

CULTURE AND COMMUNICATION

The term "culture" refers to the complex collection of knowledge, folklore, language, rules, rituals, habits, lifestyles, attitudes, beliefs, and customs that link and give a common identity to a particular group of people at a specific point in time.

All social units develop a culture. Even in two-person relationships, a culture develops over time. In friendship and romantic relationships, for example, partners develop their own history, shared experiences, language patterns, rituals, habits, and customs that give that relationship a special character—a character that differentiates it in various ways from other relationships. Examples might include special dates, places, songs, or events that come to have a unique and important symbolic meaning for two individuals.

Groups also develop cultures, composed of the collection of rules, rituals, customs, and other characteristics that give an identity to the social unit.

Where a group traditionally meets, whether meetings begin on time or not, what topics are discussed, how decisions are made, and how the group socializes are all elements of what, over time, become defining and differentiating elements of its culture.

Organizations also have cultures, often apparent in particular patterns of dress, layout of workspaces, meeting styles and functions, ways of thinking about and talking about the nature and directions of the organization, leadership styles, and so on.

The most rich and complex cultures are those that are associated with a society or a nation, and the term "culture" is most commonly used to refer to these characteristics, including language and language-usage patterns, rituals, rules, and customs. A societal or national culture also includes such elements as significant historical events and characters, philosophies of government, social customs, family practices, religion, economic philosophies and practices, belief and value systems, and concepts and systems of law.

Thus, any social unit—whether a relationship, group, organization, or society—develops a culture over time.

While the defining characteristics—or combination of characteristics—of each culture are unique, all cultures share certain common functions. Three such functions that are particularly important from a communication perspective are (1) linking individuals to one another, (2) providing the basis for a common identity, and (3) creating a context for interaction and negotiation among members.

The Relationship between Communication and Culture

The relationship between communication and culture is a very complex and intimate one. First, cultures are created through communication; that is, communication is the means of human interaction through which cultural characteristics—whether customs, roles, rules, rituals, laws, or other patterns—are created and shared. It is not so much that individuals set out to create a culture when they interact in relationships, groups, organizations, or societies, but rather that cultures are a natural by-product of social interaction. In a sense, cultures are the "residue" of social communication. Without communication and communication media, it would be impossible to preserve and pass along cultural characteristics from one place and time to another.

One can say, therefore, that culture is created, shaped, transmitted, and learned through communication. The reverse is also the case; that is, communication practices are largely created, shaped, and transmitted by culture.

To understand the implications of this communication-culture relationship, it is necessary to think in terms of ongoing communication processes rather than a single communication event. For example, when a three-person group first meets, the members bring with them individual thought and behavioral patterns from previous communication experiences and from other cultures of which they are, or have been, a part. As individuals start to engage in communication with the other members of this new group, they begin to create a set of shared experiences and ways of talking about them. If the group continues to interact, a set of distinguishing history, patterns, customs, and rituals will evolve. Some of these cultural characteristics would be quite obvious and tangible, such that a new person joining the group would encounter ongoing cultural "rules" to which they would learn to conform through communication.

Semiotics and communication

Semiotics is the science of communication and sign systems, in short, of the ways people understand phenomena and organize them mentally, and of the ways in which they devise means for transmitting that understanding and for sharing it with others. Although natural and artificial languages are therefore central to semiotics, its field covers all non-verbal signalling and extends to domains whose communicative dimension is perceived only unconsciously or subliminally. Knowledge, meaning, intention and action are thus fundamental concepts in the semiotic investigation of phenomena.

Research into sign systems began with the ancient Greeks, and in the course of Western history many writers and scholars have studied the various processes by means of which signification is produced. In the modern world the major areas which have been the object of semiotic study are literature, environmental and social structures, visual arts, ritual, myth, and gesture. Consequently, semiotics is very much an interdisciplinary science as germane to Anthropology as it is to English, to Philosophy as it is to Art History, to sport as it is to media studies.

Spiral of silence theory:

The spiral of silence theory is a political science and mass communication theory proposed by the German political scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann, which stipulates that individuals have a fear of isolation, which results from the idea that a social group or the society in general might isolate, neglect, or exclude members due to the members' opinions. This fear of isolation consequently leads to remaining silent instead of voicing opinions. Media is an important factor that relates to both the dominant idea and people's perception of the dominant idea. The assessment of one's social environment may not always correlate with reality

According to Shelly Neill, "Introduced in 1974, the Spiral of Silence Theory explores hypotheses to determine why some groups remain silent while others are more vocal in forums of public disclosure. The spiral of silence theory suggests that "people who have believed that they hold a minority viewpoint on a public issue will remain in the background where their communication will be restrained; those who believe that they hold a majority viewpoint will be more encouraged to speak

The theory explains the formation of social norms at both the micro and macro level. "As a micro-theory, the spiral of silence examines opinion expression, controlling for people's predispositions – such as fear of

isolation, and also demographic variables that have been shown to influence people's willingness to publicly express opinions on issues, such as agricultural biotechnology. The spiral of silence occurs on a macro level if more and more members of the perceived minority fall silent. This is when public perceptions of the opinion climate begin to shift. "In other words, a person's individual reluctance to express his or her opinion, simply based on perceptions of what everyone else thinks, has important implications at the social level." As one opinion gains the interest of the majority, the minority faces threat and fear of isolation from society. As the opinion gains momentum by the majority, the minority continues to be threatened and falls deeper into their silence. It continues until the minority no longer speaks out against it, and the opinion of the perceived majority ultimately becomes a social norm.

The spiral model is an analogy used to visually describe the theory. The end of the spiral refers to the number of people who are not publicly expressing their opinions, due to the fear of isolation. An individual is more likely to go down the spiral if his or her opinion does not conform with the perceived majority opinion. The following steps summarize how the process works:

We can distinguish between fields where the opinions and attitudes involved are static, and fields where those opinions and attitudes are subject to changes... Where opinions are relatively definite and static – for example, "customs" – one has to express or act according to this opinion in public or run the risk of becoming isolated. In contrast, where opinions are in flux, or disputed, the individual will try to find out which opinion he can express without becoming isolated.

Individuals who, when observing their environments, notice that their own personal opinion is spreading and is taken over by others, will voice this opinion self-confidently in public. On the other hand, individuals who notice that their own opinions are losing ground will be inclined to adopt a more reserved attitude when expressing their opinions in public.

It follows from this that, as the representatives of the first opinion talk quite a lot while the representatives of the second opinion remain silent, there is a definite influence on the environment: an opinion that is being reinforced in this way appears stronger than it really is, while an opinion suppressed as described will seem to be weaker than it is in reality.

The result is a spiral process which prompts other individuals to perceive the changes in opinion and follow suit, until one opinion has become established as the prevailing attitude while the other opinion will be pushed back and rejected by everybody with the exception of the hard core that nevertheless sticks to that opinion.

This is a process of formation, change and reinforcement of public opinion. The tendency of the one to speak up and the other to be silent starts off a spiraling process which increasingly establishes one opinion as the dominant one. Over time, these changing perceptions establish one opinion as predominant one and they change from the liquid state to a solid norm.

Further, Noelle-Neumann describes the spiral of silence as a dynamic process, in which predictions about public opinion become fact as mass media's coverage of the majority opinion becomes the status quo, and the minority becomes less likely to speak out.

The critics of this theory most often claim that individuals have different influences that affect whether they speak out or not.

Research indicates that people fear isolation in their small social circles more than they do in the population at large. Within a large nation, one can always find a group of people who share one's opinions, however people fear isolation from their close family and friends more in theory. Research has demonstrated that

this fear of isolation is stronger than the fear of being isolated from the entire public, as it is typically measured

Scholars have also argued that both personal characteristics and various culture among different groups will have influences on whether a person will willingly speak out. If one person "has a positive self-concept and lacks a sense of shame, that person will speak out regardless of how she or he perceives the climate of public opinion." Another influence critics give for people choosing not to speak out against public opinion is culture. Open expression of ideas is forbidden in some of the cultures. Some cultures are more individualistic, which would support more of an individual's own opinion, while collectivist cultures support the overall group's opinion and needs. Gender can be also considered as a cultural factor. In some cultures, women's "perception of language, not public opinion, forces them to remain quiet." Scheufele & Moy, further assert that certain conflict styles and cultural indicators should be used to understand these differences.

Communication (from Latin *communicare*, meaning "to share" is the act of conveying meanings from one entity or group to another through the use of mutually understood signs, symbols, and semiotic rules.

The main steps inherent to all communication are:

The formation of communicative motivation or reason.

Message composition (further internal or technical elaboration on what exactly to express).

Message encoding (for example, into digital data, written text, speech, pictures, gestures and so on).

Transmission of the encoded message as a sequence of signals using a specific channel or medium.

Noise sources such as natural forces and in some cases human activity (both intentional and accidental) begin influencing the quality of signals propagating from the sender to one or more receivers.

Reception of signals and reassembling of the encoded message from a sequence of received signals.

Decoding of the reassembled encoded message.

Interpretation and making sense of the presumed original message.

The scientific study of communication can be divided into:

Information theory which studies the quantification, storage, and communication of information in general;

Communication studies which concerns human communication;

Biosemiotics which examines communication in and between living organisms in general.

The channel of communication can be visual, auditory, tactile (such as in Braille) and haptic, olfactory, electromagnetic, or biochemical.

Human communication is unique for its extensive use of abstract language. Development of civilization has been closely linked with progress in telecommunication.

Non verbal communication describes the processes of conveying a type of information in the form of non-linguistic representations. Examples of nonverbal communication include haptic communication,

chronemic communication, gestures, body language, facial expressions, eye contact, and how one dresses. Nonverbal communication also relates to the intent of a message. Examples of intent are voluntary, intentional movements like shaking a hand or winking, as well as involuntary, such as sweating. Speech also contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage, e.g. rhythm, intonation, tempo, and stress. It affects communication most at the subconscious level and establishes trust. Likewise, written texts include nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, the spatial arrangement of words and the use of emoticons to convey emotion.

Nonverbal communication demonstrates one of Paul Watzlawick's laws: you cannot not communicate. Once proximity has formed awareness, living creatures begin interpreting any signals received. Some of the functions of nonverbal communication in humans are to complement and illustrate, to reinforce and emphasize, to replace and substitute, to control and regulate, and to contradict the denotive message.

Nonverbal cues are heavily relied on to express communication and to interpret others' communication and can replace or substitute verbal messages. However, non-verbal communication is ambiguous. When verbal messages contradict non-verbal messages, observation of non-verbal behaviour is relied on to judge another's attitudes and feelings, rather than assuming the truth of the verbal message alone.

There are several reasons as to why non-verbal communication plays a vital role in communication:

"Non-verbal communication is omnipresent." they are included in every single communication act. To have total communication, all non-verbal channels such as the body, face, voice, appearance, touch, distance, timing, and other environmental forces must be engaged during face-to-face interaction. Written communication can also have non-verbal attributes. E-mails and web chats allow an individual's the option to change text font colours, stationary, emoticons, and capitalization in order to capture non-verbal cues into a verbal medium.

"Non-verbal behaviours are multifunctional." Many different non-verbal channels are engaged at the same time in communication acts and allow the chance for simultaneous messages to be sent and received.

"Non-verbal behaviours may form a universal language system." Smiling, crying, pointing, caressing, and glaring are non-verbal behaviours that are used and understood by people regardless of nationality. Such non-verbal signals allow the most basic form of communication when verbal communication is not effective due to language barriers.

Verbal communication is the the spoken or written conveyance of a message. Human language can be defined as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammars (rules) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" also refers to common properties of languages. Language learning normally occurs most intensively during human childhood. Most of the thousands of human languages use patterns of sound or gesture for symbols which enable communication with others around them. Languages tend to share certain properties, although there are exceptions. There is no defined line between a language and a dialect. Constructed languages such as Esperanto, programming languages, and various mathematical formalism is not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages.

As previously mentioned, language can be characterized as symbolic. Charles Ogden and I.A Richards developed The Triangle of Meaning model to explain the symbol (the relationship between a word), the referent (the thing it describes), and the meaning (the thought associated with the word and the thing).

The properties of language are governed by rules. Language follows phonological rules (sounds that appear in a language), syntactic rules (arrangement of words and punctuation in a sentence), semantic rules (the agreed upon meaning of words), and pragmatic rules (meaning derived upon context).

The meanings that are attached to words can be literal, or otherwise known as denotative; relating to the topic being discussed, or, the meanings take context and relationships into account, otherwise known as connotative; relating to the feelings, history, and power dynamics of the communicators.

Contrary to popular belief, signed languages of the world (e.g., American Sign Language) are considered to be verbal communication because their sign vocabulary, grammar, and other linguistic structures abide by all the necessary classifications as spoken languages. There are however, nonverbal elements to signed languages, such as the speed, intensity, and size of signs that are made. A signer might sign "yes" in response to a question, or they might sign a sarcastic-large slow yes to convey a different nonverbal meaning. The sign yes is the verbal message while the other movements add nonverbal meaning to the message.

Normative media theories:

Media theory refers to the complex of social-political-philosophical principles which organize ideas about the relationship between media and society. Within this is a type of theory called 'normative theory', which is concerned with what the media ought to be doing in society rather than what they actually do. In general, the dominant ideas about the obligations of mass media will be consistent with other values and arrangements in a given society. According to Siebert et al (1956) in their book *Four Theories of the Press*, "the press takes on the form and coloration of the social and political structures within which it operates". The press and other media, in their view, will reflect the "basic beliefs and assumptions that the society holds". In the western liberal tradition, this refers to matters such as freedom, equality before the law, social solidarity and cohesion, cultural diversity, active participation, and social responsibility. Different cultures may have different principles and priorities.

Although normative theory of the press is now in a considerable state of uncertainty (see Nerone, 1995), not least because of changes in the media and the rise of new media forms, we can still identify certain broad traditions of thought about the rights and responsibilities of media in society and the degree to which 'society' may legitimately intervene to protect the public interest. The main relevant variants can be described as follows:

Authoritarian theory (which applies to early pre-democratic forms of society and also to present-day undemocratic or autocratic social systems). In this view, all media and public communication are subject to the supervision of the ruling authority and expression or opinion which might undermine the established social and political order can be forbidden. Although this 'theory' contravenes rights of freedom of expression, it can be invoked under extreme conditions.

Free press theory (most fully developed in the United States of America, but applying elsewhere) proclaims complete freedom of public expression and of economic operation of the media and rejects any interference by government in any aspect of the press. A well-functioning market should resolve all issues of media obligation and social need.

Social responsibility theory (found more in Europe and countries under European influence) is a modified version of free press theory placing greater emphasis upon the accountability of the media (especially broadcasting) to society. Media are free but they should accept obligations to serve the public good. The means of ensuring compliance with these obligations can either be through professional self-regulation or public intervention (or both).

Development media theory (applying in countries at lower levels of economic development and with limited resources) takes various forms but essentially proposes that media freedom, while desirable, should be subordinated (of necessity) to the requirements of economic, social and political development.

Alternative media theory. From a social critical perspective the dominant media of the established society are likely to be inadequate by definition in respect of many groups in society and too much under the control of the state and other authorities or elites. This type of theory favours media that are close to the grass-roots of society, small-scale, participative, active and non-commercial. Their role is to speak for and to the social out-groups and also to keep radical criticism alive.

Often, the media system of a given country will have a mixture of theoretical elements and media types, displaying neither absolute freedom nor absolute subordination to the state or ruling power. Hallin and Mancini (2004) have argued that we should forget about normative theories and look more closely at actual arrangements connecting media with society. They propose a typology of relations between the media system and the political system, based on a comparative examination of contemporary national societies. In this view there are three types or variants, each with different implications for the role and obligations of the media in society:

a Liberal model in which the media operate according to the principles of the free market; without formal connections between media and politics and with minimal state intervention;

a Democratic Corporatist model in which commercial media coexist with media tied to organized social and political groups and the state has a small but active role;

a Polarized Pluralist model, with media integrated into party politics, weaker commercial media and a strong role for the state.

As with the theories outlined previously, these models are also 'ideal types' and in practice societies have a mixture of the elements outlined. Public service broadcasting is found in two forms in the second and third models as, respectively, either a neutralized and politically impartial organization or as politicized in some way, usually with division in terms of the political spectrum. In the fully Liberal model, there may be little or no place for public service broadcasting.

The public sphere (German Öffentlichkeit) is an area in social life where individuals can come together to freely discuss and identify societal problems, and through that discussion influence political action. Such a discussion is called public debate and is defined as the expression of views on matters that are of concern to the public—often, but not always, with opposing or diverging views being expressed by participants in the discussion. Public debate takes place mostly through the mass media, but also at meetings or through social media, academic publications and government policy documents. The term was originally coined by German philosopher Jürgen Habermas who defined "the public sphere as a virtual or imaginary community which does not necessarily exist in any identifiable space". Communication scholar Gerard A. Hauser defines it as "a discursive space in which individuals and groups associate to discuss matters of mutual interest and, where possible, to reach a common judgment about them"] The public sphere can be seen as "a theater in modern societies in which political participation is enacted through the medium of talk"] and "a realm of social life in which public opinion can be formed".

Describing the emergence of the public sphere in the 18th century, Jürgen Habermas noted that the public realm, or sphere, originally was "coextensive with public authority", while "the private sphere comprised

civil society in the narrower sense, that is to say, the realm of commodity exchange and of social labor".] Whereas the "sphere of public authority" dealt with the state, or realm of the police, and the ruling class or the feudal authorities (church, princes and nobility) the "authentic 'public sphere'", in a political sense, arose at that time from within the private realm, specifically, in connection with literary activities, the world of letters. This new public sphere spanned the public and the private realms, and "through the vehicle of public opinion it put the state in touch with the needs of society" "This area is conceptually distinct from the state: it [is] a site for the production and circulation of discourses that can in principle be critical of the state."[] The public sphere "is also distinct from the official economy; it is not an arena of market relations but rather one of the discursive relations, a theater for debating and deliberating rather than for buying and selling". These distinctions between "state apparatuses, economic markets, and democratic associations...are essential to democratic theory". The people themselves came to see the public sphere as a regulatory institution against the authority of the state. The study of the public sphere centers on the idea of participatory democracy, and how public opinion becomes political action.

The ideology of the public sphere theory is that the government's laws and policies should be steered by the public sphere and that the only legitimate governments are those that listen to the public sphere.] "Democratic governance rests on the capacity of and opportunity for citizens to engage in enlightened debate". Much of the debate over the public sphere involves what is the basic theoretical structure of the public sphere, how information is deliberated in the public sphere, and what influence the public sphere has over society.

Agenda-setting theory describes the "ability (of the news media) to influence the importance placed on the topics of the public agenda". With agenda setting being a social science theory, it also attempts to make predictions. That is, if a news item is covered frequently and prominently, the audience will regard the issue as more important. Agenda-setting theory was formally developed by Max McCombs and Donald Shaw in a study on the 1968 American presidential election. In the 1968 "Chapel Hill study", McCombs and Shaw demonstrated a strong correlation coefficient ($r > .9$) between what 100 residents of Chapel Hill, North Carolina thought was the most important election issue and what the local and national news media reported was the most important issue. By comparing the salience of issues in news content with the public's perceptions of the most important election issue, McCombs and Shaw were able to determine the degree to which the media determines public opinion. Since the 1968 study, published in a 1972 edition of *Public Opinion Quarterly*, more than 400 studies have been published on the agenda-setting function of the mass media, and the theory continues to be regarded as relevant. Studies have shown that what the media decides to expose in certain countries correlates with their views on things such as politics, economy and culture. Countries that tend to have more political power are more likely to receive media exposure. Financial resources, technologies, foreign trade and money spent on the military can be some of the main factors that explain coverage inequality.

Agenda-setting can be traced to the first chapter of Walter Lippmann's 1922 book, *Public Opinion*. In that chapter, "The World Outside And The Pictures In Our Heads", Lippmann argues that the mass media are the principal connection between events in the world and the images in the minds of the public. Without using the term "agenda-setting", Walter Lippmann was writing about what we today would call "agenda-setting". Following Lippmann, in 1963, Bernard Cohen observed that the press "may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about. The world will look different to different people," Cohen continues, "depending on the map that is drawn for them by writers, editors, and publishers of the paper they read. As early as the 1960s,

Cohen had expressed the idea that later led to formalization of agenda-setting theory by McCombs and Shaw. The stories with the strongest agenda setting influence tend to be those that involve conflict, terrorism, crime and drug issues within the United States. Those that don't include or involve the United State and politics associate negatively with public opinion. In turn, there is less concern.

Although Maxwell McCombs already had some interest in the field, he was exposed to Cohen's work while serving as a faculty member at UCLA, and it was Cohen's work that heavily influenced him, and later Donald Shaw. The concept of agenda setting was launched by McCombs and Shaw during the 1968 presidential election in Chapel Hill, North Carolina. They examined Lippmann's idea of construction of the pictures in our heads by comparing the issues on the media agenda with key issues on the undecided voters' agenda. They found evidence of agenda setting by identifying that salience of the news agenda is highly correlated to that of the voters' agenda. McCombs and Shaw were the first to provide the field of communication with empirical evidence that demonstrated the power of mass media and its influence on the public agenda. The empirical evidence also earned this theory its credibility amongst other social scientific theories.

A relatively unknown scholar named G. Ray Funkhouser performed a study highly similar to McCombs and Shaw's around the same time the authors were formalizing the theory.] All three scholars – McCombs, Shaw, and Funkhouser – even presented their findings at the same academic conference. Funkhouser's article was published later than McCombs and Shaw's, and Funkhouser doesn't receive as much credit as McCombs and Shaw for discovering agenda setting. According to Everett Rogers, there are two main reasons for this.] First, Funkhouser didn't formally name the theory. Second, Funkhouser didn't pursue his research much past the initial article. Rogers also suggests that Funkhouser was geographically isolated at Stanford, cut off from interested researchers, whereas McCombs and Shaw had got other people interested in agenda setting research.

The Limited Effects theory was proposed by Austrian–American sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld. The theory states that even if there is an effect created by the media on the thoughts and opinions of individuals; this effect is minimal at best or limited. Mc Quail while tracing the history of research in media effects has pointed out four distinct theory eras. In the first era, which ended around the 1930s, media researchers proposed an all seeing, all influential media that directly influenced people's thoughts, opinions and attitudes. Its power was final and immediate – something best represented by the 'Magic Bullet Theory/ The Hypodermic needle model.'

The profile of an average media consumer was one of a disassociated member of society who was easily susceptible to an all-powerful, omnipresent entity whose messages/dictates were uniformly consumed by all.

During the 1950s and 1960s however, when multiple studies in various methodologies were unable to find proof to substantiate the notion that the media produced an 'overwhelming effect' on its consumers; researchers started looking at alternate interpretations of media cause and effect.

The second era of theories directly challenged the all-powerful notion about the media and countered that the media could not be considered as a 'pied piper' but rather as a reinforcer/endorser of pre-existing ideas, attitudes and opinions. Unlike what was the belief up to then, the limited effects theory gave more credit to a person's ability to control what he saw, learnt or opined, while consuming the media. It also posited the media's influence was not direct but rather functioned through an interconnected web of mediating factors.

The main difference between the first two eras was that while the 'Magic Bullet' era of theorists questioned how the media affected individuals, the second era focused more on asking one other question – 'How did people use the media?' The media, therefore, was analyzed as both a dependent and independent variable. The media was no longer viewed as a single stimulus that induced effect; rather the focus was on its role in a natural setting among various other variables.

The profile of an average media consumer was also changed. He/she was considered to be an active consumer who was well interconnected, far from being a disassociated member of society. He/she was a self-determinant who picked what they consumed and what they discarded/rejected. Often what an individual chose was in line with their existing beliefs and value system (essentially selective perception).

Joseph Klapper who reviewed hundreds of media studies in his work 'The Effects of Mass Communication (1960),' concluded the same and pointed out that media could no longer be viewed as an agent of change but could best be termed as a reinforcer or sustainer of existing thoughts and ideas. Control, therefore, was in the hands of the audience and not with the media.

Beginnings of the Theory – US Presidential Elections 1940 : Paul Lazarsfeld systematic and empirical study of US voters enabled him to classify them into three categories: converts, wavers and crystallizers. His findings showed that interpersonal influence was much stronger than that of the mass media. This realization helped him conceive and later develop the 'Limited Effects Theory.'

The main players in this theory are a) Media b) Gate Keepers c) Opinion Leaders c) Opinion Followers. The flow of information moves in this above order and gets massively filtered and reinterpreted by the time it reaches the opinion follower.

Lazarsfeld credits the elite high and educated class to be the primary gatekeepers and consumers of media whose biases affect how and what information gets redistributed among those who consume media at much lower levels. Opinion leaders especially lessened or mitigated media effects through their discussions and interpretations of mass media messages with their peers.

By the time adulthood is reached, people have their own perceptions and opinions that are independent of the media. Therefore, their peers and social institutions in general influence people more. The influence of opinion leaders in particular far outweighs that of the media.

Further support for their limited effects paradigm was provided by other studies about the effects of the media. For example, in one study by Carl Hovland, he found that soldiers, who viewed motivational/training films during a series of controlled experiments, were not affected by what they viewed. Rather at an individual level, there were various independent factors (mediating/ intervening variables) that affected their attitudes or motivation levels.

Criticism for the Theory : Post the introduction of this theory, researchers found that further studies could not neatly substantiate or prove that all media effects were limited. Rather, the level of media influence ranged from moderate to high and varied under different conditions. Especially when it comes to framing opinions, later theories do give media some level of credit.

Additionally, the level of media penetration in society is much higher than what it was in the 1940s -1970s. Media is more pervasive and other agents of socialization (mediating/intervening variables) like religion, education and family are weakening.

Many theorists have come up with alternate interpretations of mass media effects. One among them Marshall McLuhan's Sense Expectation Theory posits that media effects are culturally induced and are medium specific – how a person uses and interacts with a medium can determine the level of effect. Theorists therefore, believe that unlike what Lazarsfeld proposed that media was only a reinforce there were other roles being played by the media as well.

Today the approach to testing media effects does not rely solely on any specific school of thought but is rather a combination of two or more theories

Cultivation theory examines the long-term effects of television. "The primary proposition of cultivation theory states that the more time people spend 'living' in the television world, the more likely they are to believe social reality aligns with reality portrayed on television." The images and ideological messages transmitted through popular television media heavily influence perceptions of the real world.

Cultivation theory was founded by George Gerbner and is positivistic, meaning it assumes the existence of objective reality and value-neutral research. A study conducted by Jennings Bryant and Dorina Miron in 2004, which surveyed almost 2,000 articles published in three top mass-communication journals since 1956, found that Cultivation Theory was the third-most frequently utilized theory, showing that it continues to be one of the most popular theories in mass-communication research.

Definition: Cultivation theory suggests that exposure to media, over time, subtly "cultivates" viewers' perceptions of reality. Gerbner and Gross assert: "Television is a medium of the socialization of most people into standardized roles and behaviors. Its function is in a word, enculturation".] Within his analysis of cultivation, Gerbner draws attention to three entities—institutions, messages, and publics.

Though most researchers tend to focus on television as it is the most common form of media consumption in the world, Cultivation Theory has been shown to encompass many different forms of media, such as newspapers, film, and even photographs. This can apply anytime social observation occurs in any form outside a natural environment.

Initial research on the theory establishes that concern regarding the effects of television on audiences stem from the unprecedented centrality of television in American culture. Gerbner posited that television as a mass medium of communication had formed into a common symbolic environment that bound diverse communities together, socializing people into standardized roles and behaviors. He thus compared the power of television to that of religion, stating television was to modern society what religion once was in earlier times. Thus, Gerbner's research focused on the larger meaning of heavy television consumption instead of the meaning behind specific messages.

The Encoding/decoding model of communication was first developed by cultural studies scholar Stuart Hall in 1973. Titled 'Encoding and Decoding in the Television Discourse', Hall's essay offers a theoretical approach of how media messages are produced, disseminated, and interpreted.[As an important member of the Birmingham School of Cultural Studies, Hall had a major influence on media studies. His model claims that television and other media audiences are presented with messages that are

decoded, or interpreted in different ways depending on an individual's cultural background, economic standing, and personal experiences. In contrast to other media theories that disempower audiences, Hall proposed that audience members can play an active role in decoding messages as they rely on their own social contexts, and might be capable of changing messages themselves through collective action.

In simpler terms, encoding/decoding is the translation of a message that is easily understood. When you decode a message, you extract the meaning of that message in ways that make sense to you. Decoding has both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication: Decoding behavior without using words means observing body language and its associated emotions. For example, some body language signs for when someone is upset, angry, or stressed would be a use of excessive hand/arm movements, red in the face, crying, and even sometimes silence. Sometimes when someone is trying to get a message across to someone, the message can be interpreted differently from person to person. Decoding is all about the understanding of what someone already knows, based on the information given throughout the message being received. Whether there is a large audience or exchanging a message to one person, decoding is the process of obtaining, absorbing, understanding, and sometimes using the information that was given throughout a verbal or non-verbal message.

For example, since advertisements can have multiple layers of meaning, they can be decoded in various ways and can mean something different to different people.

Communication noise refers to influences on effective communication that influence the interpretation of conversations. While often looked over, communication noise can have a profound impact both on our perception of [social interaction|interactions] with others and our analysis of our own communication proficiency.

Forms of communication noise include psychological noise, physical noise, physiological and semantic noise. All these forms of noise subtly, yet greatly influence our communication with others and are vitally important to anyone's skills as a competent communicator.

1. Psychological noise results from preconceived notions we bring to conversations, such as racial stereotypes, reputations, biases, and assumptions. When we come into a conversation with ideas about what the other person is going to say and why, we can easily become blinded to their original message. Most of the time psychological noise is impossible to free ourselves from, and we must simply strive to recognize that it exists and take those distractions into account when we converse with others.

2. Environmental noise is the summary of noise pollution from outside, caused by transport, industrial and recreational activities.

3. Physical noise is any external or environmental stimulus that distracts us from receiving the intended message sent by a communicator (Rothwell 11). Examples of physical noise include: others talking in the background, background music, a startling noise and acknowledging someone outside of the conversation.

4. Semantic noise: This is noise caused by the sender. i.e., the encoder. This type of noise occurs when grammar or technical language is used that the receiver (the decoder) cannot understand, or cannot understand it clearly. It occurs when the sender of the message uses a word or a phrase that we don't know the meaning of, or which we use in a different way from the speakers. This is usually due to the result that the encoder had failed to practice audience analysis at first. The type of audience is the one that determine the jargon one will use.

The ritual view of communication is a communications theory proposed by James W. Carey, wherein communication—the construction of a symbolic reality—represents, maintains, adapts, and shares the beliefs of a society in time. In short, the ritual view conceives communication as a process that enables and enacts societal transformation.

Carey defines the ritual view particularly in terms of sharing, participation, association, and fellowship. In addition, Carey acknowledges that, commonness, communion, and community, naturally correspond with the ritual view. In a similar way, the term "ritual" holds religious connotations. For Carey, this connection to religion helps to emphasize the concept of shared beliefs and ceremony that are fundamental to the ritual view.

In contrast to the ritual view, James W. Carey presents what he considers the more commonly recognized transmission view of communication. In the transmission view the dissemination of information constitutes the primary goal. James W. Carey defines the transmission view in terms of imparting, sending, transmitting and giving information to others. In the transmission view information is disseminated across geography largely for the purpose of control. To support this idea, James W. Carey refers to the messaging systems of ancient Egypt wherein, "transportation and communication were inseparably linked" and served as a method of control.

Where James W. Carey seemingly presents these two views as oppositional, he acknowledges that the dichotomy is false. He states, "neither of these counterpoised views of communication necessarily denies what the other affirms". Instead, they offer a nuanced perspective of communication that enables a broader understanding of human interaction.

Reception theory is a version of reader response literary theory that emphasizes each particular reader's reception or interpretation in making meaning from a literary text. Reception theory is generally referred to as audience reception in the analysis of communications models. In literary studies, reception theory originated from the work of Hans-Robert Jauss in the late 1960s, and the most influential work was produced during the 1970s and early 1980s in Germany and the US (Fortier 132), with some notable work done in other Western European countries. A form of reception theory has also been applied to the study of historiography.

The cultural theorist Stuart Hall was one of the main proponents of reception theory, first developed in his 1973 essay 'Encoding and Decoding in the Television Discourse'. His approach, called the encoding/decoding model of communication, is a form of textual analysis that focuses on the scope of "negotiation" and "opposition" by the audience. This means that a "text"—be it a book, movie, or other creative work—is not simply passively accepted by the audience, but that the reader/viewer interprets the meanings of the text based on her or his individual cultural background and life experiences. In essence, the meaning of a text is not inherent within the text itself, but is created within the relationship between the text and the reader.

Hall also developed a theory of encoding and decoding, Hall's theory, which focuses on the communication processes at play in texts that are in televisual form.

Reception theory has since been extended to the spectators of performative events, focusing predominantly on the theatre. Susan Bennett is often credited with beginning this discourse. Reception theory has also been applied to the history and analysis of landscapes, through the work of the landscape

historian John Dixon Hunt, as Hunt recognized that the survival of gardens and landscapes is largely related to their public reception.

Media and democracy

A democracy is a system of government in which all the people of a country can vote to elect their representatives. Media came into existence around the 1780s with the introduction of newspapers, and since then it has matured by leaps and bounds. It has played a very important role in shaping human minds.

Media have a big role in contributing to the economic and political development of citizens in any country in the world. It creates a broad range of information and communication to stimulate citizens on the various developmental issues in their country. Media is an important factor in promoting democracy and the rule of law only if it will be given the opportunity of freedom of expression and to deliver messages to the people without being oppressed or intimidated by the authorities of the respective countries or any entities that have the authority to prevent information from the people. Prevention of access to information to citizens is a violation of human rights.

A free country requires its citizens to get information and communication on the development issues of their respective countries, to promote democracy, good governance and law enforcement. Media is the key to removing citizens from the poorest of poverty and putting them into the economic development. Press freedom of media is depriving democracy in the respective countries.

Media plays a crucial role in shaping a healthy democracy. It is the backbone of a democracy. Media makes us aware of various social, political and economical activities happening around the world. It is like a mirror, which shows us or strives to show us the bare truth and harsh realities of life.

The media has undoubtedly evolved to become more active over the years. It is through the media that politicians are reminded about their unfulfilled promises at the time of elections. The excessive coverage by T.V. news channels during elections helps people, especially illiterates, in electing the right person to the power. This reminder compels politicians to abide by their promises in order to remain in power. Television and radio have made significant achievements in educating rural illiterate masses and making them aware of all the events that are taking place in their language. Coverage of exploitative malpractices of village heads and moneylenders has helped bring stringent actions upon them by attracting the government's attention.

The media also exposes the loopholes in the democratic system, which ultimately helps the government to fill the vacuums of these loopholes and to make the system more accountable, responsive and citizen-friendly. A democracy without media is like a vehicle without wheels. Media has a very big role to play in a democracy and its stature is in no way less than that of politicians. Hence it is rightly called the fourth Pillar of democracy i.e. Fourth Estate. It is through media that people become aware of so many aspects of life of which they are normally ignorant. Democracy is meaningless without a free, neutral and active media. Media is often

referred to as the fourth branch of government because of the power they wield and the oversight function they exercise.

Public participation: The importance of popular participation in democracy is that in many countries where there's no democracy true participation is difficult to maintain because the movement for participation can be "hijacked by opportunist politicians who use it to project themselves into influential positions. essential to democracy, requires exposing the truth, with stated and enforced consequences for violating the rules, without exception, even for those in power. The lack of accountability in Africa has led to the gross misuse of public resources. For example, single party systems in Africa do not allow for much in the way of accountability. The effect has been rampant corruption and the deterioration of socioeconomic conditions an indication that people in Africa were governed without being able to control their governors.

THE Importance of MEDIA: Media helps to disseminate education for citizens to educate them on various issues including national matters, legislative, constitutional rights, political rights, economic issues, cultural and policies issues. Media educating citizens to gain information and communication if there's major violation of human rights, democratic oppression and misconduct and law enforcement.

Media is an important link between governments and citizens, political parties and citizens but also helps build economy and achieve the objectives of the industrial economy, MDGs and SDGs 2030 Agenda.

Conclusion: Media act as a catalyst for democracy and development, helping to make public participation meaningful .If media is honest and committed in its job, democracy is bound to function more efficiently and the loopholes present in any democratic system can certainly be plugged to the fullest satisfaction of the people. On the contrary, if media is biased, corrupt and favours only a particular party or few individuals, it can prove to be very dangerous for the smooth functioning of democracy. No one can become perfect and one can only strive to become so. The same holds true for our media also. Certainly there is still a lot of scope for improvement by which the media can rise upon the aspirations of the people for which it is primarily meant.

Freedom of expression

Right to express one's ideas and opinions freely through speech, writing, and other forms of communication but without deliberately causing harm to others' character and/or reputation by false or misleading statements. Freedom of press is part of freedom of expression.

Media consumption: Media diet is the sum of information and entertainment media taken in by an individual or group. It includes activities such as interacting with new media, reading books

and magazines, watching television and film, and listening to radio. An active media consumer must have the capacity for skepticism, judgement, free thinking, questioning, and understanding.

Penny press newspapers were cheap, tabloid-style newspapers mass-produced in the United States from the 1830s onwards. Mass production of inexpensive newspapers became possible following the shift from hand-crafted to steam-powered printing. Famous for costing one cent while other newspapers cost around 6 cents, penny press papers were revolutionary in making the news accessible to middle class citizens for a reasonable price.

As the East Coast's middle and working classes grew, so did their desire for news. Penny papers emerged as a cheap source of news with coverage of crime, tragedy, adventure, and gossip. The penny papers represented the crudest form of journalism because of the sensational gossip that was reported.

The penny press was most noted for its price - only one cent per paper - while other contemporary newspapers were priced around six cents per issue. The exceptionally low price popularized the newspaper in America, and extended the influence of the newspaper media to the poorer classes. The penny press made the news and journalism more important, and also caused newspapers to begin to pay more attention to the public they served. Editors realized that the information that interested the upper class did not necessarily interest the penny-paying public. These new newspaper readers enjoyed information about police and criminal cases. The main revenue for the penny press was advertising while other newspapers relied heavily on high priced subscriptions to finance their activities.

The idea of a penny paper was not new in the 1830s. By 1826, many editors were experimenting with sports news, gossip, and a cheap press.

Most newspapers in the early nineteenth century cost six cents and were distributed through subscriptions. On July 24, 1830, the first penny press newspaper came to the market: Lynde M. Walter's Boston Transcript. Unlike later penny papers, Walter's Transcript maintained what was considered good taste, featuring coverage of literature and the theater. This paper sold for four dollars a year. The penny paper's largest inspiration came from Charles Knight's The Penny Magazine (1832–1845). The main purpose of this magazine was to educate and improve England's poor, but it was also very popular with Americans. It became a very successful magazine as it attained a circulation of more than 20,000 within a year.

Benjamin Day took the lead in profoundly transforming the daily newspaper. The newspaper went from narrowly focusing on the wealthy, with sparse distribution, to a broad-based news medium. These changes were seen mostly in New York City, Brooklyn, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore and other East Coast cities. Day introduced The Sun, which appealed to a wide audience, using a simpler, more direct style, vivid language, and human interest stories. Day was a New Englander who worked for the Springfield, Massachusetts paper, the Republican. He came to New York to be a compositor, but in the depression of 1833 he started The Sun out of desperation. Day reasoned

that a penny paper would be popular in hard times as many could not afford a six-cent paper. He also believed that a substantial, untapped market existed in the immigrant community. His paper was an instant success. Its motto, printed at the top of every page, was "The object of this paper is to lay before the public, at a price within the means of every one, all the news of the day, and at the same time offer an advantageous medium for advertisements. Day made advances in written news by introducing a new meaning of sensationalism, which was defined as 'reliance on human-interest stories'. He placed emphasis on the common person as he or she was reflected in the political, educational, and social life of the day. Day also introduced a new way of selling papers by putting into practice the London Plan. This plan included newsboys hawking their newspapers on the streets.

The success of the penny papers was not automatic; selling the new concept of the newspaper to this new audience involved some persuasion. Consumers did not want to buy a new newspaper every day, and it was a challenge to convince them of the benefits of doing so. Most newspapers at the time did not have any sort of timeliness, so buying a newspaper daily seemed pointless to readers. But, eventually people became interested in reading the latest news which the penny papers strived to provide.

New media: Are forms of media that are native to computers, computational and relying on computers for redistribution. Some examples of new media are telephones, computers, virtual worlds, single media, website games, human-computer interface, computer animation and interactive computer installations.

New media are often contrasted to "old media", such as television, radio, and print media, although scholars in communication and media studies have criticised rigid distinctions based on oldness and novelty. New media does not include television programs (only analog broadcast), feature films, magazines, books, unless they contain technologies that enable digital generative or interactive processes.

Wikipedia, an online encyclopedia, is a good example of New Media, combining Internet accessible digital text, images and video with web-links, creative participation of contributors, interactive feedback of users and formation of a participant community of editors and donors for the benefit of non-community readers. Facebook is another type of New Media, belonging to the category of social media model, in which most users are also participants. Another type of New Media is Twitter which also belongs to the social media category, through which users interact with one another and make announcements to which the public receive. Both Facebook and Twitter have risen in usage in recent years and have become an online resource for acquiring information.

Ten Principles of Clear Writing (Robert Gunning):

1. Keep sentences short, on the average. Sentences must vary in length if the reader is to be saved from boredom.
2. Prefer the simple to the complex. Zinsser wrote: ‘The secret to good writing is to strip every sentence to its cleanest form.’
3. Prefer the familiar word. The Element of Style says, “Avoid the elaborate, the pretentious, the coy and the cute.”
4. Avoid unnecessary words.
5. Put action into your verbs. Use the active voice
6. Write the way you talk. Avoid formal, stilted language. Be specific.
7. Use terms your reader can capture. Explain jargons.
8. Tie in with your reader’s experience. A statement cut off from context is a ‘figure’ that simply floats about.
9. Make full use of variety. Work toward and nurture a style you find comfortable with.
10. Write to express, not to impress. Inform readers, that’s all.

Flesch Formula – a readability index

The Flesch Formula is a readability index. Its score ranges from zero to 100. The higher the score, the easier the text is to read and understand.

Below you can see four Flesch Formula scores and what they tell us:

100 = The passage is extremely easy to read and understand.

65 = The passage is relatively easy to read and understand.

30 = The passage is difficult to read and understand.

0 = The passage is extremely difficult to read and understand.

According to Flesch, short words and sentences are easier to read and understand than long ones.

Tabloid journalism: Also known as rag newspaper, is a style of journalism that emphasizes sensational crime stories, gossip columns about celebrities and sports stars, extreme political views and opinions from one perspective, junk food news, and astrology. Although it is associated with tabloid-size newspapers, not all newspapers associated with tabloid journalism are tabloid size, and not all tabloid-size newspapers engage in tabloid journalism; in particular, since about 2000 many broadsheet newspapers converted to the more compact tabloid format. Tabloid journalism often concerns itself with rumors about the private lives of celebrities. In some cases, celebrities have successfully sued for libel, demonstrating that tabloid stories have defamed them.

Notable publications engaging in tabloid journalism include the National Enquirer, and Globe in North America; and the Daily Mail, Daily Express, Daily Mirror, Daily Star, Daily Record, Sunday Mail, The Sun, and the former News of the World in the United Kingdom.

NEWSPAPER GLOSSARY

A

Advertisement (or Ad) - Printed notice of something for sale paid for by the advertiser.

Angle- The approach or perspective from which a news fact or event is viewed, or the emphasis chosen for a story.

Short for news angle, it is that aspect of a story which a journalist chooses to highlight and develop.

Usually the most newsworthy of its key points. Also called hook or peg.

Art - Any photo, map graph or illustration.

Assignment - A story a reporter is given to cover.

Associated Press Stylebook (or AP Stylebook)- The standard reference source for reporters and editors on word usage, libel, numbers, titles, capitalization and commonly used words and phrases. Standard reference source for journalists on word usage and spelling, including names in the news.

Advertorial: An advertisement written in the style of a news item or feature, often provided by the publisher to complement adverts sold on that page. Ethically, advertorials should be clearly identified as such.

Advocacy journalism: A type of journalism in which journalists openly and intentionally takes sides on issues and express their opinions in reporting. It attempts to be factually based and is not to be confused with badly-practised objective journalism or propaganda.

Assignment: A job given to a journalist by an editorial supervisor, such as a news editor.

Attribute: To identify who said something, either as a quote or as reported speech. Attribution is important to maintain credibility.

B

Banner - A headline stretching across the top of a page.

Beat - A reporter's regular assignment, for covering news like sports or music. A specialist area of journalism that a reporter regularly covers, such as police or health. See also round.

Bleed- An illustration filling one or more margins and running off the edge of the page or border; used frequently in magazines and advertisements.

Body Copy - The main part of a story. Written material, known as copy, that makes up the main body of an article rather than headlines, standfirst and captions.

Body Type- Type used in stories, not in headlines; generally under 12-point size; opposite of display type.

Box - Refers to type that is framed in a border to give it prominence.

Break - Initial news coverage of an event.

Budget - The lineup of news stories scheduled for the next day's newspaper.

Bumped Heads- Similar headlines running side by side that create monotony and the tendency to read across.

Byline - The writer's name, printed at the beginning of an article. The line above the story, which gives the author's name and sometimes their job and location (known as the dateline).

Background: Information which is not part of the news event but which helps to explain more about the situation and the story.

Balance: A basic journalism principle of giving both sides of an argument in a fair way so readers or listeners can make up their own mind.

Banner: A headline stretching across the width of a page, usually at the top. Also called a streamer.

Blob: A bullet point in type, used in text layout to list points or to make a separate point at the end of a story.

Blockline: A caption for a photograph.

Blurb: Brief information about the writer, usually either at the top or bottom of the article.

Body Type: The style of newspaper type used in the body of a story, not in headlines, where it is called display type.

Box: The solid frame put around a print story to give it prominence. (2) The short article inside the box frame, often associated with some aspect of a major story on the same page. Also called a breakout. See also sidebar.

Break: A story that is first published while the event is still happening. Sometimes called breaking news.

Broadsheet: A large format newspaper, usually measuring at least 56 cm (22 inches) long. Also used to describe more serious, less sensational styles of newspaper journalism. Compare with tabloid.

C

Camera-ready- Refers to anything that is in its finished form - no further changes are needed before it is published in the paper.

Caption- Headline or text accompanying a picture or illustration; also called a cutline. Short pieces of text placed below or beside pictures to describe them and identify the photographers and/or owners. A brief description of a photograph or graphic.

Circulation- The total number of copies of a publication distributed to subscribers and vendors in one day.

Clip Art- A variety of art provided to newspapers on a subscription basis, for use in ads.

Column- The arrangement of horizontal lines of type, usually 10 to 14 picas wide, in a news story; also, an article appearing regularly written by a particular writer or "columnist."

Columnist - A person who writes a regular column giving a personal opinion.

Copy - All material for publication, whether written stories or pictures.

Copy Editor- The person who corrects or edits copy written by a reporter and writes headlines.

Copyediting - Correcting, improving and marking copy to be printed.

Cover - To gather information and get facts for a story.

Chief Reporter: The most senior reporter in a newsroom. In larger newsrooms, may be called a news editor.

Chief Of Staff: A senior journalist in a newsroom who assigns stories to reporters and organises and monitors how they do their work. Often second-in-command to a news editor.

Chief Sub: Short for chief sub-editor. The person in charge of sub-editors, who assigns work to down-table subs.

Churnalism: Journalism that churns out rewrites of media releases.

Circulation: Number of copies sold by newspapers and magazines. See ABC, The Audit Bureau of Circulations.

Classified Ads: Small newspaper advertisements usually paid for by individuals or small businesses and grouped under different classifications, e.g. houses, cars etc.

Clip: A cutting of a newspaper story.

Clippings: Also known as clips or cuttings. Saved copies of published articles, traditionally cut or clipped from the newspaper or magazine itself. Often kept in a clippings library or cuttings library.

Closed Question: A question which can be answered with a simple 'Yes' or 'No'. Contrast with open questions, which require longer, more involved answers. 'Can you tell me?' is a closed question. 'What can you tell me?' is an open question.

Colour: Extra details in a story which help the reader or listener get a fuller picture of what has happened or what a person is like.

Column: (1) In typography, a column is a vertical block of text on a page, separated by margins and/or rules. (2) A regular feature often on a specific topic, written by a person known as a columnist.

Column Centimetre Or Column Inch: A measurement of text based on the length of a single standard column of type in a specific newspaper or magazine. Also called a single column centimetre (SCCM).

Conflict of interest: When a journalist allows something with which he or she has a personal stake to interfere with their duty to be fair and objective in covering a story. For example, having shares in a company could make a finance reporter say uncritically good things to boost that company. Conflicts of interest can be real or perceived. Even perceived conflicts of interest should be declared openly.

Contact: A person a reporter will visit or telephone (i.e. 'contact') for information on a topic they are researching. Contacts are usually sources journalists keep in touch with and approach for information on a regular basis.

Contacts book: A book which lists people a journalist knows may be useful, together with their telephone numbers, email addresses, fax numbers, addresses, or whatever other information is needed to contact them.

Contempt of court: Disregarding a court's orders or in any way interfering with the way the court does its job.

Copy: Written material for publication. In broadcasting also called a script.

Copy Editor: A person on a newspaper or magazine who corrects or edits copy written by a reporter, writes headlines and places the story on a page. The copy editor ensures the text flows, makes sense, is fair and accurate, and poses no legal problems. Also called a sub-editor.

Copyreader: A person who checks typeset proofs and/or computer printouts to detect errors such as spelling mistakes and bad punctuation before the final printing of a publication. Also called a proof reader.

Copyright: The legal right to control the use of a literary, musical, dramatic or artistic work, more specifically by making or using copies of that work.

Copy Taster: A senior sub-editor who looks at incoming copy and decides what will be used.

Copywriting: Writing the text for advertisements.

Correspondent: A journalist who writes from a position of expertise, either in a subject matter or geographical area, e.g. arts correspondent or European correspondent.

Cover Line (or coverline): A caption on a magazine cover.

Cover Story: The most important story featured on the front cover of a magazine, often by an illustration.

Credit Line: Text next to or following a story or picture acknowledging its source.

Crop: To cut unwanted portions from a photograph for publication.

Crosshead: A word or phrase in larger type used to break up long columns of text. Crossheads often use a fragment of a strong quote from later in the article.

Cub: Old-fashioned term for a trainee journalist. Also known as a rookie.

Curtain Raiser: Story written before a predicted event, setting the scene for when it happens. Often used at the start of an election campaign, sporting competition or season etc.

Cuttings Job: An article written using mainly material from other articles, with little or no original input by the writer. A shoddy or lazy form of journalism.

Centre Spread: Running across centre two pages.

Crosshead: bolded/large text that breaks up a long story.

D

Dateline- The line at the beginning of a story giving the place and date of the articles origination.

Deadline - A time at which all copy for an edition must be submitted. The time the editor or producer sets by which the reporter must submit a finished story.

Death-Knock: An assignment in which a reporter calls at the home of a bereaved relative or friend when gathering information about a death. Also known as door-stepping.

Deck: (1) The number of rows in a headline. (2) A sub head(line) below the main headline, describing a key part of the story. See also sub head.

Defamation: To say something bad about a person which does them harm. Also called libel and slander.

Deck - A "bank" or section of a headline.

Dummy- A preliminary layout of a newspaper page, showing the placement of stories, headlines, pictures and advertisements.

Direct Quote: The exact words used by a person, written within quotation marks and usually attributed to them.

Door-stepping: To turn up at a person's home or place of work without warning or prior arrangement to get an interview. Door-stepping implies the person may be reluctant to speak and may be confronting.

Downtable Sub: A sub-editor who works under the direction of more senior sub-editors, preparing copy for publication or broadcast.

Drop Intro: Also called a delayed intro. A style of intro writing in which the main key point is not mentioned until the second or third sentence. Used for effect, often in humorous stories.

E

Edit: To prepare raw material - such as text or recorded vision - for publication or broadcast, checking aspects such as accuracy, spelling, grammar, style, clarity etc. See also sub-editor.

Ears- Space at the top of the front page on each side of the newspaper's name where ads, weather news, index to pages or announcement of special features appears.

Edition- The issue for one press run: home edition, state edition, final home edition, extra. A newspaper or magazine printed in a single run of the presses. It may be changed for different purposes, e.g. country edition, city edition, final edition etc.

Editor- A person who directs the editorial policies; or a person who decides what news will go in the paper and where it will appear. (1) The person - usually a journalist - in charge of the editorial

content and direction of a newspaper, magazine or other news outlet. (2) A person in charge of a special section of news output, e.g. sports editor, political editor etc. See also news editor.

Editorial- An article expressing the opinion of the newspaper regarding a certain subject. An article written by, or on behalf of, an editor, giving the news organisation's opinion on an issue.

editorial cartoon: A cartoon which appears on the editorial page, commenting on a current controversy.

editorial conference: A meeting of senior editorial managers and staff to plan the day's coverage.

editorialise: A derogatory description for writing in an opinionated manner.

editorial page: A page where the newspaper or magazine's editorial (1) is printed, often with letters to the editor. Also called an opinion page.

embargo: Limitation on the earliest time when a news item given to a journalist can be published or broadcast, usually a date.

end or ends: Typed at the end of copy to signify the end of the article and there is no more to come. See also "more".

endnote: A paragraph in a different type after the end of an article giving additional information about the writer or – the case of a review – the publication or performance details.

Em- Unit of measuring column widths. An em (for the letter M) is a square of any given size of type, and is most frequently used as the unit in measuring "pica" (the width of an em in 12-point type).

Exclusive - A story printed by only one paper; a scoop.

F

fact: Something which is true and can be proved to be true by objective methods. Compare with opinion.

fairness: In journalism, fairness requires not favouring one viewpoint over another in collecting and presenting news and opinion. Different viewpoints are presented accurately, even those with which the journalist personally disagrees.

feature: A longer article or radio story, usually in greater depth and complexity than a simple news item. Features may grow from a current news event or simply be examining a timeless issue. Features which are not strongly connected to hard news events are often called soft features.

flatplan: Traditionally a sheet of paper showing the proposed layout of items such as stories and adverts on a newspaper or magazine page or double spread.

Face - The style of type.

Feature- A story in which the interest lies in some factor other than the news value, usually to entertain.

Filler- Short informational stories or advertisements, usually timeless, used to fill small spaces where needed.

Flag- The printed title (i.e., name and logo) of a newspaper at the top of the front page.

Folio- Newspaper name, date and page number that appear at the top of each page. Top label for the whole page. Can relate to the area covered in the paper ie National or a big news topic ie Social media, Libya.

follow-up: A story which is written to report new or more detailed information on a story which has already been published or broadcast.

font: In printing, a set of characters - letters, numbers and punctuation marks - of a single size and style of a particular typeface.

G

General Assignment - A reporter who covers a variety of stories rather than a single "beat."

Gutter - The space between columns or margins between facing pages. A vertical margin of white space where two pages meet

get: A very good or exclusive interview.

graf: Mainly US, short for a paragraph of text, which may also be known as a par.

gutter journalism: A derogatory term for media which use sensational reporting without concern for the harm it will do individuals.

H

Hard News - Factual news stories without opinion. Immediate and factual accounts of important events or developments. Compare with soft news.

Headline - The title of an article. (also called head): A word or short phrase in large type at the top of an article designed to either summarise the news or grab the reader's attention and make them want to read it.

house style: An organisation's set of rules for how language and other elements are used, usually contained in a style guide available to all editorial staff. Style guides can vary from basic rules on spelling and grammar to complex documents on how words are used and pronounced.

Human Interest- Emotional appeal in the news. A "human interest" story, as compared with a "straight news" story, bases its appeal more on the unusual than on consequence. A news story or feature which focuses on individual people and the effects of issues or events on them. Human interest stories are often used to make ideas more real and concrete in the minds of the viewer, reader or listener. Human interest stories can also cover unusual and interesting aspects of other people's lives which are not particularly significant to society as a whole.

hard copy: Something printed on paper. Compare with soft copy, where words or pictures exist in computerised form as data.

I

Inserts- An advertisement or magazine that is printed separately and inserted into the folded newspaper.

Inverted Pyramid- The standard news story structure in which facts are arranged in descending order of importance.

Issue - All the copies which a newspaper publishes in one day.

Imprint: Information printed in a newspaper or magazine showing the publisher details. legal information and address of the paper. In a magazine this tends to be a larger section where key members of staff are credited.

index: In newspapers, a table of content, usually on the front page or page 2.

interview: A formal, usually structured conversation between a journalist and a source to get information for a story.

inverted pyramid: The most common structure for writing a news story, with the main news at the start and the rest of the detail following in decreasing order of importance.

J

Jump - To continue a story from one page to another.

Jumplines- The continuation instructions of a story that is jumped to another page (Continued on page 5; Continued from page 1). A line of type at the bottom of an incomplete newspaper or magazine article which directs the reader to another page where the story is continued. Also the line at the top of the continued article stating the page from which it was continued, also called a 'from' line.

jargon: Specialised language concerned with a particular subject, culture or profession. It is not usually found in the everyday speech of ordinary readers or listeners and so should be avoided in the general media if possible.

K

Kicker- Small headline, often in italics and usually underlined, above and slightly to the left of the main head.

kicker: A small headline in different type above and slightly to the left of the main headline. Also a few words at the beginning of a caption to grab the reader's attention

Kill - To eliminate all or part of a story. To cancel or delete all or part of a story. See also to spike.

kill fee: A reduced fee paid to a freelance journalist for a story that is not used.

L

Layout- (1) A sketch or drawing that indicates the arrangement of pictures and copy on a printed page. Used synonymously with "dummy."

Layout: (1) A plan of how stories, pictures and other elements are to appear on the finished page of a newspaper or magazine. (2) A set of stories, pictures and illustrations about a single subject.

Layout sub: A sub-editor who specialises in planning the layout of pages.

Lead: (Pronounced 'lead') (1) The first story in a news bulletin or on the front page of a newspaper. Also called a 'splash'. (2) In the US, the first paragraph in a story. See also intro. (3) A tip that may lead a reporter to a story.

Leader: An article written by the editor or a specialist giving the opinion of the newspaper on an issue. See also definition (1) of editorial above.

leading question: A question phrased in such a way as to draw out a specific answer wanted by the questioner.

letters to the editor: Letters from readers published by a newspaper or magazine, expressing their views on previous content or current issues. Letters to the editor are read out on radio or shown on screen while being read out on television.

libel: An older term for defamation. Traditionally, libel was the written form of defamation. Compare with slander.

lift: To take a news story, feature or quote from another newspaper or broadcaster and use it in your own report.

lift-out quote: Copying a quote or partial quote from within an article and highlighting it next to the body of the text using special type or formatting. See also pull-out quote.

lineage: A traditional method of paying freelance journalists for the number of lines - or column inches/column centimetres - of their work which appeared in a newspaper according to set rates.

Loaded words or loaded questions: Words which, in some contexts, contain strong value judgments and which indicate the user's position on an issue. Used by a journalist, they often prompt strong reactions from interviewees but this can obscure useful discussions and prompt accusations of bias. 'Terrorist' and 'lazy' used in some contexts could be examples of loaded words.

lock-up: An agreed process by which journalists are taken to a room to see advance copies of a major announcement, such as a government budget, and in which they stay to prepare stories for release as soon as the budget is delivered in parliament or congress.

M

Managing Editor- The editor who directs the daily gathering, writing and editing of news and the placement of news in the paper; working for him or her are the city editor, the copy editor, etc.

Masthead- Details of the publisher, place of publication, editorial staff and information about the newspaper, generally placed on the editorial page. Also the name of a newspaper in a banner in special, distinctive type at the top of the front page.

Morgue - Where old newspapers, clippings, cuts and pictures are stored.

Mug shot: A head-and-shoulders photograph of a person facing the camera.

media kit: (1) A set of materials provided to journalists by an organisation to promote their products or services. It may contain written documents, photographs, charts, schedules and other information the organisation wants journalists to focus on. (2) Information on advertising and other service costs made available by media companies to potential advertisers.

media officer: Also called press officer, a person employed by a company or other organisation to get positive publicity in the media and deal with enquiries from journalists.

media release: Also called a press release, information sent to the media to give an organisation's views on an issue or promote a product or service.

N

Newsprint- A grade of paper made from recycled paper and wood pulp, used for printing newspapers.

neutral question: A question asked in such a way that it does not imply personal opinion or bias. Compare with loaded questions above.

news desk: The main desk in a newsroom, usually where the news editor and/or other senior journalists sit.

news director: The senior person in a television or radio newsroom, in charge of the news output, usually working with or supervising a news program's executive producer.

news editor: The person in charge of which news events are covered and how news stories are gathered and written by reporters in a newsroom. In smaller newsrooms, this is often done by a chief reporter. See also chief or staff.

News in brief (NIB): Also punctuated as news-in-brief, a collection of short stories or a single story presented in one or two short paragraphs. In print or on a web page, NIBs may appear in a small box or a specific column at the side or bottom of a page.

newsprint: A cheap, low grade of paper made from recycled paper and wood pulp, used for printing newspapers.

nut graf or nut graph: A paragraph telling the essential elements of a story briefly, i.e. 'in a nutshell'.

O

Off The Record- Information not for publication, or at least not attributed to the source if used as background.

Op-ed- Page opposite the editorial page used for letters to the editor, articles by columnists, etc.

obit or obituary: An article summarising the life and achievements of a person recently dead.

objective journalism: A basic type of journalism practiced in democracies in which the journalists do not allow their personal biases to affect their work, they take a neutral stance even on difficult matters and give a fair representation of events and issues. Compare with advocacy journalism.

op-ed page: The page in a newspaper opposite the editorial page, containing opinion columns, sometimes readers letters and other items expressing opinions.

open question: Also called an open-ended question, a question which cannot be answered with a simple 'Yes' or 'No', but requires the interviewee to give more information. 'What happened?' is an open question. Compare with closed question above.

opinion: A person's thoughts about something it is not possible to prove is true by objective methods or the person does not wish to prove is true. Compare with fact above.

P

Pad - To make a story longer by using more words than are necessary.

Photo Credit- A photographer's byline. The name of the person or organization responsible for making or distributing a photograph, usually appearing small type under the reproduced picture. Also called credit line.

Pica- (1) 12-point type; (2) Unit of linear measurement equal to 1/6 of an inch (i.e., six picas = one inch.).

Plagiarism - Passing off as one's own the ideas and words of another.

Plate- A plate contains the image of several pages, in multiples of 4, and is installed onto the press.

Pre-date - An edition issued before its announced date of publication.

Press - Machine that prints the newspaper.

Press Run - Total number of copies printed.

Proof- A page on which newly set copy is reproduced to make possible the correction of errors.

Proofreader - One who reads proof pages and marks errors for corrections.

Put to Bed - When the paper heads to press and newsroom has signed off all pages.

paraphrase: A summary of a person's words given instead of a direct quote for greater understanding by the audience. See also reported speech.

partial quote: A quote of which only part of the sentence is used. If words are omitted from within the quote used, their absence is signified by ellipsis (three dots), e.g. He said there was 'every chance...bodies would be found'.

pitch: A reporter's idea for a story as presented in outline to an editor. Story idea provided by the reporter to the editor.

plagiarism: To use the work of another person as if it was one's own, without attribution. It is unethical.

proof: A copy of a page which has been typeset ready for printing, provided to editors, sub-editors or proof readers to correct errors or make final changes before the printing presses start production.

proof reader: A person who checks typeset proofs and/or computer printouts to detect errors before the final printing of a publication. Also called a copy reader.

puff piece: A news story or feature written to make the subject seem good.

Page Furniture everything on the page except pictures or text of stories.

Pull Quote: a quote from the story that is enlarged and appears within the text.

Package: a group of connected stories across one or many pages.

Q

Q and A- Copy in question and answer form, as in verbatim reports of court proceeding.

Quotes- (1) Quotation marks; (2) A quote is a portion of a story that consists of direct quotations.

R

Railroad - To rush copy through to the paper without careful editing.

Register - Correct placement of plates to ensure ink is properly aligned.

Rough - A preliminary layout not in finished form.

Retraction: withdrawal from previously published fact

S

Scoop- A story obtained before other newspapers or other media receive the information. An important or significant news published or broadcast before other competing media know of it.

Series - A group of related stories generally run on successive days or weeks.

Sidebar - A secondary news story that supports or amplifies a major story. A column beside a main story which has more information about - or another angle to - the main story to which it is attached. Examines, explains the main element of the story. A panel or box on a page containing graphics or other information about an article. It is eye-catching and breaks the story up into different elements.

Single Copy - Sales of newspapers from a newsstand or rack; Papers sold one at a time.

Source - The supplier of information, such as a person, book, survey, etc.

Straight News - A plain account of news facts written in standard style and structure.

Subhead- Small, one-line headline inserted in the body of a story to break up the monotony of a solid column of small type.

Sic: Latin for 'thus' or 'so', is usually written in square brackets as [sic] after an misused or misspelled word or phrase to show they have been reproduced exactly as spoken or written in the original, e.g. He said: 'She gone [sic] to see her mother.'

Slug: A key word or phrase that identifies a news story while it is being prepared.

spike: To not publish a submitted article. Derived from a metal spike on which such rejected stories were impaled. See also to kill.

Stop press: In newspapers, the latest available news just in. From a time when printing presses were stopped to put in urgent breaking news before continuing the print run. Papers often had Stop Press boxes in a corner of the front or back page where brief urgent stories could be inserted. Column kept for breaking news

style guide: A document or online set of rules on how language is used in a particular organisation. See also house style.

sub: (1) Short for 'sub-editor' below. (2) The process of sub-editing copy for inclusion in a newspaper, magazine or news bulletin.

sub-editor: Journalists who checks and edit a reporters' work, format stories for the page, add headlines or plan the page layout. See also copy editor.

Standfirst: block of text that introduces the story, normally in a style different to the body text and headline.

subhead: (1) A small headline below the main headline. (2) A small headline inserted in the body of a story to visually break up a long column of type.

sub judice: A legal term meaning 'under judgment' to describe matters actively being dealt with by the legal system. In many countries there are restrictions on what the media can report during sub judice periods.

Slug: small word serving as identifier of story. Eg. Hotel fire

Standalone: Picture story that can exist on its own or on a front page leading to a story inside.

T

Tabloid- A newspaper of small page size, usually 11 inches wide and 17 inches deep. A small, compact format newspaper, usually less than 43 cm (17 inches) long. Also used to describe a newspaper style that uses short, simply-written stories and headlines with lots of pictures to illustrate more sensational content. Compare with broadsheet.

tagline: (1) Contact information for an article's author, published to enable readers to provide feedback. (2) Also called a signature line, information about the author appended to the bottom of an email or blog.

Thumbnail - A half-column picture.

Typographical Error (or Typo) - A mechanical error in typing a story.

tailpiece or tail-piece: A surprising or humorous observation at the end of a story or bulletin, associated with the story or bulletin but standing apart from it because of its subject matter or tone.

thumbnail: A half-column picture in newspapers or a reduced size picture on a web page which, when clicked on, brings up the full sized picture or illustration.

TK: Short for 'to come', a sub-editor's mark in text that additional material will be inserted there later, before production and printing. Occasionally written as 'TKTK' so it will not be missed.

typo: An error in typing a story.

V

verbatim: The actual words used by a speaker.

vox pop: From the Latin vox populi 'voice of the people', short interviews where several members of the public are stopped at random and asked questions to gauge approximate public opinion about an issue. Also called streeters.

W

Web Press- Machine used to print the newspaper. Paper is woven through the press to facilitate printing.

Widow- A single word or short line of type at the end of a paragraph, particularly at the top or bottom of a column or page.

wrap-up questions: The final questions in an interview, in which the interviewer clarifies any outstanding issues and checks they have not missed anything, e.g. 'Is there anything else you can tell me about the crash?'

Y

Yellow Journalism - Sensational journalism.

Inverted Pyramid Structure:

The inverted pyramid is a metaphor used by journalists and other writers to illustrate how information should be prioritized and structured in a text (e.g., a news report). It is a common method for writing news stories and has adaptability to other kinds of texts, such as blogs and editorial columns. It is a way to communicate the basics about a news report in the initial sentences. It is widely taught to mass communication and journalism students, and is systematically used in Anglophone media.

The inverted or upside-down pyramid can be thought of as a triangle pointing down. The widest part at the top represents the most substantial, interesting, and important information that the writer means to convey, illustrating that this kind of material should head the article, while the tapering lower portion illustrates that other material should follow in order of diminishing importance.

It is sometimes called a summary news lead style, or bottom line up front (BLUF). The opposite, the failure to mention the most important, interesting or attention-grabbing elements of a story in the opening paragraphs, is called burying the lead.

What are the Five Ws and One H? They are Who, What, Why, When, Where and How. Why are the Five Ws and One H important? Journalism purists will argue your story isn't complete until you answer all six questions. It's hard to argue this point, since missing any of these questions leaves a hole in your story. Even if you're not reporting on the news of the day, this concept could be useful in many professional writing scenarios.

Who was involved? The three little pigs (the first pig, the second pig and the third pig) and The Big Bad Wolf (a.k.a. Wolf).

What happened? Each pig constructed a house out of different materials (straw, sticks and bricks). Wolf (allegedly) threatened to blow over their houses and is believed to have destroyed both the straw and stick homes at this time. Pig one and two were able to flee to the brick house, where they remain at the moment. We're still waiting to hear from local authorities, but it looks like the Wolf may have been injured while attempting to enter the brick house.

Where did it take place? Outside a straw house, a stick house and a brick house.

When did it take place? At various times throughout the day.

Why did it happen? Apparently the Big Bad Wolf was trying to eat the pigs. Several eyewitnesses recall the Wolf taunting the pigs before he destroyed the straw and stick homes by chanting, "Little pigs, little pigs, let me in." The pigs apparently scoffed at the Wolf's idle treats, saying "Not by the hair of our chinny, chin chins." It's believed this angered the Wolf and led to him blowing the houses down.

How did it happen? It would appear the first two homes were not built to withstand the Wolf's powerful breath. The incident inside the brick house is still being investigated, but early indications suggest the Wolf fell into a boiling pot of water when trying to enter the house through the chimney.

It's a silly example, but you can see how getting answers to these six questions can really help you get all the information needed to write an accurate report. Next time you are preparing interview questions or outlining a story, consider walking through the Five Ws and One H to see if you left anything out.

Sources of News:

In journalism, a source is a person, publication, or other record or document that gives timely information. Outside journalism, sources are sometimes known as "news sources". Examples of sources include official records, publications or broadcasts, officials in government or business, organizations or corporations, witnesses of crime, accidents or other events, and people involved with or affected by a news event or issue.

According to Shoemaker (1996) and McQuail (1994), there are a multitude of factors that tend to condition the acceptance of sources as bona fide by investigative journalists. Reporters are expected to develop and cultivate sources, especially if they regularly cover a specific topic, known as a "beat". Beat reporters must, however, be cautious of becoming too close to their sources. Reporters often, but not always, give greater leeway to sources with little experience. For example, sometimes a person will say they don't want to talk, and then proceed to talk; if that person is not a public figure, reporters are less likely to use that information. Journalists are also encouraged to be skeptical without being cynical, as per the saying "If your mother says she loves you, check it out." this was popularized by the City News Bureau of Chicago. As a rule of thumb, but especially when reporting on controversy, reporters are expected to use multiple sources.

News: meaning, definition and nature:

News is information about current events. This may be provided through many different media: word of mouth, printing, postal systems, broadcasting, electronic communication, or through the testimony of observers and witnesses to events.

Common topics for news reports include war, government, politics, education, health, the environment, economy, business, fashion, and entertainment, as well as athletic events, quirky or unusual events. Government proclamations, concerning royal ceremonies, laws, taxes, public health, and criminals, have been dubbed news since ancient times. Humans exhibit a nearly universal desire to learn and share news, which they satisfy by talking to each other and sharing information. Technological and social developments, often driven by government communication and espionage networks, have increased the speed with which news can spread, as well as influenced its content. The genre of news as we know it today is closely associated with the newspaper, which originated in China as a court bulletin and spread, with paper and printing press, to Europe.

The English word "news" developed in the 14th century as a special use of the plural form of "new". In Middle English, the equivalent word was *newes*, like the French *nouvelles* and the German *Neues*. Similar developments are found in the Slavic languages the Czech and Slovak *noviny* (from *nový*, "new"), the cognate Polish *nowiny*, the Bulgarian *novini*, and Russian *novosti* – and in the Celtic languages: the Welsh *newyddion* (from *newydd*) and the Cornish *nowodhow* (from *nowydh*)

Jessica Garretson Finch is credited with coining the phrase "current events" while teaching at Barnard College in the 1890s.

Newness

As its name implies, "news" typically connotes the presentation of new information. The newness of news gives it an uncertain quality which distinguishes it from the more careful investigations of history or other scholarly disciplines. Whereas historians tend to view events as causally related manifestations of underlying processes, news stories tend to describe events in isolation, and to exclude discussion of the relationships between them. News conspicuously describes the world in the present or immediate past, even when the most important aspects of a news story have occurred long in the past—or are expected to occur in the future. To make the news, an ongoing process must have some "peg", an event in time which anchors it to the present moment. Relatedly, news often addresses aspects of reality which seem unusual, deviant, or out of the ordinary. Hence the famous dictum that "Dog Bites Man" is not news, but "Man Bites Dog" is.

Another corollary of the newness of news is that, as new technology enables new media to disseminate news more quickly, 'slower' forms of communication may move away from 'news' towards 'analysis'.

Commodity

According to some theories, "news" is whatever the news industry sells. Journalism, broadly understood along the same lines, is the act or occupation of collecting and providing news. From a commercial perspective, news is simply one input, along with paper (or an electronic server) necessary to prepare a final product for distribution. A news agency supplies this resource "wholesale" and publishers enhance it for retail.

Tone

Most purveyors of news value impartiality, neutrality, and objectivity, despite the inherent difficulty of reporting without political bias. Perception of these values has changed greatly over time as sensationalized 'tabloid journalism' has risen in popularity. Michael Schudson has argued that before the era of World War I and the concomitant rise of propaganda, journalists were not aware of the concept of bias in reporting, let alone actively correcting for it. News is also sometimes said to portray the truth, but this relationship is elusive and qualified.

Paradoxically, another property commonly attributed to news is sensationalism, the disproportionate focus on, and exaggeration of, emotive stories for public consumption. This news is also not unrelated to gossip, the human practice of sharing information about other humans of mutual interest. A common sensational topic is violence; hence another news dictum, "if it bleeds, it leads".

Newsworthiness

Newsworthiness is defined as a subject having sufficient relevance to the public or a special audience to warrant press attention or coverage. Journalists apply news values to identify a news story. News values determine how much attention a news story is given by a media outlet, and the attention it is given by its audience or readers.

In some countries and at some points in history, what news media and the public have considered "newsworthy" has met different definitions, such as the notion of news values. Many news values seem to be common across cultures. People seem to be interested in news to the extent which it has a big impact, describes conflicts, happens nearby, involves well-known people, and deviates from the norms of everyday happenings. War is a common news topic, partly because it involves unknown events that could pose personal danger.

Before the invention of newspapers in the early 17th century, official government bulletins and edicts were circulated at times in some centralized empires. The first documented use of an organized courier service for the diffusion of written documents is in Egypt, where Pharaohs used couriers for the diffusion of their decrees in the territory of the State (2400 BC).] Julius Caesar regularly publicized his heroic deeds in Gaul, and upon becoming Emperor of Rome began publishing government announcements called Acta Diurna. These were carved in metal or stone

and posted in public places.] In medieval England, parliamentary declarations were delivered to sheriffs for public display and reading at the market.

Specially sanctioned messengers have been recognized in Vietnamese culture, among the Khasi people in India, and in the Fox and Winnebago cultures of the American midwest. The Zulu Kingdom used runners to quickly disseminate news. In West Africa, news can be spread by griots. In most cases, the official spreaders of news have been closely aligned with holders of political power

Town criers were a common means of conveying information to citydwellers. In thirteenth-century Florence, criers known as *banditori* arrived in the market regularly, to announce political news, to convoke public meetings, and to call the populace to arms. In 1307 and 1322–1325, laws were established governing their appointment, conduct, and salary. These laws stipulated how many times a *banditoro* was to repeat a proclamation (forty) and where in the city they were to read them. Different declarations sometimes came with additional protocols; announcements regarding the plague were also to be read at the city gates] These proclamations all used a standard format, beginning with an exordium—"The worshipful and most esteemed gentlemen of the Eight of Ward and Security of the city of Florence make it known, notify, and expressly command, to whosoever, of whatever status, rank, quality and condition"—and continuing with a statement (*narratio*), a request made upon the listeners (*petitio*), and the penalty to be exacted from those who would not comply (*peroratio*).] In addition to major declarations, *bandi* (announcements) might concern petty crimes, requests for information, and notices about missing slaves. Niccolò Machiavelli was captured by the Medicis in 1513, following a *bando* calling for his immediate surrender. Some town criers could be paid to include advertising along with news

Under the Ottoman Empire, official messages were regularly distributed at mosques, by traveling holy men, and by secular criers. These criers were sent to read official announcements in marketplaces, highways, and other well-traveled places, sometimes issuing commands and penalties for disobedience.

Early news networks

The spread of news has always been linked to the communications networks in place to disseminate it. Thus, political, religious, and commercial interests have historically controlled, expanded, and monitored communications channels by which news could spread. Postal services have long been closely entwined with the maintenance of political power in a large area.

One of the imperial communication channels, called the "Royal Road" traversed the Assyrian Empire and served as a key source of its power. The Roman Empire maintained a vast network of roads, known as *cursus publicus*, for similar purposes.

Visible chains of long distance signaling, known as optical telegraphy, have also been used throughout history to convey limited types of information. These can have ranged from smoke and

fire signals to advanced systems using semaphore codes and telescopes.] The latter form of optical telegraph came into use in Japan, Britain, France, and Germany from the 1790s through the 1850s.