknowledged the notion of press responsibility and societal value.

The committee emphasized that the press's primary responsibilities included providing "a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent account" of the news and events as well as "a forum for the exchange of comment and criticism" in its report, A Free and Responsible Press. According to the Commission on Freedom of the Pres, the press should give "a representative picture of the constituent groups in society," help "present and clarify the goals and values of society," and "provide full access to the day's intelligence." Social responsibility advocates worried that government authorities may step in if journalism self-regulation failed. The concepts of social responsibility theory have "won global recognition over the last 50 years," including in European public broadcasting and as far away as Japan. Additionally, the theory continues to provide a foundational language for new ethical perspectives, such as communitarian and feminist theories, while also offering benchmarks by which press councils and the general public may assess media performance.

The history of interpretative journalism, which aims to explain the significance of events, and the tradition of activist journalism, which aims to change society, have both embraced the liberal ideal that a free press should enlighten people. Journalists, according to both interpretative and activist traditions, have a responsibility to be more than just fact-checkers. But this emphasis on a lively, biased press is nothing new. For the most of the history of modern journalism, journalists have been overtly partisan, and their reporting has been slanted in favor of political parties and their financial backers.

A less biased kind of interpretative journalism, on the other hand, emerged in the early 1900s and aimed to logically and objectively explain an ever-more complicated reality. For instance, Time magazine used Henry Luce's interpretative journalism as a template in the 1920s. Scholars, foreign reporters, and media groups recognized the necessity for educated interpretation of global events, wars, and economic catastrophes like the Great Depression to complement impartial reporting in the 1930s and beyond (MacDougall, 1957). Weekend summaries of the previous week's events, beat reporters, and interpretative columnists with bylines were all introduced by newspapers in the 1930s and 1940s. In the hands of broadcast journalists, literary journalists, and later internet journalists, this tradition of interpretative journalism would become stronger in the second half of the 20th century.

Activist journalists defined "informing the public" as questioning the existing quo, opposing wars, and advancing social causes beginning in the 1960s. Journalist activists worked to mobilize the public against wrongdoing in the public and private sectors as well as against unfair or foolish policies. The reform journalists of the late eighteenth century in England, as well as the revolutionary journalists in America and France, foreshadowed modern activist journalists. The muckraking magazine journalists in America during the first two decades of the 20th century and activist journalists have a lot in common (Filler, 1968; Applegate, 1997). American journalists promoted "civic journalism" in the 1990s, a modest reform of journalism that regarded the journalist as a catalyst for civic involvement (Rosen 1996).

Many journalists nowadays consider themselves to be a mix of an informant, an interpreter, and an advocate. Not all conventional ideals, including factual truth, are entirely abandoned. Although they reject neutrality, even the 300 WARD most outspoken muckraker or activist journalists declare that their stories are factually correct. They see facts as being part of interpretative narratives that lead to conclusions. What are its standards and tenets if objectivity is not the goal for interpretative and activist journalism?

Both strategies provide critiques of and rebuttals to liberal thought. Both strategies downplay the "pro-active" principles in favor of the "restraining principles" of reducing damage and taking responsibility. The communitarian and care views emphasize the influence of journalism on community ideals and caring relationships whereas the liberal approach emphasizes individual freedoms and rights. Several decades have seen a resurgence of communitarian ethical, legal, and political thought this is reflected in communitarianism in journalistic ethics. The common good and the social character of people are stressed by communitarians. They contend that in the face of diverse conceptions of the good, neither liberalism nor any other philosophy can be liberal, and that journalists should thus defend their community's adherence to core principles and ideals.

The primary importance of "humans-in-relation" is used by communitarian media ethicists like Clifford Christians to support their claim that the press's primary purpose is not to educate the public in a "thin" liberal manner about events and facts [10]. The fundamental purpose is to facilitate "civic transformation" via a deep, interpretative discourse with and among people Christians, the communitarian method is similar in spirit to feminist and other researchers' ideas of caring. A fundamental tenet of human flourishing is the cultivation of kind human connections. A care ethic "founded on notions of community rather than in the rights-based tradition" was advocated by feminists attacked Lawrence Kohlberg's theory on moral formation for disregarding gender.

An ethics of care makes an effort to control a news medium that is often indifferent to sources and story topics. A larger, richer media system that can and will take into account ideas like compassion, subjectivity, and need may arise, according to feminist academics who have

claimed that, as Jay Black has said. In issues involving journalism, such as the formulaic reporting of homicides in Canada and the United States, ethicists have applied an ethics of care. A significant growth in the empirical and theoretical understanding of journalistic practice and ethics serves as the foundation for all of these key approaches. In the last fifty years, there has been an incredible increase in the study of media and culture as well as the channels available for public discourse, including new societies and institutions for the in-depth study of journalism ethics and practice as well as new books, journals, and Web sites. The agenda-setting function of the media, audience theory, media economics and sociology, moral development among journalists, and the history of journalism are just a few of the active research areas pursued by academics in established academic departments of sociology Journals. Utilizing content analysis and other quantitative and qualitative social science techniques, publications like 301 and magazines often publish fresh case studies and surveys. These studies not only provide ethicists information, but they also broaden the conceptual foundation of journalism ethics as a field by situating discussions of standards and norms in a more comprehensive theoretical and critical context. The emergence of an international perspective to the study of journalism and media communication is particularly noteworthy.

The twin pillars of impartiality and truth served as the foundation for professional journalistic ethics. By the late 1800s, mass commercial newspapers had developed a strong empiricism, which Stephens described as a "veneration of the fact" due to their vigorous pursuit of the news. By the turn of the century, journalism societies, codes of ethics, and textbooks had made an effort to tame this ferocious empiricism by naming truth, impartiality, and social responsibility as guiding principles of the developing profession. The Enlightenment believed that if people were given the facts or information that was presented objectively, they would reasoned seek for the truth and be able to distinguish it from untruth and right from wrong. Traditional objectivity was at its height in North American mainstream broadsheet newspapers from the 1920s through the 1950s. The press theorist Theodore Peterson described objectivity as "a fetish" in 1956 since the idea was so ubiquitous. Due to emerging forms of journalism, cutting-edge technology, and shifting societal norms, the second half of the 20th century is a tale of challenge and fall.

Due to post-modern skepticism about objective reality and skepticism about the claims of profit-seeking news companies to be unbiased informers, the pillars of truth and objectivity suffer considerable damage. The issue of truth and objectivity in journalism, as well as the erosion of the conventional notion of news objectivity to the point that it is now a spent ethical force, must thus be addressed in any discussion of journalism ethics. Three different complaints have been made about news objectivity: First, impartiality is a "myth" because it is a standard for journalism that is overly rigorous. Second, even if it were feasible, objectivity requires authors to adopt constrained forms, which is undesirable. It fosters the publication of official information in a superfluous manner. Readers are not given analysis or interpretation. Objectivity disregards the press's other roles as a public watchdog, a commentator, and a political activist. Finally, objectivity limits the freedom of the press. A non-objective press where opinions compete in a marketplace of ideas is beneficial for a democracy.

Objectivity was troubled from the start. Early 1900s periodical muckrakers eschewed objectivity in reporting. More individualized kinds of media were produced with the introduction of television and radio. In the 1960s, objective specialists and detached media were viewed with suspicion by an adversarial culture that attacked institutions, opposed war, and championed civil rights. Other authors, such as Norman Mailer and Truman Capote, engaged in journalism that drew its inspiration from literature. In academia, the idea of

objective knowledge and objective science has been contested by philosophers, social scientists, and others. According to Thomas Kuhn's influential works, scientific change might be seen as an irrational "conversion" to a new set of ideas (Kuhn, 1962). Everything we know has been "socially constructed".The claim that objective knowledge is a "mirror of nature" was refuted by philosopher. Philosophical "metanarratives" vast historical tales that explain human experience.

The elusive nature of post-modernism is characterized by Butler as a "realism lost" in which individuals exist in a "society of the image" or "simulacra" (Butler, 2002). According to some media experts, objectivity is a corrupted corporate media orthodox. According to Martin Bell (Bell, 1998), journalism of "attachment" has replaced objectivity as the standard. The issues raised above were reiterated in the main piece, "Rethinking Objectivity," published in the Columbia Journalism Review. In a "manifesto for change" in journalism, a public policy institute in the United States underlined how standards like responsibility are becoming more significant while objectivity is becoming "less secure in the role of ethical touchstone. However, doubting the impartiality of journalists has not provided a solution to any significant ethical issues.

Three possibilities loom: "Return" to conventional objectivity in newsrooms; abandon objectivity and substitute other ideals; redefine objectivity. It is impractical to try to return to classical objectivity.It is not possible to give up objectivity without a suitable alternative. If journalism is an active investigation into the world that involves decisions about which information to include and how to interpret it, then a reform of news objectivity must demonstrate how a non-positivistic definition of objectivity is conceivable. The main question is: How can a news story be objective if it requires (at least some) interpretation? Redefining objectivity as the process of putting interpretations to the test is one alternative. According to this perspective, objectivity does not include stripping reports of all context or removing all opinion. Instead, objectivity is the application of a set of accepted standards relevant to a certain subject to the evaluation of journalistic pieces, which are seen as interpretations.Disillusionment with Western ideas of reason, universality, objectivity, and development is a typical starting point. "Post colonialism shares with postmodernism the engagement with the failure of modernity to live up to its own ideals and ambitions," argues Wasserman. Critical theories oppose efforts to impose a hegemonic Western system of beliefs and values on other cultures, particularly "neo-liberal" beliefs.

The effort to discuss universal principles is viewed with suspicion by some authors because it implies an "essentialism" that rejects "difference." From a critical standpoint, the liberalism on which professional journalism ethics are built has many of the same biases and limits. It is said that liberal press theory is based on masculine, Eurocentric, individualistic, and global Enlightenment philosophy. In the same way that journalism may spread Western propaganda, ethical discourse can also be a political act of power. Critical theories caution against using Western concepts to support imperialistic and "colonizing" goals. It begins with the idea that institutionalized knowledge and beliefs about topics like race, class, gender, sexuality, and the media are/were influenced by colonial forces. The misrepresentation of others has the potential to start conflicts, denigrate other cultures, and encourage unfair social institutions, which has the conclusion that media ethics should put greater attention on the portrayal of others. Such problems go beyond veracity of information.

CONCLUSION

The morality of news reporting is a complex, multifaceted subject with ethical concerns at its core. Honesty, objectivity, openness, and the obligation of journalists to serve the public

interest are all aspects of journalistic ethics that are crucial to this topic. The moral dilemmas that journalists face in the contemporary media landscape show how hard it is to preserve these standards.Some writers are skeptical of attempts to explore universal principles because they suggest a essentialism that despises difference. From a critical perspective, liberalism has many of the same biases and limitations with professional journalistic ethics. The masculine, Eurocentric, individualistic, and global Enlightenment worldview is claimed to be the foundation of liberal press theory.

REFERENCES:

[1]   T. Harcup, "The Universal Journalist," *J. Int. Commun.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/13216597.2017.1299777.

[2]   Z. Reich, "How Citizens Create News Stories," *Journal. Stud.*, 2008, Doi: 10.1080/14616700802207748.

[3]   V. Belair-Gagnon, C. Agur, and N. Frisch, "The Changing Physical and Social Environment of Newsgathering: A Case Study of Foreign Correspondents Using Chat Apps During Unrest," *Soc. Media Soc.*, 2017, doi: 10.1177/2056305117701163.

[4]   M. Broersma and T. Graham, "Social Media As Beat," *Journal. Pract.*, 2012, doi: 10.1080/17512786.2012.663626.

[5]   M. Saldaña, V. de M. Higgins Joyce, A. Schmitz Weiss, and R. C. Alves, "Sharing the Stage: Analysis of social media adoption by Latin American journalists," *Journal. Pract.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/17512786.2016.1151818.

[6]   Z. Reich, "How citizens create news stories: The 'news access' problem reversed," *Journal. Stud.*, 2008, doi: 10.1080/14616700802207748.

[7]   C. G. Artwick, "Reporters on twitter: Product or service?," *Digit. Journal.*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/21670811.2012.744555.

[8]   S. Menezes, "Science Training for Journalists: An Essential Tool in the Post-Specialist Era of Journalism," *Front. Commun.*, 2018, doi: 10.3389/fcomm.2018.00004.

[9]   R. Araya *et al.*, "Kazakhstan gears up to launch social health insurance - Bull World Health Organ," *BMC Health Serv. Res.*, 2016.

[10]   V. Prahassacitta, "Citizen Journalism in Cyber Media: Protection and Legal Responsibility Under Indonesian Press Law," *Humaniora*, 2017, doi: 10.21512/humaniora.v8i1.3695.

CHAPTER 13

DETERMINATION OF FINDING NEWS IN ACTION PROCESS: AN OVERVIEW

Shashikant Patil, Professor
Department of uGDX, ATLAS SkillTech University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India
Email Id- shashikant.patil@atlasuniversity.edu.in

ABSTRACT:

The way people discover breaking news has significantly changed in the digital age. The main factors and techniques used in news discovery are summarized in this abstract. It emphasizes how crucial keyword searches, social media tracking, and news aggregators are for finding pertinent news items. Additionally, the topic of AI and machine learning's involvement in tailored news suggestions is covered. To assure the quality and dependability of news material while traversing the digital news ecosystem, critical thinking, fact-checking, and source verification are crucial. It is underlined that media literacy is a vital ability for enabling people to discriminate between reliable sources and false information.A recollection or thought may be sparked by something seen on the way to work, a discussion had at a party, or something read in other media. You have to assess if the concept of the people gathering in the park merits further examination.

KEYWORDS:

Accuracy, AI, Critical Thinking, Digital Era, Fact-Checking, Information Accuracy, Media Literacy, Misinformation.

INTRODUCTION

The situation presented at the beginning of this chapter is typical of what journalists encounter. Journalists are used to judging an idea's newsworthiness as it comes to them, almost unconsciously. Many great thoughts have occurred to journalists while they were engaged in other activities. These are the "conversations" we hold with ourselves throughout the internal professional decision-making process."News sense" is the ability to identify the elements of a fact that might have news value but yet seeming uninteresting on their own. It entails figuring out how to include the audience in the narrative [1], [2]. It involves drawing links between information and events and speculating on audience responses. If you ask yourself the correct questions, developing news sense is really simple. You must first define your own stance, or point of view, before you can achieve that. Journalists always convey many interpretations, one of which is chosen and presented as being the "most appropriate" above the others.

Individual journalists and their editors in this situation have a significant impact on whether a dock strike is portrayed in the media as a defense of workers' rights or as a small group holding the public hostage. The journalist's vantage point from which they see the 'facts' develop influences how the 'truth' is presented Wilkins certain cultural values and professional standards are reflected in the news. They contend that the journalists' "nose for news" is an interpretation of news that has evolved as a result of their formal education and work experience discovered that adhering to professional definitions of news values may also function as a potent factor for conformity, that is, for coming to a consensus on the most important news of the day across an otherwise varied group of news providers [3], [4].The journalist finally decides if publishing the news is in the public interest by answering these questions. What the public is interested in is not the same as what is in the "public interest.

By providing information to an audience that they need or have a right to know, the public interest or public good is fulfilled. You must consider whether revealing the information may hurt somebody and if this harm is acceptable when determining whether something is in the public interest. You must first determine if utilizing material heard during a private discussion is appropriate before moving further. Consult your conscience first. How do you feel about the option you are thinking about? Will the participants in the chat be named could your use of their knowledge to your advantage do them harm? What emotions would you have if you were in their shoes? Next, consider: Is there another way to accomplish my goal without using the information in this instance, the information is a tip-off or an idea.

Would you be able to relate this narrative without the argument you overheard? Is conflict always newsworthy? Should you introduce yourself and let the people at the station know you overheard their conversation? Should you seek their approval before pursuing the idea further? If they reject you, what will you do? Are you fulfilling your duties to your audience and employer if you don't follow it up? Last but not least, have mental discussions with each party concerned and ask them, "How will my decision affect others?" If there is conflict in a public area, people have a right to know, your supervisor undoubtedly would remark. If the stated noise issues resolved, the nearby neighbors would benefit. One may presume that the complainants would refute the accusations, and that if the conversationalists were in the wrong, the parkers would want to be exonerated [5], [6].

You must take into account the social context of the claimed behavior before deciding if the news is in the public interest. Knowing how journalism works. While certain civilizations and groups are adamantly opposed to disruptions of the peace, others have a great tolerance for such behavior. Your judgments regarding the public interest may include the idea that locals have a democratic and legal right to privacy and to not be disturbed at night, depending on the prevalent social attitudes and legislation. You can come to the conclusion that because there are regulations prohibiting excessive noise, any criminal activity should be put an end to. You may alternatively draw the conclusion that the park is a public space where all residents have a legal right to feel secure and that if potentially harmful actions continue unchecked, someone may be hurt. The audience would feel more at ease knowing if the rumors are baseless if they know that this is a local story that is impacting individuals in the area who are part of the target audience.

You may determine that the story merits further investigation based on the conclusions you get from the discussion above. This choice raises a whole new set of issues that need to be resolved, and it is at this point that the reporter first uses the power of the media to define "the taken-for-granted world. "Each journalist is accountable for having knowledge, choosing which questions to ask, gathering responses, and assembling information with care to convey a true narrative about real people. The reason why a single reporter has so much influence is because they are the ones who interpret the news and instruct readers on what to believe. For this reason, before they can decide what questions to ask others, reporters need to be aware of what they understand.The journalist finally decides if publishing the news is "in the public interest" by answering these questions. What the public is interested in is not the same as what is in the "public interest." By providing information to an audience that they need or have a right to know, the public interest or "public good" is fulfilled.

You must consider whether revealing the information may hurt somebody and if this harm is acceptable when determining whether something is in the public interest. You must first determine if utilizing material heard during a private discussion is appropriate before moving further. Consult your conscience first. How do you feel about the option you are thinking about? Will the participants in the chat be named? Could your use of their knowledge to your

advantage do them harm? What emotions would you have if you were in their shoes? Next, consider: "Is there another way to accomplish my goal without using the information?" In this instance, the information is a tip-off or an idea. Would you be able to relate this narrative without the argument you overheard? Is conflict always newsworthy? Why? Should you introduce yourself and let the people at the station know you overheard their conversation? Should you seek their approval before pursuing the idea further?

Last but not least, have mental discussions with each party concerned and ask them, "How will my decision affect others?" If there is conflict in a public area, people have a right to know, your supervisor undoubtedly would remark. If the stated noise issues resolved, the nearby neighbors would benefit. One may presume that the complainants would refute the accusations, and that if the conversationalists were in the wrong, the parkers would want to be exonerated. You must take into account the social context of the claimed behavior before deciding if the news is in the public interest. Knowing how journalism works. While certain civilizations and groups are adamantly opposed to disruptions of the peace, others have a great tolerance for such behavior. Your judgments regarding the public interest may include the idea that locals have a democratic and legal right to privacy and to not be disturbed at night, depending on the prevalent social attitudes and legislation. You can come to the conclusion that because there are regulations prohibiting excessive noise, any criminal activity should be put an end to. You may alternatively draw the conclusion that the park is a public space where all residents have a legal right to feel secure and that if potentially harmful actions continue unchecked, someone may be hurt. The audience would feel more at ease knowing if the rumors are baseless if they know that this is a local story that is impacting individuals in the area who are part of the target audience [7], [8].

DISCUSSION

You may determine that the story merits further investigation based on the conclusions you get from the discussion above. This choice raises a whole new set of issues that need to be resolved, and it is at this point that the reporter first uses the power of the media to define "the taken-for-granted world. Each journalist is accountable for having knowledge, choosing which questions to ask, gathering responses, and assembling information with care to convey a true narrative about real people.By responding to these questions, the journalist ultimately determines whether or not publishing the news is in the public interest. The public's interests and what is "in the public interest" are not the same thing. When deciding if something is in the public interest, you must take into account whether disclosing the information may damage someone and whether this harm is acceptable.

Before continuing, you must decide whether using information learned during a private session is acceptable. First, check with your conscience. How do you feel about the alternative you are debating? Will the chat's participants be identified? Could you hurt them by using their expertise for your own gain? What feelings, if any, would you have if you were in their position? Next, ask yourself: "Is there another way I can achieve my goal that doesn't involve using the information?" Information in this case is a concept or a tip-off. Would you be able to recount this story if the dispute you overheard hadn't happened? Does conflict always make the news? Why? Should you make an effort to make small talk with the station patrons and let them know you overheard their conversation? Should you get their permission before moving forward with the idea?

What would you do if they were to reject you? If you don't do it, are you meeting your obligations to your audience and employer Finally, hold in-depth conversations with each person involved and ask them, "How will my decision affect others?" Your supervisor would

surely say that if there is dispute in a public space, the public has a right to know about it. The adjacent neighbors would gain if the noise problems were rectified. It seems to reason that the complainants would deny the charges and that parkers would want the conversationalists to be cleared of any wrongdoing. Before determining whether the information is in the public interest, you must take the social context of the alleged action into consideration. A working knowledge of journalism. Others have a high tolerance for such activity, whilst certain civilizations and organizations are vehemently against disturbances of the peace. Depending on the existing social attitudes and legal framework, your assessments of the public interest may include the notion that residents have a democratic and legal right to privacy and to not be bothered at night. You may draw the conclusion that because laws preventing excessive noise should be enforced, any unlawful conduct should be stopped. You may also infer that the park is a public area where everyone has a legal right to feel comfortable and that if potentially hazardous activities go unchecked, someone could be injured. If the audience is aware that this is a local issue that is affecting people in the neighborhood who are a part of the target audience, they will feel more at peace knowing if the rumors are unfounded [9]–[11].

Based on the insights you get from the debate above; you could decide that the story warrants additional examination. This decision brings up a whole new set of problems that need to be handled, and it is at this moment that the reporter leverages the influence of the media to define "the taken-for-granted world. To tell a truthful story about actual people, each journalist is responsible for possessing expertise, selecting which questions to ask, getting replies, and carefully putting material together. Because they are the ones who interpret the news and tell readers what to think, a single reporter has a great deal of power. Reporters need to be aware of what they understand and why before they can select what questions to ask others. You are mainly attempting to establish verifiable facts during the police interrogation, such as documented data regarding whether somebody has been charged with a crime. Do the police's findings corroborate the narrative you were pursuing? What is the police department's official stance on the claims, Quotes on the broader societal problem of public behavior may be found in interviews with specific police officers? If there have been any complaints of damage to the park or the hall, the other statutory authorities may confirm them. If the authority is aware of complaints regarding noise or other disruptions, officials may be able to confirm this information. This organization may also give information on any rules or limitations pertaining to hall rental.

The journalist must determine if sources are reliable as well. Once the media serves as a platform for their opinions, they will unquestionably come across as credible. Do certain sources, such 'official' ones, by nature have a higher degree of credibility than others You must be certain that you can back up all of the claims made and that your choice can be justified, if required, in court. You need to ask yourself again whether any information is being presumed to be "known" without being supported. When you're ready, ask yourself, "Is there a story here worth telling?" How that question is answered reflects all of the prior judgments made on the relative values connected to this particular narrative.

You have made judgments all along based on your knowledge of the target audience and the general good. You take into account the journalism ideals that your news company prioritizes in the workplace. When setting priorities, news organizations often have a certain audience in mind. Recognizing the ideals of news journalism. By offering a profile of news consumers' interests, demographic profiles created by market research firms are used to guide news content. This is accomplished by carrying out surveys on the target market's way of life. News outlets purchase the data so they may show advertisers that their message is likely to

reach the intended audience. The results of these surveys may also be used by editors to create a profile of their readers' interests, giving them information about whether their work matches the customers' views on the world.

The demographics of the neighborhood and the target audience of the media matter in the case of the parkgoers. The news value associated to public disturbances is lower when the park is located in an area of the city that is always bustling late into the night and where the majority of people are young and/or transitory than when the area is residential and home to senior citizens. If the target audience is known to be elderly, it may be anticipated that they would find public disturbance concerns more pressing than a younger group. The perspective you take on the complaints may be completely different if you are writing for a radio station that caters to young people.

The action at a nearby park is more relevant to the news organization's local audience than it would be to one that encompasses the whole metropolitan metropolis. A news outlet that caters to this readership would probably wait to post until there was more story value, such signs of a larger issue. You must once again weigh what you know against the public interest and the right to know in order to make a choice that can be trusted. In this situation, the choice is made by going back to the inquiries made during your first internal discussion of the narrative. Finally, you may determine whether your suggestion qualifies as news. There is one more factor to consider, regardless of the choice. If you add all the facts, consider whether or not this story may have inspired other tales. Even if you want to continue with the park tale, part of your job is to think about how the existing story may lead to further possible storylines.

For instance, the hypothetical situation at the park can spark a study into the costs that vandalism imposes on the neighborhood. How might a reporter go with this? What would be the ideal starting point? The similar circumstance can give rise to ideas regarding the variety of youth group facilities available in the neighborhood.

Whose opinion on this is the most credible? An inquiry into local drug usage or youth criminality might be the subject of a follow-up article on the park. In news journalism, "news in action" refers to the process of gathering information and disseminating it to the public. It includes a number of steps and procedures that reporters and news organizations use to guarantee that correct and pertinent information is gathered, checked, and effectively delivered to the public.

Here are some crucial elements of news reporting in action.

Verification: Journalists must confirm the veracity of the material they have acquired before publishing or airing a news article. Cross-referencing several sources, fact-checking, and getting confirmation from dependable sources are often included in this process.

Objectivity: News journalists make an effort to be objective in their reporting. They portray a story's facts objectively, without of prejudice or undue influence. A key rule of journalism is objectivity, which contributes to the ongoing credibility of news organizations. Journalists are bound by a code of ethics that emphasizes values like accuracy, fairness, and minimizing damage. They must weigh the possible effects of their reporting on people and communities before making moral choices.

Writing and editing: After collecting and confirming the facts, journalists craft clear, succinct, and interesting news reports. Before publishing or transmission, editors check the material for correctness, style, and grammar.

News Presentation: News organizations utilize a variety of media, such as articles, videos, podcasts, and live broadcasts, to deliver the news. They also take into account the multimedia and visual components that might improve the narrative process.

Timeliness: News that is provided on-time has the most value. To guarantee that major news are covered as promptly as possible, journalists must meet strict deadlines.

Engagement with the Audience: News organizations often interact with their audience on social media, through comment sections, and other venues. They could ask for criticism, respond to inquiries, and provide more context to their articles.

Technology: News journalism has changed as a result of technological development. Digital technologies are used by journalists for dissemination, reporting, and research. They also take into account the benefits and problems that social media and digital platforms provide.

Transparency: Some media outlets are open about how they get information, including details on how articles are crafted and sources are screened. The audience's trust may increase as a result of this openness.

Responsibility: Reporters and news organizations are responsible for their work. If mistakes are found, they could publish retractions or corrections, and their work is often the subject of public scrutiny.

Story Impact: Investigating how news stories affect society is another aspect of news in action. Journalists may check up on stories later to determine whether public opinion, legislative changes, or neighborhood initiatives were affected.

Choosing the information that will be delivered to the public as news from a variety of events may be the greatest power that journalists possess. Every choice to report is followed by a decision to disregard unimportant or uninteresting events. The public is also aware that news outlets don't provide entire coverage of the day's events, just selected highlights. Therefore, something's prominence in the public eye is unavoidably boosted when it is chosen for publishing.

Twenty years ago, it was advised that journalists choose their news with "objectivity," balancing their authority with their societal responsibilities. The problem is that although the idea of impartiality is devoid of values, judgments made by journalists are always prioritized according to values. No matter how intriguing a story is thought to be, true impartiality requires that it be published. When a professional value system is used to choose news, it should be judged on how essential it is to society, yet 'excellent' images nonetheless get dull articles published at the cost of significant ones. Being in commercial rivalry with one another, news providers must offer their content in an appealing manner. You have a routine of covering the local court's weekly session, and court reports are printed in the newspaper. The norm for your company is that instances are disclosed without bias or fear. You're taken aback to see the esteemed mayor's wife in court on this specific morning.

When you ask questions, you are informed that she is accused of stealing. You learn before the hearing that the mayor's wife has a mental disorder and wasn't aware of what she had done when she was caught snatching a cheap item. Due to mitigating factors, the court considers the charge established but does not record a conviction against the lady.

Will you write a narrative about it? How, if so?

It makes the case that in order for your package to be appealing, it must be unique and unusual. News articles often aim to elicit a reaction from the reader, whether it be one of

discovery, enlightenment, or something more visceral like wrath. This may result in a narrative style that focuses on conflict or drama.

Critics contend that since journalism is designed to serve markets, instead of offering a more accurate view of the world, the media instead offers one that satisfies and reassures the dominant group in society. The result is an atmosphere where journalists stop challenging or confronting audiences, unless it's about a topic where the public has a distinct opinion. While some journalists continue to work to shake up their audience's complacency, mainstream media often upholds the status quo and "mirrors" society. Minorities or anybody who questions the existing quo's universality is not newsworthy. Or, as a metropolitan daily editor said at a press conference after a string of pieces on homelessness were published, "I don't want any more stories about losers." None of our readers are losers. The ability of journalists to draw attention to ordinary people is just another way they wield tremendous influence. One may argue that by giving people in the public eye recurrent attention, the media develops public figures.

Of course, the media sometimes gives private people fame or public stature. Think about Monica Lewinsky, whose relationship with the US President became well known when it was revealed in 1998. The fact that the US President was associated with someone was unimportant, unless there was anything criminal about their affiliation, since the objective news value of that story was that he was suspected of behaving improperly and lying about it. Two years later, Miss Lewinsky's actions were still seen to have enough news value to warrant articles about her appearing in foreign media. Although she didn't seek out the spotlight or occupy any public position, it might be claimed that she has still become a public figure. The relative values used to choose news are significantly influenced by whether a person is a public or private figure. In certain nations, like the USA, a prominent personality has less legal protection for their privacy than someone who doesn't have a public profile.

The greatest authority that journalists have may be to decide what information from various events will be conveyed to the public as news. Following every selection to report, a decision to ignore unnecessary or boring occurrences is made. The general population is also aware that news organizations only cover a portion of the day's events, picking out just the most important ones. Therefore, when anything is selected for publication, its prominence in the public view is necessarily increased. Twenty years ago, it was recommended that journalists choose their news with "objectivity," weighing their power with their social obligations. The issue is that, despite the fact that the concept of impartiality is free of values, journalistic judgments are consistently emphasized in accordance with values. No matter how exciting a story is deemed to be, it must be published in order for it to be really objective. It should be determined by how important it is to society when a professional value system is used to choose news, yet 'great' photographs nonetheless get uninteresting pieces published at the expense of important ones. News providers need to present their material appealingly since they are in commercial competition with one another. This leads to a focus on scoops.

Are you going to write a story about it? If so, how?

It argues that your packaging must be distinctive and exceptional in order to be enticing. Whether it's one of discovery, enlightenment, or something more visceral like rage, news items often try to evoke a response from the reader.

This could lead to a narrative style that emphasizes drama or conflict. Critics claim that since journalism is intended to serve markets, the media instead provides a perspective of the world that appeases and reassures the dominant group in society rather than one that is more truthful.

CONCLUSION

Finding news about current events is, thus, a dynamic activity driven by developing media environments and technology breakthroughs. Making wise judgments in today's information-rich culture requires being educated and discriminating in this environment.The ability to choose whatever information from diverse events will be reported to the public as news may be the greatest power that journalists possess. Every choice to report is followed by a choice to disregard unimportant or uninteresting events. The general public is also aware that news media only report on the most significant occurrences of the day, leaving out the rest. Anything that is chosen for publishing will therefore become more prominent in the public eye. Court reports are published in the newspaper, and you have a routine of reporting the weekly session of the local court. Instances are often shared at your organization without prejudice or fear. The honorable mayor's wife showing up in court on this particular morning surprises you. You learn that she has been charged with theft when you inquire. Before the hearing, you find out that the mayor's wife suffers from a mental illness and wasn't conscious of her actions when she was caught stealing a cheap item. The court finds the charge to be substantiated but does not record a conviction against the woman due to mitigating circumstances.

REFERENCES:

[1]   J. Kleinnijenhuis, F. Schultz, S. Utz, and D. Oegema, "The Mediating Role of the News in the BP Oil Spill Crisis 2010: How U.S. News Is Influenced by Public Relations and in Turn Influences Public Awareness, Foreign News, and the Share Price," *Communic. Res.*, 2015, doi: 10.1177/0093650213510940.

[2]   P. Bradshaw, "Online Journalism: The Essential Guide," *Digit. Journal.*, 2015, doi: 10.1080/21670811.2014.987546.

[3]   W. Weber and H. M. Rall, "Authenticity in comics journalism. Visual strategies for reporting facts," *J. Graph. Nov. Comics*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/21504857.2017.1299020.

[4]   K. McIntyre, "How Current Law Might Apply to Drone Journalism," *Newsp. Res. J.*, 2015, doi: 10.1177/0739532915587294.

[5]   T. Harcup, "The Universal Journalist," *J. Int. Commun.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/13216597.2017.1299777.

[6]   M. Moritz and R. Streitmatter, "Unspeakable: The Rise of the Gay and Lesbian Press in America.," *J. Am. Hist.*, 1998, doi: 10.2307/2567370.

[7]   W. Mano, "Between citizen and vigilante journalism: ZimDaiIy's Fair Deal Campaign and the Zimbabwe crisis.," *Communicare;*, 2010.

[8]   R. Simon, "The social construction of crime in the Atlantic World: Piracy as a case study," *Int. J. Interdiscip. Soc. Sci.*, 2012, doi: 10.18848/1833-1882/CGP/v06i06/52104.

[9]   R. Araya *et al.*, "Kazakhstan gears up to launch social health insurance - Bull World Health Organ," *BMC Health Serv. Res.*, 2016.

[10]   V. Karnowski, L. Leonhard, and A. S. Kümpel, "Why Users Share the News: A Theory of Reasoned Action-Based Study on the Antecedents of News-Sharing Behavior," *Commun. Res. Reports*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/08824096.2017.1379984.

[11]   Z. Reich, "How citizens create news stories: The 'news access' problem reversed," *Journal. Stud.*, 2008, doi: 10.1080/14616700802207748.