

**МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ
РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ АГЕНТСТВО ПО ОБРАЗОВАНИЮ**

Курганский государственный университет
Кафедра иностранных языков гуманитарных специальностей

АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

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TEXT 1

Mass media. Different ways to know the world

There are many different ways to get knowledge about our big world. It is mass media, traveling, museums, meeting with interesting people, etc.

People all over the world enjoy books. Books are our friends and teachers. We can learn a lot of interesting and useful things from the books.

Many people choose traveling as the way to know the world. I enjoy it too. It's very fun and interesting! Every year I travel to another place than last year, and I like it: new places - new impressions!

The mass media have done and continue doing much to excite an interest in every aspect of the country's life. The mass media are the various ways by which information and news is given to large numbers of people, especially television, radio, newspapers and magazines. The mass media now play an important role in shaping our opinions.

I think, it is impossible to imagine our life without newspapers. Millions of copies of them appear every day. Many people subscribe to two or more newspapers; others buy newspapers at the newsstands.

There are national daily newspapers, such as the "Izvestiya", and the "Komsomolskaya Pravda". There are also national weekly newspapers, such as the "Argumenty i Fakty" and the "Nedelya". Most national newspapers express a political opinion, and people choose them according to their political beliefs.

Most newspapers contain news, detailed articles on home and international affairs, reviews of books, art and TV shows. Many of them also cover sports events. In the USA daily newspapers are published in 34 different languages. The daily newspapers are of two kinds: quality and popular. A quality paper is a serious newspaper, which publishes articles and commentaries on politics. A popular paper contains many photographs; its articles are often sensational and mostly deal with private life of famous people.

"The Wall Street Journal" is a quality paper. It is a business newspaper with the largest circulation in the country. There are also newspapers in the USA, which are famous all over the world for their quality. "The New York Times" is "the world's top daily".

TEXT 2

Television

Task: Read about Nick's impressions on TV and its role in our life. Express your opinion on this point.

It is almost impossible to imagine our life without TV. It plays a great and a very important role in the life of modern man. There is practically no family that doesn't have a TV set. TV is one of the mass media kinds. Radio and newspapers tell us about different events but TV not only tells but also shows. TV has a lot of channels and everybody can watch the programs he likes. Our television suggests

various programs: talk shows and game shows, news and sporting events, about animals and about foreign countries and so on. Soap-lovers can watch their favorite films almost every day. TV shows us a lot of films of different countries: detective and melodrama, comedy and thriller. As for me I like to see adventure films, fantasy, comedies. My favorite sporting events programs are about volleyball, swimming, track-and-field athletics and gymnastics. I watch many programs with great interest. These programs are: a wild nature program, "Anshlag", some game shows and so on. There are a lot of films (most of them of foreign TV-companies) with a great number of corpses, with seas of blood now. It's not very good to my mind. I think that one of the aims of TV is to bring up TV-viewers, to cultivate love to our country, kindness and other positive features of character.

TV has good and bad sides. First of all it keeps people informed; we can learn a lot of information watching TV. We can choose programs that appeal to us more, because TV provides programs for all interests. Sometimes we can relax, entertain ourselves when we are tired. Advertisement on TV gives us information about different products and it makes easier to choose things to buy. When we watch TV we learn about the world, famous people and global or recent news.

But TV has a lot of disadvantages. It takes a lot of time and it makes us lazy. And it's very harmful for our health, especially eyes. Some violent programs and films make people violent. Violence becomes a vital problem. There is too much advertisement on TV. Sometimes it can encourage us to buy things we don't need at all. Watching TV takes all free time from almost all people. We just watch it, not concentrate, and waste time.

In my opinion we need TV inspire of its disadvantages. People need something like information center. As for me I watch TV about one hour a day. I watch it when I want to learn news or relax and entertain myself. People need TV, but it can't be the main thing in their life. It's interesting, but not the main thing in our life.

I don't really know what we must do to make TV better. I think we can do nothing. We just should not sit hour by hour watching TV. I think we must watch only the most important and interesting things. Because if we see everything we'll become mad.

TEXT 3

Television and Advertisement

Many people have forgotten what the world was like before TV. But today it has become an integral part of our lives. No medium can compare with TV as a means of information, entertainment & education. TV now plays such an important role in so many people's lives that it is essential for us to try to decide whether it is bad or good.

On the first place TV is not only a convenient source of entertainment, but also a comparatively cheap one. For a family of 4, for example, it is more convenient as well as cheaper to sit comfortably at home than to go out. They don't

have to pay for expensive tickets. All they have to do is to turn on TV and they can see films, political discussions and the latest exciting football matches. Some people say that this is first where the danger lies. The TV viewers need do nothing: they make no choices, they're completely passive & don't even use their legs.

TV, people often say, informs about current events and the latest developments in science and politics. A lot of good films, music programs have appeared recently on TV. Yet here again there is a danger. We get to like watching TV so much that it begins to dominate our lives. A friend of mine told me that when his TV set broke he & his family suddenly found that they had much more time to do things.

The most important thing which is really criticizing is poor quality of the programs and its harmful effect on children. For example the film "Natural Born Killers" teaches children to kill and there was one accident in France when a group of teenagers kill their parents.

TEXT 4

Television in Russia and in Britain

Task: Read and discuss in pairs Television in Russia and in Britain. Add what you know about television in these countries.

Television is the most popular leisure pastime in Russia. Several television channels are in operation: "Ostankino". "Russian Channel", "Independent TV Channel - NTV". Besides them there are local TV channels and local commercial TV channels in big cities and republics of Russia.

TV services provide programs of general interest such as light entertainment, sport, current affairs, serious drama, and music. There are programmes on arts, children's and family programs, interview with outstanding personalities, news reports covering international, national and local events.

Much attention is paid to foreign films, American in particular, foreign TV programs and soap operas.

Television in Britain

Television is one of the most popular mass media in Britain. Some 96 percent of population has television in their homes. It is estimated that about 10 per cent of household have two or more sets. Average viewing time per person is over 17 hours a week.

Four television channels are in operation: BBC-1. BBC-2. ITV. Channel-4.

The BBC has been providing regular television broadcasts since 1936. BBC television productions come from main studios at the Television Centre in west London and other studios in various parts of London.

The first regular independent television broadcast began in London in 1955. Independent television programs are produced at 18 studio centers throughout the country.

TEXT 5

Newspapers and magazines

Task: Read and comment on the American author's words.

Newspapers and magazines play a very important part in our life. Practically there is no family that does not read them. We can learn many things from newspapers. Perhaps that is why many years ago an American humorous writer said: "All I know is what I see in the papers"; and another American author more than half a century ago wrote that "the careful reader of a few good newspapers can learn more in a year than most scientists do in their great libraries".

We can agree or disagree with these statements (better to disagree, because scientific books and magazines have more information than newspapers), but we'll have to say that newspapers help us in many ways. There are a lot of different kinds of newspapers in our country. One can buy them practically everywhere. It is impossible to read all the newspapers and magazines. Everyone has favorite ones.

My favorite newspaper is "Komsomolskaya Pravda". We can read almost about everything in this newspaper. There are articles dealing with home and abroad news, sport events, life of favorite actors and singers and even the weather. We can find many interesting things there. We can read some useful pieces of advice, some stories about our life, and so on. There are puzzles, songs and even anecdotes there. "Komsomolskaya Pravda" is one of the most interesting newspapers, to my mind.

TEXT 6

The press

Task: Look through the following two texts and discuss the British Press in pairs.

Everywhere, everyday exciting things are happening. Each day is filled with news. How are people kept informed?

The press, radio and television keep people informed on all topical issues of the day. The press has great political influence. You can get a lot of useful information from newspaper reports. If you are a regular reader of the press you will be well informed about all matters. Newspapers publish articles on home and foreign affairs. Reports by political observers and commentators help us to get useful information on international and domestic issues. Most newspapers come out daily. The reader's questions, opinions and suggestions, which they send in letters to the editor, help to improve the newspaper and make it more interesting.

The British are great newspaper readers. Newspapers are often thought of as either "qualities" or "populars". The "qualities" give serious accounts of the news and reports on business matters, industry and culture. They are usually large-sized.

The "quality" papers, like The Times, The Guardian and others, are directed at readers who want full information on a wide range of public matters. "Popular" newspapers appeal to people wanting news of a more entertaining character. They

are usually with lots of illustrations. Some populars, like The Sun, are note for their sensational stories and photographs. Some newspapers come out only on Sundays:

"Qualities"

"Populars"

The Sunday Telegraph Sunday Express

The Sunday Times Sunday Mirror

Many newspapers are printed in color, as the part of Sunday or Saturday paper. They provide reading material about clothes, cooking, diet, the house and home.

There is a wide variety of magazines in Britain. They titles show that cater for tastes and interests:

British Chess Magazine Homes and Gardens

Country Life

TEXT 7

The British Press

The British press consists of several kinds of newspapers.

The national papers are the ones sold all over the country, with a large circulation, giving general news.

There are two main types of national paper - the "popular" papers and the "quality" papers. The popular papers are smaller in size (they are tabloid size), with lots of pictures, big headlines and short articles. They are easy to read and often contain little real information. They give much space to opinions. They usually have "human interest" stories - stories about ordinary people and events. Examples of this type of newspapers are "The Daily Mail". "The Sun", etc.

"Quality" papers appeal to the more serious reader, who wants to read about politics and foreign affairs. These papers such as "The Daily Telegraph", "The Guardian" are bigger in size (they are called "broad-sheets"), with longer articles and a wider coverage of events. They have different pages for home news, foreign affairs, features articles, fashion, business, sport and so on.

People in Britain buy more papers on Sunday than on weekdays. The Sunday papers have a higher circulation than the dailies. As with the dailies, there are both popular and quality Sunday newspapers. The quality ones have different sections and a colour magazine (usually full of advertisements).

TEXT 8

The Media and their messages

Task: Read and translate. Make up your own sentences with underlined words and expressions.

The average American, according to a recent study, spends about eight hours a day with the print and electronic media - at home, at work, and traveling by car. This total includes four hours watching television, three hours listening to radio, a half hour listening to recorded music, and another half hour reading the newspaper.

The central role of information in American society harks back to a fundamental belief held by the framers of the U.S. Constitution: that a well-informed people is the strongest guardian of its own liberties. The framers embodied that assumption in the First Amendment to the Constitution, which provides in part that "Congress shall make no law...abridging the freedom of speech or of the press." A corollary to this clause is that the press functions as a watchdog over government actions and calls attention to official misdeeds and violations of individual rights.

The First Amendment and the political philosophy behind it have allowed the American media extraordinary freedom in reporting the news and expressing opinions. In the 1970s, American reporters uncovered the Watergate scandal, which ended with the resignation of President Richard Nixon, and American newspapers printed the "Pentagon papers," classified documents related to U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War. Press reports of official corruption that in some countries would bring arrests and the shutdown of newspapers are made freely in the United States, where the media cannot be shut down, where government itself cannot be libeled, and where public officials must prove that a statement is not only false but was made with actual malice before they can recover damages.

We examine four topics in this chapter: newspapers, magazines, the broadcast media, and current issues related to the media.

TEXT 9

NEWSPAPERS: PIONEERING PRESS FREEDOM

Task: Read and be ready to answer the following questions:

- 1. What anniversary did the American Institution of Press celebrate in 1990?**
- 2. What was the colonial press like?**
- 3. When did "yellow journalism" appear in America?**
- 4. What were the main press-features in the 20th century?**
- 5. When were the first on-line newspapers?**

In 1990 the press celebrated its 300th anniversary as an American institution. The first newspaper in the colonies, *Publick Occurrences: Both Foreign and Domestick*, lasted only one day in 1690 before British officials suppressed it. But

other papers sprang up, and by the 1730s the colonial press was strong enough to criticize British governors. In 1734 the governor of New York charged John Peter Zenger, publisher of the *New York Weekly Journal*, with seditious libel. Zenger's lawyer, Alexander Hamilton, argued that "the truth of the facts" was reason enough to print a story. In a decision bolstering freedom of the press, the jury acquitted Zenger.

By the 1820s about 25 daily newspapers and more than 400 weeklies were being published in the United States. Horace Greeley founded the *New York Tribune* in 1841, and it quickly became the nation's most influential newspaper. Two media giants, Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst, began building their newspaper empires after the American Civil War (1861-65). Fiercely competitive, they resorted to "yellow journalism" -- sensational and often inaccurate reporting aimed at attracting readers. Early in the 20th century, newspaper editors realized that the best way to attract readers was to give them all sides of a story, without bias. This standard of objective reporting is today one of American journalism's most important traditions. Another dominant feature of early 20th-century journalism was the creation of chains of newspapers operating under the same ownership, led by a group owned by Hearst. This trend accelerated after World War II, and today about 75 percent of all U.S. daily papers are owned by newspaper chains.

With the advent of television in the 1940s and 1950s, the new electronic medium made inroads on newspaper circulation: Readers tended to overlook the afternoon paper because they could watch the day's news on TV. In 1971, 66 cities had two or more dailies, usually one published in the morning and one in the afternoon. In 1995, only 36 cities had two or more dailies.

Overall, the number of dailies dropped only slightly, from 1,763 in 1946 to 1,534 in 1994, and the number of Sunday papers rose from 497 in 1946 to 889 in 1994. The combined figure is the highest number of newspapers with the highest total circulation -- 135 million -- in the world. Nonetheless, the largest U.S. newspapers have been losing circulation in recent years, a trend that can be attributed to the increasing availability of news from television and other sources.

The top five daily newspapers by circulation in 1995 were the *Wall Street Journal* (1,823,207), *USA Today* (1,570,624), the *New York Times* (1,170,869), the *Los Angeles Times* (1,053,498), and the *Washington Post* (840,232). The youngest of the top five, *USA Today*, was launched as a national newspaper in 1982, after exhaustive research by the Gannett chain. It relies on bold graphic design, color photos, and brief articles to capture an audience of urban readers interested in news "bites" rather than traditional, longer stories.

New technology has made *USA Today* possible and is enabling other newspapers to enlarge their national and international audiences. *USA Today* is edited and composed in Arlington, Virginia, then transmitted via satellite to 32 printing plants around the country and two printing plants serving Europe and Asia. The *International Herald Tribune*, owned jointly by the *New York Times*

and the *Washington Post*, is a global newspaper, printed via satellite in 11 cities around the world and distributed in 164 countries.

In 1992, the *Chicago Sun-Times* began to offer articles through America Online, one of the first companies that connected personal computers with the Internet. In 1993, the *San Jose Mercury-News* began distributing most of its daily text, minus photos and illustrations, to subscribers to America Online; in 1995, eight media companies announced formation of a company to create a network of on-line newspapers. Now, most American newspapers are available on the Internet, and anyone with a personal computer and a link to the Internet can scan papers from across the country in his or her own home or office.

TEXT 10

MAGAZINES' NICHE

The first American magazines appeared a half century after the first newspapers and took longer to attain a wide audience. In 1893, the first mass-circulation magazines were introduced, and in 1923, Henry Luce launched *Time*, the first weekly news magazine. The arrival of television cut into the advertising revenues enjoyed by mass-circulation magazines, and some weekly magazines eventually folded: *The Saturday Evening Post* in 1969, *Look* in 1971, and *Life* in 1972. (*The Saturday Evening Post* and *Life* later reappeared as monthlies.)

Magazine publishers responded by trying to appeal more to carefully defined audiences than to the public at large. Magazines on virtually any topic imaginable have appeared, including *Tennis*, *Trailer Life*, and *Model Railroading*. Other magazines have targeted segments within their audience for special attention. *TV Guide*, *Time*, and *Newsweek*, for example, publish regional editions. Several magazines are attempting to personalize the contents of each issue according to an individual reader's interests.

This specialization has brought an upswing in the number of magazines published in the United States, from 6,960 in 1970 to 11,000 in 1994. More than 50 magazines had a circulation of over one million in 1994. The top two in circulation were both aimed at retired persons: *NRTS/AARP Bulletin* (21,875,436) and *Modern Maturity* (21,716,727). Rounding out the top five were *Reader's Digest* (15,126,664), *TV Guide* (14,037,062), and *National Geographic* (9,283,079).

In 1993, *Time* became the first magazine to offer an on-line edition that subscribers can call up on their computers before it hits the newsstands. In 1996, software magnate Bill Gates started *Slate*, a magazine covering politics and culture that was intended to be available exclusively on-line (Slate's publisher soon decided to add a print version).

Meanwhile, a new hybrid of newspaper and magazine became popular starting in the 1970s: the newsletter. Printed on inexpensive paper and often as short as four to six pages, the typical newsletter appears weekly or biweekly. Newsletters gather and analyze information on specialized topics. *Southern Political Report*,

for example, covers election races in the southern U.S. states, and *FTC Watch* covers the actions of the Federal Trade Commission. Newsletters can be the product of small staffs, sometimes only a single reporter who produces the issue by computer.

The newsletter has been joined by the "zine," highly personalized magazines of relatively small circulation, sometimes with contents that are meant to shock. *Afraid*, for instance, is a monthly zine devoted to horror stories.

Task: Complete the sentences.

1. In 1893, the first mass-circulation...
2. Magazine publishers responded...
3. This specialization has brought...
4. In 1996, software magnate Bill Gates...
5. ***Southern Political Report...***
6. The newsletter has been joined...

TEXT 11

THE ROLE OF RADIO

The beginning of commercial radio broadcasts in 1920 brought a new source of information and entertainment directly into American homes. President Franklin Roosevelt understood the usefulness of radio as a medium of communication: His "fireside chats" kept the nation abreast of economic developments during the Depression and of military maneuvers during World War II.

The widespread availability of television after World War II caused radio executives to rethink their programming. Radio could hardly compete with television's visual presentation of drama, comedy, and variety acts; many radio stations switched to a format of recorded music mixed with news and features. Starting in the 1950s, radios became standard accessories in American automobiles. The medium enjoyed a renaissance as American commuters tuned in their car radios on the way to work.

The expansion of FM radio, which has better sound quality but a more limited signal range than AM, led to a split in radio programming in the 1970s and 1980s. FM came to dominate the music side of programming, while AM has shifted mainly to all-news and talk formats.

Barely in existence 25 years ago, talk radio usually features a host, a celebrity or an expert on some subject, and the opportunity for listeners to call in and ask questions or express opinions on the air. The call-in format is now heard on nearly 1,000 of the 10,000 commercial radio stations in the United States.

Despite the importance of TV, the reach of radio is still impressive. In 1994, 99 percent of American households had at least one radio, with an average of five per household. Besides the 10,000 commercial radio stations, the United States has more than 1,400 public radio stations. Most of these are run by universities and other public institutions for educational purposes and are financed by public funds

and private donations. In 1991, more than 12 million Americans listened each week to the 430 public radio stations affiliated with National Public Radio, a nationwide, nonprofit organization headquartered in Washington, D.C.

Task: Imagine you are an American student. Tell your Russian friend about the role of Radio in the US.

TEXT 12

TELEVISION: BEYOND THE BIG THREE

Since World War II television has developed into the most popular medium in the United States, with enormous influence on the country's elections and way of life. Virtually every American home - 97 million of them in 1994 - has at least one TV set, and 65 percent have two or more.

Three privately owned networks that offered free programming financed by commercials -- NBC, CBS, and ABC -- controlled 90 percent of the TV market from the 1950s to the 1970s. In the 1980s the rapid spread of pay cable TV transmitted by satellite undermined that privileged position. By 1994, almost 60 percent of American households had subscribed to cable TV, and non-network programming was drawing more than 30 percent of viewers. Among the new cable channels were several that show movies 24 hours a day; Cable News Network, the creation of Ted Turner, which broadcasts news around the clock; and MTV, which shows music videos.

In the meantime, a fourth major commercial network, Fox, has come into being and challenged the big three networks; several local TV stations have switched their affiliation from one of the big three to the newcomer. Two more national networks - WB and UPN - have also come along, and the number of cable television channels continues to expand.

There are 335 public television stations across the United States, each of which is independent and serves its community's interests. But the stations are united by such national entities as the Public Broadcasting Service, which supplies programming. American taxpayers provide partial funding for public television, which is watched by an estimated 87 million viewers per week. Among the most popular programs is "Sesame Street," a children's show that teaches beginning reading and math through the use of puppets, cartoons, songs, and comedy skits.

Beginning in the late 1970s, U.S. cable companies have offered services to selected segments of the population. Programs broadcast by the Silent Network come with sign language and captions for the network's audience of people with hearing problems. In 1988, Christopher Whittle founded Channel One cable network, which provides educational programming - along with commercials - to about 40 percent of American high school students. In addition, the convergence of the computer, TV, and fiber optics has raised the possibility of interactive TV, which would allow viewers to select specific programs they wish to see at times of their choosing.

TEXT 13
CURRENT ISSUES

Task: Read and answer what the most debated media-related issues are that face Americans today.

Many Americans are disturbed by the amount of violence their children see on television. In response to citizens' complaints and pressure from the Congress, the four major TV networks -- ABC, CBS, NBC, and Fox -- agreed in 1993 to inform parents of violent content at the beginning of a program, and cable networks have agreed to give similar warnings. In 1996, the commercial and cable networks went a step further and established a rating system, based on the amount of violence, sexual content, and/or profane language that a program contains. A symbol indicating the show's rating appears on the television screen at the beginning of, and intermittently during, the broadcast.

Such voluntary measures seem preferable to government regulation of programming content, which would probably violate the First Amendment. Another possible solution to the problem is technological. Beginning in 1998 new television sets sold in the United States will be equipped with a "V-chip," a device that will enable parents to block out programs they would rather their children not see.

Similar complaints have been voiced about the words and images accessible on computers. Congress recently passed a law attempting to keep indecent language or pictures from being transmitted through cyberspace, but a federal court struck it down as unconstitutional. If this problem has a solution, it probably lies either in close parental supervision of children's time on the computer or the development of a technological barrier to use of certain computer functions.

One of the most debated media-related issues facing Americans today has little to do with technology and much more to do with the age-old concept of personal privacy: whether any area of a person's life should remain off-limits once he or she becomes a public figure. In 1988, a leading presidential candidate, Senator Gary Hart, withdrew from the race after the press revealed his affair with a young woman. Politicians from both parties complain that the press is "out to get" them, and some conservative members of Congress assert that the media are biased in favor of liberals. Many critics believe that increased prying by the media will deter capable people, regardless of their beliefs, from going into politics.

On the other hand, in the old days reporters virtually conspired with politicians to keep the public from knowing about personal weaknesses. President Franklin Roosevelt's crippled body was not talked about or photographed, and his poor physical health was kept from the electorate when he ran for a fourth term in 1944. A majority of voters might have chosen Roosevelt anyway, but shielding them from the facts seems dishonest to most Americans today, who believe that in a democracy it is better to share information than to suppress it.

TEXT 14

Why Democracy Needs Investigative Journalism

Task: Read and make up questions of your own, let your fellow-students answer them. Express your opinion in a short monologue.

In the 1970s, reporters played critical roles in revealing what became the most serious U.S. political scandal in the post-World War II period. Washington journalists pursued the clues left at a petty burglary in the Watergate office building, following them all the way to the White House. The reportage led to congressional investigations and the ultimate resignation of President Richard Nixon.

The performance of the press during Watergate was held as the mirror that reflected the best that journalism could offer to democracy: holding power accountable. It became a trend in American newsrooms. The profession enjoyed high credibility in the years that followed, and a remarkable increase in journalism school enrollment occurred.

Almost three decades later, the situation has changed. Investigative journalism does not seem to be the brightest star in the firmament of American news. If the tone of the press was self-congratulatory in the post-Watergate years, pessimism about the state of American journalism is currently widespread. Observers have often argued that increasing media ownership concentration and the drive to sensationalize news coverage have sapped the vigor that investigative reporting requires. Business pressures also deter investigative reporting. Its demands for a great deal of time, human and financial resources frequently conflict with profit expectations and production cost controls. Also, the fact that stories might result in expensive lawsuits makes news companies nervous about supporting investigations.

Notwithstanding these factors, there has been no shortage of investigative stories produced in the past decade. Major urban newspapers in the United States have produced articles that have revealed corruption, injustice, and environmental mismanagement. Local and network television news frequently produce investigative stories, which generally focus on diverse types of consumer fraud, in areas such as health care, social services, and home mortgages.

TEXT 15

What Is Investigative Journalism?

Investigative reporting is distinctive in that it publicizes information about wrongdoing that affects the public interest. Denunciations result from the work of reporters rather than from information leaked to newsrooms.

While investigative journalism used to be associated with lone reporters working on their own with little, if any, support from their news organizations, recent examples attest that teamwork is fundamental. Differing kinds of expertise are needed to produce well-documented and comprehensive stories. Reporters,

editors, legal specialists, statistical analysts, librarians, and news researchers are needed to collaborate on investigations. Knowledge of public information access laws is crucial to find what information is potentially available under "freedom of information" laws, and what legal problems might arise when damaging information is published. New technologies are extremely valuable to find facts and to make reporters familiar with the complexities of any given story. Thanks to the computerization of government records and the availability of extraordinary amounts of information online, computer-assisted reporting (CAR) is of great assistance.

TEXT 16

Democracy and Investigative Journalism

Investigative journalism matters because of its many contributions to democratic governance. Its role can be understood in keeping with the Fourth Estate model of the press. According to this model, the press should make government accountable by publishing information about matters of public interest even if such information reveals abuses or crimes perpetrated by those in authority. From this perspective, investigative reporting is one of the most important contributions that the press makes to democracy. It is linked to the logic of checks and balances in democratic systems. It provides a valuable mechanism for monitoring the performance of democratic institutions as they are most broadly defined to include governmental bodies, civic organizations and publicly held corporations.

The centrality of the media in contemporary democracies makes political elites sensitive to news, particularly to "bad" news that often causes a public commotion. The publication of news about political and economic wrongdoing can trigger congressional and judicial investigations.

In cases when government institutions fail to conduct further inquiries, or investigations are plagued with problems and suspicions, journalism can contribute to accountability by monitoring the functioning of these institutions. It can examine how well these institutions actually fulfill their constitutional mandate to govern responsibly in the face of press reports that reveal dysfunction, dishonesty, or wrongdoing in government and society. At minimum, investigative reporting retains important agenda-setting powers to remind citizens and political elites about the existence of certain issues. There are no guarantees, however, that continuous press attention will result in congressional and judicial actions to investigate and prosecute those responsible for wrongdoing.

Investigative journalism also contributes to democracy by nurturing an informed citizenry. Information is a vital resource to empower a vigilant public that ultimately holds government accountable through voting and participation. With the ascent of media-centered politics in contemporary democracies, the media have eclipsed other social institutions as the main source of information about issues and processes that affect citizens' lives.

TEXT 17

Public access

Access to public records and laws ensuring that public business will be conducted in open sessions are indispensable to the work of an investigative journalist. When prior censorship or defamation laws loom on the horizon, news organizations are unlikely to take up controversial subjects because of potentially expensive lawsuits. Consequently, democracies must meet certain requirements for investigative journalism to be effective and to provide diverse and comprehensive information.

TEXT 18

The Ethics of Investigative Journalism

Every team of investigative reporters pursues a story under different circumstances, so creating an all-purpose ethical rulebook is problematic, though certain standards have become generally accepted. The legal implications of reporters' actions are, by far, more clear-cut than ethical issues. Ethics, instead, deals with how to distinguish between right and wrong, with philosophical principles used to justify a particular course of action. Any decision can be judged ethical, depending on what ethical framework is used to justify it, and what values are prioritized. What journalists and editors need to determine is who will benefit as a result of the reporting.

If journalism is committed to democratic accountability, then the question that needs to be asked is whether the public benefits as a result of investigative reports. Whose interest does investigative journalism serve by publishing a given story? Does the press fulfill its social responsibility in revealing wrongdoing? Whose interests are being affected? Whose rights are being invaded? Is the issue at stake a matter of legitimate public interest? Or is individual privacy being invaded when no crucial public issue is at stake?

Most discussions about ethics in investigative journalism have focused on methodology, namely, is any method valid to reveal wrongdoing? Is deception legitimate when journalists aim to tell the truth? Is any method justifiable no matter the working conditions and the difficulties in getting information? Can television reporters use hidden cameras to get a story? Can journalists use false identities to gain access to information?

On this point, an important factor to consider is that the public seems less willing than journalists to accept any method to reveal wrongdoing. Surveys show that the public is suspicious of invasion of privacy, no matter the public relevance of a story. The public generally seems less inclined to accept that journalists should use any method to get a story. Such an attitude is significantly revealing in times when, in many countries, the credibility of the press is low. The press needs to be trustworthy in the eyes of the public. That is its main capital, but too often its actions further undermine its credibility. Therefore, the fact that citizens generally

believe that journalists would get any story at any cost needs to be an important consideration. Exposés that rely on questionable methods to get information can further diminish the legitimacy and public standing of the reporting and the journalists.

Ethical issues are not limited to methods. Corruption is also another important ethical issue in investigative journalism. Corruption includes a variety of practices, ranging from journalists who accept bribes, or quash exposés, or pay sources for information. The harm to private citizens that might result from what's reported also needs to be considered. Issues of privacy usually come to the forefront, as investigative journalism often walks a fine line between the right to privacy and the public's right to know. It is usually assumed that privacy applies differently to public figures than to average citizens.

There are no easy, ready-made answers to ethical issues. Codes of ethics, despite some merits, do not offer clear-cut solutions that can be applied in all cases. Most analysts agree that journalists must remain sensitive to issues such as fairness, balance, and accuracy. Reporters continuously need to ask ethical questions throughout different stages of the investigations, and be ready to justify their decisions to their editors, colleagues, and the public. They need to be sensitive to whose interests are being affected, and operate according to professional standards.

TEXT 19

Journalism in the Era of the Web

Task: Read, translate and give the answers to the following questions:

- 1. What are the advantages of the Web journalism?**
- 2. What is the process of establishing standards online influenced by?**
- 3. How do you understand “what you learn is your column is not the last word, it’s the first word”?**

Mainstream news organizations are struggling to apply old-fashioned news standards to the Web, but are discovering it is not easy to translate the virtues of accuracy, balance, and clarity to a medium where the advantages of speed and timeliness prevail.

Web technology has strengthened the traditional watchdog functions of journalism by giving reporters efficient ways to probe more deeply for information. The capacity to search documents, compile background and historical context, and identify authoritative sources has expanded the reporter's toolbox. It also has introduced a fundamentally different culture built on interactivity, fewer rules, and fewer limits.

Speed and timeliness once were the strength of newspapers. The wire services built their reputations on being first with the big stories, which people typically found in their local papers. The immediacy of television took that edge from the printed press. Now the Web has established its own advantages of speed and

timeliness; and in doing so it has enabled newspapers to come full circle by posting breaking news and extending their brand identities through such innovations as online afternoon editions.

At the intersection of traditional journalism and the Web, attempts to apply the standards of the traditional newsroom encounter such other values as freedom, irreverence, advocacy, and attitude. Web journalists argue that the Olympian tones of the traditional press don't work online. They liken their new medium to the true spirit of the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, assuring freedoms of speech, press, and assembly. Online scribes observe that their new medium is reminiscent of a time when newspapers were feisty and combative. Ann Compton of ABCNews.com describes the essential difference between her online staff and the network's television journalists: "We write more brightly. We throw in more slang. There is richness to the dot-com coverage that you really can't do on television." Similar comparisons can be made between the Web and daily newspapers.

Is such "richness" compatible with the highest standards of journalism? Can the freewheeling, provocative, irreverent nature of the Web adapt to a culture whose traditions have been shaped by a more sober, structured medium?

The process of establishing standards online is moving along, influenced by three developments. First is the reality that the dominant news Web sites will be run by the old media - the traditional news organizations such as daily newspapers, newsmagazines, and network and major cable television outlets. What makes this a reality is the influence of the marketplace, which has been especially harsh to upstart dot-coms. Those with insufficient capital or marginal journalistic reputations or weak marketing strategies are being weeded out. Among the survivors are the mainstream news organizations that have the resources to build powerful Web sites and to insure that these platforms reflect the rigorous standards by which their print publications are written and edited.

Second are efforts by online journalists to craft standards for the Web. The Online News Association is beginning a project to develop strong guidelines, including recommendations for how they can be applied and monitored. A grant from the John S. and James L. Knight Foundation will enable the Online News Association to hire a project director and meet a deadline of October 2001 for the guidelines it recommends.

Rich Jaroslovsky, president of the Online News Association and managing editor of The Wall Street Journal Interactive, says there is "a lot of steam behind the project." Too many online news decisions are being made "by the seat of the pants," Jaroslovsky says, "rather than having a reason for the decision. We hope to develop a document that doesn't direct but persuades," not just journalists but also those who are working in other online cultures and making distinctions between news and commerce.

The third and perhaps the most far-reaching influence on journalistic standards is the interactivity that results when journalists put their e-mail addresses

on the Web. E-mail can bring instant feedback to a story just posted as well as to one that is read in the newspaper over coffee in the morning. Some reporters are constructing barriers to such engagement with readers, preferring instead to not have e-mail or to be shielded by a filter that lets through only the messages they think they want to have. E-mail enables reporters and editors to hear from people who may know something about the story and who can share an authoritative perspective, provide additional sources, or raise the possibility that the story may be unbalanced or unfair. The potential for such interactivity is that it can contribute to raising the level of journalistic performance.

Jon Katz, a Web commentator who writes for Slashdot.com, says, "The surprising thing to me is the degree to which I am held accountable by readers for what I am doing. Whatever you are writing, your column makes its way to the most knowledgeable people on the subject What you learn is your column is not the last word, it's the first word."

TEXT 20

Russian Media Landscape

Task: Get acquainted with Russian and British Media. Divide your group into two teams. First team-students from Britain, the other team-students from Russia. Discuss and compare your media systems:

1. The written press

During the Soviet era, Russia had a long and well established tradition of media use. Practically each Russian household during 1970 - 1990 subscribed several print outlets: one or two leading central newspapers (such as Pravda, Izvestiya, Trud, Sovetskaya Rossiya, etc.), at least one local/republican newspaper and several specific magazines (e.g. for the members of the Communist Party, farmers, workers, women, children, ecologists, professional journals, etc.). The subscription rate of those publications was unreasonably low while the circulation was quite high. This was due to the state system of media financing, in which the idea of media profitability did not play any significant role. The collapse of the Soviet Union has changed this system forever.

The period of Gorbachev perestroika was the most productive time for the Soviet media state control and censorship were waning while economic and financial pressure had not come over media outlets yet.

Independence has brought a great deal of freedom of expression. At the same time, the system of state subsidies that existed under communism has vanished, leaving publications to struggle for their survival. Print media appeared to become the first victims of media commercialism.

Many papers and magazines, particularly those which appeared shortly before independence, died or were issued without any regularity. At that time in the early 1990s the majority of print outlets were owned by staffers and/or chief editors. Delayed paycheques and huge external debts became the new reality of the post-

Soviet press. The situation started changing in the mid-1990s when a new class of Russian businessmen emerged and many new entertainment and fashion magazines of high printing quality began to appear. The presidential elections of 1996 turned the attention of the new Russian businessmen to the political role of the media. Although the major business fight was over television channels, the print media also became involved in the redrawing of the media ownership map. By the second half of the 1990s, the majority of the print media had new owners. Practically each new owner expected an outlet's loyalty and extensive personal coverage in exchange for financial support. The so-called 'Russian media wars' reached their peak by the year 1999. Biased reporting and negativism towards political opponents marked the new partisanship of the Russian press and were the outcome of economic dependency of the outlets on their new owners.

Nowadays, although the trend of media growth continues, it is not so booming and chaotic as in the late 1980s and the early 1990s. According to Ministry of Press data there are 37,425 print media outlets in Russia which are officially registered. There are 22,181 newspapers and 12,726 magazines among these outlets. However, many of these outlets have very low circulation. Increase in newspapers' prices has inevitably brought decline in their readership. Subscription rates have fallen for practically all outlets. As a rule, Russians buy one newspaper on a weekly basis. The major reason for this is the poor economic. In order to adjust themselves to the new consumption preferences of their readers many newspapers have moved from daily editions to weekly ones or have introduced a special weekly edition which has been practically unknown previously. Such weekly editions have big popularity among readers.

The leading Soviet times newspapers, such as Pravda, Izvestiya (circulation 263,650), Trud (circulation 1,700,000), Moskovskie Novosti, have preserved their positions in the new Russia. Argumenty I Fauty (circulation 2,880,000), Komsomolskaya Pravda (circulation 27,000,000), Moskovsky Komsomolets popular during the perestroika era still remain among the most popular national print media. A number of newspapers appeared in the early 1990s - Nezavisimaya Gazeta (circulation 50,000), Kommersant (circulation 117,340) and Novaya Gazeta (circulation 670,000). The Moscow Times is the most popular English-language daily in Russia.

2. The audiovisual media.

Television remains the most popular medium in the country and popularity has increased since the 1990s. This is not only a result of bigger diversity and better quality of programs. Nowadays, television watching is much cheaper than newspaper reading. There is no fee which viewers have to pay to receive the regular national channels. The only costs involved are the costs of energy. Moreover, Russia has inherited a highly developed network of television transmission from the Soviet era due to the fact that all national programs at those times were broadcast from Moscow. Today, practically each Russian household

owns at least one TV set and receives at least two national, one regional and one local TV channel.

The first national channel - Public Russian Television (ORT) - is the biggest TV channel in the country with total penetration of 98 per cent of the Russian territory or 140 million viewers. TV channel Russia is the second national channel with total penetration of 98.5 per cent of the territory and 50 million viewers. ORT is the largest national joint-stock TV company with 51 per cent of the shares controlled by the Russian state. The second national channel - Russia - is completely state-run. NTV is the only private Russian TV channel with the status of the national channel. It covers approximately 95 per cent of the country's territory and has an audience of 110 million viewers. It competes in popularity only with ORT. NTV received its status as a national channel in 1996 after Boris Yeltsin's re-election and was seen by many as a price the president paid the NTV owner Vladimir Gusinsky for his support during election campaign.

Since 2000, the NTV channel has been experiencing various economic and political difficulties beginning with the criminal case against Mr Gusinsky and his decision to flee the country. Among other major TV channels in Russia are TV-tsentr and TVC a channel, which is currently run by the former journalists of the NTV channel who left the NTV as a result of the recent transformation of the channel and of their disagreement with the methods and ideas of the new owners of the broadcaster. In general, there are 3,267 television channels registered by the Ministry of Press.

There are also 2,378 radio stations officially registered in the country. Music radio stations have great popularity in Russia. The leading Russian news&analysis radio stations include Radio Mayak, Radio of Russia and Echo of Moscow. There are also several popular foreign radio stations which were already broadcasting on the shortwaves band for a long time before the collapse of the USSR: Voice of America and Radio Liberty.

3. Online media

The internet media have developed rapidly in recent years. Undoubtedly, Russia lags behind developed countries in certain internet parameters and primarily in accessibility of the internet to the Russian population. According to NUA statistics Russia had 18 million internet users (12.42 per cent of the population) in the year 2001. This indicator is smaller than the average for the EU countries. However, the number of Russian internet users has increased four times since 1999 when Russia had had only 5.4 million users (or 3.69 per cent of the population). A majority of the Russian internet users are young people between the age of 16 and 34, predominantly with university education. The majority of Russian users still have access to the internet from their places of work or study. In the geographical terms, the Russian internet audience is predominantly concentrated in Moscow and St. Petersburg (source: Regional Public Center of Internet Technologies).

Despite the difficulties in the internet technologies' development in Russia, evolution of online media is progressing rapidly. There are 868 online periodical outlets officially registered in the country. Russia is also one of few countries in the world where the new form of journalism - online journalism - and a new type of media - online-only news organizations - have received serious attention and development in the last 4-5 years. Online only papers are the periodical newspapers and magazines on the internet which do not have offline version. Appearance of such outlets and their fast evolution became possible due to high costs of print media production and distribution as well as the big numbers of young people with technical and journalistic education and very often without clear prospects of jobs. Polit.ru a news and politics internet portal, is one of the oldest Russian news sites on the internet (founded in 1996). By the year 1999, Russia already had several prominent online papers: the first internet daily Gazeta.ru the first round-the-clock news service Lenta.ru, Russky Zhurnal online papers Utro.ru, Vesti.Ru, (source: <http://www.russ.ru>).

More Russians got acquainted with the internet as a news and information medium in summer 2000 during the catastrophe aboard the Russian submarine Kursk and the fire in Ostankino TV tower which paralyzed broadcasting of the leading national channels. The new wave of popularity online media obtained during the so-called NTV crisis in spring 2001 was connected with an expansion of Russian state control over private traditional media outlets. During that time, the online outlet NTV.RU (now NEWSRu,) was practically the only arm of Mr Gusinsky's media group of which covered the entire conflict in a different way from the majority of Russian media.

Fund of effective politics, the leading Russian political and information consulting company, has been the owner of many leading online outlets. It has created one of the most powerful information resources on the Russian internet - Strana.ru, - a national information system which includes a main portal and regional websites in each of Russia's federal districts. All leading national TV channels are broadcast on this site in real-time. Strana.Ru has also developed several special projects. Although Strana.Ru is officially an independent internet site, it works very closely with the state media, - primarily with the state television- and very often is seen as an internet mouthpiece for the Russian authorities.

4. News agencies

There are around 30 large-scale information and news agencies in Russia. Some of them specialize exclusively in financial or economic news but a majority has broad coverage of ongoing issues. Practically each news agency has well-developed online services. These include:

- Interfax news agency a part of the international news network Interfax Information Services;
- ITAR-TASS the biggest state news agency, former major news agency of the Soviet Union;

- RIA NOVOSTI state information and analytical agency of the Russian Federation, was created in 1991 on the basis of the Soviet Press Agency NOVOSTI;

TEXT 21

Information Agency RIA Novosti

The Russian News & Information Agency RIA Novosti is one of the most authoritative and professional sources of prompt information in Russia and abroad.

The Agency has a correspondent network in the Russian Federation, CIS and over 40 non-CIS countries. Every day, RIA Novosti publishes on the Internet and via e-mail social-political, economic, scientific and financial information in Russian, the main European languages and Arabic.

RIA Novosti today is an open information site (press-club) for holding press-events and meetings with journalists. Over 90 highly qualified translators work in 12 languages for the Agency's translation service.

RIA Novosti has Russia's largest photo service and one of the most extensive photo archives featuring over 600,000 photographs.

RIA Novosti is constantly upgrading its technologies and ways to publish information. The Agency was one of the first professional information providers on the Russian market to start working on the Internet. The Agency's site, www.rian.ru, publishes its main online information services. There is a subscription service for access to the full scope of information.

The Agency can organize press-tours for foreign journalists of Russia, hold presentations on specific subjects, press-events abroad, conduct the monitoring of publications by foreign media and analyze them. The Agency organizes TV linkups through ISDN communication channels, broadcasts press-conferences on the Internet and holds thematic round tables in the off the record format.

RIA Novosti's clients include the presidential administration, Russian government, Federation Council, State Duma, leading ministries and government departments, administrations of Federation subjects, representatives of Russian and foreign business communities, diplomatic missions and public organizations.

TEXT 22

A SHORT HISTORY OF RIA NOVOSTI

RIA Novosti's history dates back to June 24, 1941 when by a resolution of the USSR Council of People's Commissars and the Communist Party Central Committee, "On the Establishment and Tasks of the Soviet Information Bureau", the Soviet Information Bureau (Sovinformburo) was set up under the USSR Council of People's Commissars and the Central Committee. Its main task was to oversee work to cover international, military events and the events of the country's domestic life in periodicals and on the radio (from October 14, 1941 to March 3, 1942 was based in Kuibyshev – modern-day Samara). The bureau's main task was to compile reports on the situation on the frontline of the war, work on the home

front, and the partisan movement for the radio, newspapers and magazines. Sovinformburo directed the activity of the All-Slavonic Committee, Anti-Nazi Committee of Soviet Women, Anti-Nazi Committee of the Soviet Youth, Anti-Nazi Committee of Soviet Scientists, and the Jewish Anti-Nazi Committee. In 1944, a special bureau on propaganda for foreign countries was set up as part of Sovinformburo. Through 1,171 newspapers, 523 magazines and 18 radio stations in 23 countries, Soviet embassies abroad, friendship societies, trade unions, women's, youth and scientific organizations, Sovinformburo informed readers and listeners about the struggle of the Soviet people against Nazism and in the post-war years about the main areas of Soviet domestic and foreign policies.

Sovinformburo heads: A.S. Shcherbakov (from 1941 to 1945), S. A. Lozovsky (from 1945 to 1948), Y.S. Khavinson, D.A. Polikarpov.

In 1961, the Novosti Press Agency (APN) succeeded Sovinformburo. It became the leading information and press body of Soviet public organizations. The constituent conference was held on February 21, 1961. The conference of representatives of Soviet public organizations adopted a decision to create a press agency of public organizations named Novosti. The agency's guiding body was the Council of the Agency's Founders. The APN founders were the USSR Journalists Union, USSR Writers Union, Union of Soviet Societies of Friendship and Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, and the Znaniye Society. On April 3, 1961 the Agency charter was adopted. Under its charter, APN's aim was "to contribute to mutual understanding, trust and friendship among peoples in every possible way by broadly publishing accurate information about the USSR abroad and familiarizing the Soviet public with the life of the peoples of foreign countries." APN's motto was "Information for Peace, for the Friendship of Nations." APN had bureaus in over 120 countries. The Agency published 60 illustrated newspapers and magazines in 45 languages with a one-time circulation of 4.3 million copies. With the Union of Soviet Friendship Societies, APN published the newspaper Moscow News, which in September 1990 became an independent publication. APN Publishing House put out over 200 books and booklets with a total annual circulation of 20 million copies. In 1989, a TV center opened in APN. Later, it was transformed into the TV-Novosti TV company.

APN heads: Boris Burkov (1961-1970), Ivan Udaltsov (1970- 1975), Lev Tolkunov (1975-1983), Pavel Naumov (1983-1986), Valentin Falin (1986-1988), Albert Vlasov (1988-1990).

By a decree of USSR President Mikhail Gorbachev, "On the Establishment of the Information Agency Novosti," the Information Agency Novosti (IAN) succeeded APN on July 27, 1990. "To provide information support for the USSR's state domestic and foreign policies and proceeding from the interests of the democratization of the mass media," the Novosti Press Agency was renamed the Information Agency Novosti (IAN). IAN's tasks remained the same - preparing and publishing printed, TV and radio materials in the USSR and abroad; studying public opinion on Soviet foreign and domestic policies in the USSR and abroad."

A computer databank was created in the Agency. Initially, it contained over 250,000 documents. In 1991, the Infonews hotline started operating in the Agency. IAN had bureaus in 120 countries. It published 13 illustrated magazines and newspapers. The chairman of the IAN Board was Albert Ivanovich Vlasov.

The Russian Information Agency Novosti was created in September 1991 on the basis of IAN and the Russian Information Agency. By a decree of the Russian president dated August 22, 1991, RIA Novosti was placed within the competence of the Press and Information Ministry. RIA Novosti had about 80 bureaus and news offices abroad, over 1,500 subscribers in CIS countries and about a hundred in non-CIS countries. In 1993, by a decree of the Russian president of September 15, 1993 "On the Russian Information Agency Novosti," RIA Novosti became a state news-analytical agency. RIA Novosti's radio channel - RIA-Radio worked in 1996. In August 1997, the TV channel Kultura was set up on the basis of the RIA TV channel under the sponsorship of the VGTRK TV and radio broadcasting company. By a decree of the Russian president, "On Improving the Work of the State Electronic Media," the VGTRK information holding was created in May 1998, which RIA Novosti joined.

In May 1998, the Agency was renamed the Russian Information Agency Vesti. As a mass media body, it retained the name of RIA Novosti. The main criteria of RIA Novosti's information services were the combination of promptness, objectiveness, authenticity and its own opinion regardless of the political situation.

In April 2004, the Federal State Unitary Enterprise Russian Information Agency Vesti was renamed the Federal State Unitary Enterprise Russian News & Information Agency RIA Novosti (Russian abbreviation - FGUP RAMI RIA Novosti).

TEXT 23

List of RIA Novosti Executives and Departments

Head, Editor-in-Chief of the Federal State Unitary Enterprise Russian International News and Information Agency RIA Novosti and the general director of FGUP RAMI RIA Novosti - **Svetlana V. Mironyuk**

- RosBusinessConsulting (RBC) primarily internet-based financial and economic news agency founded in 1992. Currently it is one of the most popular news internet resources and the most popular news agency among Russian internet users;
- Russian Bureau of News (RBN) online agency with daily news from different regions of Russia.

Also worth mentioning is the Russian Information Center a rather controversial structure created by the Ministry of Press and RIA NOVOSTI in 1999. The Russian Information Center's purpose is to disseminate an official view and news on the war in Chechnya. The agency is the main (and on many occasions

the only) source of information on the military conflict in Chechnya for Russian and foreign journalists who cannot receive any news except through the Center.

5. Journalism organizations

The main organizations are:

- Union of Russian Journalists;

A civic organization based on membership of professionals working in the media and mass communication. The Union is called to protect and defend the interests of Russian journalists.

- National Association of Television and Radio Broadcasters was created in 1995 on the initiative of Sagalaev and representatives of 41 television companies. It aims at defending the interests of television broadcasters in governmental bodies, finding common solution to corporate problems, ensuring equal possibilities and requirements for all broadcasters regardless of the geographical area of their activities and a form of ownership, providing access to professional information and contacts as well as providing legal and consulting support to companies on the issues of licensing, technology, taxation and professional training.

- Internews,

Internews Russia is a Russian non-profit organization (legal name: Autonomous Noncommercial Organization Internews or ANO Internews) working in collaboration with other Internews offices in the US, Western and Eastern Europe, Middle East and Africa to support independent media with the goal of enhancing worldwide tolerance and understanding. Internews programs are based on the conviction that vigorous and diverse mass media form an essential cornerstone of an open society. Since 1992, Internews Russia has been providing support to independent Russian television broadcasters and the Russian television industry as a whole.

- Foundation of Television, Radio, Electronic Media and internet Technologies' Development was founded in 2001 by Sagalaev as a non-profit organisation with a broad spectrum of social, cultural, scientific and philanthropic goals.

- Academy of the Russian Television, a civic, non-profit organisation which unites interests of television broadcasters and television producers all over the country. It was founded as a Russian Fond of Television Development (RFRT) in 1994 on the initiative of the leading national TV companies such as ORT, VGTRK, TV-6, NTV and others.

- WARP, Worldwide Association of Russian Press, An open international non-governmental organization of print and electronic mass media, agencies, publishing houses, television and radio programs as well as other legal producers and distributors of all type of mass information in Russian language.

- **Media Committee**

Its main goals are to implement the professional examination of TV audience, measuring and monitoring broadcast systems in Russia as well as the preparation and carrying out of the bid for audience measurement systems.

6. Recent media developments

The Russian media landscape and information flow has undergone a series of transformations during last 2-3 years. If the second term of President Yeltsin in office was characterized by the intensity of the so-called 'media wars' between competing business-political groups, the first years of the Putin administration can be characterized by the new wave of media centralization under clear guidelines and certain control of the Kremlin.

Two leading media magnates of the Yeltsin era - Mr Gusinsky and Boris Berezovsky - not only lost control over the biggest parts of their media empires but also had to flee the country. The battle over the NTV channel marked the beginning of the media outlets' redistribution. That battle was won by Gazprom, the biggest creditor of Media-Most, the state-owned oil company and NTV's mother company. Both, Gazprom and Russian state officials did their best to present the conflict as an entirely financial one. However, independent and critical news coverage of events by the NTV team, which brought together the most prominent Russian TV journalists, gave enough reasons to suspect a political nature of the conflict. Suspicion grew when Gazprom changed the editors and leading journalistic teams in two other outlets of the Media-Most group - the daily Segodnya and a weekly magazine, Itogi. Another popular outlet, the independent radio station Echo of Moscow, has come through a series of financial and managerial troubles.

Although it survived in its previous form, its editor-in-chief and all leading journalists launched a new radio station, Arsenal. Online news site NTV has also come through certain difficulties. Finally, it had to change its name to NEWSRu. The most recent development connected with the NTV channel is a change of its director. The new NTV director has had little experience in media and journalism. He was a dentist before he started working for the press service of Gazprom.

After the NTV crisis, the core of the NTV journalistic team, headed by their director Yevgeny Kiselev moved to TV-6 channel. That channel was formerly owned by Mr Berezovsky like NTV, had got into a financial conflict with one of its shareholders, Lukoil, another big Russian oil company. As a result of this conflict the channel went off the air and a competition for air frequencies of TV-6 was issued by the Ministry of Press. The competition was won by Mr Kiselev's team and the former TV-6 channel had been transformed into TVC. Like the NTV crisis, this conflict was of a financial (and later legal) nature. However, as the CPJ, <http://www.cpj.org/>, notes; "The oil giant Lukoil has strong links with the Kremlin, and TV-6's fate was seen by many Russian politicians and journalists as part of a state-orchestrated campaign to control Russian citizens' access to information".

Lawsuits against journalists, as well as their prosecution, arrests and physical threats continue. The terrorist acts in the United States on September 11, 2001, and the hostage drama in a Moscow theatre a year later, reinforced the priority of state security and state secrets over media law and the right of journalists to receive and disseminate information. Several media outlets and individual journalists faced legal difficulties while covering the military conflict in Chechnya and the hostage drama in Moscow.

As the result of these and other changes in the media and information policy and practice in Russia, two leading international journalist organizations - the Committee to Protect Journalists and Reporters Without Borders - have expressed their concerns about the degree of media freedom and state control in Russia. In 2001, the CPJ included president Putin in its annual list of the Ten Worst Enemies of the Press. The same year, Reporters Without Borders named Mr Putin among the predators of press freedom.

7. Accountability systems

Although the leading national channel of the Russian television has the name of 'public' television, this word should not lead to the conclusion that Russian media are accountable to the Russian public. During Soviet times the whole media system was directly accountable to the Communist Party. Recent developments in the Russian media policies aimed at re-centralization of the media structure clearly indicate success of the Russian authorities to get Russian media again to answer to the government. The state-owned nature of the leading TV channels undoubtedly signifies their accountability to their major shareholders - the Russian state. Further, the creation of the All-Russia State television and Radio Company (VGTRK), as an umbrella for regional state TV stations, as well as the Ministry of Press, Broadcasting and Means of Mass Communications is clearly meant to create a single information flow all over the country. The creation of the VGTRK symbolizes the return of state control to the entire network of the country's television and radio channels. The Ministry of Press, Broadcasting and Means of Mass Communications is the supervisor of all media outlets in the country, both public and private. The Ministry, in turn, is directly appointed by and accountable to the president. Mikhail Lesin, long-time head of the Ministry, was famous for his statement that the Russian state should be protected from the media.

Licensing of the media activities is another form of media accountability before the ministry and the state. Due to the limited number of television and radio frequencies and great competition for them among media organizations, each media outlet is licensed to broadcast on a certain frequency for a specific period of time. When this period passes, a new competition can be opened. Media outlets can also be banned from broadcasting due to violations of laws or certain restrictions and measures.

Additionally an unofficial type of media accountability exists in Russia. Due to the weaknesses and certain unclarities of the media law as well as lack of a law

on media ownership, media outlets very often find themselves accountable in different ways before their owners or creditors, who can decide to stop to finance a media outlet any time they believe it is necessary. Media organizations have also undergone series of tax audits, police confiscation and sanitary tests which are seen by many as a way of unofficial state control of the media and a reminder to media organizations about their obligations to the state.

8. National media policies

Already in 1991 the Russian Federation adopted the Law on Media of Mass Information, which declared freedom of speech, information and expression as the fundamental rights for all media in order to perform their required role in society. The law contains provisions relating to the protection and independence of journalists and mentions the right of access to information.

Balance and objectivity are mentioned, but the revision of the law in 1995 has limited the freedom of the media as to their choice of reporting on the diverse views and opinions of political parties, particularly those not in power. Other laws regulating media activities in Russia include On Procedure of Media Coverage of State Authorities by State Media; On State Support of Mass Media and Publishing; On Economic Support of Regional Newspapers; On Licensing of Certain Activities. Discussions concerning laws on general and public broadcasting; media ownership, etc are ongoing. Moreover, many of the previously adopted laws and regulations have undergone serious revisions and corrections.

Based on the long tradition of European and American media legislation as well as recommendations of the Council of Europe, the European Union and different international organizations, media laws in Russia seem to absorb the best examples of world media legislation. Created in such way, media legislation would undoubtedly serve democratic ends in any country of Western Europe. Its effectiveness in the former USSR however is limited by other conflicting laws.

One of the most important and intensively discussed legal collisions is a collision between the right of a journalist to seek and disseminate information and national laws on state secret and terrorism. This problem is most obvious in the media coverage of the military conflict in Chechnya. Several media outlets and individual journalists have been warned by the ministry during the last two years about the way they present this conflict. The ministry is particularly concerned with the legality of interviewing Chechen rebels and in an attempt to present a diversity of views on the conflict. As a result, certain policies on airing the 'terrorist propaganda' have been adopted by the national parliament. Journalists working in Chechnya are not only requested to have a special accreditation issued by federal authorities but they also have to be accompanied by federal representatives. Moreover, on many occasions the Russian Information Center in Chechnya is the only source of information for journalists who are not allowed to receive information from other sources.

Last year Moscow theatre hostage drama has resulted in new restrictions on media coverage of the 'terrorist activities'. Practically a month after the end of the hostage drama, the Russian parliament adopted revisions of the laws on terrorism and mass media that forbid media outlets to spread information which may damage the conduct of contra-terrorist operations and bring threats to people's life and health. At the last moment, president Vladimir Putin vetoed those revisions. However, several outlets during the hostage drama were warned or even temporarily closed by the Ministry for 'improper' coverage. Another example of 'legal problems' is the trial and imprisonment of the journalist Grigory Pasko. Reporters without Borders formulate his violations of the law in this way: 'Convicted of 'espionage' and 'high treason' Pasko conducted lengthy investigations and wrote hundreds of articles about the pollution resulting from the virtual abandonment of the Russian military's nuclear submarines with the complicity of the FSB (the former KGB). He also circulated video footage of liquid radioactive waste being dumped in the Sea of Japan by the Russian fleet'.

TEXT 24

British Media Landscape

1. The written press

Perhaps the major characteristic of the written press in the UK is the existence of a large national newspaper sector divided into 14 daily and 15 Sunday titles. The numbers have increased recently through the inclusion of papers published and mainly distributed in Scotland, *the London Evening Standard* and sports papers, and the establishment of new titles. About 60 per cent of people in the UK read a national daily paper, and about 70 percent a national Sunday.

The total sales of national daily newspapers are nearly 14 million, and of national Sundays nearly 15 million. These figures are well below peaks reached in the late 1950s, and despite the expansion of both sectors, national newspaper reading continues to be in decline. This underlying trend is masked to some extent by price discounting and even free distribution. All but for four titles are also sold outside the UK in the Republic of Ireland.

The aggregate figures encompass enormous disparities of circulation. The five best-selling titles have circulations of between 2 million and 4 million. The lowest-selling titles, *the Racing Post* and *The Scotsman* (among dailies) and *Sunday Business*, *Sport First* and *The Non-League Paper* (on Sunday) sell between 44,500 and 88,000. Some papers have undergone calamitous declines in sales: for example, *the Daily Express*, once the most popular daily in the UK, now sells fewer than one million copies.

If only the full-price sales within the UK of the traditional Fleet Street-style titles are counted, then national daily circulations come to just over 10 million, and the Sunday figures to less than 11 million.

Although half the papers are tabloid in format, the sector is usually divided into three markets - 'quality', 'middle' and 'popular'. All the 'popular' and 'middle' market papers are tabloids. The 'middle' market has shrunk significantly since the 1960s. Nevertheless, the main titles, *the Daily Mail* and *Mail on Sunday*, now have the second largest daily and Sunday circulations (2.4 and 2.3 million), having overtaken the 'popular' *Mirror*, *Sunday Mirror* and *Sunday People*. In any event, both *The Mirror* and *Sunday Mirror* have continued to lose ground to *The Sun* (3.5 million) and *News of the World* (4 million), the daily and Sunday papers with the largest circulations.

The entire national press is owned by seven companies, of which the largest four (News International, Trinity Mirror, Northern and Shell, and Daily Mail and General Trust) account for about 90 per cent of sales. In 2000 Northern and Shell paid £120 million for Express Newspapers (*Daily* and *Sunday Express* and *Daily Star*).

The UK also has both regional and local newspapers. There are about 90 regional morning and evening titles, and six Sunday papers. While regional morning and evening circulations have fallen steeply over the past 25 years, there has been something of a resurgence in Sunday papers since the late 1980s with the launch of a number of new titles. More recently, the sales of morning and evening papers have been quite buoyant.

Some titles (notably in Scotland - see above) have been reclassified as 'national', and there are distinctive 'national' markets for newspapers in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Following the establishment of a National Assembly for Wales, *The Mirror* began a Welsh edition, called the *Welsh Mirror*.

Sales of regional newspapers vary considerably - from the 612,000 of *the Sunday Post* in Scotland to less than 29,000 (*the daily Express* and *Echo in Exeter*, England). The largest selling evening newspaper is the (Wolverhampton, England) *Express and Star* (just under 180,000 copies). The biggest selling morning paper is the (Glasgow, Scotland) *Herald* (slightly fewer than 96,000 copies). About 80 per cent of people in the UK read a regional/local paper.

There are about 1,300 local newspapers, mainly weeklies. The circulations of those which charge cover prices are mostly small: the largest, *the West Briton*, sells just under 50,000 copies a week. By comparison, there are at least 25 free newspapers each with circulations of more than 100,000. Many titles are grouped into larger units, however. The biggest selling group of papers charging cover prices is the Kent Messenger Weekly Newspaper Group in England with total sales of nearly 135,000 copies. The five largest groups of free titles each has a total circulation of more than one million. The biggest, Trinity Mirror Southern, distributes more than 1,775,000 papers a week. In total, about 32.5 million copies of local newspapers are circulated each week.

As with the national sector, the regional and local newspaper publishing business is concentrated within a small number of large corporations. There is a significant overlap between this ownership and control of the national sector,

reinforced in 1999 by the merger of the Mirror Group with Trinity, the largest non-national company. In 2000 the largest twenty of a total of 106 publishers of regional and local newspapers (19 per cent) controlled 67.5 per cent of paid-for weekly titles, 87 per cent of free weeklies, and 95 per cent of all weekly circulations.

The UK magazine sector is large and has been growing consistently over the past decade. There are between 8,800 and more than 10,000 titles (estimates vary). About 6,000 are 'business and professional' titles, and the rest are 'consumer' magazines. The former often have very small controlled circulations, while the 25 best selling consumer titles all have readerships of about one million or more. Neither the very biggest selling titles, nor most of the business and professional magazines are normally sold through news-stands. Nevertheless, 'consumer' magazines form the most visible part of the sector.

News-stand sales of just over 300 titles account for more than 100 million copies sold each month, worth more £130 million. Only two magazines sold over the counter, *What's On TV* (1.7 million) and *Radio Times* (1.2 million), are among the ten with the largest circulations. The magazine with the biggest circulation is *the Sky Customer Magazine* (more than 4.75 million among satellite TV subscribers). Magazines published by retail stores for their customers are also among those with some of the biggest circulations. By comparison, only one business-to-business publication has a circulation of more than 200,000 and just eight others have circulations of over 100,000.

Although there are almost 1,000 magazine publishers, as with the newspaper industry, effectively ownership is concentrated in relatively few hands. For example, IPC claims that its magazines are read by 64 per cent of all UK adults, and Reed has more than 100 titles. The largest companies have been reducing their share of the market since the late 1990s, however, and unlike the newspaper sector, the magazine industry has several major owners with their origins in the rest of Europe, notably H. Bauer and G.&J

2. The audiovisual media

The largest UK broadcaster is the BBC which runs two national television channels (with national and regional sub-divisions), five national radio stations, cable and digital TV channels, and more than 40 local radio stations. Additionally, the Corporation has global enterprises in both television and radio, as well as a broadcast monitoring service, and Europe's most visited content web site (see below). Although predominantly a public service organization, which raises revenue from a universal licensing system, the BBC also operates commercially in many domains both inside and outside the UK.

Over a year, the BBC claims to reach more than 94 per cent of the UK population. In television, in 2000-2001 BBC1 (26.8 per cent) and BBC2 (11 per cent) combined for nearly a 40 per cent share of the total TV audience. BBC Radio

had 52 per cent of the radio audience at the beginning of 2001. Nevertheless, the UK also has a large, and expanding, commercial audio-visual sector.

The main competition to BBC television comes from the Channel 3 companies, known as Independent Television (ITV). Fifteen regionally based franchisees provide both local and national (network) services. In addition, GMTV operates a breakfast network service. Cross-ownership has developed significantly since government restrictions were eased in 1996, and the entire Channel 3 service is largely dominated by two companies, Carlton and Granada. They own or control 12 of the ITV franchises and claim to reach more than 100 per cent of UK households (there are two overlapping London Channel 3 broadcasters). ITV's share of the television audience in 2000-2001 was just a little under 29 per cent.

Channel 4 is a hybrid public service, minority interest service which also raises revenue through advertising sales. (There is a separate fourth channel in Wales, Sianel Pedwar Cymru [S4C], which is funded partly by advertising and partly by the State, and carries peak-time Welsh language programming.) Channel 4 had just over 10 per cent audience share in 2000-2001.

Channel 4 is a broadcaster rather than a program maker, and it has helped foster a large independent production industry numbering about 1,500. Since the 1990s both the BBC and ITV have been required to buy 25 per cent of their programming from independent producers. About a fifth of the most popular TV programs are made by independents.

A fifth terrestrial channel began broadcasting in April 1997. Channel 5 covers about 80 per cent of the UK, and in 2000-2001 registered a 5.7 per cent share of the audience. It is a commercial operation carrying advertising. In total, at least 90 per cent of the population watches these terrestrial, free-to-air channels. Even in homes with cable and satellite services, nearly two-thirds of viewing is of these channels.

Broadcast news is provided chiefly by BBC News and Independent Television News/Independent Radio News in London, supplemented by a small amount of regional and local output. Every television station (except GMTV which carries Reuters) and more than 90 per cent of radio stations use these sources.

The UK's satellite television service, led by BSkyB, which is controlled by Rupert Murdoch's News International, offers in excess of 200 channels. At the beginning of 2001, more than 5.5 million homes were receiving satellite broadcasts - 30 per cent more than a year earlier. Audiences for individual channels remain small, however. The flagship Sky TV, which operates several channels, has in total only about 5 per cent of the UK television audience.

Cable TV reaches more homes - just over 9 million - but this is only about a quarter of those who could actually subscribe. Franchised cable services are dominated by two suppliers, NTL and Telewest. Collectively, satellite and cable TV share between 15 and 16 per cent of the total television audience. Individually, even the most popular satellite and cable programs do not compare to terrestrial programming in this respect. The most watched satellite/cable channel, QVC, has

an audience of about 3 million, compared to the 15 or 16 million who tune in to the most popular 'soaps' on terrestrial TV.

In radio, as well as the BBC's five national stations, there are three national commercial broadcasters (plus a fourth broadcasting from the Republic of Ireland). The BBC also operates regional radio for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, and there are several regional commercial radio stations based in major cities outside London. About 250 local commercial radio licences have been granted. Nineteen radio stations broadcast using satellite and 15 through cable. As a whole, commercial radio has expanded rapidly since 1996. The average UK listener has 15 stations to choose from (24 in London).

Radio is the most popular day-time medium in the UK, reaching 92 per cent of the population. BBC national services reach more than twice as many people as the national commercial stations, and have 40 per cent of the radio audience, compared to only 8 per cent. On the other hand, local commercial radio is about three times as popular as BBC local services.

Few stations are independently-owned, and 15 groups control virtually all commercial radio with the largest eight dominating the sector (out of a total of about 70 licensees). Radio is so dedicated to music output that its influence is formally assessed by the Government to be only half that of other media. Even so, there is considerable dissatisfaction with what is perceived to be a lack of true diversity in radio output, and which is evident in the existence of a number of 'pirate' (unlicensed and illegal) stations, transmitting mainly in large urban areas.

3. Digital Services

Arguably, the UK has embraced media digitization more completely than any other country except Japan. The introduction of digital television in 1998 was widely regarded as heralding a 'revolution'. In less than two years, 4 million homes had converted, and the figure rapidly reached 20-25 per cent of all homes. The BBC, Sky, the cable operators and the ITV companies all have digital services. A national digital multiplex radio service began broadcasting at the end of 1999, and 31 local digital licences have already been granted. It is envisaged that eventually all the UK's major cities will have digital multiplexes.

The 'dash to digital' was promoted by the Government which aims to end all analogue television transmissions by 2010 (assuming 95 per cent of homes have converted). It sold off the unwanted bandwidths to providers of mobile telephone services.

The 'revolution' has hardly stopped there, however. Up to a fifth of telephone calls are made from some homes using digital services. More significantly, with more than two-thirds of the UK population - 77 per cent of 14-to-16 year olds - using mobile telephones, and three-quarters of a million text messages being sent every day, the convergence of telephony and the Internet via wireless application protocol (WAP) has perhaps been more important than the bringing together of the audio-visual media and Internet services.

4. Online Media

All the major UK media have established online presences, a trend started in 1994 with the appearance of *the Electronic Telegraph* followed by *The Guardian and Observer*. About 85 per cent of local newspapers have web sites, and the magazine sector claims to have tapped into the revenue-raising potential of e-commerce. The more popular media (the tabloid newspapers and the ITV companies) were slower to go online; but in 1999-2000 there was a sudden spurt of interest - and new investment often ran into £100s millions, stimulated by a large increase in online shopping. The dot.com crisis of 2000 resulted in many of these ventures being curtailed or abandoned.

Core media sites have largely survived, however. In February 2001 *the Guardian and Observer* cluster of related sites (*Guardian Unlimited*) was restructured. In August 2001 *Guardian Unlimited* registered nearly 29.5 million page impressions: in June 1999 the figure was just over 9.5 million. It claims to have almost one million unique users. Almost half of those visiting the sites do not read the paper version of *The Guardian*.

The Electronic Telegraph recorded 15 million page impressions when last measured; MegaStar, the web site of *the Daily Star*, 17.5 million; *the Sunday Times* 5.25 million, and *The Times* 4.25 million. The regional newspaper, *the Belfast Telegraph* had 1.6 million hits. The This Is London site, operated by an arm of the national and local newspaper publisher, Associated, and linked to the (London) *Evening Standard*, registered nearly 1.5 million users in September 2001. Another Associated site, UK Plus, had more than 1.25 million users, and Femail, which is associated with *the Daily Mail's* women's pages, 285,000 users.

None of these compares to BBC Online, however. It claims to have 4.9 million users, and registered more than 97.5 million page impressions in 1999, 60 per cent of which were at the News site. By May 2000, the figure had risen to 89 million hits on the News site alone, and in March 2001, the BBC was claiming 120.6 million hits a month for News, nearly 49 million for Sport and over 25 million for Education.

More than half of all UK adults regularly use the Internet.

5. News Agencies

London is a major global communications hub, and many news and pictures agencies, working for both the press and broadcasting, are located there. It is the global headquarters of Reuters, and the base for a number of other international agencies, including AFX, the fourth largest global financial news agency; APTV; Camera Press; CNN International; FT Business News; Gemini News; Magnum Photos; The Image Bank, the world's largest source of contemporary images; and World Radio Network. In addition, many agencies operate London bureaux - among them, ABC News Intercontinental; Agence France Presse; ANSA; Associated Press; Australian Associated Press; Bloomberg News; Canadian Press; CBS News; Deutsche Presse Agentur; Dow Jones; EFE (Spanish News Agency);

Islamic Republic News Agency; Jiji Press; Kuwait News Agency; NBC Worldwide; New Zealand Press Association; Russian Information Agency - Novosti; Saudi Press Agency; Tass/Itar; UPI, and Xinhua News Agency of China.

The number of UK journalists working in agencies and as freelancers has increased enormously in recent years. There are hundreds of agencies, including picture agencies. The national agency is the Press Association which operates in both London and 12 regional cities. Agencies located outside London which have some international focus include Pacemaker (Belfast) and The Press Features Syndicate (Eastbourne).

6. National Media Policies

The election of a Labour Government in 1997 and its re-election in 2001 resulted in no significant change in media policy from that pursued by the Conservatives for the previous 18 years. The determination remains to encourage the development of large media conglomerates, despite the dangers of monopoly, which are regarded as being able to compete internationally. The market is seen as the main mechanism for ensuring pluralism in output through the exploitation of niches and segments. This has permitted not only the formation and growth of cross-media conglomerates but also the 'privatization' of many national media events, such as major sporting occasions, which are no longer broadcast free by the BBC or ITV, but are sold to subscribers to satellite, cable and digital services, and have proved to be the main engine behind the expansion of both pay- and digital TV.

The organization believed to be most under threat from this policy was the BBC. For much of the decade up to 1996 it was suggested that the BBC might itself be privatized, or at least part-financed through advertising revenues. Actually, its charter as a public service corporation was renewed until 2006, and the licence fee system seems likely to continue indefinitely under Labour. Nevertheless, cuts in public funding and pressure for efficiency savings have led to restructuring, reductions in staff, greater managerialism, and new commercial ventures. Although fiercely resented by many inside the Corporation, these developments, it can be argued, have left the BBC in a stronger, rather than weaker, position, as the major media 'voice' in the UK.

The Government's vision for the media for the foreseeable future appears to be for further consolidation and digital convergence. This has presented particular challenges to existing regulatory régimes.

7. Accountability Systems

The still highly regulated nature of broadcasting in the UK provides the basis for broadcast media accountability. The Broadcasting Standards Commission has responsibility for regulating the portrayal of violence and sexual conduct, and issues of taste and decency in all television, as well as handling complaints of invasions of privacy and unfair treatment. The Independent Television

Commission (ITC) regulates commercial television, and the Radio Authority commercial radio. All three statutory bodies have codes of practice and publish their findings on complaints.

As a public corporation, the BBC is ultimately responsible to parliament through its 12 publicly appointed governors. Many of its plans have to be approved by Government Ministers. Vacancies for governors were advertised for the first time in 1998. There are also national Broadcasting Councils in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. On a more day-to-day basis, the BBC's *Producer Guidelines* act like a code of practice and the Corporation has a Program Complaints Unit available to the general public.

Attempts to introduce statutory regulation of the press in the late 1980s and early 1990s were unsuccessful. Instead, the newspaper and magazine sectors adopted a self-regulatory regime operated through the Press Complaints Commission (PCC). It has a code of practice, hears complaints and publishes its findings. Its chairman, currently Lord Wakeham, also makes public pronouncements from time to time.

For the most part, the UK media are regulated more by general law. In total, it is estimated, more than 140 pieces of legislation have specific relevance to the media, and litigation remains a favoured method (at least among those who can afford it) of bringing the media to account. Other forms of accountability have less effect. Some national newspapers appointed ombudsmen in the 1980s but few are still active, although *The Guardian* has a Readers' Editor who publishes corrections and comments on complaints. Similarly, Channel 4 broadcasts a weekly show, *Right to Reply*, in which viewers can confront program makers with their complaints. The main journalists' trade union, the National Union of Journalists (NUJ), has had a code of conduct since 1936, but its Ethics Council is largely moribund.

In the autumn of 2001 the Government introduced legislation to establish a new, single regulatory body, Ofcom, which will replace all the broadcasting regulators mentioned above and include the telecommunications body, Oftel, in one operation. Ofcom is scheduled to begin work in 2003; but there is still some uncertainty as to exactly what it will do - whether it will focus on consumer safeguards, such as access, pricing and competition; if it will oversee content (including Internet content), and whether its remit will extend to the BBC.

8. Media Organizations

The main employers' organizations are the British Media Industry Group (a lobbying organization established by major print companies); Cable Communications Association (covering the cable TV industry); Commercial Radio Companies' Association; ITV Network Centre; National Association of Press Agencies; Newspaper Publishers' Association (national newspaper sector); Newspaper Society (regional and local newspapers); PACT (independent producers); Periodical Publishers' Association (magazines); Publishers'

Association (books); Scottish Daily Newspaper Society and Scottish Newspapers Publishers' Association.

Some of the major industry bodies are: Audit Bureau of Circulations; Book Trust; Commonwealth Broadcasting Association; Commonwealth Press Union; Broadcasters' Audience Research Board (Barb); Institute of Local Television; National Readership Surveys; Radio Joint Audience Research; Royal Television Society. The International Federation of the Periodical Press (FIPP) is based in London.

The major occupational/professional groups are: Association of British Editors; British Society of Magazine Editors; Commonwealth Journalists' Association; Directors' Guild of Great Britain; Guild of Editors; Media Society; Radio Academy; Women in Journalism.

The main trade unions are: Broadcasting, Entertainment, Cinematograph and Theatre Union (Bectu); Chartered Institute of Journalists (IoJ); Federation of Entertainment Unions; Graphical, Paper and Media Union; National Union of Journalists (NUJ).

9. Main recent media developments

The Government issued a consultative White Paper on communications in December 2000, and promised legislation towards the end of 2002 (likely to take effect in 2003). The White Paper suggested that cross-media ownership restrictions might be further relaxed to allow a single ITV operator; fewer key radio companies (perhaps as few as three dominating the network); more mergers of newspaper companies, and allowing print organizations to control TV and radio stations. Additionally, there was to be a single broadcasting-telecommunications regulatory body, Oftel, which would extend its remit to the BBC and the Internet (see above). Finally, the Government expressed its eagerness to promote the uptake of digital broadband services.

In an attempt to balance out this apparent commitment to commercialization, the public service dimension of broadcasting (and the Internet) were to be protected, and guaranteed space in the new digital cable and satellite systems.

There was to be an extended period of consultation, but the debate seemed to go on interminably. Meanwhile, the Government appeared to reject the idea of creating a single ITV provider, and of abandoning restrictions on newspaper companies owning TV and radio interests. It was felt, however, that there were divisions within the Government, with the Department of Trade in favour of more commercialism, and the Department for Media Culture and Sport against it.

Consolidation and convergence caused particular problems for the BBC. To satisfy the Government's demands and to protect its position as a major international television organization, the Corporation has invested heavily in digital provision, diverting resources from its majority analogue services, and is accused of moving its content 'downmarket' to match commercial TV and radio stations.

In 2001, the BBC sought permission to inaugurate four new digital television channels and five new radio networks. The Government approved all of these, except for BBC3, which was meant to provide a service specifically for viewers under - 35. It did give the go-ahead, however, to BBC4 (an arts, sciences, history, philosophy and current affairs channel) and two children's TV channels, as well as radio stations focused on black music and news; 'gold' music; speech, and sports, and an Asian Network.

10. Prime sources for detailed information

The hard copy starting-point for researching the UK media is the annual *Guardian Media Guide*, published in November. There is a small number of other annual publications, including *Benn's Media*, *Willings Press Guide* and *Pims Media Directories*. In addition, British Rate and Data (Brad) publishes a series of guides and directories, intended principally for the advertising industry but of general use. *The Blue Book of British Broadcasting* and *BBC Broadcasting Research* are also useful.

There are also many journals and periodicals devoted to aspects of the media. These include *the British Journal of Photography*; *British Journalism Review*; *Free Press* (Campaign for Press and Broadcasting Freedom); *Press Gazette*; *Broadcasting*; *Media Week* and *Campaign*.

Two newspapers in particular have specialist media sections - *The Guardian*, which publishes a tabloid supplement on Mondays, and *The Times* (Fridays). The former hosts a web site, *MediaGuardian*, which has breaking stories and current statistics as well as an archive.

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