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**КОММУНИКАЦИЯ И СРЕДСТВА МАССОВОЙ  
ИНФОРМАЦИИ**

**Учебно-методические материалы для студентов III  
курса отделения «Международные отношения»**

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В учебно-методических материалах содержатся аутентичные тексты по темам «Коммуникация» и «Средства массовой информации в современном мире». Особое внимание уделено проблемам межличностной коммуникации в диадах и группах. Представленные материалы содержат информацию об организации и различных аспектах работы современных печатных изданий и телевидения.

Каждый текст снабжен письменными и устными заданиями, направленными на работу с лексическим и грамматическим материалом, а также предполагающими детальное обсуждение затронутых в текстах проблем.

Предложенные тексты обеспечивают студентов информацией по изучаемым темам и служат необходимым дополнением в работе с другими учебными материалами.

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## INTRODUCTION

### Communication

Read this text through quickly to complete this sentence:

According to the author, communication involves three main things:

(1)..... (2) ..... and (3) .....

Communicating - or getting our message across -is the concern of us all in our daily lives in whatever language we happen to use. Learning to be better communicators is important to all of us in both our private and public lives. Better communication means better understanding of ourselves and others; less isolation from those around us and more productive, happy lives.

We begin at birth by interacting with those around us to keep warm, dry and fed. We learn very soon that the success of a particular communication strategy depends on the willingness of others to understand and on the interpretation they give to our meaning. Whereas a baby's cry will be enough to bring a mother running with a clean nappy and warm milk in one instance, it may produce no response at all in another. We learn then that meaning is never one-sided. Rather, it is *negotiated*, between the persons involved.

As we grow up our needs grow increasingly complex, and along with them, our communication efforts. Different words, we discover, are appropriate in different settings. The expressions we hear in the playground or through the bedroom door may or may not be suitable at the supper table. We may decide to use them anyway to attract attention. Along with words, we learn to use intonation, gestures, facial expression, and many other features of communication to convey our meaning to persons around us. Most of our communication strategies develop unconsciously, through imitation of persons we admire and would like to resemble to some extent - and the success we experience in our interactions.

Formal training in the classroom affords us an opportunity to gain systematic practice in an even greater range of communicative activities. Group discussions, moderated by the teacher, give young learners important practice in taking turns, getting the attention of the group, stating one's views and perhaps disagreeing with others in a setting other than the informal family or playground situations with which they

are familiar. Classrooms also provide practice in written communications of many kinds. Birthday cards are an early writing task for many children. Reports, essays, poems, business letters, and job application forms are routinely included in many school curricula and provide older learners with practical writing experience.

A concern for communication extends beyond school years and into adult life. Assertiveness training, the development of strategies for conquering stage fright, and an awareness of *body language* - the subtle messages conveyed by posture, hand movement, eyes, smile - are among the many avenues to improved communication as adults. The widespread popularity of guides to improving communication within couples and between parents and children illustrates our ever present concern with learning to communicate more effectively in our most intimate relationships, to understand and be understood by those closest to us.

Training of an even more specialized nature is available to those whose professional responsibilities or aspirations require it. Advice on how to dress and appear 'businesslike', including a recommendation for the deliberate use of technical jargon to establish authority, is available to professional women who want to be taken seriously in what has historically been considered a man's world. Specialized courses in interviewing techniques are useful for employers and others who interview people frequently in their professional lives.

One of the important lessons to be learnt here, as in other communicative contexts, is that what matters is not the intent but the interpretation of the communicative act. Conveyance of meaning in unfamiliar contexts requires practice in the use of the appropriate *register* or *style* of speech. If a woman wants to sound like a business executive, she has to talk the way business executives talk while they are on the job. The same register would of course be inappropriate when talking of personal matters with a spouse or intimate friend. Similarly executives who must cope with an investigative reporter may be helped to develop an appropriate style. They need to learn how to convey a sense of calm and self-assurance. Effective communication in this particular context may require the use of language to avoid a direct answer or to hide one's intent while appearing to be open and forthright. In both instances an understanding of what is *really* happening, as opposed to what one would *like* to see happening is the first step towards improved communication.

Communication then is a continuous process of *expression*, *interpretation* and *negotiation*.

**INTENSIVE READING****INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION**

Being on the job calls for interacting constantly with co-workers. Many jobs also include contact with people outside of the organization. Communication between organizations takes place in various ways. Corresponding by mail, talking by phone, and speaking in person each calls for clear communication of information, opinions, and attitudes. Recognizing the attitudes and values of people of other cultural backgrounds makes it easier to communicate or work together. After all, it is not necessary to abandon your personal beliefs to respect others, even when their thinking does not agree completely with your own. We all face various cultural backgrounds and styles of conduct at work. One may classify them in different ways. Here we are presenting one of the classifications.

**The Superfriendlies**

Superfriendlies try to get along with everyone and try to be nice at all costs. They do not make trouble and get very nervous when they see people arguing or fighting. They value relationship above all else and are quite willing to sacrifice achievement for harmony. They go out of their way to maintain peace in a group even if it is a false peace.

They will often allow themselves to be exploited and will not speak up even if accused unjustly. They cannot deal with the idea that someone may not like them or even be mad at them. They are quite willing to give up their own desires and give in to the desires of others as long as it means acceptance by the group. Their motto is "Peace at any cost!"

**The Tough Guys**

Tough guys (including women) enjoy a good fight and love to argue about problems and issues. When they have their mind set on accomplishing a particular achievement, they work toward that goal with a single-minded effort that astounds their co-workers. They sacrifice a great deal to be a winner. It does not matter to them whether other people like them or agree with their tactics. In their struggle for power, they show very little concern for the feelings of others and often yell or shout when things don't go their way. They seldom regret sacrificing

friendship for success. Their motto is: "Winning isn't the only thing. It's everything."

### **The Experts**

Experts set themselves up as authorities on any matter - technical, social, or political. They seem to have all the answers and enjoy making suggestions. They are very happy to give advice on any problem and do not mind sharing their vast knowledge with their co-workers. Their motto is: "Ask me anything; I'll give you the answer."

### **The Logical Problem Solvers**

Logical problem solvers concentrate on tasks instead of on people. Often they don't understand why some employees are having problems with each other. To the logical problem solvers, emotional problems are not "real" and feelings don't matter in a business environment. They prefer to see all problems from an intellectual point of view and try to find a logical solution to any conflict. Their motto is: "There seems to be no logical basis for emotional conflict."

### **The Pessimists**

Pessimists always expect the worst. They don't believe in luck and try to prepare for negative results. They dampen spirits when co-workers start to get excited about the idea or when enthusiasm runs high. Generally they would not be surprised if the company went out of business and everyone got fired. Their motto is: "It won't work."

### **The Pollyannas**

Pollyannas look at the world through rose-colored glasses. They keep hoping that everything will turn out well despite many signs to the contrary. They try to keep morale high by telling everyone that things will get better. They tend to smile a lot. They are sure that they will be happy and successful even if they don't deserve to be. Their motto is: "It'll all work out. No problem."

### **The Complainers**

Complainers enjoy griping. Nothing is ever good enough for them. In their mind, all the bosses are too demanding and the company is trying to cheat everyone. They complain that co-workers are either too lazy and not carrying their load or compulsive about their work and trying to impress their superiors. The temperature in their office is either too hot or

too cold and the food in the cafeteria is never edible. Their motto is: "This place stinks."

## The Indecisive

Indecisive people have a hard time making up their minds. They put off making any decision for fear it might be a wrong one. When given a new responsibility, they continue to ask everyone for advice long after they should have mastered the task. They are so afraid of making a mistake that it will take them forever to finish a project. Their motto is: "You can't be too careful."

## The Middle of the Roaders

Middle of the roaders look for the middle ground in any conflict. They try to find a compromise for any position and feel that no matter what the situation, each side should be gaining something. Often as a result of these compromises, neither group wins anything and both may lose.

### Exercise I. Fill in the gaps with the words from the list below:

on the spot                      directly                      assertive                      correspondence  
in person

1. It is the best way to speak to the supervisor about your problems\_\_\_\_\_.
2. When the supervisor asked about her career goals, the best answer was \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Our management demands that the receptionist should always be\_\_\_\_\_.
4. An efficient secretary responds to \_\_\_\_\_ as soon as possible after it is received.
5. You should not go over your supervisor's head. Try to solve the problems \_\_\_\_\_ with him.

### Exercise II. Choose the best suitable variant to substitute the underlined parts of the sentences:

1. Socializing on the job is one way to make agreeable friends.
  - a) enduring                      c) elderly
  - b) congenial                      d) numerous
2. Bill seemed sure that he would win the interview.
  - a) eager                      c) confident
  - b) hopeful                      d) resigned

3. I do not believe that the person of her age and experience can be so naive.  
 a) unsophisticated                      c) stupid  
 b) loyal                                      d) treacherous
4. The committee said that all interviews would have to be conducted in person.  
 a) by phone                                  c) by mail  
 b) in the future                              d) face to face
5. My boss really put me on the spot when he asked me to speak before the board of directors.  
 a) reprimanded me                      c) praised me  
 b) expected a lot                          d) bothered me

**Exercise III. Range the faults/misconducts at work from the most serious to the less serious:**

1. gambling on the job
2. using drugs on the job
3. drinking alcohol while working ~
4. using the company phone for personal calls
5. punching in a time card for a friend who will be a little late
6. using a company car for personal business
7. borrowing a company typewriter without asking permission but returning it the next day



## COMMUNICATION AND ATTITUDE

### Management Style

There is a statement: "Management is getting work done through people." A manager's authority in an organization is a matter of rank. Each manager handles authority in a unique way known as management style. One supervisor may be hurried and curt, while another may be patient and friendly. And so it is that some managers are easier to work with than others.

Management style is one part training, nine parts personality. Yet, as an old saying goes, nothing breeds success like success. Higher job status usually increases a person's prestige. In contemporary society, wealth and career success are very important in determining social status. A high-ranking manager expects and receives a great deal of respect from co-workers.

Respect is expressed both verbally and nonverbally. For example, a supervisor respects an employee who is subordinate to follow instructions and take suggestions without resistance or resentment, for a supervisor, regardless of age or sex, has been granted authority. Everyone works in his or her domain. Everyone should adhere to the rules of conduct, i.e. statement of employment duties and responsibilities. Trying to avoid conflicts with anyone in your organization is one of the most important things. So learn how to do that.

## Lines of Communication

How should you speak to different people in the organization? Sometimes it is difficult, especially in foreign language. What are the main language functions? They are: 1) exchanging information; 2) making requests; 3) persuading others to do what we want; 4) evaluating; 5) expressing feelings, opinions, and attitudes. How can we use those functions in our everyday communication at work? Let us consider some cases.

You should think of register use.

Signal when you don't understand: "I beg your pardon?"

Ask that critical information be repeated: "I think I remember how to get started, but I am not sure what to do when I've made a mistake and what to do when I'm finished."

Ask for clarification: "I'm sorry, I'm not sure what you want me to do."

Double-check and ask for feedback.

Don't worry about saving face.

Your boss knows that it is much cheaper and less time-consuming to repeat directions and prevent errors than to fix mistakes after they have occurred.

Be honest and don't try to cover up mistakes.

Let us consider several examples how to talk to different people.

a) *I'm sorry; I didn't mean to do that. I promise you it won't happen again.*

Relationship: talking to a manager or other superior

b) *You must feel terrible. I wish there were something I could do.*

Relationship: talking to a friend or a subordinate

c) *I'm sorry, but you will just have to learn to work a little faster.*

Relationship: manager to a subordinate

d) *Why don't I stay after work for a few minutes and show you how to fill out those forms?*

Relationship: friend, peer, boss to subordinate

e) *I don't quite see things the same way.*

Relationship: peer, subordinate to boss, superior to subordinate

**Exercise I. Match the words and their definitions:**

- |                |  |
|----------------|--|
| a) Curt        | 1. follow or conform to                                  |
| b) Domain      | 2. a very good friend                                    |
| c) Subtle      | 3. speaking or replying in a brief and rather a rude way |
| d) Subsequent  | 4. a system of grades or levels within organizations     |
| e) Buddy       | 5. not obvious, barely noticeable                        |
| f) adhere to   | 6. particular area of activity or interest               |
| g) socializing | 7. following as a consequence; happening as a result     |
| h) hierarchy   | 8. conversing about nonwork-related matters              |

**Exercise II. What would you say and do in the following situations:**

1. Your boss confronts you with the fact that you have come in late to work three times this week. Respond to criticism; give reasons.
2. Your co-worker says to you: "You seem to be such an interesting person. Why don't we go out sometime?"
3. You are supposed to be at work at 9 a.m., but at 8:30 there is a family emergency. Call the office and state the problem. Give reasons.
4. Your boss confronts you with the fact that you have been taking long lunch hours. Respond to criticism; admit fault and make a promise.
5. One of your co-workers explains you that she/he has more work than she/he feels she/he can possibly handle. Make a suggestion.
6. As you get to your car in the morning to drive to work, you realize that your car has a flat tire. Call into work, ask to talk to your boss, and explain the problem. Apologize and explain what you are planning to do about getting to work.
7. You were supposed to meet an important business associate downtown for lunch at noon. Somehow the meeting completely slipped your mind until a co-worker mentioned it. It is five minutes until noon. It will take you at least twenty minutes to drive downtown. Discuss the best way to handle the situation with your partner.

**Exercise III. Evaluate the following faults as to how serious/not serious they are:**

1. selling something to fellow employees while at work
2. being fifteen minutes late six times in one month
3. calling in sick to get extra vacation time
4. wasting time at work on a regular basis
5. having several drinks during lunch
6. taking 40 minutes on 30 minutes breaks

7. working on your personal bills rather than on assigned work

**Exercise IV. Classify the following phrases according to the register use:**

a. peers talking; b. subordinate talking to supervisor; c. supervisor talking to subordinate; d. unacceptable tone.

In some cases more than one answer is possible.

1. We seem to be having a problem. I would like to see you in my office in about ten minutes.
2. We seem to be having a problem. Maybe we'd better get together after lunch and talk about it. What do you think?
3. Please, sir, you must hire my friend; he will be the best worker you've ever had.
4. I am sure you are aware that personal phone calls are unacceptable.
5. You'd better watch out. If they catch you making personal phone calls, you'll be in trouble.
6. I want these letters out by tomorrow morning. Every single one of them. And don't tell me that it can't be done.
7. How am I supposed to finish these letters by tomorrow? What am I, a robot or something?
8. You are an extremely attractive young woman, Miss Jones, and I am sure you will go far in this organization. I will expect you to come to my apartment this evening so that we can discuss your future with this company.
9. Mr. Smith is always ridiculing me and making me feel stupid. He is making me miserable. I don't know what to do.
10. Could you explain to me in detail what I am doing wrong.
11. I wonder if you can be so kind as to loan me five dollars. I seem to be somewhat short of cash.
12. I'm having real trouble figuring out what you are saying. Could you slow down a little?



**EXTENSIVE READING**

**RELATIONSHIPS AT WORK**

**1** What sorts of problems can arise in relationships between people who work together? Discuss your ideas.

**2** Read the text quickly and decide which of the following titles would suit it best:

- A Dealing with conflict
- B Rules of relationships
- C Managing your staff

Getting on well with colleagues, as anyone who works in an office knows, is a vital element in our working lives. Many office jobs involve a great deal of time spent talking. One British study of 160 managers, for example, found that they spent between one third and 90 per cent of their time with other people.

‘Working relationships,’ write social psychologists Michael Argyle and Monika Henderson, ‘are first brought about by the formal system of work, but are elaborated in several ways by informal contacts of different kinds... It is essential for such relationships to develop if co-operation at work is to succeed.’ And good relationships at work, research shows, are one of the main sources of job satisfaction and well-being.

Are there any ‘rules of relationships’ that might be useful as general markers of what to do and what not to do in your dealings with others?

### **‘Universal’ rules**

Michael Argyle and his colleagues have found that there are such rules. Through interviews with people they generated a number of possible rules. Then they asked others to rate how important those rules were in twenty-two different kinds of relationships. These included relationships with spouses, close friends, siblings and work colleagues as well as relationships between work subordinates and their superiors.

The researchers discovered five ‘universal’ rules that applied to over half of all these relationships:

1. Respect the other’s privacy.
2. Look the other person in the eye during conversation.
3. Do not discuss what has been said in confidence with the other person.
4. Do not criticize the other person publicly.
5. Repay debts, favors or compliments no matter how small.

This doesn’t mean that nobody breaks these rules, as we all know - it just means that they are seen as important. The ‘looking in the eye’ rule, for example, is a crucial aspect of good social skills. It is very uncomfortable to have to talk to someone who never, or hardly ever, looks at you during the conversation. One needs to look at the person one is talking to to see if they’re still attending and to monitor their reactions (if they’ve completely stopped looking at you and appear

transfixed by the flowers in the window-box, it means shut up). To signal interest, the listener has to look quite frequently at the person who is speaking.

## Work rules

As well as these general guidelines for keeping good relationships, Argyle and his associates questioned people about rules that apply very specifically to work settings. In addition to the 'universal' rules they came up with nine 'rules for co-workers':

1. Accept one's fair share of the workload.
2. Be cooperative with regard to the shared physical working conditions (e.g. light, temperature, noise).
3. Be willing to help when requested.
4. Work cooperatively despite feelings of dislike.
5. Don't denigrate co-workers to superiors.
6. Address the co-worker by first name.
7. Ask for help and advice when necessary.
8. Don't be over-inquisitive about each other's private lives.
9. Stand up for the co-worker in his/her absence.

Again, these make a lot of sense. And number 4 is an interesting one - it raises the big problem of colleagues with whom you simply don't get on. In one of their studies, Monika Henderson, Michael Argyle and co-workers defined four categories of work relationships:

1. *Social friends*: 'friends in the normal sense who are known through work and seen at social events outside the work setting'. Research shows that up to a quarter of friends are made through work.
2. *Friends at work*, 'friends who interact together over work or socially at work, but who are not invited home and do not engage in joint leisure activities outside the work setting'.
3. *Work-mates*, 'people at work seen simply through formal work contacts and with whom interactions are relatively superficial and task-oriented, and not characterised by either liking or dislike'.
4. *Conflict relations*: 'work colleagues who are actively disliked'.



## EXTENSIVE READING

### WORK ATTITUDES

When a customer asks a difficult question, sometimes Americans reply with a humorous expression "*I only work here!*" This expression means: I am not the owner or the manager, just an employee. Unfortunately, it can also indicate that a person is not willing to help the

customer if doing so involves any extra work. This article examines more positive attitudes toward one's work.

## **Initiative**

There's probably no better way to please an employer than by showing the willingness to do a job well. One way is to work conscientiously, making sure that a job is done carefully. However, there are many ways to communicate a positive attitude toward a job such as listening attentively to instructions and asking questions whenever necessary, also showing initiative. Initiative means being ready to do a little more than your own job, to do things that need to be done, without being told to do them. Initiative means arriving on time, ready to work, and working as carefully and quickly as possible.

## **Dependability**

Commitment to work is an attitude deeply rooted in many cultures. Commitment to job responsibilities comes from the belief that a good person is hard-working. This idea has been held by cultures in Europe, Asia, America and elsewhere for centuries. In some cases it was connected to religious beliefs. The belief that working hard is a personal virtue survives in most countries to this day.

An employee shows commitment to the job in many ways. One way is keeping to the schedule. Working more is fine; working less is not. Keeping to the schedule faithfully is called dependability. Dependability involves several attitudes. One of these attitudes is honesty: speaking truthfully and not cheating the employer in any way. A related attitude is loyalty, which is shown by speaking well of the organization and the job.

Sometimes an employee can get by with little or no extra effort. However, a negative attitude is shown when an employee is uninterested or unwilling to do a fair share of work. A person who seems lazy is not very valuable to an organization. Such an employee is unlikely to receive promotions and may lose the job. On the other hand, positive attitudes earn real rewards.

## **Accepting Corrections and Criticism**

It is normal for people to feel uncomfortable about being judged on the job. Most people don't like being judged or evaluated by others. Like bad wine, criticism is hard to swallow. While some supervisors give correction in a friendly way, others do not. Yet directions, even when given firmly, are only meant to help get the job done. After all, only work

is criticized - not the worker - and the work can be improved. Criticism is easier to accept when not taken personally.

### **Conflict Management: "What's the Problem?"**

In any employment situation some amount of tension, frustration, or even conflict can be considered normal. There are many types of conflict. Some are related to the nature of the work itself. All too often, however, conflicts are related not to the work but rather to various social or even cultural factors. Sometimes conflicts are related to breakdowns in communication, but they can also occur when people understand each other very well. If people do not share the same views of goals, conflicts may be inevitable no matter how well they communicate. At times employees have personality clashes and fail to get along. Although it is best to resolve conflicts whenever possible, many times conflicts cannot be avoided. When you find yourself in a situation where a conflict is unavoidable, it is best to learn to develop strategies to manage it.

### **Various types of conflict**

It is not only what we communicate that is important, but also how we communicate it. In a multi cultural work environment some degree of conflict and misunderstanding is unavoidable. This is so because values, beliefs, and attitudes in one culture are often very different from those held in another. Some cultural conflicts are also caused because there are different expectations about how people should speak, behave, or make decisions.

Many conflicts can be related to unclear chains of command. Imagine how you might feel if your immediate supervisor had given you one assignment, and a little later his boss, whom you normally do not report to, were to come and ask you to do something else. Actually, in this case, your boss's boss would not have shown proper respect for the normal lines of communication.

*Want the best advice? Enjoy your work, laugh and make friends. Give it all you've got.*

### **Exercise I. Fill in the gaps with the words from the list below.**

*dependability      commitment      initiative      conscientiously  
fair share*

1. Her employer appreciated that she worked \_\_\_\_ and usually stayed in the office longer than other employees.
2. The new secretary showed her \_\_\_\_\_ by keeping to the schedule.

3. His \_\_\_\_\_ to the company was so great that he could phone there every day when on vacation.
4. The accountants complained that the new employee did not do his \_\_\_\_\_ of work.
5. If you act responsibly and show that you have \_\_\_\_\_, you will sooner or later be promoted.

### Exercise II. Match the words and their definitions:

- |                               |  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| a) objective                  | 1. what one receives for doing something good                |
| b) motivation                 | 2. sudden stop in flow of communication                      |
| c) rewards                    | 3. what you are trying to achieve by certain actions         |
| d) personality clash          | 4. exaggerate the importance of smth. more than is necessary |
| e) resolve                    | 5. a cause or reason that makes a person want to do smth.    |
| f) overgeneralization         | 6. conflict based upon incompatible styles and attitudes     |
| g) breakdown in communication | 7. find a solution to something                              |

### How to manage conflicts?

1. Find out the exact problem.
2. Think over your attitude to all the people involved in the conflict.
3. Think of what you are going to say and how to act.
4. Let all the people involved explain their attitude to the conflict.
5. Discuss the conflict situation but don't blame a person.
6. If you can't resolve the conflict, try to manage it.



## EXTENSIVE READING

### Nonverbal Communication

#### What Does It Mean to Communicate?

The word "communicate" has a long history. It has come to the English language, like many words, from Latin. To the ancient Romans, who spoke Latin, the term meant "to make common." In 1771, the first Encyclopedia Britannica defined communication as "the act of imparting something to another." Notice that these definitions do not limit communication to the use of words.

Once an understanding has passed between people, with or without words, they have communicated. This article examines the silent side of communication.

## **Nonverbal Communication**

Nonverbal communication includes eye contact, facial expressions, speaking distance, body gestures, and tone of voice. Some forms of nonverbal communication are common to people throughout the world; others vary from culture to culture. Between cultures, you are likely to discover some ways of communication that surprise you.

### **Eye Contact**

Meeting a person's eyes and maintaining eye contact is one way of showing interest in what that person is saying. It shows that you are paying attention to the speaker. Avoiding eye contact suggests that you may be uninterested, fearful, or inattentive. On the other hand, some people are made uncomfortable by lengthy eye contact.

It is usually appropriate to begin and end conversation with at least a glance to establish eye contact. Establishing eye contact serves as a sign of friendliness. It can also be used to signal a willingness to cooperate.

### **Speaking Distance**

The normal distance between speakers varies from one culture to the next. Latin Americans, for example, usually stand relatively close while talking — an arm length or so.

In the United States, speaking distance is usually two to four feet apart. A person born there is likely to become uncomfortable if someone stands much closer, since physical closeness is normally reserved for display an affection or anger. One may stand back to allow the normal speaking distance. Backing away might be seen as unfriendliness by the other. An unspoken misunderstanding could result, causing distrust for both speakers.

On the other hand, under the right circumstances even physical contact becomes an acceptable way of communicating. In formal situations, such as introductions, physical contact often takes the form of a handshake. Less formally, a brief touch of hand to shoulder or back

can express care toward another person. The same gesture can be used to show satisfaction with someone's work.

## **Gestures**

Gestures are physical movements that have specific meanings. You may shrug your shoulders to express doubt or uncertainty. You may nod to show agreement or attention. Certain gestures are known to people throughout the world; other gestures are not. Be careful. A gesture familiar in your own country may carry an entirely different meaning elsewhere in the world.

How do people learn gestures? Whether as adults or children, they learn by watching them used. If you don't fully understand a gesture, ask someone. Though people use gestures almost without thinking, they are an essential part of communication. Gestures add a dimension to speaking.

## **Facial Expressions**

How many ways can you smile? To flirt. To say "hello." To show politeness. To be friendly. To seek cooperation. To hide what you really feel.

Expressions are by no means simple to understand. Expressions communicate a wide range of attitudes and feelings. Eye contact, a smile, or even raised eyebrows may create a feeling of solidarity between people. At work, where interpersonal communication is essential, nonverbal communication expresses friendship. Nonverbal communication can tell co-workers that you care about them as people.

## **Tone of Voice**

Feelings and attitudes are only sometimes put into words. This fact may seem a bit surprising. Yet research has shown that people in the United States, for instance, use words to express emotion as little as 7 percent of time. The rest of the time, emotion is communicated nonverbally.

Attitudes are communicated primarily by tone of voice. Everyone recognizes the loud, high-pitched tone of anger. If I were reprimanded for arriving late to work, I would probably hear a harsh tone of voice. Fortunately, positive attitudes are more common than negative ones in the work place. In the end, tone of voice can become a tool for winning cooperation.

**Exercise I. Choose the right variant to substitute the underlined parts of the sentences:**

1. Lifting the shoulders is a gesture that indicates lack of interest.  
A) Napping  
B) Shrugging  
C) Sighing  
D) Yawning
2. His energy expressed in his eyes seemed to be boundless.  
A) without limits  
B) unnatural  
C) bright  
D) suspicious
3. Ralph Nader always speaks out with his gestures about everything.  
A) declares his opinion  
B) agrees  
C) shows  
D) has an interest
4. His flushed, angry face indicated a choleric nature.  
A) musical  
B) hot-tempered  
C) loyal  
D) jealous
5. A good secretary is usually an extrovert, who likes to mingle with people.  
A) clown  
B) neurotic  
C) hero  
D) person interested in external objects
6. I wonder why a person of her age and experience can be so naive.  
A) unsophisticated  
B) loyal  
C) stupid  
D) boring
7. The pessimist says the glass is half-empty; the optimist says it is half-full.  
A) pacifist  
B) person who looks on the good side  
C) man of principle  
D) colleague
8. The receptionist was a cheerful but phlegmatic person.  
A) calm  
B) dishonest  
C) practical  
D) interesting

### Exercise II. What would you say in the following situations?

1. You did not hear what someone said. What and how do you say?  
A) I apologize. C) Repeat please.  
B) I didn't hear. D) Pardon?
2. Your co-worker tells you he can't come to your party. What and how would you say?  
A) How shameful! C) I don't care.  
B) What a pity! D) You don't matter.
3. You have a drink with your friend. What and how do you say?  
A) Nothing at all! C) Cheers!  
B) To you trip! D) For your happiness!

4. Your co-worker is offering you some coffee. What and how would you answer?
- A) Here you are.                      C) There you are.  
B) Yes, please.                      D) No, please.
5. The visitor of your office is not looking where he is going. What and how would you say?
- A) Watch out, sir!                      C) Don't go!  
B) Don't worry!                      D) Look here, sir!



## FOR YOUR INFORMATION

### The Interview Guidelines

#### What is an interview?

The interview is perhaps the most professional tool in the hands of a broadcaster. It is a story based on questions and answers and as such may appear rather simple. But doing a good interview is far from being easy. As a matter of fact, interviewing is one of the most difficult and most rewarding jobs a broadcaster has to face.

#### The role of the interviewer

The interviewer is the mouth of the listener. He/she should know his/her audience and should have a clear idea of what an interested listener would ask. He/she represents the layman. A good interviewer will keep his/her own views in the background. For the task is to bring out the ideas and the personality of the interviewee and not his/her own.

#### The interviewee

Interviews are usually conducted with three types of interviewees:

- a) the celebrity                      b) the expert                      c) the man in the street

Each of the three calls for a different approach, for different techniques and a great deal of adaptability on the part of the interviewer.

#### The purpose of an interview

The main objective of an interview is to obtain from the interviewee in the shortest possible time and in the clearest possible way information, which the listener cannot get elsewhere, and to leave the listener with a better understanding of the subject than he had before.

## **The types of interviews**

There are many different types of interviews but essentially, they can be broken into three basic categories:

- the information interview which seeks to bring out facts
- the opinion interview which gathers views and comments
- the personality interview which portrays a great person

No interview will clearly fall into any of these three categories. The ideal interview will concentrate on one category while incorporating elements of either of the other two.

## **How to prepare an interview**

All interviews need careful preparation. It begins with research into the subject and into the person to be interviewed and ends with the drawing up of a tentative list of questions. Prepared questions, however, only serve as guidelines and should be altered where the need arises. Don't stick to them rigidly but adapt them to the flow of the interview.

## **How to approach, the interviewee**

Respect the interviewee and his views even if you do not agree with them. Show tact and politeness, no matter whether you are talking to a minister, a farmer or a housewife. For he or she is doing you a favor.

Be friendly, relaxed and natural. Put your interviewee at ease, try to encourage him. Let him feel you are interested in what he has to say. If not, he probably won't be interested in telling you.

## **How to conduct an interview**

Among principles and guidelines governing an interview, here are some of the most important ones:

- Keep your questions brief and to the point. Don't waste your interviewee's time: by making lengthy statements. Avoid questions which are vague or ambiguous. Ask for precise and detailed answers. Avoid leading questions and those which produce a "yes" or "no". Never ask more than one question at a time. Refrain from making personal remarks. Adjust your tone and language to the situation. Ask interesting and important questions. Otherwise why ask at all?
- Keep the interview going. An interview should run smoothly without unnatural breaks. Make sure each question is well linked to

the previous answer or else the interview will not flow. Pay attention to everything that is said.

- **Keep in control.** Make sure your interviewee keeps to the subject. If not, lead him back to the starting point. Let him talk, but don't let him get carried away. Guide him through the interview but don't impose yourself. Avoid technical jargon or at least have it explained. Interrupt only if you require clarification, if your interviewee loses himself in long winded answers or if he digresses from the subject. And don't forget to end with a good "tag" – a strong point of argument or an amusing thought. It will make your interview memorable.



## **INTENSIVE READING**

### **NEGOTIATING INTERNATIONALLY**

Negotiation is a process in which one individual tries to persuade another individual to change his or her ideas or behavior; it often involves one person attempting to get another to sign a particular contract or make a particular decision. Negotiation is the process in which at least two partners with different needs and viewpoints try to reach an agreement on matters of mutual interest. A negotiation becomes cross-cultural when the parties involved belong to different cultures and therefore do not share the same ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving. All international negotiations are cross-cultural. Some domestic negotiations, including two or more ethnic groups, are also cross-cultural. Therefore, a United Nations official negotiating with ambassadors concerning the agenda for upcoming disarmament talks; and French - and Flemish - speaking Belgians determining national language legislation are all negotiating cross-culturally.

### **SUCCESSFUL NEGOTIATIONS: PEOPLE, SITUATION, AND PROCESS**

Research has shown that each of the three areas on which the success of a negotiation is based - individual characteristics, situational contingencies, and strategic and tactical processes - vary considerably across cultures. Although all three have been found to be important, negotiators have most control over the process-strategy and tactics. Negotiators can influence the success or failure of a negotiation most directly by managing the process.

### **Qualities of a Good Negotiator**

What are the qualities of a good negotiator? According to John Graham's extensive research, the answer depends on whom you ask. Americans believe that effective negotiators are highly rational. Brazilians, to the surprise of many Americans, hold almost identical perceptions and differ only in replacing integrity with competitiveness as one of the most important qualities. The Japanese differ quite markedly from Americans and Brazilians. They stress an interpersonal, rather than a rational, focus. Japanese differ from Americans in stressing both verbal expressiveness and listening ability, whereas Americans only emphasize verbal ability. To the Chinese, a negotiator must be an interesting person and should show persistence and determination, the ability to win respect and confidence, preparation and planning skills, good judgment, and intelligence.

When negotiators deal with people from many cultures, the most important individual characteristics are good listening skills, an orientation toward people, a willingness to use team assistance, high self-esteem, high aspirations, and an attractive personality, along with credibility and influence within the home organization. These individual characteristics, although significant, are not the most important factors determining negotiated outcomes.

### **Negotiation Contingencies: Characteristics of the Situation**

Situations in which negotiators find themselves vary widely. Effective negotiators recognize and manage the impact of each situational factor on the negotiating process from both their own and their opponent's cultural perspective. In preparing for international negotiations, they attempt to imagine what the situation would look like through the eyes of the foreign team: What do they want? What is important to them? Who has power? What is at stake? What is our time frame? Situational contingencies influence success just as individual characteristics do.

*Location.* Should you meet at their office, your office, or at a neutral location? Negotiation wisdom generally advises sides to meet at their own or a neutral location. Meeting in a foreign country is disadvantageous to negotiators because it reduces access to information and increases travel-related stress and cost. Meeting at home allows a team to control the situation more easily.

Many negotiators select neutral locations. In choosing neutral locations, negotiators often select resorts located geographically halfway between the negotiating partners. For example, Asian and North American negotiators may select Hawaii for meetings; both sides travel,

both sides have reduced access to information, and consequently the incentive increases for both sides to conclude the negotiation as soon as possible.

*Physical Arrangements.* In traditional American negotiations, the two teams face each other, often on opposite sides of the boardroom table. Unfortunately, this arrangement maximizes competition. Sitting at right angles, on the other hand, facilitates cooperation. If negotiators view the process as a collaborative search for mutually beneficial outcomes (win-win solutions), the physical arrangements should support cooperation, not competition. As an alternative to the boardroom table, negotiators from both teams may choose to sit on the same side of the table, "facing the problem". In this way they compete with the problem, not with the people.

*Participants.* Who should attend the formal negotiating sessions? Americans tend to want to "go it alone" - they consider extra team members an unnecessary expense. This strategy is ineffective in international negotiations, where more is better. Why? First, the physical presence of more people communicates greater power and importance - an essential nonverbal message. Second, as discussed earlier, communicating cross-culturally is complex and difficult. Having some team members primarily responsible for listening to conversations and observing nonverbal cues and other members primarily responsible for conducting substantive discussions is an extremely effective strategy. The number of teams and audiences present at a negotiation varies. Should the press be present? Will public opinion make it easier or more difficult to develop mutually beneficial solutions? The public opinion power varies considerably across cultures. For example, negotiating with government officials from such open democracies as Australia, Canada, and New Zealand requires broader public debate than is generally necessary in the more tightly controlled governments of South Korea and Iran, or in communist countries such as North Korea, Cuba, and Albania.

*Time Limits.* The duration of a negotiation can vary markedly across cultures. Americans, being particularly impatient, often expect negotiations to take a minimum amount of time. During the Paris Peace Talks designed to negotiate an end to the Vietnam War, the American team arrived in Paris and made hotel reservations for a week. Their Vietnamese counterparts leased a chateau for a year. As the negotiations proceeded, the frustrated Americans were forced to continually renew their weekly reservations to accommodate the more measured pace of the Vietnamese.

Negotiators generally make more concessions as their deadline approaches. Americans' sense of urgency puts them at a disadvantage with respect to their less hurried negotiating partners. Negotiators from other countries recognize Americans' time consciousness, achievement orientation, and impatience. They know that Americans will make more concessions close to their deadline (time consciousness) in order to get a signed contract (achievement orientation).

*Status Differences.* The United States prides itself on its egalitarian, informal approach to life, in which titles do not seem particularly important and ceremonies are often considered a waste of time. American team members minimize status differences during negotiations: their use of first names promotes equality and informality. Unfortunately, this approach, while succeeding at putting Americans at ease, makes many foreigners uncomfortable. Most countries are more hierarchical and more formal than the United States, and most foreigners feel more comfortable in formal situations with explicit status differences. The Japanese, for example, must know the other person's position before being able to select the grammatically correct form of address. In Germany, negotiators would almost never address colleagues on their own team, let alone those from the opposing team, by first name.

Age, like title, connotes seniority and demands respect in most countries of the world. Sending a young, although brilliant, North American expert to Indonesia to lead a negotiating team is more likely to insult senior Indonesian officials than facilitate a successful exchange of technical information.

**Exercise I. Find in the text the antonyms for the following:**

international	strategic
success	emotional
to reduce	disadvantageous
informal	to minimize
uncomfortable	explicit

**Exercise II. Translate the following sentences into English paying special attention to the underlined parts:**

1. По обоюдному согласию, стороны решили прервать переговоры.
2. Благодаря общим усилиям, стороны пришли к соглашению.
3. На повестке дня у нас два вопроса.

4. На очередной серии переговоров стороны обсуждали соглашение о разоружении.
5. Необходимо предусмотреть всякого рода неожиданности/случайности.
6. Трудно завоевать его уважение.
7. Любая неудача подрывает в нем уверенность в себе.
8. Они будут платить нам премию в качестве дополнительного стимула.
9. Он что-то знает о пропавшем документе. Поговори с ним, чтобы облегчить поиски.
10. Я ценю Ваше благотворное влияние на мою дочь.
11. Партнеры решили пойти на взаимные уступки.
12. Он был поставлен в худшее/невыгодное положение, потому что он не знает языка.

## Discussion

### Answer the following questions:

1. When do negotiations become cross-cultural?
2. Which of the areas of negotiations (people, situation, and process) has most control? Why?
3. What are the most important characteristics of a good negotiator?
4. From what perspective should negotiating sides survey the situation?
5. What location is preferable for negotiations? What are its advantages/disadvantages?
6. What physical arrangements can facilitate cooperation?
7. What is the recommended number of team members at negotiations?
8. In what cases should the press be present?
9. Why is the time limits criterion vital? How can it be used for/against success at negotiations?
10. How do Americans/ the Japanese/ Germans perceive status differences?

## Negotiations Planning

Read through the text carefully and plan your own negotiations. Imagine that you were appointed the head of the team to prepare the upcoming negotiations with your American partners. Make up the draft of the future negotiations starting with the team building (what and how many team members would you include) and thinking further of the situational contingencies (location, physical arrangements, time limits, and status differences)



## INTENSIVE READING

### Negotiations

When governments or other bodies wish to reach agreements, they **hold** or have **talks**, **discussions** or **negotiations**. A meeting or a series of related meetings of this kind is a **round of talks**.

Where preparation is needed before the main talks, for example to decide on the meeting place and the participants, they may first hold **talks about talks**.

An official organization where representatives meet regularly to give speeches and exchange opinions, but which has no real power, is a **talking shop**.

### Talk combinations

Use the verbs from the list below to complete the extracts.

*conclude*  
*out off*

*attend*  
*convene*

*break off*  
*suspend*

*resume*  
*walk*

1. A Brazilian delegation flies to Washington today, Wednesday, to \_\_\_\_\_ talks with the International Monetary Fund which broke down without agreement last week.
2. It wants to cut interest rates as soon as it has successfully \_\_\_\_\_ talks on cutting the budget deficit.
3. Mr Alatas has made it clear that he would not \_\_\_\_\_ talks unless he was convinced of the commitment of all the parties concerned.
4. Mr Hamees is to travel to the Northern Jaffna peninsula in an attempt to meet the Tigers, who refused to \_\_\_\_\_ talks arranged on Thursday in the east of the island.
5. The latest attempt at negotiation broke down on Friday after one of the Mohawk factions \_\_\_\_\_ talks with the Quebec government.
6. Two of the world's largest tire makers, Germany's Continental and Italy's Pirelli, have decided not to merge. The two companies say they have \_\_\_\_\_ talks after 15 months.
7. Yesterday Nelson Mandela said the ANC would \_\_\_\_\_ talks with the government about a new constitution if a set of demands were not met by May 9<sup>th</sup>.
- 8.

### DELEGATES, OPPOSITE NUMBERS AND SHERPAS

A government, party or other entity may be represented by one or more **delegates**. A group of delegates representing one side is a **delegation**.

When the representative of A has the same job or rank as the representative of B, they are **counterparts** or **opposite numbers**.

Talks between heads of government or other very important representatives are **summits**, and the officials who prepare for them may be referred to as **sherpas**.

The final statement made to journalists and others at the end of talks is a communiqué or declaration.

*e.g. As is the way with these international gatherings, the declarations were largely drafted before the delegations arrived. Each country nominates one official who does much of the groundwork – sherpas, they're called, the traditional term for Himalayan mountain guides, who assist their charges to a rather different kind of summit.*

### Atmosphere and differences

**The atmosphere at talks** is often described in communiqués as **cordial**. Communiqués may talk of a **frank exchange of views** and **broad agreement** on a number of issues.

Where there is still disagreement communiqués may talk of **deep differences** that remain. Differences may be described in other ways.

Commentators may talk of differences **narrowing** (getting smaller) or **widening** (getting bigger). An obstacle to agreement is often described as a **stumbling block**.

Some of the adjectives below relate to the atmosphere at talks and others to differences between sides at talks. Complete them and say which describe 1) the atmosphere and 2) the differences.

- |                 |                |                 |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| a) fr__ndly     | e) m_j_r       | i) b_s_n_ssl_k_ |
| b) c_nstr_ct_v_ | f) r_l_x_d     | j) p_s_t_v_     |
| c) s_gh_f_e_nt  | g) f_nd_m_nt_l | k) fr_nk        |
| d) _pt_m_st_c   | h) sh_rp       | l) s_bst_nt_l   |

### Compromise and deadlock

A negotiating position, particularly one unlikely to change, is a **stance**. A stance is often described as **tough** or **aggressive**.

Negotiators try to reach agreement by making concessions, demanding less than they demanded earlier, hoping to get concessions from the other side, thus reaching agreement through **compromise**.

If one side refuses a proposal during talks, it **veto**es it, or uses its **veto**.

Where there is disagreement, the two sides are **at loggerheads**, and where there is no prospect of a change in negotiating positions, commentators talk about **deadlock**, or an **impasse**. Talks in this state are **deadlocked**.

**Compromise or deadlock?** Match the two parts of these extracts.

- 1 After Lucas described the character to his collaborators, Steven Spielberg,
  - 2 But after five hours of talks, the British government's political initiative for Northern Ireland
  - 3 If Clintonism were ever to exist, it would describe the art of picking a la carte from his favorite policy menus.
  - 4 Officially there has been no change in Taiwan's standing policy of 'three noes':
  - 5 Talks between El Salvador's leftist rebels and government representatives remain
  - 6 The 55-day budget deadlock in New York State has been broken.
  - 7 The Dalai Lama evidently has little hope of
- 
- A remained deadlocked. And neither side appears hopeful of a breakthrough.
  - B compromise with China's current rulers.
  - C deadlocked over the thorny problem of reforming El Salvador's US-backed military
  - D In Arkansas he has compromised so much that even at 45 he is the longest-serving governor in the country.
  - E no contact, no compromise, and no negotiation.
  - F The government and state lawmakers reached a tentative agreement last night.
  - G the two men compromised on 'someone like Harrison Ford.'

## Brinkmanship

Where there are obstacles to agreement, and discussions continue with difficulty, they **falter**. When discussions end because of disagreement, talks **break down, founder or collapse**.

When negotiators behave in a way that may cause talks to collapse, but hope to gain advantage if they continue, they may be accused of **brinkmanship**.

If someone is accused of **torpedoing or scuppering** talks, they are accused of intentionally causing them to collapse.

### **Breakthroughs, deals, accords, and agreements**

Sudden progress in talks is a **breakthrough**. Breakthroughs are often described as major, important, significant or dramatic and may lead to a successful **outcome** of the talks.

When talks are successful, the sides **reach agreement** or **strike an agreement**. An agreement may also be referred to as an **accord** or a **deal**.

Before it comes into effect, an agreement may have to be approved or **ratified** by an elected body such as a parliament, which may refuse **ratification** by vetoing the agreement.

### **Strained relations**

Two countries beginning diplomatic relations **establish** them. If they had diplomatic relations previously but **broke** them **off**, they **restore** them, **normalizing relations** between them. Bad relations are often described as **strained, tense** or **frosty**. Relations are said to be **soured** by something that negatively affects them.

When bad relations between countries improve, commentators talk about a **thaw** between the countries. A country having diplomatic relations with very few other countries is **diplomatically isolated**. When one country wants to put pressure on another, it may limit trade with that country and impose **sanctions**, or it may stop trade and other contacts and impose an **economic embargo**.

Diplomatic relations. Which of the verbs below mean the same as 1 'break off' and 2 'restore' in the context of diplomatic relations? Use appropriate forms of the verbs to complete the extracts below.

**a** resume    **b** renew    **c** re-open    **d** cut off    **e** break    **f** re-establish

- 1 Senegal and Mauritania have agreed in principle to \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations, broken off two years ago after bloody clashes along the Senegal river which forms their common frontier.
- 2 The Moscow talks were the first between senior diplomats of the two countries since the Soviet Union \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations with Israel in 1967.
- 3 Mexico and the Vatican \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations in 1867, when the reformist President Juarez confiscated all church properties and suppressed the religious orders.
- 4 The visit is taking place just over three months after Argentina and Britain agreed to \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations eight years after the two countries broke all links during the Falklands War.
- 5 In recent years, Albania has \_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations with most European countries.
- 6 Table tennis teams were visiting China before Nixon \_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_ diplomatic relations between Communist China and the United States.



### **Negotiation Strategy:**

#### **A Culturally Synergistic Approach**

In their excellent book entitled *Getting to Yes*, based on the work of the Harvard International Negotiation Project, Fisher and Ury propose a principled approach to negotiating. This approach involves four steps:

1. Separating the people from the problem
2. Focusing on interests, not on positions
3. Insisting on objective criteria (and never yielding to pressure)
4. Inventing options for mutual gain

Cultural differences make communication more difficult. Steps 1, 2, and 3 therefore become more difficult: understanding opponents, their interests, and their assessment criteria becomes more complex and fraught with cross-cultural communication pitfalls. By contrast, step 4 can become easier. Inventing options for mutual gain requires recognizing

and using differences. If cross-cultural differences are recognized, clearly communicated, and understood (steps 1, 2, and 3), they can become the very basis of constructing win-win solutions.

### Stages of a Negotiation

To prepare for an initial meeting, effective negotiators analyse the situation in terms of their own and their opponents' needs, goals, and underlying cultural values, determine the limits to their authority, assess power positions and relationships, identify facts to be confirmed, set an agenda, establish overall and alternative concession strategies, and make team assignments.

#### *Three Approaches to Each Stage of an International Negotiation*

<b>Traditional Approach (Competitive)</b>	<b>Principled Approach (Collaborative /Individual)</b>	<b>Synergistic Approach (Collaborative/Cultural)</b>
<i>Preparation</i> Define economic issues	<i>Preparation</i> Define interests	<i>Preparation</i> Cross-cultural training Define interests
<i>Relationship building</i> Assess counterpart	<i>Relationship building</i> Separate people from the problem	<i>Relationship building</i> Separate people from the problem Adjust to their style and pace
<i>Information exchange</i> Exchange task-related information. Clarify positions	<i>Information exchange</i> Exchange task- and participant-related information. Clarify interests	<i>Information exchange</i> Exchange task- and participant-related information. Clarify interests Clarify customary approaches
<i>Persuasion</i>	<i>Inventing Options for Mutual Gain</i>	<i>Inventing Options for mutual Gain Appropriate to both Cultures</i>

Following the preparation, formal negotiations proceed roughly through four stages:

1. Interpersonal relationship building (learning about the people)
2. Exchanging task-related information
3. Persuading
4. Making concessions and agreements

*Interpersonal Relationship Building.* The first phase of the face-to-face meeting involves getting to know the other people and helping them to

feel comfortable. During relationship building, parties develop respect and trust for members of the opposing team. In every negotiation, there is a relationship (you and them) and the substance (what you and they want). "Non-task sounding" begins the relationship building process of discovering general areas of similarity and difference in both the relationship and the substance. Similarities become the basis for personal relationships and trust; differences, the basis for mutual exchange. The strategy of separating the people from the problem implies that negotiators can reject their partners' suggestions without rejecting the people themselves, that they can disagree with their opponents' analysis without labelling them negatively, and that they can enjoy and trust their opponents as individuals while rejecting their proposals.

Being particularly task- and efficiency-oriented, Americans usually see little need to "waste time" on getting to know people in non-task-related conversations. Americans want to "get down to business" -to discussing and agreeing on task-related issues - almost immediately, often after only five to ten minutes. Americans consequently focus on signing contracts rather than developing meaningful relationships with members of the opposing team. But many areas of the world do not have strong and dependable legal systems to enforce contracts. People keep commitments to people, not to contracts. People honor contracts if they like and respect the people with whom they are doing business.

Effective negotiators must view luncheon, dinner, reception, ceremony, and tour invitations as times for interpersonal relationship building, and therefore as key to the negotiating process. When American negotiators, often frustrated by the seemingly endless formalities, ceremonies, and "small talk," ask how long they must wait before beginning to "do business," the answer is simple: wait until your opponents bring up business (and they will). Realize that the work of conducting a successful negotiation has already begun, even if business has yet to be mentioned.

*Exchanging Task-Related Information.* The substance of a negotiation is in interests: yours and theirs. Negotiators should therefore focus on presenting their situation and needs and on understanding the opponents' situation and needs. Presenting interests - a situation and needs-is not the same as stating a position. A position articulates only one solution for a particular situation from one party's perspective (usually the solution prepared prior to the negotiation). Stating positions limits the ways in which your interests (and by implication, your opponents' interests) can be met. For example, if, based on an analysis

of personal needs (housing, clothing, food, transportation, health care, and entertainment), I tell my employer that I must have a minimum foreign service salary of \$85,000 (a position) and she refuses to go above \$60,000, we are at an impasse. My opponent (i.e., employer) finds my one solution to my needs - \$85,000 - unacceptable. If, on the other hand, I present my situation and needs, my employer may offer me \$60,000 plus company paid medical insurance, company-owned housing, and use of the company car. Would this offer meet my needs? Perhaps. Would it meet my initial position? No. Focusing on interests rather than positions allows both sides to draw on the widest possible range of mutually agreeable solutions.

There may be verbal and nonverbal barriers. Misperception, misinterpretation, and misevaluation pervade cross-cultural situations. To begin to understand, effective negotiators try to see the situation from both their own and the other party's perspective. Many negotiators use role reversal: they prepare for the negotiation as if they were their opponents.

*Persuading.* Principled, synergistic negotiators emphasize creating mutually beneficial options, whereas more traditional negotiators often emphasize persuading the other party to accept a particular option. For international negotiators, creating mutually beneficial options is particularly important.

In a successful negotiation both parties' interests and needs are recognized and satisfied, and both parties win. Effective synergistic negotiators view their opponents' problem - their interests and needs - as a part of their own problem. Mutually beneficial options derive from (1) understanding both parties' real interests, values, and needs, (2) identifying areas of similarity and difference, and (3) creating new options based primarily on the differences between the two parties. Identifying interests more highly valued by one party than the other and using those differences as a resource underlies the creation of mutually beneficial options.

*Making Concessions and Agreement.* In this fourth stage, principled negotiators insist on using objective criteria in deciding how to make concessions and agree, rather than resorting to a series of dirty tricks. Although numerous high-pressure tactics exist, such tactics diminish relationships and the possibility of developing synergistic solutions.

Concessions, large or small, can be made at any time during a negotiation. Although the research is not definitive, it appears that

negotiators who make early concessions put themselves in a disadvantageous position in comparison with those making fewer concessions primarily at the end of the negotiating session. Americans negotiate sequentially: they discuss and attempt to agree on one issue at a time.

Throughout the negotiating process, Americans make many small concessions, which they expect their opponents to reciprocate; then they finalize the list of concessions into an overall agreement. In some ways making small concessions reflects Americans' task-oriented form of relationship building. Negotiators from many other cultures, unlike Americans, discuss all issues prior to making any concessions. These negotiators view concessions as relative and make them only as they reach a final agreement. This holistic approach to negotiating is particularly evident in Asia. Similar to many Asians, most Russian negotiators make very few, if any, concessions during a negotiation and rarely reciprocate their opponents' concessions. Unlike many of their colleagues, Russian negotiators generally view concessions as signs of weakness, not as gestures of goodwill, flexibility, or trust. For example, in the seven rounds of post-war negotiations between the Soviet and United States governments, the United States made 82 percent of its concessions in the first round, considerably more than did the Russians. Mikhail Gorbachev's style in implementing political change in the Soviet Union highlights the Russian approach to negotiation. None of the approaches to concessions has been proven to succeed more consistently than any of the others when negotiating internationally. Effective international negotiators respect their own and their partners' domestic styles and adjust accordingly.

**Exercise I. Find in the text the synonyms for the following;**

- |   |                        |
|---|------------------------|
| 1. to stress                            | 7. offer, suggestion   |
| 2. friendliness, generosity             | 8. to satisfy (needs)  |
| 3. to respond                           | 9. to spread through   |
| 4. general                              | 10. to convince        |
| 5. to give in                           | 11. to reduce          |
| 6. to put into action (laws, contracts) | 12. advantage, benefit |

**Exercise II. Translate the following sentences into English:**

2. Они смогли определить повестку дня только после двух дней обсуждения.

3. В процессе переговоров важно научиться не уступать даже под сильным давлением.
4. Умение найти взаимовыгодное решение лежит в основе успешных переговоров.
5. Пойдя на большие уступки, делегация поставила себя в невыгодное положение уже в первом круге переговоров.
6. Лучше сразу определить объективные правила, чем прибегать к грязным махинациям.
7. Не желая посмотреть на ситуацию со стороны оппонента, стороны оказались в безвыходном положении.

### Answer the following questions:

1. How can cultural differences influence the process of negotiation?
2. What preparation should be done before a negotiation? :
3. Why is the relationship building process important?
4. How do Americans begin a negotiation?
5. Why is it recommended to present interests not a position?
6. What is the main difference between the approaches to negotiation in the third stage?
7. How do effective negotiators come up with a mutually beneficial solution?
8. What is the American approach to making concessions?
9. What is the holistic approach to negotiating?
10. How do Russians negotiate?



## NEGOTIATION TACTICS

Negotiation includes both verbal and nonverbal tactics. Whereas most Americans consider verbal tactics most important, many people from other countries do not. According to one study, words communicate only 7 percent of meaning; tone of voice communicates 38 percent, and facial expression 55 percent. In the following section, we will review some of the most common verbal and nonverbal negotiating tactics.

### ***Verbal Tactics***

*Range of Tactics.* Negotiators use many verbal tactics. Some of the more common tactics used in negotiating include promises, threats, recommendations, warnings, rewards, punishments, normative appeals, commitments, self-disclosure, questions, and commands. The use and

meaning of many of these tactics varies across cultures. Negotiators from Asia, North America, and South America use different verbal tactics in negotiating. For example, Brazilians say-"no" nine times more frequently than do Americans, and almost fifteen times more frequently than do the Japanese.

The British Huthwaite study, documenting successful negotiators' behavior, analyzed the verbal behavior of skilled and average negotiators. The most skillful negotiators avoid irritators, counterproposals, defend/attack spirals, and argument dilution, they use behavioral labels, active listening, questions, and feelings commentaries. Each of these negotiating tactics is described below:

1. Irritators are words that cause annoyance. Irritators include such phrases as "generous offer," "fair price," and "reasonable arrangement."
2. Counterproposals involve negotiators responding to their opponents' proposals by simply offering their own proposal. Skilled negotiators clarify their understanding of opponents' suggestions before responding with their own proposals.
3. Defend/attack spiral. Negotiating, by definition, involves conflict. That conflict often leads to heated accusations and defensive statements. Average negotiators frequently respond defensively and often attack, first gently and then harder. Skilled negotiators, by contrast, rarely respond defensively. Although they also rarely attack, when they do so, they hit hard and without warning.
4. Behavioral labelling means describing what you plan to say before you say it. For example, "Can I ask a question?" and "Can I make a suggestion?" are behavioral labels for a question and a suggestion. Behavioral labels forewarn opponents. For all behavior except disagreement, skilled negotiators use labelling over five times as often as their colleagues.
5. Active listening involves demonstrating to oneself and one's opponent that the previous statement has been understood. Active listening does not convey agreement or approval - it strictly reflects understanding. Skilled negotiators use two powerful active listening techniques - testing for understanding and summarizing.
6. Questions are a primary source of gathering information. Skilled negotiators use more than twice as many questions as do average negotiators.
7. Feelings commentary involves describing what a person feels about a situation. A negotiator might say, "I'm uncertain how to react to what you've just said. If the information

you've given me is true, then I would like to accept it; yet I feel some doubts inside me about its accuracy. So part of me feels happy and part feels suspicious. Can you help me resolve this?" Skilled negotiators give almost twice as much feelings commentary as do average negotiators.

8. Argument dilution. Weak arguments generally dilute strong arguments. Skilled negotiators know that the fewer arguments, the better. Average negotiators use almost twice as many reasons to back each of their positions, as do skilled negotiators.

### **Nonverbal Tactics**

Nonverbal behavior refers to what negotiators do rather than what they say. It involves how they say their words, rather than the words themselves. Nonverbal behavior includes tone of voice, facial expressions, body distance, dress, gestures, timing, silences, and symbols. Nonverbal behavior sends multiple messages, many of which are responded to subconsciously. Negotiators frequently respond more emotionally and powerfully to the nonverbal than the verbal message.

As with verbal behavior, nonverbal behavior varies markedly across cultures. As shown in the table, Japanese, Americans, and Brazilians use silence, conversational overlaps, facial gazing, and touching during a negotiation to a different degree.

*TABLE Cross-cultural differences in Non-verbal Negotiating Behaviors*

Behaviour (Tactic)	Japanese	Americans	Brazilians
Silent periods (Number of periods greater than 10 sec. per 30 min.)	5.5	3.5	0
Conversational overlaps (Number per 10 min)	12.6	10.3	28.6
Facial Gazing (Minutes of gazing per 10 min)	1.3	3.3	5.2
Touching (not including handshaking, per 30 min)	0	0	4.7

*Silence.* Japanese use the most silence, Americans a moderate amount, and Brazilians almost none at all. Americans often respond to silence by thinking that their partners disagree or have not accepted their offer. Moreover, they tend to argue and make concessions in response to silence. This response does not cause problems in negotiating with

Brazilians, but it severely disadvantages Americans when they are dealing with Japanese.

*Conversational Overlaps.* Conversational overlaps occur when more than one person speaks at the same time. Brazilian negotiators interrupt each other more than twice as often as either American or Japanese negotiators. Moreover, Brazilians frequently talk simultaneously. By contrast, when Japanese or American negotiators are interrupted, one or the other speaker stops talking. Negotiators do best to avoid conversational overlaps. Moreover, cultures in which people do not talk while another person is talking interpret conversational overlaps as rude and disrespectful behavior.

*Facial Gazing.* Facial gazing involves looking directly at one's partner's face. Eye contact is one of the most intense forms of facial gazing. The amount of eye contact and facial gazing often communicates the level of intimacy in a relationship - the more contact, the more intimacy. Confusion occurs when the amount of gazing for one culture communicates too much or too little intimacy for people from the other culture. In both cases foreign partners feel uncomfortable.

*Touching.* Whether negotiators touch each other during negotiating sessions depends on the cultures involved. Not including handshaking, Brazilian negotiators touch each other almost five times every half hour, whereas there is no physical contact between American or Japanese negotiators. Similar to facial gazing, touching communicates intimacy. A hug in Mexico communicates the development of a trusting relationship, whereas the same gesture offends Germans, for whom it communicates an inappropriately high level of intimacy.

### **Exercise I. Give the English equivalents for the following:**

Стратегия и тактика ведения переговоров; саморазоблачение; контрпредложение; прояснить понимание; резкие обвинения; разрешить/развеять сомнения; слабая аргументация; умение выбрать нужное время; совпадение обязанностей; степень близости; доверительные отношения.

### **Exercise II. Enumerate the verbal and nonverbal tactics you would employ while negotiating with a) the Japanese and b) Brazilians**

## Diplomatic Documents

The generally accepted forms of diplomatic documents often used in correspondence between diplomatic missions, as well as in contacts with the Foreign Ministry of the receiving state, are *notes, memoranda, aides-memoires, and personal letters*. There are two kinds of notes: *verbal and personal*. They differ in their form. The verbal note is written in the third person and unsigned, while the personal note is composed in the first person and is always signed. The verbal note is equal to an oral statement or information. The verbal note is a rather popular and common form of diplomatic documents. As any other document it may pertain to a serious question or refer to everyday routine matters - informing the Foreign Ministry of the receiving state about the arrival of a new staff member of the mission or a delegation, asking for entry visas, etc.

The importance of any document is determined not so much by its form as by its contents. It is up to the sender to choose the form of the document in each specific case.

The personal note may also refer both to a very important matter of principle and to a relatively minor problem, or simply contain a piece of information. For example, it is a fact that diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and the United States of America were established through the exchange of personal notes between the President of the United States F.D. Roosevelt and the USSR People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, M.M. Litvinov. At the same time, the personal note can be sent, for instance, by the ambassador to the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the receiving state, informing him that the ambassador is leaving the country for vacation, or a mission, and who of the diplomatic staff is replacing the ambassador in the capacity of charge d'affaires ad interim. Personal letters are sent by ambassadors to their colleagues, the heads of other diplomatic missions. They may convey congratulations on the appointment or election to an important state post, express condolences, etc.

Both personal and verbal notes are typed on a special stationery. The form always carries a painted, printed, or engraved national emblem and the name of the sender.

According to tradition, the verbal note begins with an addressing sentence (complimentary beginning), which has a unified form. For example, the verbal note of the Russian Embassy in India would begin as follows:

*The Embassy of the Russian Federation presents its compliments to the Ministry of External Affairs of India and has the honor to inform the Latter that ...*

The personal note starts with the following salutation: "Mr. Minister", "Excellency" or "Your Excellency". Both notes end with a complimentary closing (a formula of expressing respect for the addressee). In the verbal note:

*The Embassy avails itself of or takes this opportunity to renew to the Ministry the assurances of its highest consideration*

In the personal note:

*Please accept, Your Excellency, the assurances of my highest consideration*

Or simply: "*Respectfully Your*"

The verbal note has a mastic official seal, while the personal note has none; the verbal note bears the number, and sometimes the index attributed to it by the sender, while the personal note has none. The personal note must be signed by the sender.

### **Study the text and answer these questions:**

1. What are the generally accepted forms of diplomatic documents?
2. What is the difference between verbal and personal notes?
3. What phrases are used in verbal and personal notes for complimentary beginning and complimentary closing?
4. Are verbal notes signed?

## **JOINT COMMUNIQUÉS**

Communiqué is a specific form of a diplomatic document. This is a French term which is used to indicate an official announcement by two or more sides.

### **Exhibit 1**

Colombian Mission  
To the United Nations  
140 East 507<sup>th</sup> Street  
New York, N.Y. 10022

## **JOINT COMMUNIQUE**

The Government of the Republic of Colombia and the Government of Fiji, desirous of promoting a spirit of mutual understanding and of developing bonds of friendship and cooperation between the peoples of the two countries, have decided to establish diplomatic relations at Ambassadorial level as of 10 September, 19... .

The Governments of both countries are confident that such agreement will contribute to the further reciprocal development of commercial, economic, cultural, and other ties, aimed at strengthening international peace and cooperation and promoting the principles of international law in the relations between States.

New York, 10 September, 19....,

(Signed) Carlos Alban Holguin

(Signed) Winston Thompson

Ambassador Extraordinary and  
Plenipotentiary  
Permanent Representative of  
the Republic of Columbia  
to the United Nations

Ambassador Extraordinary and  
Plenipotentiary  
Permanent Representative of  
Fijii to the United Nations

## Exhibit 2

### JOINT COMMUNIQUE

The Republic of Venezuela and the Kingdom of Nepal, desirous of strengthening the ties of friendship and with the purpose of bringing together effectively their respective peoples, have agreed to establish diplomatic relations as of this date.

The Governments of both countries are convinced that the establishment of diplomatic relations will further enhance cooperation between the two countries based on the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations.

New York, April 27<sup>th</sup>, 19... .

For the Government  
of Venezuela

For His Majesty's Government of  
Nepal

(Signed) Anders Aquilar M.

(Singed) Jai Pratap Rana

Ambassador Extraordinary and  
Plenipotentiary

Ambassador Extraordinary and  
Plenipotentiary

Permanent Representative of  
Venezuela to the United Nations

Permanent Representative of  
Nepal to the United Nations

## **SUMMIT COMMUNIQUÉ**

President George W. Bush and President Vladimir V. Putin held productive discussions at Camp David, Maryland, on September 26 and 27, 2003. Building on the Joint Declaration on the New Strategic Relationship of May 24, 2002, and other joint documents, they focused on practical ways to broaden and deepen cooperation and partnership between the United States and Russia, overcoming obstacles and fulfilling their shared vision of a new strategic relationship to deal with the challenges and opportunities of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

The Presidents discussed a broad range of bilateral and international issues, including counter-terrorism; Preventing proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; the situation in the Middle East, Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and the six-party talks on North Korea; the situations in Moldova/Transnistria, Georgia/Abkhazia, and Nagorno-Karabakh; strengthening the NATO-Russia relationship; progress in creating conditions to expand economic and commercial relations; cooperation in high technology, housing and health; and people-to-people contacts, as well as other questions of mutual interest.

The presidents agreed on next steps in a number of areas to strengthen the existing U.S.-Russia partnership. They issued specific instructions to their respective governments identifying tasks to be undertaken by the appropriate agencies and specifying timelines for doing so, and they underscored their shared intention to monitor fulfillment of these tasks. In particular, they identified key areas where progress might be made in the near term, including, among other issues:

- implementing effectively the Strategic Offensive Reductions Treaty (Treaty of Moscow), and continuing efforts to increase transparency and build confidence on strategic issues;

- building cooperation between the American and Russian military establishments, as critical to joint efforts in areas such as counter-terrorism, missile defense, and peacekeeping;

- strengthening commercial and economic relations through further cooperation in enhancing global energy security, eliminating barriers to trade and investment, promoting high-technology cooperation, and protecting intellectual property rights;

strengthening consultation and cooperation in dealing with regional problems; and

deepening cooperation in the battle against HIV/AIDs, which will benefit the United States and Russia, and contribute to the global effort against this modern plague.

The Presidents agreed to remain in close contact to ensure progress across the broad agenda that they have defined.



## **PUBLIC OPINION POLLS**

Public Opinion is interpreted as attitudes, perspectives, and preferences of a population toward events, circumstances, and issues of mutual interest. It is characteristically measured by the sample survey or public opinion poll.

### **Opinion Formation**

Public opinion is shaped both by relatively permanent circumstances and by temporary influences. Among the former are the ideas that characterize the popular culture of a given place at a given time. Other fairly permanent circumstances such as race, religion, geographical location, economic status, and educational level can strongly influence the opinions of an individual or a particular group about many subjects. Certain temporary factors also affect the public's attitudes. Among these are the impact of current events; the opinions of influential or authoritative persons; and the effect of the mass communications media.

### **History**

The systematic measurement of public attitudes is a 20th-century development. Although occasionally opinion polls were conducted before the 1930s, they were neither systematic nor scientific. They dealt with unrepresentative samples or used methods that made certain people far more likely to be included in the poll than others.

Public opinion polling improved vastly in the 1930s when business and educational organizations began to develop methods that allowed the relatively unbiased selection of respondents and the systematic gathering of data from a wide cross section of the public. By present-day standards these polls were crude, but their results were in some ways

useful. Among the pioneers were George H. Gallup, Elmo Roper, and Archibald M. Crossley.

Two events encouraged polling agencies to further refine their methods. In 1936 a poll conducted by the *Literary Digest* incorrectly determined that the Republican candidate, Alf Landon, would win the U.S. presidential election. The error arose largely because of biases that caused wealthy people to be overrepresented in the poll. In the 1948 election, most polls mistakenly predicted a victory for the Republican candidate, Thomas E. Dewey, over President Harry S. Truman, again because poor people were underrepresented and also because the polling agencies missed last-minute changes of attitude among the voting public. Since 1948 techniques of public opinion research and polling have improved considerably.

## Uses

Opinion polls are generally accepted as useful tools by business, political organizations, the mass media, and government as well as in academic research. Hundreds of public opinion polling firms operate around the world. Best known in the U.S. are the organizations, such as the Gallup Poll and Harris Poll.

In business, polls are used to test consumers' preferences and to discover what it is about a product that gives it appeal. Response to commercial polls help in planning marketing and advertising strategies and in making changes in a product to increase its sales.

In politics, polls are used to obtain information about voters' attitudes toward issues and candidates, to put forward candidates with winning potential, and to plan campaigns. Polling organizations have also been successful in predicting the outcome of elections.

Newspapers, magazines, radio, and television are heavy users of public opinion polling information, especially political information that helps to predict elections or gauge the popularity of government officials and candidates. The public's attitude toward various social, economic, and international issues is also considered newsworthy.

Governments use opinion polls to tap public sentiment about issues of interest. Government agencies use polling methodology to determine unemployment rates, crime rates, and other social and economic indicators.

Polls have been employed extensively in academic research, particularly in the social sciences, where they have proven valuable in studying delinquency, socialization, political attitudes, and economic behavior.

## **Methods and Techniques**

Public opinion polling involves procedures to draw a representative sample of the population under study. If, for example, one is studying the attitudes of all adults in the U.S., the survey organization would draw up a list of the entire adult population of the country and then select at random a sample to be surveyed. When proper techniques are used and the sample is large enough—1000 to 1500 people—the results obtained are likely to be very close to the results one would get if the entire population were surveyed. Thus, if 60 percent of the sample says it approves of the president's policies, statistical theory shows that if the entire population were surveyed, the probability is that between 58 to 62 percent of the people would express the same approval as the sample. The criterion of excellence in a sample is representativeness, not size.

Sampling is vital to the validity of an opinion poll. In practice, however, sampling can be a complicated procedure. The population to be surveyed usually cannot be precisely enumerated. Complications arise when a proposed respondent is not at home, has moved, or is unwilling to be interviewed. Often only about two-thirds of the intended respondents are actually interviewed and give valid responses.

Great care must be used when working out the questionnaire or interview schedule, and testing the questions before using them in the field is always advisable. Questions should be short, clear, direct, and easily understood. A word or phrase, for example, may mean different things to different people. The order in which questions are asked can affect the response. In addition, the tone or wording of the question may alter the response.

Other problems can be traced to interviewer effects. Age, sex, class, or racial differences between the respondent and the interviewer can sometimes affect the respondent's answer.

Once the opinion data have been gathered, the results are tabulated and analyzed using various statistical techniques to determine patterns. Much successful analysis involves comparison: comparing subgroups of the population as they react to the same question; comparing the results of surveys conducted at different times to discover opinion trends; and comparing the responses to different questions.

## Criticisms of the Research

Criticisms of public opinion research come from a variety of sources. Many people simply are not convinced that the opinions of a small sample of the population are a viable representation of the opinions of the whole. Other criticisms deal with sample procedures that, for reasons of economy or expediency, sometimes use outdated population data or make compromises with statistical requirements.

Even assuming that the basic poll data are valid, analyses of the data may be casual and superficial. In some cases, the raw data are simply presented as the public's "opinion" on an issue without deep and careful analysis.

In the political area, criticism sometimes focuses on the appropriateness of opinion polling, rather than on its validity. Some experts believe that polls may influence voters to favor certain political candidates who seem to be enjoying popularity at the moment. The information that a certain candidate is far ahead in the polls may discourage people from voting at all or encourage them to vote for that candidate and thus may affect the results of the election.

### Exercise I. Complete the sentences by filling the gaps with the words listed below:

*valid*                      *crude*                      *at random*                      *superficial*  
*newsworthy*

1. We were taken aback by his ... manners.
2. The campaign trail of candidates is usually ... .
3. When people don't know the candidates well enough, they vote ...
4. His knowledge of the electoral system in the U.S. is rather... .
5. His objection was absolutely ... .

### Exercise II. In two columns, list all the pros and cons of public opinion polls

### Exercise III. Think of 5 to 7 questions on the text to ask in the class

### Exercise IV. Have you (your friends or relatives) ever taken any part in public opinion polls? Could you share your experience with the group?



**EXTENSIVE READING**

## POLLS AND POLLSTERS

Between elections, especially during election campaigns, **opinion polls** or **surveys** are conducted **to measure public opinion** and to **predict** or **forecast** election results.

**Polling organizations** and the people working for them are pollsters. They interview or **poll** a number of people, a **sample** typical in its mix of ages, social classes and professions of the population as a whole.

**Results** or **findings** of opinion polls are more or less reliable or accurate.

Between elections, pollsters ask people if they approve of the performance of politicians and parties, and the results are given as approval ratings or popularity ratings.

In the run-up to an election, pollsters and journalists may talk about **a race** in which the party or candidate most likely to win is the **favorite** or the **front runner**.

Candidates or parties with the best results in opinion polls are said to be **ahead** or **riding high**. Their **lead** is often given in percentage points over the others. When two parties or candidates have about the same amount of support, they are said to be **level pegging** or **running neck-and-neck**. Candidates or parties not doing so well are said to be behind or **trailing** or **trailing behind**. If their results improve, they **gain ground**.

**Exercise I. Last-minute polls.** This column, by Bernard Levin, published in *The Times* looks at the question of whether polls should be banned in the last week before elections. Complete the gaps with the words listed below, a) is used four times, b) and c) twice each, and the other words once each.

- |             |               |              |             |
|-------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|
| a) polls    | b) polling    | c) pollsters | d) poll     |
| e) accuracy | f) inaccuracy | g) campaign  | h) election |

### Poll late and poll often

Opinion\_\_\_\_(1) have been with us, in their present form, since the 1930s; originally crude and liable to substantial error, they have been repeatedly refined (I am speaking of the recognized\_\_\_\_(2) organizations) and now regularly demonstrate very remarkable\_\_\_\_(3).

At first, some voters found them irritating, but that feeling has long disappeared, and it is clear that the electorate as a whole enjoy the political swings and roundabouts.

But one thing must be emphasized: there is no evidence that voters' intentions are changed by the\_\_\_\_(4) results, though I must add that if they were it would be perfectly acceptable, for instance, the promises of the politicians.

France, for no clearly logical reason, bans the publication of\_\_\_\_(5) figures, during the final week of the\_\_\_\_(6)\_\_\_\_(7); in all other democratic lands the\_\_\_\_(8) can take their soundings up to the last minute, and so it should be.

Of course, the parties which are trailing in the\_\_\_\_(9) regularly denounce them as instruments of Satan, or at least instruments of shocking\_\_\_\_(10), but as soon as the \_\_\_\_ (11) reveal that the party order has been reversed they hasten to proclaim that the \_\_\_\_ (12) are the finest fellows alive; neither attitude has any sense in it, for the reason I have given: there is no evidence that the\_\_\_\_(13) themselves do, or can, affect the outcome, though of course the voters may use the findings for their own electoral purposes.

**Exercise II. Ahead in the race, level pegging or trailing behind. Match the two parts of these extracts.**

1. A poll published on December 7<sup>th</sup> shows that President Mitterrand's popularity rating has slipped to a new low of 31 per cent.
2. During the last 12 years this government has involved us in two wars, two recessions, record unemployment, crime and hospital waiting lists,
3. Prime Minister Kaifu was riding high in the popularity polls.
4. The Socialists are trailing in the opinion polls but are gaining ground and are currently in
5. There's been a lot of pressure on him, saying that he's at 91 per cent approval rating in the polls, and he could use that tremendous approval to do something, not just sit on it.
6. Two months ago, Father Jean-Bertrand Aristide, a priest who advocates power for the impoverished Haitian masses made a late entry into the race
7. Unpublished polls by Gallup confirmed that
8. Weekend polls showed he had halved his opponent's pre-convention lead of 15 to 25 points. He was shown to be trailing by

14 points (*Newsweek*), 11 points (*Times*), nine points (*Washington Post*) and eight (*Los Angeles Times*).

- A 'This is the most open, fickle, volatile electorate we have ever seen,' said Peter Hart, a Democratic pollster.
- B a fall of 21 points in just three months. Another poll shows that the level of satisfaction with his performance is the lowest for any president under the Fifth Republic.
- C and instantly became the front-runner for president.
- D And of course, if he succeeded in getting a peace in the Middle East, he would go down in history. He could win the Nobel Peace Prize. He would be remembered forever.
- E far better shape to fight an election than the bitterly split Union of Democratic Forces.
- F So high, in fact, that faction leaders in the Liberal Democratic Party were starting to worry.
- G the two main parties are now virtually level-pegging.
- H yet the polls still show them running neck and neck with the opposition. It seems crazy to me.



## INTENSIVE READING

## COMMUNICATION

**Communication** is the process of sharing ideas, information, and messages with others in a particular time and place. Communication includes writing and talking, as well as nonverbal communication, visual communication (the use of images or pictures, such as painting, photography, video, or film), and electronic communication (telephone calls, electronic mail, cable television, or satellite broadcasts). Communication is a vital part of personal life and is also important in business, education, and any other situation where people encounter each other.

### Language

Humans have developed complex systems of language that are used to express ideas and emotions, to tell stories and remember the past, and to negotiate with one another. Over 6000 languages and major dialects are spoken in the world today. Most languages also have a written form. The oldest records of written language are about 5000 years old. However, written communication began much earlier in the

form of drawings or marks made to indicate meaningful information about the natural world.

## **Interpersonal Communication**

The most common form of daily communication is interpersonal—that is, face-to-face, at the same time and in the same place. The most basic form of interpersonal communication is a *dyad* (a conversation between two people). Communicating well in a dyad requires good conversational skills. Communicators must know how to start and end the conversation, how to make themselves understood, how to respond to the partner's statements, how to take turns, and how to listen. Together, these abilities are called communication competence. Shyness or reluctance to interact is called communication apprehension. Persuasion is the process of convincing others that one's ideas or views are valuable or important.

Communication may also occur in small groups, such as families, clubs, religious groups, friendship groups, or work groups. Most small-group interaction involves fewer than ten people, and the communicators need the same communication skills as in a dyadic conversation. However, additional factors called group dynamics come into play in a small group. A group may try to work toward a consensus, a general sense of understanding or agreement with others in the group.

A special case of small-group interaction occurs in organizations where there is work to do or a task for the group to perform. Or several small groups may need to interact among each other within a single organization. In these cases, the groups must communicate well, both among themselves and with other groups, so that their members can perform their work effectively and make good decisions.

Interpersonal communication occurs with larger groups as well, such as when a speaker gives a talk to a large crowd (a political candidate giving a speech at a campaign rally, or a teacher lecturing to a large class). However, the audience can respond in only limited ways (such as with applause, nodding, whistles, boos, or silence). The speaker usually wants to be persuasive or informative, so the words chosen and the style of delivery or performance are very important.

## **Communication at a Distance**

From the earliest times, people have needed to communicate across distance or over time. Since the beginnings of writing, communication media have allowed messages to travel over distance and time. A

communication medium is a means for recording and transporting a message or information.

## **Early Methods**

Early societies developed systems for sending simple messages or signals that could be seen or heard over a short distance, such as drumbeats, fire and smoke signals, or lantern beacons. Messages were attached to the legs of carrier pigeons that were released to fly home. Semaphore systems of flags or flashing lights were used to send messages over relatively short distances, such as from hilltop to hilltop, or between ships at sea.

## **Paper and Printing**

An early form of paper used by the Egyptians was papyrus. Later, in the 2nd century AD, the Chinese wrote on silk fabric instead of wood. Europeans wrote on thin layers of animal skins with pens made from bird feathers. The Arabs brought papermaking to Europe from China in the 11th century AD.

Until the 1400s in Europe, all documents were hand written. By the 15th century, however, the need arose for an easier way to duplicate documents. In 1450 the German printer Johann Gutenberg introduced the first reliable system of typesetting, a key invention in the development of printing.

As more books became available, more people learned to read. With literacy came exposure to new ideas introduced in printed books. Printers published other things besides books, including newspapers and pamphlets. Printing technologies evolved from the so-called hot-metal or letterpress printing through phototypesetting and photo-offset printing, to photocopying that made document duplication easier. A more recent advance is computer typesetting and printing. Page layouts can also be transmitted via fax machines, computer modems, telephone networks, and satellite systems to other locations at the speed of light.

## **Postal Services**

Different societies have also devised systems for transporting messages from place to place and from person to person. The earliest were courier-type services; messengers carried memorized or written messages from one person to another, and returned with the reply.

The ruling aristocracy used trusted messengers to carry confidential or sensitive information from capital to capital or kingdom to kingdom, but they were typically soldiers or servants. Over time, these arrangements evolved into government-operated systems for any citizen or subject to post messages to any other.

## **Telegraphy**

The first truly electronic medium was the telegraph, which sent and received electrical signals over long-distance wires. Telegraph systems were immediately useful for businesses that needed to transmit messages quickly over long distances, such as newspapers and railroads. A telegraph room installed in the United States Capitol in 1844 was the center of a sensation when news of the nomination of James K. Polk as the Democratic presidential candidate was conveyed by telegraph between the convention in Baltimore, Maryland, and the Capitol Building in Washington, D.C.

The telegraph made it possible for many companies to conduct their business globally for the first time. Because price changes could be communicated almost instantaneously, the telegraph also prompted the reorganization of American commodities markets.

## **Telephone**

In 1876 Scottish-born American inventor Alexander Graham Bell was the first to patent and produce a telephone. His patent contained the design of a device that would transmit the human voice over wires instead of electrical clicks or other signals, like the telegraph.

In rural communities, telephone service meant an end to the isolation and loneliness experienced by many farm and ranch families. For ill or disabled people, the telephone became an indispensable link to the outside world. Telephone service also enabled immediate contact with emergency services, such as the police, fire department, or emergency medical services. The telephone network has also provided the electronic network for new computer-based systems like the Internet, facsimile transmissions, and the World Wide Web.

## **Radio**

The telegraph and telephone were systems for distance communication that sent electrical signals through wires. The earliest system for sending electrical signals through the air via electromagnetic waves was called wireless, and later radio. The Italian electrical engineer

Guglielmo Marconi was the first person to invent a true wireless radio. Radio technology improved rapidly throughout the 20th century. The invention of frequency modulation (FM) radio provided much more sensitive and clear radio transmission and reception. Tuners became more sensitive, and more broadcast signals were sent over the air at different frequencies.

## **Television**

Just as inventors had sought ways to transmit sound using electromagnetic waves, they worked to develop similar methods for transmitting pictures. By the first decade of the 20th century, the basic ideas of television technology were understood, although it took several more decades to work out the necessary improvements in existing technology.

Two pioneers independently created the first workable television systems—American inventor Philo T. Farnsworth and Russian-born American engineer Vladimir K. Zworykin. The first television sets were offered for sale in the United States in 1938. At the end of World War II, only six television stations were broadcasting in the United States. By 1948, 34 stations were broadcasting television signals in 21 major cities, and about 1 million television sets had been sold. Since the 1950s many improvements have been made in television technology, particularly the introduction of color television in the 1960s.

There is no doubt that television has been one of the most important communication technologies in history. Televisions are switched on about seven hours a day in American households. Debates continue about the medium's effects on children, culture, education, and politics. Critics say that television feeds a constant stream of simplified ideas and sensationalistic images, that it has a negative effect on political campaigns, that it destroys local cultures in favor of a bland national culture, and that it has encouraged the growth of a passive audience. Defenders say that television provides a great deal of high-quality educational and cultural programming, and that it is the major source of national and international news and information for most U.S. citizens. Television can be a very effective teaching tool in the classroom and at home. And, as the Canadian writer Marshall McLuhan pointed out, perhaps nothing has been more responsible for creating the global

village—the sense that we can see and hear events anywhere in the world as they happen, and so can feel more connected to other places.

## Computers

The earliest computers were machines built to make calculations that had previously been done by hand. The first truly electronic memory and processors were built by John Vincent Atanasoff in 1939 at the University of Iowa. The first general-purpose electronic computer in America was built at the University of Pennsylvania in 1946. In 1975 the first microcomputer was introduced, which had the power of many larger machines but could fit onto a desktop.

At the same time that computers were becoming faster, more powerful, and smaller, networks developed for interconnecting computers. The National Science Foundation (NSF) helped connect numerous sites to the major electronic-mail network, which they named the Internet because it was a network of networks among many different organizations.

Since the 1970s personal computers have transformed American business, education, and entertainment. People can use computers to design graphics and full-motion video, compose music, send electronic mail, make airline or hotel reservations, or search the Library of Congress over the World Wide Web. They can play games and even visit electronic rooms or parties to talk to other people. These activities are made possible by multimedia computer programs. Computers are used in all aspects of business and education.

### Exercise I. Match the word and its definition:

- |                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| 1) vital         | a) to transmit; to communicate                              |
| 2) face-to-face  | b) a general agreement                                      |
| 3) apprehension  | c) to cause; to urge  |
| 4) rally         | d) within each other's presence                             |
| 5) to convey     | e) showing no strong feeling or opinion                     |
| 6) to evolve     | f) a large, especially political public meeting             |
| 7) to prompt     | g) anxiety about the future; expectation of smth unpleasant |
| 8) consensus     | h) very necessary and important                             |
| 9) indispensable | i) to develop gradually                                     |
| 10) bland        | j) too important or too useful to be without                |

**Exercise II. Complete the sentences using the appropriate expression from the list below:**

courier      communication      boo      technology      prompted      indispensable  
layout

1. A loud ... came from the back of the hall.
2. The book designer will have to re-do the page ....
3. We sent the contract to Tokyo by ... .
4. The sight of the ships ... thoughts of her distant home.
5. ... between organizations takes place in various ways.
6. A telephone is an ... piece of equipment for any office.
7. Use of computer ... has created changes for almost everyone.

**Exercise III. Put the sentences in the right chronological order.**

1. The telegraph made it possible for many companies to conduct their business globally for the first time.
2. Since the 1970s, personal computers have transformed American business, education, and entertainment.
3. In rural communities, telephone service meant an end to the isolation and loneliness.
4. Messages were attached to the legs of carrier pigeons.
5. Television can be a very effective teaching tool in the classroom and at home.
6. With literacy came exposure to new ideas introduced and circulated in printed books.
7. Radio technology improved rapidly throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

**Exercise IV. Match the names with the inventions. Give answers in two-member sentences:**

Alexander G. Bell	a television system
Johann Gutenberg	a wireless radio
Philo T. Farnworth, V.K. Zworykin	a processor
Guglielmo Marconi	a system of typesetting
John Vincen Atanasoff	a telephone

## THE PRESS



## NEWSPAPERS

**Newspapers** are publications usually issued on a daily or weekly basis, the main function of which is to report the news. Newspapers also provide commentary on the news, advocate various public policies, furnish special information and advice to readers, and sometimes include features such as comic strips, cartoons, and serialized books. In nearly all cases and in varying degrees, they depend on the publication of commercial advertising for their income.

Despite the development of motion pictures early in the 20th century, of radiobroadcasting in the 1920s, and of television in the 1940s, newspapers remain a major source of information on matters ranging from details of important news events to human-interest items. In the U.S., for example, about 1700 daily newspapers print a total of 63 million copies, and almost every copy is read by at least two persons. Newspaper publishers estimate that nearly 8 out of 10 adult Americans read a newspaper every day.

Throughout the world, newspapers are a significant force for informing people and helping to mold their opinions. In Great Britain and Western Europe, major newspapers such as the *Times* of London and the *Journal de Geneve* of Geneva have managed to maintain a long tradition of press freedom despite wars, dictatorships, and other efforts at intimidation of a free press. Other developed countries such as Japan also have a strong newspaper tradition. In the Third World countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America, newspapers range from government-controlled organs to lively publications run by independent editors.

Early newspapers were small in size, usually consisting of only one page. They had neither headlines nor advertising and looked more like newsletters.

### British Newspapers

The first continuously published English newspaper was the *Weekly News* (1622-41). The earliest newspapers in England printed mostly foreign news, but in 1628 the first papers giving domestic news were begun by clerks who reported the debates of the English Parliament.

Censorship was a problem faced by the English press throughout much of the 17th century. Beginning in the 1630s, under King Charles I, heavy restrictions (including licensing) were placed on the press. By

1660, though, licensing provisions and other restrictions were gradually ended, and the English press was able to publish in an atmosphere of considerable freedom. In 1702 the first daily newspaper in England, the *Daily Courant*, was founded in London.

The abolition of the government tax on newspapers in 1855 brought about a general reduction in their prices and an increase in their circulation.

## **History of American Newspapers**

Not until 1690 was anything resembling the early European newspapers printed in the American colonies. The *Publick Occurrences, Both Forreign and Domestick*, a three-page paper, was published that year in Boston, but it was suppressed by the government after one issue.

The first continuously published American newspaper was the *Boston News-Letter*, established in 1704 by John Campbell. The paper contained financial and foreign news and also recorded births, deaths, and social events.

The first New York City newspaper, founded in 1725, was called the *Gazette*; it was soon followed by several others including the *New York Weekly Journal*, edited by the German-American printer John Peter Zenger. When Zenger published criticism of the British colonial governor of New York and his administration, he was arrested and jailed. Zenger was tried and found not guilty, and his case created an important precedent for the tradition of a free press in America.

## **Revolutionary Period**

In 1750 there were 12 newspapers in the American colonies. By 1775 the number of newspapers had jumped to 48. They were published weekly, contained only four pages each, and typically had a circulation of no more than 400 copies. The papers printed more essays than news.

During the war, newspapers brought accounts of military developments to an increasing number of readers, while business generated by the war brought advertising to the papers. The press was deeply divided into the conservative Federalists and Republicans, or Democratic-Republicans. On one issue, however, the newspapers of

the country were united: support of the 1st Amendment to the Constitution, adopted in 1791 as part of the Bill of Rights, which declared that “Congress shall make no law ... abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press.” The 1st Amendment has remained the cornerstone of the free press in the U.S.

## **Penny Press**

The first daily newspaper in the U.S., the *Pennsylvania Evening Post and Daily Advertiser*, had begun daily publication in 1783 in Philadelphia. By 1800, 20 daily papers were in operation, and the number continued to increase in the first three decades of the 19th century as the Industrial Revolution spread. Until the 1830s newspapers were concerned almost entirely with business and political news; thus they appealed largely to the privileged classes. Benjamin Henry Day changed all that in 1833, when he published the first edition of the *New York Sun*, creating the penny press that would dominate U.S. journalism throughout the rest of the 19th century. In the *Sun*, Day expanded the definition of news to include crime and violence, feature stories, and entertainment items. The modern newspaper with its appeal to a mass audience was born, and the newspaper cost only 1 cent. The *Sun* was soon followed by the *New York Herald*, the *New York Tribune*, and the *New York Times*.

## **From the Mid-1800s to the 20th Century**

In 1848, six New York City newspapers had joined together to share the cost of bringing news to New York by telegraph from Washington and Boston. This informal organization soon became the Associated Press (AP), the country's first news agency. After the Civil War, the AP expanded rapidly, serving newspapers with many different political views.

The middle and later years of the 19th century are particularly noted in the history of journalism for the work of a number of outstanding publishers and editors. One of them was James Gordon Bennett, who in 1835 founded the *New York Herald*, which he made into one of the most widely read newspapers of the time, at first by emphasis on scandalous news items and later by a thorough coverage of foreign news. As newspapers began to compete more and more with one another to increase circulation in order to obtain more advertising, a different type of journalism was developed by the publishers Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst. They introduced sensational and scandalous news coverage, the use of drawings, and features such as

comic strips. After Hearst began publishing color comic sections that included a strip entitled *The Yellow Kid*, this type of paper was labeled “yellow journalism.”

## 20th-Century Developments

By 1900, daily newspapers in the U.S. numbered 2326. Large cities had several papers each, and most smaller cities had at least two newspapers. The number of dailies, however, has declined greatly in recent years. The principal reasons for this were loss of advertising revenue to competing papers or to television and other media; and rising costs of equipment, labor, and material. Most remaining papers are profitable, well printed, and illustrated with clear photographs and drawings. Three more news agencies—United Press, International News Service, and Universal News—were begun; in 1958 they were consolidated into United Press International (UPI).

Another 20th-century trend was the development of tabloid newspapers. The tabloid differs from the standard paper in its size, the depth of its news coverage, and the number of illustrations; the tabloid is usually about half the size of a standard paper, reports news in more shortened versions, and offers many more illustrations.

## Modern Newspapers

Newspapers today average about 65 pages in length during the week. About two-thirds of this space is taken up by commercial advertising, and one-third is reserved for news and features.

The *Wall Street Journal* has the largest circulation in the nation, with about 1.9 million copies sold daily. The largest general-interest newspapers are *USA Today*, which has a daily nationwide circulation of about 1.4 million, and the New York *Daily News*, a metropolitan tabloid with a circulation of more than 1.3 million.

## Organization and Activities

Major newspapers such as the *Wall Street Journal*, New York *Daily News*, New York *Times*, Washington *Post*, Los Angeles *Times*, and Chicago *Tribune* have large, specialized staffs. In addition to a news staff of hundreds of reporters and editors, the bigger papers also have sizable staffs in their advertising, circulation, and production departments. The publisher oversees all the operations, usually with the aid of an executive editor in charge of the news department, an editorial-page editor who supervises the commentary pages, and a

business manager responsible for advertising, circulation, and production of the newspaper.

The staff usually includes “metro” or local reporters, photographers, artists, and editors who cover news of the city and suburban areas under the direction of the metropolitan editor. Other groups report and edit national news and foreign news. Additional staff members are concerned with business news, sports, and cultural events.

Major newspapers also have Washington, D.C., bureaus covering news about the president, government departments and agencies, and the U.S. Congress; reporters stationed in large cities around the country; and foreign correspondents in important world capitals.

Some reporters cover a “beat” such as city hall, the police department, or the courts; some are general-assignment reporters covering a variety of news events; still others are primarily investigative reporters often involved with stories about corruption in government, business, or labor.

Each day a newspaper's editors decide what news and features to use. Because of space limitations, they generally select only those stories dealing with the most interesting and important events and developments. Reporters on large papers write their own stories. The stories are then edited by copy editors, who also write the headlines. Placement of articles and illustrations is determined by layout editors working with “dummies” (or representations) of pages on which space has been blocked out for the day's advertising. Features such as crossword puzzles are run every day in approximately the same place in the paper.

Newspaper editorial and comment pages reflect the views of the publisher or owner on public issues; other writers usually are selected to provide a balance of political and social views. Editorial pages also often feature cartoonists, who use humorous drawings to comment on political and social events, as well as a selection of letters from readers.

To cope with the competition of instant news reports on radio and television, newspapers have become more analytical; they now provide extensive background information on the news. Most newspaper editors don't simply give their readers an account of the news; they also try to provide a reasoned explanation for events.

## **The Power of the Press**

Although total newspaper circulation has remained virtually unchanged since the early 1970s, newspapers are still a powerful force in American society. In 1971, for example, the *New York Times* began publishing the Pentagon Papers. When the government tried to prevent their publication, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the right of the newspaper to print this material. The Pentagon Papers gave Americans a look behind the scenes at government planning and policies that led to the U.S. role in the Vietnam War.

Perhaps the foremost example of the power of the press came about in 1974 when President Richard M. Nixon resigned his office after revelations about the Watergate scandal involving his administration, which had first been brought to public attention by the *Washington Post*.

### **Trends and Developments**

During the last two decades newspapers have made more technological advances than at any time since the development of the automatic typesetting machines and fast rotary presses in the late 19th century. The huge, clacking machines have disappeared from newspaper plants. Replacing them are sophisticated electronic typesetting systems that use computers to store information and turn words into lines of type.

The freedom enjoyed by newspapers in the U.S. came under attack during the 1960s and '70s. The press emerged from these cases with its 1st Amendment freedoms substantially intact. Disputes have also arisen over the rights of journalists to protect the anonymity of their sources. Although newspapers vigorously oppose any outside censorship, the papers may use self-censorship in cases involving national security or criminal prosecution.

Newspaper publishers are now experimenting with the use of computers and television to transmit news, advertising, and other information directly into homes. Some people believe that the newspaper of the future will not be printed but will be an electronic information service instantly available in every home.

### **Exercise I. Give synonyms for the following words:**

to support; to shorten; famous; to supervise; to report; whole; to supply; energetic; to shape; to request; profit; to provide

**Exercise II. Match the words with their definitions:**

1. to mold
2. to intimidate
3. tabloid
4. to edit
5. censorship
  - a. to prepare for printing, broadcasting, etc., by deciding what shall be included or left out
  - b. to make out of material by changing its shape
  - c. the process of examining books, films, etc., with the power to remove anything offensive
  - d. to frighten, esp. by making threats
  - e. a newspaper which contains many pictures and a short account of the main news

**Exercise III. Translate the following sentences into Russian:**

1. The first Amendment to the Constitution has remained the cornerstone of the free press in the U.S.
2. He intimidated me into remaining silent about what happened.
3. The copy editor left the article intact.
4. This newspaper has a circulation of two million.
5. The sporting correspondent covered the match.
6. The editor censored the whole paragraph in my feature.
7. The paper made a special feature of the Queen's visit.
8. I like the layout of this paper.
9. The editor upheld the reporter's decision.
10. Newspaper editorial reflects the views of the publisher on public issues.

**HOW NEWSPAPERS WORK**

by Bob Wilson

Newspapers are the original form of communication. Long before we had computers, television, radio, telephones, and telegraph, newspapers were the cheapest and most efficient way to reach mass audiences with news, commentary and advertising. Readers can move easily and quickly through the different sections of a newspaper, returning to them days or even weeks later. Newspapers possess a universal and timeless quality. For example, a newspaper published before the American Revolution is as readable today as it was in 1775!

In this article, we'll take a behind-the-scenes look at the increasingly complex business of running a newspaper, using The Herald-Sun of Durham, N.C. as a real-world example. We'll examine how the news is covered and reported, how it makes it into the newspaper and how the newspaper makes it to the press and then to your neighborhood.

Has the Role of the Newspaper in the United States Changed Over Time?

While that newspaper from 1775 is still readable, there is one great difference between a newspaper of 1775 and its modern counterpart. The 1775 newspaper was published under the whim of a British colonial government with little tolerance for the free expression of ideas. The First Amendment, part of the **Bill of Rights** added to the **American Constitution** in 1791, forbids laws abridging freedom of the press.

The principles and practices that govern today's newspapers -- journalistic objectivity, concise writing, national and international news -- emerged after the American **Civil War**. This was the Golden Era of daily newspapers, golden not only in their enormous number and diversity, but also in the profits that allowed press barons like William Randolph Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer to live on a regal scale.

### **Are Newspapers On The Way Out?**

The United States' 1,600 daily newspapers continue to serve millions of readers, but newspapers are no longer the country's dominant mass medium. How to survive and even flourish in a culture more attuned to electronic media than to printer's ink is the most serious issue facing the newspaper industry as it enters the 21st century. Newspapers are a portable, convenient medium. No one lugs a computer monitor to the breakfast table to get the morning news. And newspapers are constantly reinventing themselves for today's readers by good design, color photography and detailed stories that report and interpret current events.

If you take the time to see how a newspaper reproduces itself every 24 hours, you will find it fascinating! Many different individuals and departments contribute to a process that resembles a river with numerous streams. Among these streams are five with daily importance to a newspaper's readers -- **news, editorial, advertising, production and distribution**. Let's look at how these streams merge into a Niagara of words and images flowing through a computer network and onto huge rolls of paper, all while most of us are sleeping.

## What Exactly Is News and How Does It Work?

Curiously, for a publication called a newspaper, no one has ever coined a standard definition of news. But for the most part, news usually falls under one broad classification -- the abnormal. It is human folly, mechanical failures and natural disasters that often "make the news."

**Reporters** are a newspaper's front-line eyes and ears. Reporters glean information from many sources, some public, such as police records, and others private, such as a government informant. Occasionally, a reporter will go to jail rather than reveal the name of a confidential source for a news story. American newspapers proudly consider themselves the **fourth branch of government** -- the watchdog branch -- that exposes legislative, executive, and judicial misbehavior.

Some reporters are assigned to **beats**, such as the courts, city hall, education, business, medicine and so forth. Others are called **general assignment reporters**, which means they are on call for a variety of stories such as accidents, civic events and human-interest stories.

In the movies, reporters have exciting and dangerous jobs as they live a famous pronouncement of the newspaper business: "Comfort the afflicted and afflict the comfortable." Although a few members of the media have been killed as a result of investigations into wrongdoing, newspaper work for the great majority of reporters is routine.

All reporters are ultimately responsible to an **editor**. Depending on its size, a newspaper may have numerous editors, beginning with an **executive editor** responsible for the news division. Immediately below the executive editor is the **managing editor**, the person who oversees the day-to-day work of the news division. Other editors -- sports, photo, state, national, features and obituary, for example -- may also report to the managing editor.

However, the best known and in some ways the most crucial editor is the **city** or **metro** editor. This is the editor that reporters work for

directly. The city or metro editor assigns stories, enforces deadlines and is the first to see reporters' raw copy on the **composition system** or computer network. These editors are called **gatekeepers**, because they control much of what will and will not appear in the next day's paper.

Once the city or metro editor has finished editing a reporter's raw copy, the story moves from the composition system via the computer network to another part of the news division, the **copy desk**. Here, **copy editors** check for spelling and other errors of usage. They may also look for "holes" in the story that would confuse readers or leave their questions unanswered.

Before we see what happens to the electronic pages built by the copy desk, it will be helpful to understand how other divisions of the newspapers contribute to the production cycle.

### **What Are the Editorial Pages All About?**

A newspaper publishes its views on current events -- both local and national -- on its **editorial pages**. This is where editorials, unsigned commentary that reflects the collective position of the newspaper's **editorial board**, appear. Editorials are not news, but rather reasoned opinion based on facts. For example, editorials may criticize the performance of public officials such as the mayor, the police chief, or the local school board; editorials may praise others for their civic contributions.

Two ways this occurs are familiar to any newspaper reader -- **letters to the editor** and **op-ed** (a contraction of opposite-editorial page) **articles**. Letters are always among the best-read section of any newspaper, for this is where readers express their opinions.

### **Why Are Ads Important to a Newspaper?**

The advertising division places ads on pages before they are released to the news division. As a rule, newspapers print slightly more advertising than news. Ads may account for 60 percent or more of weekday pages, but in the larger Sunday edition, it is not unusual for news to take up more space than ads. Newspapers cannot stay in business without advertising revenue. Editors call the space left for them a "news hole."

Three types of advertising dominate modern newspapers:

- **Display ads** -- With photos and graphics, display ads can cost thousands of dollars depending on their size. These ads, generally

placed by department stores, movie theaters and other businesses, are called **run-of-press ads** and they produce the most revenue.

- **Classified ads** -- Classified ads, often called want ads come from individuals trying to buy or sell items, businesses seeking workers, or trades people offering a variety of services.

- **Inserts** -- Inserts, the third form of advertising, are favored by large national chain stores like **Best Buy** and **Circuit City**. These colorful booklets are trucked to newspapers in huge bundles for distribution with the Sunday edition. Newspapers charge for distributing inserts, but otherwise have no control over their content or print quality.

## How Is a Newspaper Produced?

The **production division** does the heavy lifting of newspaper work. Within this division's departments are specialists who run and maintain the **presses**, **typesetters**, **image scanners** and **photographic engraving machines**. Some workers are assigned to the day shift, others to the night shift.

Most daily newspapers have moved to some form of offset printing. This process etches the image of a newspaper page onto thin aluminum **plates**. These plates, now bearing a positive image developed from a full-page photographic negative, then go to other specialists for mounting on the press. The process is called offset because the metal plates do not touch the paper going through the press. Instead, the plates transfer the inked image to a rubber roller, which then prints the page.

In addition to putting ink on paper, the press also assembles the pages of a newspaper in correct sequence. All this occurs so quickly that a modern offset press can spew 70,000 copies an hour onto conveyor belts that speed the copies to the waiting **distribution division**.

## How Are Newspapers Distributed?

Responsibility for getting the newspaper from the press to the reader falls to the distribution division. Large newspapers publish two, three or even four **editions**, all of which must be ready to leave the newspaper plant at a certain time. The **first edition**, sometimes called the bulldog edition, goes to the outer limits of the newspaper's **circulation area**. This may be several counties or even an entire state. Later editions contain progressively fresher news and go to smaller areas. The **final edition**, which goes to press after midnight, contains the latest news but covers the smallest geographical area, usually a city.

Any **subscriber** to a daily newspaper knows that it plops onto the driveway in the morning. Independent contractors called **carriers** buy copies of the newspaper at a discount and deliver them, using their personal vehicles (usually bicycles). The first job for many American youngsters was delivering the afternoon paper in their neighborhood.

The **circulation department** draws the routes that carriers follow. This department is also responsible for rack sales, newspapers that go into coin-operated dispensers. The circulation department also maintains subscribers' billing records.

In 18 hours of highly coordinated work carried out by numerous divisions, what newspaper people call a "rough draft of history" has moved through computer systems, imaging machines and presses that would amaze Gutenberg, to its final destination -- the readers. After 3:30 a.m., few people remain at a newspaper plant. All the other divisions have gone home. The presses have fallen silent. The sudden silence will not last long. In less than four hours, the newspaper, as it must do 365 days a year, will rouse from its short sleep and start all over again.

**Exercise I. Find in the text the English equivalents for the following:**

Редакционная коллегия; главный редактор; передовая статья/передовица; корректор; исполнительный редактор; заместитель редактора; типографская наборная машина; офсетная печать; отдел распространения; отдел доставки; отдел новостей.

**Exercise II. Give synonyms for the following words:**

effective, competent	huge, immense
prevailing, principal	odd, peculiar
to succeed, to prosper	silliness, stupidity

**Exercise III. Fill in the gaps in the sentences with the words from the list below. Then translate the sentences into Russian:**

<i>crucial</i>	<i>reasoned</i>	<i>tolerance</i>	<i>report</i>	<i>glean</i>
<i>diversity</i>	<i>whim</i>	<i>on call</i>	<i>attuned</i>	<i>afflicted</i>

1. He simply adores her. He satisfies her every ... .
2. Our teacher sometimes shows great ... for our behavior in class.
3. Did you ... anything from him?
4. He is ... with rheumatism.

5. It's of ... importance to cover this press conference.
6. He used to ... for the *Times*.
7. He can't come to your party. He is ... tonight.
8. Freedom of the press presupposes a ... of newspapers and magazines.
9. I'm not ... to his way of thinking.
10. His ... explanation convinced everybody.

**Exercise IV. Translate the following sentences into English paying special attention to the underlined parts:**

1. Журналисты ожидали, что главный редактор подробно расскажет о новой политике газеты. Но тот был очень краток.
2. Всех впечатлили его царственные/величественные манеры.
3. Главная/основная идея книги заключается в том, что даже в трудных ситуациях журналисты сохраняли верность основным принципам газетчиков: объективность и краткость изложения.
4. Я собрал кое-какие сведения по этому происшествию.
5. Я слышал это от самого министра.
6. Газета подробно писала/сообщала о переговорах.
7. После тщательного редактирования текст передали для печати/опубликования.
8. Газету, к сожалению, закрыли, потому что она разоблачала коррупцию высоких должностных лиц.
9. Наша газета отдает предпочтение местным новостям.
10. Третьему курсу отвели для занятий вторую смену.



**EXTENSIVE READING**

The **press** usually refers just to newspapers, but the term can be extended to include magazines. Newspapers are either **tabloid**, a format usually associated in the English-speaking world with the **popular press**, or **broadsheet**, associated with **quality** journalism. Tabloids are sometimes referred to as the **gutter press** by people who disapprove of them.

Tabloids often have very large **circulations** (numbers sold) and even bigger **readerships** (total number of people reading them). Papers such as these are often referred to as **mass circulation** papers.

### Ladies and gentlemen of the press

Journalists are sometimes referred to informally as **journos** or insultingly as **hacks**. Someone who writes articles that appear regularly, usually in the same place in the paper, and often with powerfully expressed opinions, is a **columnist**.

Newspapers **run** or **carry articles** or **stories**. Articles other than the most important ones can also be referred to as **pieces**.

**Editorials** give the paper's opinion about the news of the day. In a quality paper, the most important editorial is the **leading article** or **leader**. These, and the other editorials, are written by **leader writers**.

**Exercise I. Match these newspaper expressions to their descriptions, and then use the expressions to complete the extracts below.**

- |                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| 1 obituary        | a small advertisements about films, plays, things for sale, and so on                     |
| 2 gossip column   | b news about the country the paper is published in  |
| 3 classified      | c exclusive story, especially an exciting one   |
| 4 home            | d (often critical) stories about the social activities and private lives of famous people |
| 5 masthead        | e headline in extremely large print   |
| 6 banner headline | f top of front page carrying the name of the paper  |
| 7 scoop           | g article about the life of someone who has recently died                                 |

1. *The Sun's* \_\_\_\_\_ is 'Come Home Dad'.
2. The discovery of the Goebbels diaries was yet another *Sunday Times* \_\_\_\_\_ that left out rivals gasping.
3. ...*The Observer's* front page headline – under its new royal blue \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Among the \_\_\_\_\_ stories covered in British papers is the continuing legal row over the finances of the country's National Union of Mineworkers.

5. May I add a personal note to your excellent \_\_\_\_\_ of Charles Abell? Throughout his career, he was faced with difficult problems but never hesitated to take firm decisions and to stand by the consequences.
6. MGN's move has been as part of an attempt to get its share of the regional newspaper's advertising cake – particularly \_\_\_\_\_ - and other tabloid national papers are expected to follow.
7. Having failed at show business he ended up in journalism writing about it. By the mid-thirties he had his \_\_\_\_\_. Broadway was his beat. Table 50 at New York's Stork Club was his office.



## EXTENSIVE READING

### FREEDOM OF THE PRESS

**Freedom of the Press** is immunity of the communications media—including newspapers, books, magazines, radio, and television—from government control or censorship. Freedom of the press is regarded as fundamental to individual rights, human dignity, self-respect, and personal responsibility. Without free media, a free society and democratic self-government would not be possible. By recognizing the right to dissent, the governments of the United States, Canada, Western Europe, and other emerging democracies encourage peaceful and orderly social and political change.

When the first U.S. Congress met in 1789, its main order of business was the adoption of ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, which became known as the Bill of Rights. The 1st Amendment provides that “Congress shall make no law ... abridging the freedom of speech, or the press”. In its constitutional sense, the term *press* has been interpreted by the U.S. Supreme Court to encompass not only newspapers, but also books, magazines, and other printed matter as well as motion pictures.

### Limitations

Freedom of the press, however, is not absolute. The principle has long been established that the press may not be used in circumstances that would create a “clear and present danger” of bringing about serious consequences to some significant interest that the government has a right or duty to protect. During World War I, for example, restrictions

were placed on the direct advocacy of treason and on criticism of the government, conscription, or the American flag.

Another important limit on the free press is the law of libel. In 1964 the Supreme Court weighed the libel law against the interests protected by the 1st Amendment. The Court held that a public figure who sues a newspaper for libel can recover damages only if the person can prove that the statement printed was made with actual malice, that is, "with knowledge that it was false or with reckless disregard of whether it was false or not." Subsequent court cases have extended this principle for the further protection of a free press.

Until about the mid-20th century, the law of obscenity was also a substantial limitation on freedom of the press. Today this exception, like the law of libel, has been narrowed so as to exclude from the constitutional guarantee only so-called hard-core pornography.

### **Protection of the Press**

During the era of unrest caused by U.S. participation in the Vietnam War, government agents made unannounced newsroom searches. Under the Privacy Protection Act of 1980, however, law-enforcement officers seeking evidence of crime must afford reporters notice and an opportunity to contest the subpoena in court.

Occasionally the courts have tried to compel journalists to disclose their sources of information. Reporters have gone to jail, charged with contempt of court, for refusing to comply. Many states have enacted so-called shield laws giving journalists the right to refuse to disclose identities of confidential sources.

Although some problems involving freedom of the press have not been fully resolved in the United States or in other democracies, in the Communist nations and many Third World countries a free press remains an unattained ideal. The primary function of the press in totalitarian countries has been to promote the aims of the government. By the late 1980s, however, a few Communist governments were allowing the press some measure of freedom to report national and international news.

?	<b>QUESTIONS</b>
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1. What are the benefits of freedom of the press on governmental and personal levels?
2. What principles limit freedom of the press?
3. Is it easy or difficult for a person to recover damages for libel in court?
4. Must journalists appear in court for crime evidence according to the 1980 Privacy Protection Act?
5. Can you say that there is free press in your country? If yes, then what/who is it free from?

	<b>EXTENSIVE READING</b>
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## Gagging the Press

Governments that limit press freedom are accused of **gagging the press**. This may take the form of a voluntary code of practice overseen by a body referred to informally as a **watchdog**. If the watchdog is ineffective, it is described as **toothless**.

If this is not enough for the government, it may impose **statutory** (legally enforceable) **controls**. The authorities are then described as **cracking down** or **clamping down** on the press. They may also be accused of press censorship and of limiting **press freedom** or the **freedom of the press**.

**The Last Chance Saloon.** This extract from *The Times* is about limiting press freedom to report on people's private lives. Read it and answer the questions.

	<b>EXTENSIVE READING</b>
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## POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

Journalists and others such as university teachers are increasingly asked not to use certain words and expressions because they are **politically incorrect** and might cause offence, and to use other, **politically correct**, or **PC**, words. Where organizations such as universities have rules about words to be avoided in conversation and elsewhere, these rules constitute a **speech code**.

Politically correct language is part of a wider phenomenon: politically correct thinking, or political correctness.

**Lexicographically correct or verbally challenged?** Read this article about politically correct language from *The Economist* and answer the questions.

### **AN ALL-AMERICAN INDUSTRY**

Something odd is happening to political correctness. On the one hand, it is thriving, right up to the highest levels of government (witness the equally-sized Christmas tree and Chanukah memorial outside the White House). On the other hand its opponents are thriving too.

Seemingly unfriendly arguments surround it. Some dismiss political correctness (PC) as an irrelevance hyped up by the right; others see it as a leftish danger to the very fabric of American life; still others argue that it is plain passé. Is America in the throes of neo-PC, anti-PC or post-PC? It is hard to tell.

So much the better for the PC industry. For that is what political correctness has become. It is no longer a matter of who wins or loses the arguments. The arguments themselves are what sustain the industry. Competition in the PC industry is not only healthy, it is essential.

Few industries can boast such rapid growth as this one. A computer search by the *New York Times* found 103 newspaper references to 'political correctness' in 1988. In 1993 the number was roughly 10,000.

Such extraordinary growth would quickly slacken if the driving force behind it – the language of political correctness – were to go out of fashion. But there seems little prospect of that happening. The current controversy over style at the *Los Angeles Times* shows that there is still plenty of fuel for the PC industry.

The *Los Angeles Times*'s 19-page 'Guide on Ethnic and Racial Identification', drafted by a committee, was sent to the paper's staff on November 10<sup>th</sup>. Journalists are told never to use the word 'Jewess', but to remember to call a Latino woman a 'Latina'.

They are urged to avoid referring to African 'tribes', because this offends many blacks (who are more often 'African American'). 'Eskimos' disappear (they are 'not a homogenous group and may view the term Eskimo negatively'). 'Dutch treat' and 'Dutch courage' are offensive (to the Dutch?).

There is more. The term 'deaf and dumb', is, apparently, pejorative, much as 'birth defects' are best replaced by 'congenital disabilities'. Because many women do the job, 'letter carrier' is preferable to 'mailman'. 'Mankind' is frowned upon. 'Gringo', 'savages' and 'redskin' are among the words to be used only in quotes with the approval of the editor, associate editor and senior editor.

Not surprisingly, the guidelines provoked a reaction, and the controversy has become public. A memo signed by journalists at the *Los Angeles Times*'s Washington bureau gives warning that it is a short step from 'shunning offensive words to shying away from painful facts and subjects'. All this is splendid for the PC industry (language fuss, for example, does wonders for the dictionary business).

1. Both PC and its opponents are thriving. Does this mean they are both doing



**Censorship** is supervision and control of the information and ideas that are circulated among the people within a society. In modern times, censorship refers to the examination of books, periodicals, plays, films, television and radio programs, news reports, and other communication media for the purpose of altering or suppressing parts thought to be objectionable or offensive. The objectionable material may be considered immoral or obscene heretical or treasonable, or injurious to the national security. Thus, censorship is necessary for the protection of three basic social institutions: the family, the church, and the state.

Until recently, censorship was firmly established in various institutional forms in even the most advanced democratic societies. By the mid-20th century a revolutionary change in social attitudes and societal controls weakened the existence and strength of censorship in many democracies; however, all forms of censorship have not been universally eliminated. Today many persons object to the "new permissiveness" in the arts and mass media; they claim it debases the

public taste, corrupts all sense of decency and civility, and even undermines civilization.

Although the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948, says nothing explicitly about the right of freedom from censorship, certain articles would tend to mitigate censorship in nondemocratic countries. Among such provisions are those that prohibit interference with a person's home, family, privacy, or correspondence, and those that provide for the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion, opinion, and expression without interference. Thus, the worldwide struggle for human rights involves problems of censorship as well as the fate of those dissidents who are its victims.

### **Government Censorship**

Rating countries on a scale ranging from 1 (most free) to 15 (least free), a survey published by Freedom House in the late 1980s disclosed that 60 countries comprising about 2 billion people enjoyed the highest degrees of freedom (1-5). In these countries—which were concentrated in North America and Western Europe but which also included Japan, Australia, and New Zealand—individuals generally had the right to bring about peaceful changes in government, enjoyed freedom of speech and press, and had free access to other mass communications. Another 39 countries with about 1 billion people received rankings of between 6 and 10, while 68 countries with 2.1 billion people had forms of government that denied citizens most political and civil rights.

Much attention was focused on censorship in the USSR and other Communist countries. Exiles from the former Soviet Union have disclosed the severe persecution to which they were subjected. By the late 1980s, however the Soviet Union under President Mikhail Gorbachev had relaxed government censorship of the media as part of a more general reform movement, and other Eastern-bloc countries were also affected. The increase in freedom soon led to the overthrow of the Soviet Union and several other Communist governments by long-suppressed dissident forces.

### **Censorship in the United States**

The 1st Amendment, in broad terms, forbids Congress from enacting laws that would regulate speech or press before publication or punish after publication.

Public officials and all official acts, including the existence of government itself, may be openly criticized and attacked by speech or publication, provided only that the words used are not of such a nature and are not used in such circumstances "as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress [or the state] has a right to prevent." The classic example is that a person has no right to shout "Fire!" in a crowded theater when there is no fire.

In 1971 the Supreme Court considered the sensational Pentagon Papers case. A 47-volume official classified report on U.S. policy in Vietnam came into the possession of Daniel Ellsberg, a former federal official. The *New York Times* and several other leading newspapers began publishing parts of the report. The government asked to stop publication. In considering the case, the Court said that any prior restraint on publication comes before the courts with a heavy presumption that it is unconstitutional, and that the government must prove that the restraint is justified. The Court, by a 6-3 vote, refused to bar the newspapers from reprinting the report.

In the past, serious censorship problems were presented by the operations of the U.S. Post Office and the Customs Bureau, which refused to allow certain books and other materials to be brought into the country or sent through the mails. Since the early 1970s, however, court decisions, congressional legislation, and administrative regulations have resolved most of these problems, at least for the present.

### **Censorship of Obscenity**

Until about the mid-20th century government policies provided for the strict suppression of obscene publications. The law was invoked against works of recognized merit as well as against pornographic publications. Successful prosecutions were common, as were seizures of books by post office, customs, and police officials.

Since the 1950s many obscenity cases—involving books, magazines, and films—have been brought before the Supreme Court. In the cases during the 1970s the Court ruled that laws against obscenity must be limited "to works which, taken as a whole, portray sexual conduct in an offensive way; and which, taken as a whole, do not have serious literary, artistic, political, or scientific value."

### **Private Action**

One U.S. industry, the film industry, has for many years practiced a form of self-censorship. In the 1920s, responding to public demands for

strong controls, the Motion Picture Association of America imposed a Production Act. A system of film classification was begun in 1968 and has been revised several times since then. Films are given ratings, as follows: G (general audiences), PG (parental guidance advised), PG-13 (may not be suitable for preteens), R (persons under age 17 not admitted unless accompanied by parent or adult guardian), and NC-17 (persons under age 17 not admitted; replaced the X rating in 1990).

In the U.S. many different private groups attempt to influence government agencies, businesses, libraries, radio and television broadcasters, newspapers, and other communications media to suppress material that they consider objectionable. Religious, ethnic, and racial groups have tried to prevent plays, movies, and television programs from being presented because of elements they deem offensive.

### **Current Problems and Trends**

In the 20th century, as in all previous history, freedom from censorship has been the exception in the world. The rule has been, and continues to be, repression, suppression, and oppression. It may, however, be considered a sign of political and social progress that no country admits that it is committed to a policy of religious, intellectual, artistic, or political censorship. This is apparent in the many covenants and declarations that have been passed in support of freedom and human rights; these include the UN Charter (1945), the UN Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the UN Covenants on Civil and Political Rights (1966) and on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966), the European Convention on Human Rights (1953), the Helsinki Final Act (1975), and the American (Western Hemisphere) Convention on Human Rights (1978).

<b>?</b>	<b>QUESTIONS</b>
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1. What materials are considered objectionable? 2. What is the reverse side of censorship? Is it equally dangerous? 3. What basic freedoms are recognized in nondemocratic countries? 4. How many countries enjoyed the highest degrees of freedom according to the 1980 survey of Freedom House? 5. Could you give examples of the exiles from the former Soviet Union? 6. What case may serve the classic textbook example of freedom of the press in the U.S.? 7. How did the Supreme Court limit the laws against obscenity? 8. How is self-censorship exercised in American film industry? 9. What is the private groups input in

regulating the work of communications media? 10. What documents have been passed in support of freedom and human rights?



## GUIDED WRITING

### Writing a news article

Read the telexes carefully and choose the one you would prefer to write about. To help you decide, think which telex demands the vocabulary, tenses and general content that you feel confident to handle.

You work as a journalist and have been handed these four telexes. Choose two only, and, for each one you choose, write a newspaper article of about 150 words.

DOCTOR IN AUSTRALIAN OUTBACK SAVES LIFE OF FOOTBALLER WITH RUSTY DRILL. FOOTBALLER SUFFERS HEAD INJURY DURING GAME. LOSES CONSCIOUSNESS. NO TIME TO TAKE HIM TO HOSPITAL. DOCTOR PHONES NEUROSURGEON FOR ADVICE. NO EQUIPMENT AVAILABLE EXCEPT RUSTY OLD DRILL. DOCTOR DRILLS INTO FOOTBALLER'S HEAD TO RELIEVE PRESSURE OF BLOOD TO BRAIN. MAN NOW RECOVERING IN HOSPITAL - PARENTS PRAISE DOCTOR'S COURAGE AND SKILL.

TRIALS BEGIN ON MIRACLE DRUG. CLAIMS THAT DENTISTS WILL SOON BE OUT OF WORK. DRUG MANUFACTURED FROM PLANT RECENTLY DISCOVERED IN TROPICAL RAINFORESTS. CONSISTS OF TABLET TO BE TAKEN EVERY MONTH. PREVENTS TEETH DECAYING. CHILDREN REJOICE AT NEWS. OTHER PLANTS DISCOVERED MAY PROVIDE CURES FOR CONDITIONS SUCH AS MIGRAINE AND ARTHRITIS, SCIENTISTS SAY.

**Make sure you use all the information you are given in the telexes you choose to write about. You may also have to provide new information from your imagination. You can change the order of events/information as long as the sequencing remains logical.**

### Exercise I. Think about your reader

*Work with a partner and answer the following questions. (Sometimes more than one answer is possible.)*

1. When you pick up a newspaper, what probably catches your eye first?
2. Why is it important that headlines are short and dramatic?
3. Where in a news article would you probably find preliminary background information?
  - a in the middle
  - b at the end
  - c at the beginning
4. What would you probably do if the opening section of an article was not interesting or dramatic?
5. Why are you writing these news articles?
  - a to entertain the reader
  - b to challenge the reader to think
  - c to persuade
  - d to give information

### Exercise II. Brainstorm the topic

Work with a partner. Use the information you are given in the telexes, and your imagination where appropriate, and answer the following questions.

#### TELEX A

##### Details of the article

Who were the people in the story? Give their names and ages.

Where exactly did this happen? Why?

When did it happen? What was going on meanwhile?

What did the doctor do, step by step?

Who can you quote in your article?

What did they say? What do you think the footballer's father said to you about what the doctor had done?

Where is the footballer now?

##### Tenses

Which tenses will you need to use the most in your story?

##### Beginning and ending the article

How are you going to begin and end the story? e.g. with a dramatic statement, with a quotation, etc.

What is your headline going to be?

## **TELEX B**

### Details of the article

What have scientists found? Why is it important?

Where exactly was it found? When?

What can be made from it? What can it do, in theory? What do we know about its planned use? What is happening at the moment?

What other implications does the discovery have?

Who can you quote in your article? What did they say? What do you think children might have said to you about the news?

### Tenses

Which tenses will you need to use the most in your story?

### Beginning and ending the article

How are you going to begin and end the story? e.g. with a dramatic statement, with a quotation, etc.

What is your headline going to be?

## **Exercise III. Think about paragraphing**

Read the following paragraph plans and decide which of them you prefer for each of your articles.

1. Introductory paragraph: What has happened? Where? When did it happen? Who was involved?

Main paragraph 1: Background. What were people doing when it happened?

Next paragraph(s): What happened next?

Concluding paragraph: What did people say about the events? What is the situation now?

2. Introductory paragraph: Background. What were people doing when the event happened? When? What happened (briefly)?

Main paragraph 1: Who was involved? What did they do?

Next paragraph(s): What happened next?

Concluding paragraph: What did people say about the events? What is the situation now?

\*Try to extend and vary the vocabulary you see in the telex when you write your article. It's advisable to use synonyms and explanatory sentences, rather than repeating the telex word for word. If it is not

specified which sort of newspaper you are writing for, it is probably best to aim for the style of a local newspaper. In other words, you should write a lively, vivid account with a good range of vocabulary and some complex sentence structures. Do not use language that is overly colloquial or slang.

### **Exercise IV. Think about style**

**a** Complete Article 1, putting one suitable word in each gap

Miracle doctor!

People living in a little town in the Australian outback were singing the praises of their new doctor yesterday after he (1) ... the life of a young footballer with a rusty old drill. 'we couldn't believe (2) ... when we saw the drill,' onlookers said. 'But he knew just (3) ... he was doing.'

John was playing for his local team when he ran (4) ... another player and fell to the ground, unconscious. Dr. Batman was watching the game and raced to help.

The (5) ... hospital was hundreds of kilometers away. Dr. Batman knew there was only one option – he would have to perform an (6) ... operation, on the spot.

After getting telephone advice from a skilled brain surgeon, Dr Batman set (7) ... work. With the only available equipment, -a rusty drill found in a disused garage - he drilled into John's head and relieved the pressure of blood to the brain.

Last night, John's father praised the (8) ... courage and skill. Sitting (9) ... his son, now recovering in hospital, he said, 'Dr Batman performed a miracle. (10) ... for him, John would now be dead.'

**b** Read Article 2 below and compare it with Article 1. Which of the articles comes from a popular newspaper and which from a serious, 'quality' newspaper? Why?

### **Doctor saves man's life with 1920's drill**

A doctor was hailed by colleagues and local residents yesterday after saving the life of an injured footballer in the Australian outback. The incident occurred when a collision between two players rendered one unconscious, with a severe head injury. Following a brief assessment of the young man's condition, it was decided that prompt action was imperative if his life were to be saved. Lacking basic equipment, the doctor improvised with an antiquated drill and performed a complex neuro-surgical procedure, so relieving blood pressure to the young man's brain.

The patient is now recovering in an intensive care ward, while the doctor has been acclaimed for his steadiness under pressure, his resourcefulness and his technical skill.

**c** Look back at Articles 1 and 2 and decide which of these statements you agree with. Articles in popular newspapers and magazines:

1. are often dramatic.
2. are not divided into paragraphs.
3. can include frequent quotations.
4. may contain phrasal verbs
5. often have vivid headlines.
6. may often contain narrative tenses.
7. usually have an introduction and conclusion.
8. often contain impersonal forms or passives and long, complex sentence structures.
9. often use basic words rather than more formal, Latin-based vocabulary.
10. usually give plenty of information about the people involved in a story.

### **Exercise V. Think about headlines**

**a** Look at the following headlines for Telex A. one of them is not very effective. Say which one you think it is and why it is a poor example. Then say which headline you prefer and why.

1. Footballer's life saved!
2. A doctor saved someone's life with a drill!
3. Miracle operation performed with old drill!
4. Man saved by wonder doctor!
5. Doctor performs miracles!

**b** Look at the points below and decide which of them you agree with.

1. A headline should be eye-catching.
2. A headline should be quite long.
3. Headlines often contain examples of the passive.
4. Headlines are often written in the Present Simple.
5. Words like auxiliaries and articles are often omitted from headlines.
6. A headline often ends with an exclamation mark or a question mark.
7. A headline should summarize the most interesting aspects of the article in a few words.



## GOSSIP AND THE GLITTERATI

Newspapers , especially tabloid newspapers, are often accused of taking an excessive interest in the private lives of famous people such as film stars: **celebrities**, or, very informally, **celebs**.

Celebrities are sometimes referred to slightly humorously, and perhaps critically, as **glitterati**. This expression has replaced beautiful people and **jet set**, reminiscent now of the 1960's.

Celebrities, as well as more ordinary people, complain about **invasion of privacy** or a **breach of privacy** when they feel their private lives are being examined too closely.

They complain about **intrusive reporting** techniques like the use of **paparazzi**, photographers with long-lens cameras who take pictures without the subject's knowledge or permission. Other intrusive methods include **doorstepping**, waiting outside someone's house or office with microphone and camera in order to question them, and secretly recording conversations by **bugging** rooms with hidden microphones, or **bugs**.

**Exercise I.** Privacy and the paparazzi. Read this extract of a letter from a member of parliament to the editor of The Times and answer the questions.

1. Why is 'electronics expert in inverted commas?
  - a) the person doing the bugging didn't know much about electronics,
  - b) the person was less interested in electronics than in earning money by selling the secret recordings to newspapers,
  - c) you don't really know, but it might be a combination of a and b
2. What sort of state employs large numbers of informers?
3. If you endorse an activity, do you support it and approve of it?
4. Is this a picket line in a literal sense?
5. If someone barricades people into a house, do they let them leave?
6. If someone causes someone distress, do they upset them?

**MELLOR: THE RIGHT TO KNOW AND THE RIGHT TO STAY IN OFFICE**

Sir,

As might be expected from a Press Complaints Commission which includes tabloid editors, it has now stated that the public have the right to be informed about the private behavior of politicians if it affects the conduct of public business.

Was it therefore in the public interest for the tabloid editors to pay an 'electronics expert' who had bugged a bedroom then sold the tapes and photographs of it? Have we now reached the stage where it is easier for those who acquire other people's damaging personal secrets to sell them to the tabloids rather than risk jail over blackmail?

The statement amounts to a simple approval of the tabloids' use of paid informers, as, for example, did the KGB in Moscow or the Stasi in East Germany. Like them, the tabloids use such information to destroy lives without trial, defense or jury.

It endorses the practice of allowing a picket line of doorstepping journalists outside a house, to barricade relatives and children and cause them enormous distress, all in the interests of 'a good story'.

**Suing for libel**

In some countries, you can take legal action and sue newspaper editors for invasion of privacy: different countries have different laws about what breaches of privacy are actionable.

You may also sue for libel in a libel action, if you think that you have been libeled; in other words, that something untrue, and that damages your reputation, has been written about you. When someone starts legal action for libel, they issue a libel writ.

In both cases, the objective of the lawsuit is financial compensation in the form of damages.

**Exercise II.** Read this article from Newsweek and use these words to complete the gaps. One of the words is used three times, two are used twice and the rest once each.

- |                  |                    |                        |                    |
|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| a <i>lawsuit</i> | c <i>paparazzi</i> | e <i>photographers</i> | g <i>scoop</i>     |
| b <i>privacy</i> | d <i>paparazzo</i> | f <i>photography</i>   | h <i>celebrity</i> |

**Stalking the Stars**

... You can't see them. But they're there, lurking outside the hotels of Majorca, reconnoitering the beach clubs of the French Riviera, eavesdropping in ritzy restaurants from Madrid to Monte Carlo, hiding behind evergreens in St Moritz and palm trees in St Tropez.

Taking pictures is the least of their work, and many aren't even very good \_\_\_\_\_. (1). 'I have no talent for \_\_\_\_\_ (2),' admits Rostain, who together with Mouron nevertheless earns 1.5 million francs a year peddling snapshots of all the right people doing all the wrong things. '\_\_\_\_\_ (3) aren't supposed to do quality \_\_\_\_\_ (4), but to get exclusive documents.'

*Real* \_\_\_\_\_ (5), that is – not celebrity \_\_\_\_\_ (6), who work with the consent of their subjects, whether implicit or explicit. Real paparazzi are a rare breed: about a dozen each in France, Italy and Spain, fewer in Britain. Even so, the competition is cutthroat. To survive a \_\_\_\_\_ (7) must be intrepid, diligent, well-connected – and patient. A true \_\_\_\_\_ (8), such as the one that linked the Duchess of York to her financial adviser, takes weeks, sometimes months, of preparation ...

If Rostain and Mouron manage to get the pictures they want, and if a celebrity chooses to sue, chances are that they will win. In France, a legal principle known as the *right of image* prohibits the publication of photographs without the explicit consent of the people in them, except in news situations where the photos have clear news content.

'I can't complain,' says Paris \_\_\_\_\_ (9) lawyer Gilles Dreyfus, who is representing Brigitte Bardot in a suit against *Voici*, which in August ran clandestine photos of the reclusive star frolicking on a yacht in the company of a 51-year-old high-up in the far-right National Front party. 'To my knowledge, French law is the strictest in the world.' As a result, *Voici* faces 10 to 15 \_\_\_\_\_ (10) a year. In most cases, courts order publishers to pay damages ranging between 25,000 to 50,000 francs – a burden that *Voici*, with sales of 200 million francs a year, can easily afford. 'It's a budget item,' says its editor in chief, Patrick Marescaux.

Some \_\_\_\_\_ (11) hope to penetrate the few remaining pockets of \_\_\_\_\_ (12). In France, for example, the personal lives of politicians are off-limits. 'It's a taboo,' says Paris-Match news editor Chris Lafaille. Rostain and Mouron hope to change that. They're trying to catch one prominent French politician with his mistress, they say. Getting the photos isn't easy, but the hard part is finding a periodical willing to run them. 'If we succeed,' says Rostain, 'maybe we'll open up a whole new market.'

## INTRODUCTION

# TELEVISION

## Programs and People

**Programs** on radio and television may be referred to formally as **broadcasts**; and they may be referred to formally as **shows**, specially in American English.

Programs or shows on radio and television are often presented or **hosted** by a program **host**. Popular music programs are presented by **disc jockeys** or **DJs**.

News programs may be hosted, **fronted**, or **anchored** by anchors famous in their own right, sometimes more famous than the people in the news (often called **anchorperson**)

In more traditional news programs, the news is read by a **newsreader** or **newscaster**: newscaster is now a rather old-fashioned word.

**Reporters** and **correspondents**, or television journalists, make **reports**. They and the camera operators who go with them are **news gatherers**. Together they form **TV crews**.

**Broadcasters** are TV and radio organizations, the people working for them, or, more specifically, the professional media people who actually participate in programs.

Programs and reports are transmitted or **broadcast live** in a **live broadcast**, with events seen or heard as they happen, or **recorded** for broadcast later. A **recording** of an event can be referred to as **footage** of that event.

A news program might include:

- **dramatic footage** of events such as war or disasters
- interview and studio discussions: pictures of people participating in these are often referred to as **talking heads**, an informal expression used to show disapproval of what can be a boring form of television
- **vox-pop** interviews, or **vox-pops** getting the reactions of ordinary people, often in the street
- **clips**, or extracts, of any of these things.

**Exercise I. All the news that fits. Match the two parts of these extracts:**

1. Down the coast the town of Alasio has an average of 400,000 visitors a year,

2. 'I am becoming Death, a destroyer of worlds,' said Robert Oppenheimer in an old clip,
  3. The BBC does make mistakes and the reaction story it broadcast after the Conservatives' health debate was one of them.
  4. The old footage was fascinating enough,
  5. The pope's blessing 'Urbi et Orbi' to the City of Rome and to the world
  6. South African writer Nadine Gordimer reading from her novel *A Sport of Nature* about being a writer in a repressive society.
  7. The Rugby Football Union was asked to study a video
- A) without the help of talking heads.
  - B) That clip was from an interview recorded in 1987 for National Public Radio.
  - C) was broadcast live in 50 countries.
  - D) adding sadly, 'I guess we all felt that, at one time or another.'
  - E) recording of events leading up to the punch of the season.
  - F) It consisted of vox-pop interviews of health workers who disliked government policy.
  - G) and TV-footage of black waves can only spell disaster.



## INTENSIVE READING

### BROADCAST JOURNALISM

One of broadcasting's original purposes, predating its use as an entertainment medium, was to spread news of maritime weather conditions. Early experimenters and amateurs also delighted in informing far-away listeners of everything from election results to local gossip. As broadcasting developed into a mass medium, its speed and ubiquity made the news—international, national, and local—a natural area for programming. Television's instant images and video coverage made newspaper photographs outdated before readers saw them and robbed weekly photo magazines, such as *Life* and *Look*, of their purpose and popularity. As broadcasting emerged as the primary means of distributing information, print journalism redefined itself as a supplemental medium in American mass communication. The newspapers and magazines that survived the broadcasting era did so by focusing on in-depth analysis of events, editorial opinion, and coverage of the arts and other "soft" news. Other print publications thrived by imitating the brevity and flashy visual style of television.

Just as radio broadcasting pushed the newspaper from its central position as the herald of public events, television had the same general effect on radio. However, the rise of television coincided with the explosion in popularity of the automobile and the development of the suburbs, and this proved a crucial factor in the survival of radio broadcasting. While Americans spent less time listening to their radios for home entertainment, they spent more time listening to the radio in their cars.

Television offered little news coverage during its early years. In the late 1940s, the networks put together 15-minute daily news summaries that offered a minimum of visual material. In 1956 NBC introduced The Huntley-Brinkley Report, a half-hour national telecast presented in the early evening and featuring an increased number of taped reports of the day's events. The other networks eventually followed this format.

International news reporting was greatly enhanced in 1961 with the successful launching of Telstar, the first communications satellite. Owned by AT&T and launched into Earth orbit by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) under a commercial contract, Telstar enabled the networks to broadcast for the first time same-day moving images of news events from around the world. Network and local news programming, initially considered a nonprofit or barely profitable civic duty, was soon commercially lucrative as broadcast news became an integral part of viewers' everyday lives. Television broadcasting quickly became society's most popular source of news. Tens of millions of viewers tuned in during gripping national events such as the assassination of President John F. Kennedy in 1963 or the manned Moon landing in 1969.

In addition to daily news coverage, the networks also developed weekly prime-time newsmagazine series, such as 60 Minutes (1968- ) and 20/20 (1978- ). Newsmagazine shows tend to consist of cultural reporting, investigative reporting, and human-interest stories. They have proliferated in prime-time broadcasting, while all-news cable channels have proved quicker in supplying viewers with breaking news. Although network news divisions regularly produced hour-long documentary programs during the 1950s, such as CBS Reports, almost all in-depth American documentary programs are now produced by public television stations and aired on the PBS network.

In the United States, television has had a profound effect on electoral politics and public opinion. For example, in 1960 presidential candidates Richard M. Nixon and John F. Kennedy agreed to a series of

debates, which were broadcast simultaneously on television and radio. According to surveys, most radio listeners felt that Nixon had won the debates, while television viewers picked the younger, more photogenic Kennedy. Especially influential was television coverage of the Vietnam War (1959-1975), which helped change the rules of American politics. By the mid-1960s the Big Three networks were broadcasting daily images of the war into virtually every home in the United States. For many viewers, the horrors they saw on television were more significant than the optimistic reports of impending victory issued by government officials and repeated in print accounts. The lessons learned by the American military in the Vietnam War were evident in the Persian Gulf War of 1991, where great emphasis was placed on the orchestration of information for television.

### Exercise I. Find in the text synonyms for the following

Omnipresent; additional; to prosper; shortness; predominating; exciting; necessary; important.

### Exercise II. Match the words with their definitions:

- |                  |                                  |
|------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 to predate     | a to increase in strength        |
| 2 in-depth       | b cheaply bright                 |
| 3 flashy         | c thorough                       |
| 4 to enhance     | d to increase rapidly in numbers |
| 5 to proliferate | e to be earlier in history than  |



## TELEVISION IN THE USA

Find out what the following abbreviations stand for: ABC CBS NBC PBS CNN HBO FCC.

There are a lot of commercial and non-commercial stations. Most commercial stations are affiliated with one of the national commercial networks: ABC (American Broadcasting Company), NBC (National Broadcasting Company), CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System), or Fox Broadcasting Company. These networks are not television stations or channels or programs. They are not licensed to broadcast. Networks are essentially program distribution companies. They buy programs from

independent television production companies and sell these programs to individual television stations. The network is paid by advertisers to insert commercial announcements on the program the network buys.

On the average, American viewers watch TV four hours a day, usually tuned to one of the national commercial networks: ABC, NBC, CBS, or Fox Broadcasting Company. These stations attract about 98 percent of TV audiences. During a sixty-minute TV program, you can expect to see about twelve minutes of commercials.

The commercial networks broadcast a variety of shows: news, drama, soap operas, comedy, sports, music, movies, children's programs, game shows, and talk shows. There is a lot of competition for viewers, especially during prime time, from 7 to 11 p.m. Ratings, published in the newspapers, measure the audience for the top ten programs.

PBS (Public Broadcasting Service), supported by government and private funding, is the only noncommercial network. It broadcasts more serious drama, performing arts, science, public-affairs documentaries, and educational children's programs. Sesame Street, the most popular children's show on PBS, appears on TV stations all over the world. All five networks broadcast twenty-four hours a day.

Some viewers pay to receive a wider selection of programs on cable television. There are up to 500 cable stations. Two well-known ones are HBO (Home Box Office), which shows movies, and CNN (Cable News Network), which specializes in news.

All of the networks have nationwide news programs. All have regularly scheduled news series. Among the most popular are CBS's Sixty Minutes and PBS's The MacNeil/Lehrer Newshour. The world's the most durable TV show is NBC's Meet the Press. In this show, important political figures and leaders are interviewed by journalists.

All television stations in the US, public or private, must be licensed to broadcast by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), an independent federal agency. Each license is given for a few years only.

There are no fees, charges, taxes or licenses in the USA for owning television receivers or receiving anything that is broadcast through the air. There is no government censorship or "reviewing" of programs and content. But "family viewing time" from 7 to 9 o'clock in the evening has been introduced. During these hours programs containing violence and sexual suggestiveness are kept to a minimum.

?	QUESTIONS
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1. What is a network? What is the financial basis of a network?
2. How is a non-commercial network different from a commercial one in the range and the quality of programs?
3. How many hours a day do Americans usually spend on watching TV? What are “prime time” hours in the USA and what is usually shown during these hours?

**Exercise I. Read the following definitions and translate the sentences:**

1. **A network** is a group of radio or television stations, which broadcast many of the same programmes, but in different parts of the same country.

Американские компании инвестировали большие деньги в сетевое вещание.

2. **A station** is an organization which makes television or radio broadcasts, or the building where this is done.

Репортер местной станции взял интервью у знаменитости.

3. **A channel** is a television station and all the programmes that it broadcasts

Большинство людей переключают каналы во время рекламы.

4. **Cable TV** is a system of broadcasting television programmes by cable (=satellite TV).

Эту программу можно посмотреть в прямом эфире по кабельному ТВ.

**Exercise II. Speak on:**

- a) the sources of financial support of commercial and noncommercial television;
- b) the major television networks;
- c) the Federal Communications Commission;
- d) television charges and licenses;
- e) how much television a “typical American” watches;
- f) prime time and family viewing time on TV.



## EXTENSIVE READING

### Broadcast Programming

Despite the obvious differences between radio and television, the development of programming for both broadcast media is best understood as a single history made up of two stages. Early broadcasting was dominated by adaptations of older media. Today, television stations in the United States produce very little of their own programming, apart from daily local newscasts and a few public-affairs discussion shows. Most stations broadcast entertainment series, feature films, documentaries, and world and national news coverage transmitted via network connections from Los Angeles, California, and New York City.

Most modern television programming genres are derived from earlier media such as stage, cinema, and radio. In the area of comedy, the situation comedy (or sitcom) has proven the most durable and popular of American broadcasting genres. The sitcom depends on audience familiarity with recurring characters and conditions to explore life in the home, workplace, or some other common location.

The most highly rated sitcom in radio history was Amos 'n' Andy, in which white actors performed the roles of African American characters in outrageous caricature. *I Love Lucy* (1951-1957), which starred Lucille Ball and was loosely adapted from her radio show *My Favorite Husband* (1948-1951), was the first hit television sitcom, finishing first in the national ratings for three seasons in a row (1951-1954). The show established many dramatic elements—such as battles between the sexes, arguments among neighbors, and other mundane conflicts—that would become fundamental to the genre. Other television sitcoms, such as *Father Knows Best* (1954-1960) and *The Cosby Show* (1984-1992), leaned toward moralistic narratives, often focusing on child rearing. Television sitcoms occasionally use fantasy characters as vehicles for comic special effects, as in *Bewitched* (1964-1972) or they offer social commentary, as in *All in the Family* (1971-1979) and *M\*A\*S\*H* (1972-1983).

Comedy-variety is a hybrid of vaudeville and nightclub entertainment. In the formative years of television, many of the medium's first great stars were comedy-variety performers, including Sid Caesar, Jackie Gleason, and Red Skelton. A comedy-variety hour typically

consisted of short monologs and skits featuring the host, alternating with various show-business acts, including singers, musicians, stand-up comedians, trained-animal acts, and other novelties. The variety show is a related form in which the host serves only as master of ceremonies. The Ed Sullivan Show (1948-1971), for example, hosted by newspaper columnist Ed Sullivan on CBS, presented entertainers as diverse as the Beatles and the Bolshoi Ballet.

Broadcast drama can be presented in either of two formats. An anthology program showcases individual plays, such as would be expected on stage or in motion pictures. The drama series, using recurring characters, situations, and settings, were more popular, however.

The early years of television offered many highly regarded **anthology dramas**. Hour-long works by Paddy Chayefsky, Rod Serling, and other television playwrights were presented live from New York City on showcase series such as Goodyear-Philco Playhouse (1951-1960) and Studio One (1948-1958). As with radio, however, **serial television dramas** proved more popular and anthologies gradually disappeared. Television became increasingly lucrative during the 1950s, and large sums of money became available to record prime-time programming, ending the era of live television dramas. Filmed (or taped) series allowed for crowd scenes, car crashes, and other cinematic elements that in turn made possible a variety of action-adventure formats that are still popular in contemporary programming. The genre includes police dramas, such as Hill Street Blues (1981-1987), and NYPD Blue (1993- ), usually depictions of straightforward battles between good and evil; and private-eye series, such as 77 Sunset Strip (1958-1964), The Rockford Files (1974-1980), and Magnum, P.I. (1980-1988), in which the personality of the detective is as important as the criminal investigation. Other types of action-adventure programming include Westerns, such as Gunsmoke (1955-1975), Wagon Train (1957-1965), and Bonanza (1959-1973); war series, such as Combat (1962-1967) and Rat Patrol (1966-1967); spy series, such as The Man From U.N.C.L.E (1964-1968) and I Spy (1965-1968); and science-fiction series, such as Star Trek (1966-1969) and its sequels and The X-Files (1993-2002). Dramatic series tend to follow the exploits of lawyers (Perry Mason, 1957-1966; The Practice, 1997- ), doctors (Ben Casey, 1961-1966; Marcus Welby, M.D., 1969-1976); or families (The Waltons, 1972-1981; Dallas, 1978-1991).

The **soap opera**, or daily serial drama, was developed as a daytime genre aimed specifically at a female audience. Soap operas explored romance, friendship, and familial relations in slow-moving, emotionally

involving narratives. The invention of the soap opera is credited to Irna Phillips, who developed such programs for local radio broadcast in Chicago during the 1920s. Many of her radio shows were adapted for television, with some running first on radio and then on television for more than 25 years.

Other television program types include **talk shows**, **sports coverage**, **children's programming**, **game shows**, and **religious programs**, all of which originated on radio. Quiz shows, such as The \$64,000 Question (1955-1958) and Twenty-One (1956-1958), are a subgenre of game shows in which cash prizes are awarded through quick tests of knowledge. These shows had been extremely popular in prime time during the late 1950s until a series of cheating scandals resulted in the virtual banishment of such programming to daytime or early evening schedules, with much smaller prizes offered. Popular game shows, as they were now called, during this period included The Price Is Right (revived in 1972), Jeopardy (1964- ), and Wheel of Fortune (1975- ). In the late 1990s, with the audience for the broadcast networks in decline, the "big-money" quiz show was revived, in part because of its low production costs relative to dramatic series. Leading the comeback was Who Wants to Be a Millionaire? (1999- ), a show that originated in the United Kingdom and became a huge hit in the United States.

New program types are rarely introduced in broadcasting, since audience familiarity plays a key role in determining programming. The rise of the **reality show** in the late 1980s and 1990s is an exception, however. Examples include Cops (1989- ), in which camera crews accompany police cars on their daily rounds, and Survivor (2000- ), which records the interactions of a group of people who are thrown together in a difficult, remote location, such as a desert island. As with the revival of the quiz show, the drive for lower production costs by network broadcasters was a determining factor in introducing these programs, which have become extremely popular.

### **Exercise I. Give synonyms for the following in the text:**

Offensive; lasting; ordinary; influenced in developing; showing variety; profitable

### **Exercise II. Give definitions for the following programs in the text:**

Sitcom; soap opera; reality show; drama series; talk show; game show

## NEWS OR ENTERTAINMENT?

Where does your knowledge of the news come from? In Britain, 62% of the population gets its information from television, 23% from newspapers and 13% from radio. A TV news broadcast is therefore an important source of information. However, are TV news broadcasts more concerned with entertainment than information? Look at the facts:

News broadcasts are introduced by the same kind of lively music as other programs on TV. Programs also begin with headlines designed to attract the viewer.

The news-readers are often attractive and friendly. They sit behind impressive desks and often feature in newspaper articles about their private lives.

The news items may be serious but they are often followed by advertisements which make them less significant.

The average length of items is only forty-five seconds. This means even important items may only get three or four minutes of coverage. As a result TV news cannot deal with complex issues and when it does it tends to simplify them.

Issues are also trivialized by the proportion of *soft* items in each broadcast. These are often placed at the end of the news and concern the Royal Family, animals, 'strange but true' items, etc.



### QUESTIONS

- 1** *In what ways is the television news like any other form of entertainment on TV?*
- 2** *What is the writer concerned about in television news?*

**Answer these questions.**

- a** Do you agree that television trivializes the news? Why/Why not?
- b** Which of these provides the best and more reliable source of news in your country: newspapers, television or radio?
- c** Here are ten stories for a TV news program. Choose six and decide on the order in which they will appear.

- 1 Flood in Germany
- 2 Local fishing boat hit by mystery submarine
- 3 Panda in Mexican zoo has baby
- 4 Unemployment rises again
- 5 Royal visit to new hospital
- 6 International rescue of whale trapped in Arctic ice
- 7 Top politician murdered
- 8 Sports results
- 9 Storm in India kills 400 people
- 10 Film star's child is kidnapped

d Decide on three main headlines which are most likely to attract viewers.



### THE TV DIET

People sometimes say that today's news programs are **infotainment**, a mixture of information, and entertainment, something that people watch or listen to for pleasure. Another example of infotainment is **docudrama** where real events are dramatized and re-enacted by actors. This is a combination of documentary and drama: a **documentary** is a serious factual radio or TV program.

**Exercise I. Look at the extracts and match the types of programs to their definitions.**

- |             |             |              |            |
|-------------|-------------|--------------|------------|
| 1 talk-show | 2 game show | 3 God slot   | 4 phone-in |
| 5 quiz show | 6 sitcom    | 7 soap opera |            |

A contest of skill, intelligence or knowledge. The term includes quiz shows.

B series about the lives of a group of people.

C comedy series based around a character or group of characters, often an 'ordinary' family.

D a well-known host invites guests to talk, often about something they are trying to sell or promote, like their latest book.

E a host invites people to phone in and put questions to a studio guest, or just give their opinions about something.

F religious program.

G contest involving answering questions.

## The Rating Battle

There is, of course, a lot of competition between broadcasting organizations. Most TV and radio **networks** want to increase the size of their audience, or their **ratings**, at the expense of other networks.

Good ratings are especially important during **prime-time** or **peak-time**, the time of day, or **slot**, when most people watch TV. Slot also means any short period in broadcasting reserved for a specific purpose.

High audience figures attract more **advertising** or **commercials** to be shown in **commercial breaks** between programs commercials are also known as **spots**.

The media often talk about **ratings battles** or **ratings wars** between networks when discussing competition in the industry.

**Exercise II. Decline and fall of the networks. Read this book review from *The Economist* and answer the questions.**

### THREE BLIND MICE

By Ken Auletta

For years, ABC, CBS, and NBC have been the most powerful institutions in the American media, perhaps in all of American life.

But in 1985-6, with their profits falling as viewers turn increasingly to the smorgasbord of choice offered by cable television and VCRs, the networks were taken over by Wall Street dealmakers who thought they could be run more efficiently. The clash of cultures was as dramatic as any in business history, Mr. Auletta was allowed to witness all this from a rare angle and he produces some stunning reporting.

He recounts how Mr. Tisch craftily took over CBS without its board noticing; and of his, and the other owners' draconian attacks on spending. So frugal is the 'evil dwarf' as he is nicknamed by his colleagues that he tells the head of CBS' record company, which has just made a \$160 million profit, that he cannot have a bagel at the Beverly Hills Hotel because it costs too much. With its descriptions of such lunacy, its huge cast of characters and its vivid portraits of the egomania of some in the television industry, Mr. Auletta's tale has strong hints of Balzac and Dickens.

It is a story told in numbers that reveal the long, slow, inexorable death-march of the networks: the networks' declining audience share, from 92 per cent in 1976 to 75 per cent in 1984 to 60 per cent today; their profits falling from \$800 million in 1984 to (probably) zero this year; the number of channels quadrupling since the mid-1970s; VCRs in 70 per cent of all homes. Mr Tisch and his peers may not like television, and may not even watch it; but to number-crunchers such as themselves the data are pretty plain.

- 1 Does a smorgasbord restaurant give you a lot of choice?
- 2 What does VCR stand for?
  - a) variable channel receiver
  - b) video cassette recorder
- 3 A clash is a conflict. Which two cultures is there a clash between?
- 4 Is stunning reporting impressive?
- 5 If you do something craftily, you do it in a clever way, perhaps without people n----ing.
- 6 Is a draconian attack
  - a) a strong one, or b) a weak one?
- 7 'Evil dwarf' A dwarf is a very short person. Is someone's nickname their real name?
- 8 Do frugal people spend a lot of money?
- 9 Lunacy is mad behavior. What example of lunacy does Auletta give?
- 10 If something is inexorable, will it continue?
- 11 Which three networks is Auletta talking about in his book?
- 12 If a figure quadruples, does it get
  - a) twice as big,                      b) four times as big,      c) six times as big?
- 13 Are Tisch's peers
  - a) other TV bosses,              b) his employees,
  - c) members of the British House of Lords?
- 14 What do number-crunchers do?
- 15 The data are plain to them. Are the figures a) clear, b) unclear?



## Zapping

People watching TV are viewers. Viewers who watch a lot of television without caring what they watch are **couch potatoes**.

If you **zap** between channels, you use your **remote control** or **zapper** to change channels a lot, perhaps looking for something interesting to watch, and perhaps not succeeding. A zapper is also a person who zaps.

Informal words for television are the **tube** in the USA, and the box or the telly in Britain.

**Exercisel. Sorting out the channels.** Two articles about zapping, one from *the Times* and one from *Today*, have been mixed up. There are six sections in the first article and five in the second.

- 1) Say which headlines and sections make up each article. (a is the first section of the first article and b is the first section of the second)
- 2) Find all the expressions in both articles that mean 'change channels'.

### **Going for the Big Break / Shouting at the box**

A Pity the poor television advertiser. He fights for our attention, but it is an unequal fight. We turn on our TV sets to watch programs; he would rather we watched his adverts. And these days the advertiser has something else to contend with: the zapper, the remote control. The moment a program is finished or even half-way finished bip! the selfish viewer turns the telly off, or over.

B Remember the time when there was no such thing as a remote control for the telly and you had to haul yourself out of the armchair to change channels? Now everything is about to change again with a new voice-activated method.

C The idea is that instead of pressing buttons, we will be able to channel-hop simply by shouting commands at the set, which will react using "voice recognition". "Channel One, you 'orrible little telly", gets you BBC1, and so on.

D This is the problem tackled by The Zapper and The Advertiser, a new study from the Billett Consultancy. The consultancy looked at 1,000 households. You could have worked out most of the findings yourself, but there are a couple of surprises.

E The first is that quality is appreciated. Billett found that more people are likely to get bored with a one-hour LA Law than a one-hour Maigret. Eight per cent of people do not stay on after the break in News at Ten, but 42 per cent of live football watchers flip over during half-time, never to return. People change over half as often during weekends.

F Perhaps now is the time to remove program credits, Billett says, their logic being that most people switch off when the credits come on, anyway.

G This is a bit like a biscuit manufacturer announcing that it will no longer make the first and last biscuits in a pack because they always get

broken. Billet believes that ITV could increase the number of viewers aged 16 to 24 if it stopped end-credits and end-break advertising.

H Can you imagine the chaos throughout the living rooms of Britain if this thing catches on?

I 'We also wonder whether a sensible change would be to increase the advertising minutage for center-breaks during peak hours and a reduction in end-break minutage.' So, this could be the future: a brief pause for breath between programs, but a massive slice of advertising during them. The advertisers will get you yet.

J At least with the zapper there is only one person in charge of the set at a time. As far as I can make out, using this technique, ... whoever shouts the quickest wins. There'll be my husband bellowing 'three, three, three,' for the news, the kids screaming 'six, six, six', for Sky, and me shouting at it to switch itself off.

K At which point the set will probably have a breakdown. Life was so much simpler when the set stayed on the same channel for three days because no one could be bothered to get up and change it.


**EXTENSIVE READING**

## TV VIOLENCE

TV is often accused of showing too much violence or **mayhem**: scenes of fights, assault, murder and so on. Violence on TV and in films is often referred to as **gore**, especially when blood is visible. A film with a lot of violence and blood in it is **gory**.

**Exercise I. Look at the table about TV violence from Newsweek and then read the extracts from the article and answer the questions.**

## US NETWORKS UNDER THE GUN

### THE MAYHEM IS KIDS' STUFF

A study of the 1991-92 television season shows that children's programming actually features more violence than prime time.

	Children's programs	Prime-time
Violent acts per hour	32	4
Violent characters	56%	34%
Characters who are victims		

of violence	74%	34%
Characters who are killers or get killed	3-3%	5-7%
Characters involved in violence as perpetrators or victims	79%	47%

**Broadcasters have promised to clean up their act.  
Critics say don't believe the hype.**

Seeing the heads of all four networks gathered in the same room last week was extraordinary enough. Even more intriguing, however, were the downcast eyes and somber expressions. No wonder: after 40 years of denial, despite more than 3,000 damning studies, the TV industry's moguls tacitly conceded that violence on television can indeed lead to violence in real life. But the remedy they so proudly unveiled ... generated almost as much heat as the malady it's supposed to help cure.

Beginning this fall, the networks will broadcast parental advisories before excessively violent programs and similar warnings to newspapers and magazines that carry TV listings ... As a pre-emptive strike, the announcement accomplished its mission. Many in congress, roused by the soaring tide of prime-time gore, have been threatening federally-imposed reforms.

Some of these restrictions, however, would surely raise howls from First Amendment guardians, which may explain the almost palpable relief with which law-makers greeted the networks' voluntary action ...

... In selling their own reform package, the networks provided another reminder of just how unstaunchable TV's blood flow remains. 'This problem will get worse because people will think something has been done about it,' says Dr Carole Lieberman, a psychiatrist who heads the National Coalition on Television Violence. 'But all they're doing is applying a Band-Aid. It's just a sham.'

For openers, the networks will decide for themselves which shows require warning flags. The plan also assumes the presence of a parent to switch the channel. That ignores the millions of children of working parents who watch TV unsupervised, not to mention the nearly 50 per cent between 6 and 17 who own bedroom sets ...

'The advisories are just a faster road map to the violent material,' says Terry Rakolta, founder of Americans for Responsible Television. Kids channel-surfing will stop immediately and say, 'Hey, this is it! We don't even have to look for it.'

1. Overall, is there less violence on children's television than during prime-time?
2. If your eyes are downcast, in which direction are you looking?
3. If you deny something, you say that it isn't true. What do you do if you concede something?
4. An advisory is a form of w---ing.
5. The pre-emptive strike by the TV moguls was carried out to pre-empt ...
6. Restrictions would raise howls of pro---- from defenders of free speech.
7. If something is palpable, it is obvious and visible. Relief is what you feel when you stop worrying about something. Why did the law-makers feel relieved?
8. If the flow of blood is unstaunchable, can it be stopped?
9. If you apply a Band-Aid to a problem, do you attack the real causes of the problem?
10. How many objections to the networks' plans are there in this paragraph?



## EXTENSIVE READING

### THE VIOLENCE IS FAKE, THE IMPACT IS REAL

Ellen Goodman

Perhaps the most common concern among critics of television is the effect of violence on children. Many studies by private institutions and by the government conclude that children do, in fact, learn aggressive behavior from what they see on the screen, despite the disclaimers of broadcasters. The issue Ellen Goodman raises here is what television violence fails to teach kids about the consequences of real violence. Ellen Goodman is a widely syndicated, Pulitzer Prize-winning columnist for the *Boston Globe*.

I don't usually think of television executives as being modest, shy, and retiring. But for a decade or two, the same souls who have bragged about their success in selling products have been positively humble about their success in selling messages.

Yes indeed, they would tell advertisers, children see, children do ... do buy candy bars and cereals and toys. But no, no, they would tell parents, children see, but children don't ... imitate mangling and mayhem.

But now the government has released another study on TV and violence. The predictable conclusion is that “violence on television does lead to aggressive behavior by children and teenagers who watch the programs.” After analyzing 2500 studies and publications since 1970, the “overwhelming” scientific evidence is that “excessive” violence on the screen produces violence off the screen.

Somehow, I feel like I have been here before. By now, the protestations of the networks sound like those of the cigarette manufacturers who will deny the link between cigarettes and lung disease to their (and our) last breath. By now, studies come and go but the problem remains.

Today, the average kid sits in front of the tube for 26 hours a week. The kids don’t begin with a love of violence. But eventually they learn from grown-ups.

In the incredible shrinking world of kidvid, there is no regularly scheduled program for kids on any of the three networks between the hours of 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. a full 80 percent of the programs kids watch are adult television. For those who choose adventures, the broadcasters offer endless sagas of terror, chase, murder, and rescue.

As Peggy Charren, who has watched this scene for a long time as head of Action for Children’s Television, puts it: “Broadcasters believe that the more violent the problems, the more attractive the adventure to audiences in terms of sitting there and not turning it off. The ultimate adventure is doing away with someone’s life. The ultimate excitement is death.”

The government, in its report, listed some theories about why there is this link between violence on TV and violence in kids’ behavior. One theory was that TV is a how-to lesson in aggression. Children learn “how to” hit and hurt from watching the way they learn how to count and read. Another theory is that kids who see a world full of violence accept it as normal behavior.

We don’t see violence on television in terms of pain and suffering, but in terms of excitement. In cartoons, characters are smashed with boulders, and dropped from airplanes only to get up unscathed. In adventure shows, people are killed all the time, but they are rarely “hurt.”

As Charren put it, “There is no feeling badly about violence on television.” We don’t bear witness to the pain of a single gunshot wound. We don’t see the broken hand and teeth that come from one blow to the

jaw. We don't share the blood or the guilt, the anguish or the mourning. We don't see the labor of rebuilding a car, a window, a family.

Our television stars brush themselves off and return same time, same station, next week without a single bruise. Cars are replaced. The dead are carted off and forgotten.

In Japan, I am told there is an unwritten rule that if you show violence on television, you show the result of that violence. Such a program is, I am sure, much more disturbing. Maybe that's what's missing.

In the real world, people repress aggression because they know the consequences. But on television, there are no consequences. In the end kids may be less affected by the presence of violence than by the absence of pain. They learn that violence is okay. That nobody gets hurt.

So, if the broadcasters refuse to curb their profitable adventures in hurting, their national contribution to violence then let them add something to the mix: equal time for truth and consequences.



## EXTENSIVE READING

**Read through these quotations about television. Choose one you would like to comment on.**

1. We're gonna stay on until the end of the world. And when that day comes we'll cover it.

Ted Turner (1938-)  
U.S. media entrepreneur.

2. Everybody watching the television with open mouths, such is today's culture.

Josep Plà (1897-1981)  
Catalan writer.

3 There is a bias in television journalism. It is not against any particular party or point of view—it is a bias against understanding.

John Birt (1944 -)  
British broadcasting executive.

4. Broadcasting is really too important to be left to the broadcasters and somehow we must find some new way of using radio and television to allow us to talk to each other.

Tony Benn (1925-)  
British politician and author.

5. Television? No good will come of this device. The word is half Greek and half Latin.

Attributed to C. P. Scott (1846 - 1932)

British journalist.

6. A medium, so called because it is neither rare nor well done.

Attributed to Ernie Kovacs (1919 - 1962)

U.S. entertainer.

7. I made a remark a long time ago. I said I was very pleased that television was now showing murder stories, because it's bringing murder back into its rightful setting—in the home.

Alfred Hitchcock (1899 - 1980)

British-born U.S. film director.

8. If any reader of this book is in the grip of some habit of which he is deeply ashamed, I advise him not to give way to it in secret but to do it on television...People will cross the road at the risk of losing their own lives in order to say "We saw you on the telly".

Quentin Crisp (1908-1999)

British writer.

9. I'm always amazed that people will actually choose to sit in front of the television and just be savaged by stuff that belittles their intelligence.

Alice Walker (1944-)

U.S. novelist and poet, 1989.

10. Television is an invention that permits you to be entertained in your living room by people you wouldn't have in your home.

David Frost (1939-)

British television personality.

11. Television is for appearing on, not looking at.

Attributed to Noel Coward (1899 - 1973)

British dramatist, actor, and songwriter.

12. Television was the ultimate evidence of cultural anemia.

Roy A. K. Heath (1926-)

Guyanese novelist and teacher.

13. Television—the drug of the nation Breeding ignorance and feeding radiation.

Disposable Heroes of Hiphoprisy

U.S. rap group.

14. Each day a few more lies eat into the seed with which we are born, little institutional lies from the print of newspapers, the shock waves of television, and the sentimental cheats of the movie screen.

Norman Mailer (1923 -)

U.S. novelist and journalist.

15. Television brought the brutality of war into the comfort of the living room. Vietnam was lost in the living rooms of America—not on the battlefields of Vietnam.

Marshall McLuhan (1911 - 1980)  
Canadian sociologist.

16. Not a "window on the world"

But as we call you,  
A box a tube  
Terrarium of dreams and wonders.

Robert Pinsky (1940-)  
U.S. poet.

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