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СРЕДСТВА МАССОВОЙ ИНФОРМАЦИИ
В
ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ И США

Учебно-методические материалы
для студентов переводческого факультета
по специальности «Перевод и переводоведение»

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**СРЕДСТВА МАССОВОЙ ИНФОРМАЦИИ В
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студентов V курса РФУ отделений права и экономики, и студентов
старших курсов отделения журналистики.

Их целью является дальнейшее развитие и совершенствование у
студентов практических навыков и умений в таких видах речевой
деятельности как чтение, говорение и письмо.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Предлагаемые учебно-методические материалы включают в себя набор аутентичных текстов и заданий к ним в рамках темы «Средства массовой информации в Великобритании и США» и преследуют цель дальнейшего совершенствования речевых умений и расширения лингвострановедческих знаний студентов.

Настоящие материалы содержат пять разделов, тексты которых отображают различные формы современных средств массовой информации: прессу, радио и телевидение (в традиционной и новой формах), новые формы коммуникации, роль средств массовой информации на современном этапе развития общества и правовые нормы их деятельности.

Каждый текст сопровождают четыре типа коммуникативных заданий: 1) найти в тексте английские эквиваленты русским словам и выражениям; 2) ответить на вопросы, приводя примеры из текста; 3) прокомментировать утверждения; 4) обсудить наиболее важные положения. Все эти виды заданий нацелены на контроль восприятия прочитанного и на развитие навыков неподготовленной речи.

Последний раздел включает в себя упражнения творческого характера, которые предполагают участие студентов в обсуждении публикации, содержащей клевету. Студенты должны выступить в разных ролях – судей, адвокатов и их подзащитных, репортеров. Для этого необходимо активно овладеть лексикой по теме и на основе новой лексики, совершенствовать навыки устной речи (диалогической и монологической).

Глоссарий представляет собой перечень лексических единиц (в текстах они выделены жирным шрифтом), необходимых и достаточных для ведения коммуникации как в устной, так и письменной формах в рамках заданной темы.

UNIT I

NATIONAL AND LOCAL NEWSPAPERS IN BRITAIN AND USA

In Britain there are ten national daily newspapers. There are two kinds of newspapers. One is large in size and has many detailed articles about national and international events. These newspapers are called the serious papers, or the Quality papers (= **broadsheets**).

The other kind, called **the tabloids** are smaller in size, have more pictures, often in colour, and shorter **articles**, about less important events or about the private lives of well-known people. Although some people disapprove of tabloids, more people buy them than serious newspapers. *The Sun*, for example, which is a tabloid, is the biggest-selling newspaper in Britain.

Local papers give information about films, concerts and other things that are happening in the local neighbourhood, including the information about local people who have been married or died recently. There are many free local newspapers which are delivered to people's homes whether they ask for them or not. These contain a lot of **advertisements** and also some **news**, **cartoons** and **comic strips** (= humorous drawings).

Most papers have a political **bias**. Most national newspapers in Britain express a political opinion and people choose the newspaper according to their own political beliefs.

Most of the newspapers are right-wing (= they follow a party that favours either fewer political changes or less state control, and who are usually nationalistic). These are: *the Daily Telegraph* (serious paper), *the Daily Express*, *the Daily Mail*, *the Daily Star*, *The Sun* (all tabloids), *the Times* (the oldest newspaper in Britain). *The Guardian* is slightly left-wing. *The Daily Mirror* (tabloid) is left-wing.

The Independent, does not support any one political party, and neither does *the Financial Times*, which concentrates on business and financial news.

Sunday papers in Britain are larger than daily newspapers often having 2 or 3 **sections**. There is also a magazine called the colour **supplement**. All the Sunday newspapers are national serious newspapers, including *the Observer* (which is slightly left-wing), *the Sunday Times*, *the Sunday Telegraph*, *the Independent on Sunday*, *the Sunday Mirror*, *the Sunday Express*, *The News of the World* (right-wing and known for containing stories about sex and scandal), and *the Sunday Sport* which is considered to lack much serious information.

USA

There are more than 1500 daily newspapers in the US. They cover national and international news. Some newspapers are sold in nearly all parts of the USA, e.g. *USA Today*, *The Wall Street Journal* and the national edition of *New York Times*. Two other newspapers – *the Los Angeles Times* and *the Washington Post* are known and respected all over the US but cannot be bought everywhere.

Other important newspapers are *The Boston Globe*, sold in New England; the *Chicago Tribune*, sold in the Midwest, *the Rocky Mountain News*, sold in the mountain states, *the Christian Science Monitor*, sold in cities nationally.

There are also weekly newspapers in all parts of the US which cover local news, such as what is happening in the local neighborhood. Fewer people read these than read the daily newspapers.

Daily and Sunday newspapers

Daily newspapers are published on every day of the week except Sunday. Sunday newspapers are very big, often having several separate parts /sections/. They contain many longer articles and a lot of advertisements. Each section deals with a different subject, e.g., national and international news, sport, travel,

etc. one section, the **CLASSIFIEDS** has advertisements for jobs and things for sale. Another section has cartoons and comic strips and is called the **FUNNIES**.

Alternative newspapers

In the 1960s a group of newspapers began to appear that were later called the ‘alternative press’. They expressed extreme political opinions, especially LEFT-WING opinions. Many of the newspapers which were part of this movement, such as *the Village Voice* in New York or *the Reader* in Chicago, are less extreme today and more widely read.

//Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture. – Longman Group UK Limited, 1992.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

Экстремистские взгляды; цветное приложение; рекламные объявления; освещать события, новости; уклон; согласно своим политическим убеждениям; рубрика; рубрика с рекламными объявлениями о работе и купле-продаже вещей; странички юмора; такого рода газеты считаются малоинформативными.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. What kind of newspapers are broadsheets? And tabloids?
2. What events are covered in the British local papers?
3. What information do free local papers contain?
4. What predetermines the choice of a newspaper?
5. What are the right-wing British newspapers? How different are they from the left-wing papers?
6. Name the British papers independent of any political bias.
7. What are the British Sunday papers like?

8. What are the most popular daily and weekly newspapers in the U.S.?
9. In what way does a Sunday paper differ from a daily one?
10. What kind of press is alternative press?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why.

1. There are two kinds of newspapers in Britain: broadsheets and tabloids. The latter are called the serious papers, or the Quality papers.
2. *The Daily Mail* is the biggest-selling newspaper in Britain.
3. Although some people disapprove of tabloids, more people buy them than serious newspapers because they cover the most important events.
4. Local papers give information about films, concerts and other things that are happening in the local neighbourhood, including the information about local people who have been married or died recently.
5. There are many free local newspapers which are delivered to people's homes when they specially ask for them.
6. No British newspapers have a political bias and people choose the newspaper according to their own tastes.
7. Most of the newspapers are left-wing. These are: *the Daily Telegraph* (serious paper), *the Daily Express*, *the Daily Mail*, *the Daily Star*, *The Sun* (all tabloids), *the Times* (the oldest newspaper in Britain).
8. *The Guardian* is slightly right-wing. *The Daily Mirror* (tabloid) is left-wing.
9. *The Independent*, does not support any one political party whereas *the Financial Times* supports the Labour.
10. Sunday papers in Britain are larger than daily newspapers often having several sections.
11. All the Sunday newspapers are national serious newspapers, including *the Observer* (which is slightly left-wing), *the Sunday Times*, *the*

Sunday Telegraph, the Independent on Sunday, the Sunday Mirror, the Sunday Express, The News of the World (right-wing and known for containing stories about sex and scandal), and *the Sunday Sport* which is considered to lack much serious information.

12. There are more than 2000 daily newspapers in the US. They cover national and international news.
13. Some newspapers as *The USA Today, The Wall Street Journal* and the national edition of *New York Times* are sold in nearly all parts of the USA. The same goes for *the Los Angeles Times* and *the Washington Post*.
14. The other important newspapers are *The Boston Globe, the Chicago Tribune, the Rocky Mountain News, the Christian Science Monitor*. They are sold in cities nationally.
15. There are also weekly newspapers in all parts of the US which cover local news, such as what is happening in the local neighborhood. More people read these than read the daily newspapers.
16. Daily newspapers are published twice a day, including Sunday.
17. Sunday newspapers are in no way different from daily ones.
18. There is no alternative press in the USA.

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student as regards the above mentioned points.

What You Must Know About the Press

The British press along with that of Japan, has the highest daily readership in the world. Two out of three people read a national newspaper and three out of four read a Sunday paper.

The press is not state controlled, nor linked financially to any party. However, the majority of newspapers will often be outspoken in support of a political party.

The press used to be concentrated in Fleet Street in London, however in recent years the press has moved to new printing areas in the East London.

Both British and American press are independent but often owned by large media corporations as Rupert Murdoch's News International in Britain or the Gannet Group in the US. In America, as in Britain, there is a distinction between the tabloid and the broadsheets. The *New York Times* is highly respected and the most widely distributed "quality" but the *Washington Post* is considered as a paper of records, the one that best records the Government decisions.

<u>Name</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Circulation</u>	<u>Political leaning</u>	<u>Other</u>
Daily Mail	T	1.7 m	right of center	1896 Good financial section; female readership
Daily Telegraph	B	1 m.	conservative	1855 Best selling B in GB; finance pages
The Economist	Mag.	GB:97,847 Abr.: 250,000	tends to the right	1843 read by executives
The European	B	inter.: 167,457	pro Europe	1990 Male readership
The Evening Standard	T	Lond.: 503,123	right to center	1827 read by London commuters

The Guardian	B+T	391,526	left of center	1821 second best selling B in GB Liberal professions: teachers
The Independent	B	339,602	Independent center	1986 Focuses on issues Not personalities
Herald Tribune	Am.B	195,315	Center	1893 Read by American expatriates; covers intern./Europ. politics
Newsweek	Am.mag.	US:3,2m Abr.:325,000	Conserv.	1993 strong on political affairs & coverage of US & Asia high income qual.readership
The Observer	B Sund.paper	518,608	left of center	1791 bought by Guardian in 1993
The Sun	T	3,5m.	trad.right	best selling daily in GB; topless women and provocative headlines
The Sunday Times	Sund.	1,2m.	right of center	dominates Sund. quality press
The Times	B	375,144	right of Center	1785 oldest&most famous

British newspaper.

Read by the Establishment.

USA Today	US.B with	2m.	Center	most easily
	pop.appeal		pro America	available US
				paper in Europe

//Source: Ideas and Issues Ed du College 1994.

UNIT II

THE MEDIA IN GREAT BRITAIN

The British Press

The newspaper and periodical press in the UK is large and diverse, catering for a wide variety of views and interests. There is no state control or censorship of the press, though it is subject to the laws on **publication** and the Press Complaints Commission was set up by the industry as a means of self-regulation.

The press is not state-subsidized and receives few tax concessions. The income of most newspapers and **periodicals** is derived largely from sales and from advertising, the press is the largest advertising medium in Britain.

The Press Complaints Commission was founded by the newspaper and magazine industry in January 1991 to replace the Press Council (established in 1953). It is a voluntary, non-statutory body set up to operate the press's self-regulation system, and funded by the industry through the Press Standards Board of Finance.

The Commission's objects are to consider, adjudicate, conciliate, and resolve complaints of unfair treatment by the press; and to ensure that the press maintains the highest professional standards with respect for generally

recognised freedoms, including freedom of expression, the public's right to know, and the right of the press to operate free from improper pressure. The Commission judges newspaper and magazine conduct by a code of practice **drafted** by **editors**, agreed by the industry and ratified by the Commission.

Seven of the Commission's members are editors of national, regional and local newspapers and magazines, and nine, including the chairman, are drawn from other fields. One member has been appointed Privacy Commissioner with special powers to investigate complaints about invasion of privacy.

PRESS COMPLAINTS COMMISSION, 1 Salisbury Square, London. Tel.: 0171-3531248.

Newspapers are usually financially independent of any political party, though most adopt a political **stance** in their **editorial** comments, usually reflecting proprietorial influence. Ownership of the national and regional daily newspapers is concentrated in the hands of large corporations whose interests cover publishing and communications. The rules on cross-media ownership, as amended by the Broadcasting Act 1996, limit the extent to which newspaper organisations with over 20 per cent of national **circulation** may become involved in **broadcasting**.

There are 16 daily and about 14 Sunday national papers, about 80 regional daily papers, and several hundred local papers that are published weekly or twice-weekly. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland all have at least one daily and one Sunday national paper.

Newspapers are usually published in either broadsheets or tabloid format. The 'quality' daily papers, i.e. those providing detailed coverage of a wide range of public matters, have a broadsheet format. The tabloid papers take a more popular approach and are more illustrated.

Radio

British radio is divided between the licence-funded BBC and a growing number of profit making companies. The latter are overseen by the Radio Authority, the statutory equivalent of the Independent Television Commission. Radio companies operate under **licence** to the Radio Authority which was set up by the 1990 Broadcasting Act. Where the BBC once had a monopoly, the UK now has some 240 radio services, nearly 200 of them provided by commercial broadcasting. The average listener can receive 15 radio stations, six from the BBC and nine from commercial radio. In London, listeners can hear 24 services, of which six are BBC.

There's no doubting the **ubiquity** of radio. It's the most popular form of broadcasting until 4 pm each day and the average person spends more time listening to the radio than reading newspapers and magazines. In the typical British household there are no fewer than six radio sets and every year 12 million more – portables, car stereos, hi-fi tuners and now a sprinkling of digital radios – are sold.

New methods of audience calculation recently revealed that no less than 89 per cent of the population listen to the radio at least once a week. "This is a quite extraordinary achievement in a multimedia age," said Jenny Abramsky, the BBC's new director for radio. "Radio listening is extremely healthy and central to people's lives."

The BBC runs five national networks and 38 local radio stations serving England and the Channel Islands, and national regional radio services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, including Welsh and Gaelic language stations. This is a vast operation but one which nonetheless often seems a

subsidiary to the BBC's main preoccupation with television and its digital futures.

In November 1998, against her own and others expectations, Jenny Abramsky was appointed BBC director of radio. It put the top job into popular and experienced hands and the woman who **launched** Radio 5 and who has **edited** all Radio 4's top news programmes identified two main tasks. First was "repairing" the divide between programme commissioners and producers, second to answer the **critics** who say Radio 3 is going for audience-grabbing inanities. Her solution here isn't to go for **audience** share but to encourage "quality and intelligence" and to let licence payers "know how their licence fee is being spent".

Abramsky has been fortunate in taking over a ship that has sailed out of some choppy waters, including a move to west London from the wonderful ship-shaped BBC building in Portland Place. A year after the spring 1998 Radio 4 revamp, the schedule changes finally began yielding increased audience figures after falling to an autumn low of 7.68 million. For once, the spring 1999 Rajar figures told an encouraging story. Middle England had swallowed the moving of the Archers and the axing of *Sport on Four*, *Kaleidoscope* and *Week Ending*. James Boyle, the station controller who said he would quit if his overhaul failed, was not obliged to "fall on [his] sword". On Radio 1 expanded audience held fast with its forty something diet of "popular music with lyrics people can remember". Radio 2's support of old acts like *Blondie* and *Aerosmith* managed to propel some oldies back into the pop charts. And even Radio 3 was able to attract an extra 130,000 listeners.

A notable voice of dissent – and one who remains a regular Radio 4 presenter – is Libby Purves who used her **column** in *the Times* to say: "TV people have always despised radio, and now they have power over it. Those at the top of the BBC think of themselves as running a television service, and

radio is a distraction. They have no feeling for it. This is the heart of the problem, and those who want Britain to keep its unique service of crafted speech radio should not be distracted by the Rajar-Boyle-dumbdown business.”

Radio 1 – a BBC radio station which broadcasts mostly pop music and is listened to mostly by young people.

Radio 2 – a BBC radio station which broadcasts mostly music and entertainment programmes and is listened to esp. by older people.

Radio 3 – a BBC radio station which broadcasts mostly classical music.

Radio 4 – a BBC radio station which broadcasts programmes on news and current affairs as well as plays and arts programmes. Radio 4 is considered to be a quality station and listened to by educated people.

Radio 5 – a BBC radio station which broadcasts a variety of programmes.

BBC World's Service – a division of the BBC which broadcasts radio programmes, esp. news, to many different parts of the world.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

Разнообразный; ориентироваться на различные интересы и взгляды; подчиняться, находиться в чьем-либо ведении; субсидированная государством; налоговые скидки; доход; содержаться на добровольных взносах; комитет по рассмотрению претензий в адрес прессы; рассматривать; выносить решение по какому-либо вопросу; свобода слова; отвечать самым высоким профессиональным стандартам; свободная от нежелательного давления (о прессе); вторжение в частную жизнь; вездесущность, повсеместность; век всевозможных форм массовой информации; вспомогательный; основатель радио 5; редактировать; песни старых лет; разногласие, расхождение во взглядах; отвлекающий фактор; классическая музыка; текущие события.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. How is the British press regulated and funded?
2. What are the functions of the Press Complaints Commission?
3. What types of newspapers exist in Britain?
4. Which companies is British radio divided between?
5. What are the functions of the Radio Authority?
6. What is the average percentage of the BBC and commercial radio stations?
7. Which varieties of radio exist in modern Britain?
8. What is the most popular form of radio broadcasting?
9. Who was appointed the BBC director for radio? What is her opinion on the popularity of British radio among the people?
10. Which tasks did Jenny Abramsky identify on being appointed the BBC director for radio?

11. How many BBC radio stations are there? What programmes does each broadcast?
12. What is the present-day situation as regards BBC radio services like?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why.

1. The British press is controlled and censored by the state.
2. The Press Complaints Commission was founded for the purpose of considering complaints of unfair treatment by the press.
3. The Press Complaints Commission is located in Cambridge.
4. Each British paper has a distinct political bias.
5. There are two kinds of - tabloids and broadsheets; there is a very slight difference between the two.
6. The Radio Authority is responsible for BBC radio services.
7. The majority of the radio stations are commercial ones.
8. The average Briton spends more time watching TV than listening to the radio.
9. The newly-appointed BBC director for radio puts special emphasis on the quality of radio programmes.
10. The opinions dissent as to the importance of the radio as compared with television.
11. The BBC broadcasts a great variety of radio programmes.

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student as regards the above mentioned points.

Television

BBC is publicly funded via an annual licence fee that raised a total of L 2,1 billion in 1998. It is broadcast nationally with regional variations on BBC 1 (which spent L 752 million in 1998) and BBC 2 (L 406 million).

BBC 1 – the first of the two BBC television **channels**, which broadcasts news and general entertainment programmes.

BBC 2 – the second of the two BBC television channels, which broadcasts esp. programmes concerning the arts and educational subjects.

ITV – the commercial sector which is funded by advertisements to the tune of L 2.59 billion in 1998. It is broadcast regionally on 16 Channel 3 stations (L 1.8 billion net advertising revenue in 1998), S4C in Wales (L 9 million) and nationally on Channel 4 (L 553 million) and Channel 5 (L 142 million). *ITV* is Independent Television; a system of British television companies supported by advertising.

Channel 4 – one of Britain's four main television stations, which is supported by advertising and the various ITV stations, and broadcasts programmes intended for people whose interests are shared with relatively small numbers of others.

Channel 5 – a new channel which was established in 1997; like channel 4, it is supported by advertising; it broadcasts programmes intended for people with various interests.

Channel 4

Channel 4 is a minority station **by design**. Where the BBC must provide something for everybody and ITV must deliver ratings and profits to shareholders, Channel 4 has the compromise remit to deliver innovation, diversity and originality. C4's chief executive Michael Jackson is trying to shift this view, saying: "Channel 4 is no longer a minority channel for minority audiences. Its future lies in being the channel of contemporary culture which is

ahead of the mainstream.” He reasons that C₄ must change with the times. “Think about how different Britain is today from when Channel 4 launched 16 years ago,” he says. “Numbers in higher education have doubled. Half the population is now classified as middle class.” And there, in the young middle class (with their appetite for innovation, diversity and originality), is the channel’s core audience.

Channel 5

In 1998 /a year after it was launched/ the audience growth was impressive and achieved through more focused investment in original programmes, sport and better film titles. Channel 5, according to the Journal of the Royal Television Society, “evolves from crawling to walking upright”. Channel 5 is catching criticism from everybody – from the Broadcasting Standards Commission to the Broadcasting Select Committee to the advertisers whose interests it was primarily set up to serve. Faked up outrage about sex aside, advertisers complain that 16-34 year old viewing is falling and only over-55s tune in with greater frequency.

“Sensationalism ... is designed to grab attention and get people to sample the channel”, said Martin Campbell, the media analyst at Capel-Cure. “Not so”, said the C₅ boss David Elstein. He’s worked hard to increase transmission capacity so that 19 million homes can now receive a clear picture. “The bizarre and weird have a particular fascination for younger viewers,” he says.

Digital television

The potential is for up to 36 digital terrestrial, over 150 digital satellite and up to 400 digital cable channels. At present there are digital services from the BBC (BBC Knowledge, BBC Choice and BBC Parliament) and Channel 3/4/5 plus Ondigital, SDN, and Digital 3 and 4.

The reasons for digital TV are clear enough: a superior technology means TV consumers can get clearer pictures on wider screens which show more

channels. The consumer, once again, will benefit with a cheap telephone for each ear, multi-channel TV for each eye and internet access for every corner of the brain. The problem now is to educate us into a new transmission system which means getting to grips with digital multiplexes delivering increasing numbers of channels plus the choice of terrestrial, satellite or cable reception.

SKY DIGITAL

1 October 1998 Sky launched satellite digital TV with 140 channels. Sky froze prices at L 29.99 a month, with the exception of pay-per-view movies.

ONDIGITAL

15 November Ondigital launched terrestrial digital with 15 channels. **Subs** were between L 7.99 and L 27.99 per month.

ITV 2

7 December ITV₂ started broadcasting free as part of the ON digital package with a programme mix of **repeats, soaps, sport, quiz shows.**

Satellite and cable

Funded by L 2 billion worth of subscriptions and advertising sales spread over more than 200 TV channels which, mostly, are broadcast nationally.

Share of total television audience

BBC - 40.2 %

ITV – 32.9 %

Channel 4 – 9.9 %

Cable – 7.4 %

Sky – 5.0 %

Channel 5 – 9.9 %

Much has changed since 1997 with the rise of the **Internet** and, more to the point, the consolidation of **satellite** into 30 per cent of households and the emergence of digital television. It is a matter of government policy that, at some unspecified date, all television will be broadcast digitally but, for now,

the much-hyped digital TV is cause for consumer apathy and confusion. An ITC **viewer** survey in the spring found that 38 per cent of those asked said they were “not at all interested” in going digital at an initial cost of L 200.

More TV equals less audience per channel and has shifted us from the shared cultural experience of old TV and left programme planners scrabbling after what they call Event Television. Event TV used to be the big soaps plus the BBC and ITV main news broadcasts where nearly everybody shared the same viewing experience. But commercial pressures meant a farewell to News at ten in 1999. The best recent examples of Event TV, albeit watered down events, are *the BBC Lottery shows* and Chris Tarrant’s *Who Wants To Be a Millionaire?*

The results are plain. While competition has brought greater choice of channels, nobody claims content has improved. In 1998 the BBC1 audience share dropped below 30 per cent for the first time and ITV failed to hit its targets. A good thing too, given that the average viewer has long been habituated to watching 26 hours a week. There isn’t time in an average life for any more telly and White Dot, the anti-TV lobbyist, has the solution. “Give up TV and you are doubling your free time,” is the advice in White Dot’s book *Get a life*. “It’s a whole extra ten years of your life.” The non-viewing view was echoed by John Ryle in *the Guardian* who wrote: “TV is a drug – anti-social, addictive and bad for you. The TV is already a kind of hypodermic syringe, offering a quick route to the nervous system. But the use of television in the multi-channel future will be more like crack cocaine-fast-acting and low grade. The channel we really need is the Off Channel, the one that shows a blank screen and tells you to get a life.”

Some guilt attaches to TV viewing. A five year study called *TV Living – Television Culture and Everyday Life* said daytime TV was “seen as a kind of moral witness”. TV is also seen as a friend which helps people through illness

and unemployment. The report says older people who, along with children, are the most dedicated viewers are “self conscious” about too much viewing which “stems partly from having grown up in a world where television was part of life”.

The current generation of children finds TV central to life. Consequently homes with children have an average 2.6 TV sets and more than a third have a TV in the bedroom. According to yet more ITC research: 50 per cent of children watch before going to school on weekdays; 75 per cent turn on immediately they get home from school; 40 per cent watch during weekday evenings; and 30 per cent watch during weekend evenings. They read, on average, for 15 minutes a day.

//Media in Britain. – Longman UK Ltd., 1999.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

Финансироваться за счет общественных фондов; независимое телевидение; спутниковое, цифровое телевидение; образовательные программы; акционеры; рекламодатели; служить чьим-либо интересам; многогранность и оригинальность; современная культура; ввести новый телевизионный канал; новшество; основная аудитория; доступ к интернету; наземный; повторные показы телепередач; конкуренция; достигать поставленных целей.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. What kind of corporation is the BBC?
2. How many TV channels are there in Britain?
3. In what ways do they differ from one another?
4. Which varieties of digital television exist in Britain?
5. Why is digital TV becoming more and more popular?
6. How many channels does satellite and cable television comprise?

7. What is the percentage of the audience? What makes such television interesting for its viewers?
8. What kind of television is *event television*?
9. How is the content of TV programmes rated?
10. How great is the influence of television on people in their everyday living?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why.

1. The British Broadcasting Corporation is the British radio and television broadcasting company that is paid for by the state, not by advertisers.
2. BBC runs five channels: BBC₁, BBC₂, ITV, Channel 4 and Channel 5.
3. There are both similarities and differences between the TV channels.
4. Channel 4 is the latest channel in Britain.
5. There are a lot of factors which attract TV viewers to digital television.
6. Digital television broadcasts a very limited number of programmes.
7. Satellite and cable TV is not less popular than digital one.
8. British TV viewers are totally confused about such a great variety of channels to choose from.
9. Event Television represents programmes on nature and environmental problems.
10. The content of TV programmes has considerably improved since Channel 5 was launched in 1997.
11. Television is looked upon as a good source of getting information, education and entertainment.
12. Television is especially beneficial for children.

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student.

UNIT III

MEDIA IN THE USA

The American **media** have suffered the slings and arrows of government censorship and intimidation as well as occasional wrath of the American public. Yet, the story of the media, in both their business and service functions, reveals a profound influence upon the peculiar characteristics of America and its people. Media have operated through most of American history on two distinct levels: locally and nationally. Such a division of labor offered greater not less opportunity for media voices. The media affect or reflect public attitudes about virtually every area of American life: government, society, culture, religion, the economy, literature, science, education. Moreover, the variety of media forms has grown immensely during the course of the twentieth century allowing the public/consumer so many different choices of access to news, entertainment, education, and opinion that it would boggle the minds of earlier generations.

Toward the end of the twentieth century, the phenomenon of “alternative media” has both broadened the public access and diluted the influence of traditional media power brokers such as the broadcast networks, *Time*, *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, *Los Angeles Times*. The public today can communicate through computer electronic mail or on-line bulletin boards, receive direct video broadcasts from satellites, tune in to 1,200 talk media shows with listener/viewer interaction, or produce their own local access television program. Alternative media have become popular in part because established media are blamed for a variety of perceived ills: ideological bias, ethical lapses, sensationalism, superficial news coverage, celebrity status for highly paid media messengers. Recent opinion polls show that the media have fallen below highly unpopular institutions such as the presidency and the Congress in believability and trustworthiness.

Newspapers

When it comes to American newspapers, a lot of people outside the United States think of that slender, serious paper, the *International Herald Tribune*, said to be on the daily reading list of many world leaders. The *Herald Tribune*, however, is not really an American paper. It is published in Paris (and printed simultaneously in Paris, London, Zurich, Hongkong, Singapore, the Hague, Marseille, and Miami) as an international digest of news, most of it taken from its larger parents, *The New York Times* and *the Washington Post*. Many people in America have never heard of it. And few Americans would read it when they can get the real thing, that is, the full-sized daily newspapers.

In 1986, a total of 9,144 (daily, Sunday, weekly, etc.) appeared in 6,516 towns in the United States. Most of the daily newspapers are published rain or shine, on Christmas, Thanksgiving, or the Fourth of July (Independence Day). Including the 85 foreign-language newspapers published in 34 different languages, the daily newspapers in the United States sell over 63 million copies a day. The 762 Sunday papers are usually much larger than the regular **editions**. The record for a Sunday paper is held by the *New York Times*. One **issue** on a Sunday in 1965 contained 946 pages, weighed 36 pounds, and cost 50 cents. Reading the Sunday paper is an American tradition, for some people an alternative to going to church. Getting through all of the sections can take most of the day, leaving just enough time for the leisurely Sunday dinner. The Sunday newspapers have an average circulation of 57 million **copies**.

Most daily newspapers are of the “quality” rather than the “popular” variety. Among the twenty newspapers with the largest circulation only two or three regular ones **feature** crime, sex, and scandal. The paper with the largest circulation, *the Wall Street Journal*, is a very serious newspaper indeed.

It is often said that there is no “national” press in the United States as there is in Great Britain, for instance, where five popular followed by three quality

newspapers dominate the circulation figures are read nationwide. In one sense this is true. Most daily newspapers are distributed locally, or regionally, people buying one of big city newspapers in addition to the smaller local ones. A few of the best known newspapers can be found throughout the country. Yet one wouldn't expect *The Milwaukee Journal* to be read in Boston, or *The Boston Globe* in Houston. There has been one attempt to publish a truly national newspaper, *USA Today*. But it still has only a circulation of 1.2 million and, in its popular form, can only offer news of general interest. This is not enough in a country where state, city and local news and political developments most deeply affect readers and are therefore especially interesting to them.

In another sense, however, there is a national press, one that comes from influence and the sharing of news. Some of the largest newspapers are at the same time news-gathering businesses. They not only print newspapers, they also collect and sell news, news features, and photographs to hundreds of other papers in the U.S. and abroad. Three of the better-known of these are *The New York Times*, *The Washington Post*, and *the Los Angeles Times* news services. Such stories are **copyrighted** and other newspapers must pay for their use. Often newspapers try to avoid paying for this news by using the original newspaper's story and **quoting** the story indirectly (*The Washington Post* reported today that ...). Because so many newspapers print news stories from the major American newspapers and magazines, they have great national and international influence. This influence spreads far beyond their own readers. In a large international survey of newspaper editors, *The New York Times* was ranked by most as "the world's top daily".

Syndicated columnists, journalists whose articles are sold by an agency for simultaneous publication in a number of newspapers, have much the same effect. Serious editorial columnists and news commentators from the major newspapers appear daily in hundreds of smaller papers throughout the nation.

This allows the readers of a small town daily to hear the opinions of the best national and international news analysts. Many newspapers also use syndicated columnists as a way of balancing political opinion. On the so-called op-ed pages (opposite the editorial page) of newspapers, columns from leading liberal and conservative commentators are often printed side by side.

Political and editorial cartoons are also widely **syndicated**. Well-known political cartoonists such as Oliphant or MacNelly are known to most American and many foreign newspaper readers. Comic strips from Jules Feiffer, Garry Trudeau are similarly distributed. Satire and humour columns often have international reputations as well. The humor of Art Buchwald or Erma Bombeck is enjoyed from New Mexico to New Delhi, although the first writer is at home in Washington, D.C., the latter in Arizona.

News Agencies

American newspapers get much of their news from the same sources which serve about half of the people in the world, that is, the two U.S. news agencies AP (Associated Press) and UPI (United Press International). These two international news agencies are the world's largest. Unlike some others – the French news agency AFP or the Russian TASS, for example – neither is owned, controlled, or operated by the government. AP is the oldest agency internationally (founded in 1848) and the largest. It maintains reporters and cameramen at 122 domestic and 65 foreign news bureaus. It has some 10,000 subscribers – newspapers, radio and television stations and other agencies which pay to receive and use AP news and photographs – in 115 countries. UPI is the second largest, with 92 domestic and 81 foreign bureaus in over 90 countries. It is estimated that altogether, around 2 billion people get most of their news directly or indirectly through AP and UPI. It is also said that one reason why there seems to be so much American news internationally is that both agencies have their headquarters in the U.S.

A basic characteristic of the American press is that almost all editors and **journalists** agree that as much as possible news should be very clearly separated from opinion about the news. Following tradition and journalist ethics, young newspaper editors and reporters are taught that opinion and political viewpoints belong on the editorial and opinion pages. They are aware that the selection of what news is to be printed can cause a bias, of course. But an attempt must be made to keep the two separate. Therefore, when a news story appears with a reporter's name, it means that the editors consider it to be a mixture of fact and opinion.

There is also a very good economic reason for this policy of separating news and opinion. It was discovered in the late 19th century that greater numbers of readers trusted, and bought newspapers when the news wasn't slanted in one direction or another. Today, it is often difficult to decide if a paper is Republican or Democrat, liberal or conservative. Most newspapers, for example, are careful to give equal and balanced news coverage to opposing candidates in elections. They might support one candidate or another on their editorial pages, but one year this might be a Republican and the next a Democrat.

AP and UPI owe their international reputation and success to this policy. Only by carefully limiting themselves to the news – who said what and what actually happened how, when and where – are they trusted and consequently widely used. To protect their reputations for objectivity, both AP and UPI have strict rules. These prevent newspapers from changing the original AP and UPI news stories too much and still claiming these agencies as their source. In addition to selling news, AP and UPI make available a dozen or so photographs and political cartoons for any major story each day. These give different views and show anything from praise to ridicule. **Subscribers** are free to choose and print those which suit them best.

Just as there is no government-owned news agency in the U.S, there are no government-owned newspapers. There is no state censorship, nor any law that says, for example, that government records must be kept secret until so many years have passed. The Freedom of Information Act allows anyone, including newspaper reporters, to get information that elsewhere is simply ‘not available’. Courts and judges cannot stop a story or newspaper from being printed, or published. Someone can go to court later, but then, of course, the story has already appeared.

The tradition of “muckraking” – digging out the dirt and exposing it for all to see – is still extremely strong, and investigative reporting is still a large part of a journalist’s work. This is one reason why so many younger Americans are attracted to careers in journalism as a way of effecting change in society. Even small-town newspapers employ reporters who are kept busy searching for examples of political corruption, business malpractice, or industrial pollution. They are assisted by court decisions which make it harder for “public figures” to sue for libel or slander. Almost anyone who is well known is a public figure, whether they be politicians, judges, policemen, sports figures, or TV or movie personalities. Needless to say, some Americans are not happy with this strong tradition of investigative reporting. They say that it has gone too far, that it gives a false impression of the country, that it makes it almost impossible to keep one’s private life private. The press, they say, is not and should not be part of government. The American press responds by quoting their constitutional rights and proudly repeating Thomas Jefferson’s noble words: “Our liberty depends on freedom of the press, and that cannot be limited without being lost.”

//American Life and Institutions, 1997.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

цензура; глубокое возмущение; запугивание; поверхностное освещение новостей; фактически; знаменитость; сети теле(радио)вещания; странички юмора; краткий обзор новостей; 63 миллиона экземпляров газет в день; тираж; оказывать большое воздействие на читателей; отводить важное место чему-либо (в газете); наделены авторским правом; сатира и юмор; фоторепортер; источник информации; подписчики; предубеждение, пристрастие; журналистская этика; от похвалы до насмешки; расследование и разоблачение темных политических и административных махинаций; подать в суд на кого-либо за клевету.

II. *Read through the text and answer these questions.*

1. What do the American media reflect and how do they operate?
2. How different are the modern media from the traditional forms?
3. What associations arise in regard to American newspapers?
4. What predetermines the choice of a newspaper?
5. What are the most popular daily and weekly newspapers in the U.S.?
6. What kind of press is alternative press?
7. What arouses criticism in American traditional media which gives rise to the advent of 'alternative' media?
8. Which American newspaper has the largest circulation?
9. What is meant by «some of the largest newspapers are at the same time news-gathering businesses»?
10. What is widely syndicated in American newspapers?
11. What are the major sources of information for American newspapers?
12. What is the basic characteristic of the American press?
13. What policy do AP and UPI owe their international reputation and success to?
14. Why is the career of a journalist so popular in America?

15. Interpret Thomas Jefferson's words: "Our liberty depends on freedom of the press, and that cannot be limited without being lost."

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why.

1. The media reflect public attitudes about virtually every area of American life. However, the variety of media forms has remained the same as in the twentieth century allowing the general public's access to news, entertainment, education, and opinion.
2. Alternative media have become popular because traditional forms of media are of low quality.
3. *The New York Times* and *the Washington Post* are the international digests of news, most of it taken from the serious paper, the *International Herald Tribune*, which is said to be on the daily reading list of many American readers.
4. Reading the Sunday paper is an American tradition. Getting through all of the sections doesn't take much of the time, leaving plenty of time for the leisurely Sunday dinner.
5. The paper with the largest circulation in America is the *International Herald Tribune*.
6. There is no "national" press in the United States.
7. Syndicated columnists is a good way of /for the readers of a small town/ hearing the opinions of the best national and international news analysts.
8. Political and editorial cartoons are not so widely syndicated.
9. American newspapers get much of their news from the two world's U.S. news agencies - AP (Associated Press) and UPI (United Press

International). Both are owned, controlled, and operated by the government.

10. A basic characteristic of the American press is that almost all editors and journalists agree that as much as possible news should be very clearly separated from opinion about the news.
11. AP and UPI owe their international reputation and success to the policy of giving different views and show anything from praise to ridicule. All American newspapers are government-owned.
12. The tradition of “muckraking” is still extremely strong, and investigative reporting is still a large part of a journalist’s work. Most Americans are happy with the strong tradition of investigative reporting as it gives a truthful impression of the country, it makes the private life of celebrities public property and makes the profession of a journalist very popular.
13. According to George Washington’s noble words, the American liberty “depends on freedom of the press, and that cannot be limited without being lost.”

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student.

Radio and Television

The problem of describing American radio and television is simply this: there’s so much of it, so many different types, and so much variety. In 1985, there were over 9,000 individual radio stations operating in the United States. Of this number, over 1,000 were non-commercial, that is no advertising or commercials of any type are permitted. These public and educational radio stations are owned and operated primarily by colleges and universities, by local schools and boards of education, and by various religious groups.

At the same time, there were close to 1,200 individual non-commercial, not just transmitters that pass on programs. Of these TV stations, just under 300 were non-commercial, that is non-profit and educational in nature and allowing no commercials and advertising. Like the non-commercial radio stations, the non-commercial TV stations are supported by individual donations, grants from foundations and private organizations, and funds from city, state, and federal sources. In short, if someone wanted to describe what can be heard and seen on American radio and television, he or she would have to listen or to watch close to 10,000 individual stations. No one station is exactly the same as another.

All radio and television stations in the United States, public or private, educational or commercial, large and small, must be licensed to broadcast by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), an independent federal agency. Each license is given for a few years only. If stations do not conform to FCC regulations, their licenses can be taken away.

Although the FCC regulates radio and television transmissions, it has no control over reception. As a result, there are no fees, charges, taxes or licenses in the United States for owning radio and television receivers or for receiving anything that is broadcast through the air. This also means that, for example, anyone who wishes to build his or her own satellite receiving antenna – may simply do so. No permission is needed and no fees are paid.

Laws prohibit any state or the federal government from owning or operating radio and television stations (stations such as *Voice of America* may only broadcast overseas). There is also no government censorship or “reviewing” of programs and content. There are no governmental boards or appointed groups which control any radio or television broadcasting. Rather, the FCC ensures that no monopolies exist and that each area has a variety of types of programming and stations. It also regulates media ownership: no newspaper, for example, may also own a radio or TV station in its own area,

nor may a radio station also have a television station in the same area. No single company or group may own more than a total of 12 stations nationwide. These and other FCC policies work to prevent any single group from having too much influence in any area and to guarantee a wide range of choices in each.

Another FCC regulation, the so-called *Fairness Doctrine*, requires stations to give equal time to opposing views at no charge. Likewise, all commercial stations are required to devote a certain percentage of their broadcasting time to “public service” announcements and advertising. These range from advertisements for Red Cross blood drives and for dental care to programs on Alcoholics Anonymous and car safety. This broadcasting time given to public service messages is free of charge.

With this “something-for-everyone” policy, even communities with only 10,000 or so people often have two local radio stations. They may broadcast local stories and farming reports, weather and road conditions in the area, city council meetings, church activities, sports events and other things of interest to the community. They also carry national and international news taken from the larger stations or networks and emphasize whatever might be the “big story” in the small town.

The big cities, by contrast, are served by a large number of local radio stations, often by more than 25. People who live in cities such as New York, Chicago, or Los Angeles, for instance, have a choice of up to 100 AM and FM stations and many different “formats”.

There is also a great variety among television stations, although there are fewer overall. Smaller cities and areas have one or two local stations, and the larger cities ten or more. In Los Angeles, for example, there are 18 different local television stations. Ninety percent of all American homes can receive at least six different stations, and more than 50 per cent can get 10 or more without cable, without paying a fee, or any charges of any type.

Formats

Most commercial radio stations follow a distinctive format, that is, a type of programming that appeals to a certain listening audience. Some of the most common radio formats are given below with the approximate number of stations in the U.S. for each type (some stations have more than one format). To change from one format to another, stations need permission from the FCC.

Format	Number of stations
Middle-of-the-road/contemporary music	about 3,000
Country-and-Western	about 2,500
Top-40 hits	about 1,200
Progressive, hard rock	about 680
Light instrumental music	about 600
Golden oldies, hits from the past	about 320
Classical music	about 300
Rhythm&blues, soul music	about 280
Jazz	about 250
Religious music	about 900
Talk, interviews, discussions, phone-in, etc.	about 400
All news	about 300
Agricultural and farm news	about 200
Big Band, Swing	about 130

In Louisville, Kentucky, for example, there are 16 local radio stations and seven local television stations for a population of about 300,000 people. Three of the TV stations are affiliated with one each of the three major commercial networks, ABC (American Broadcasting Company), CBS (Columbia

Broadcasting System), and NBC (National Broadcasting Company). These networks are not television stations or channels or programs: they are not licensed to broadcast. Rather, they sell programs and news to individual television stations which choose those they want to broadcast. These affiliated stations, of course, also create some of their own programming, produce their own state and local news programs, purchase films from other sources, and so on. Two of the TV stations in Louisville are “independents”. As their name suggests, these are commercial stations which take their programs from a wide variety of sources, but also produce their own programs. The other two local stations are educational. They stress cultural programs and features, including local, state, and national as well as international news and current affairs. There are also two cable systems serving the city.

Allowing just about everyone “a piece of the air” has resulted in a tremendous variety. It has meant, for example, hundreds of foreign language radio stations including those broadcasting in Chinese, French, Japanese, Polish, and Portuguese. About 160 radio stations broadcast only in Spanish. About half a dozen or so radio stations are owned by American Indian tribes and groups. There are some 400 radio stations operated by university students. Many of these stations are members of a nationwide university broadcasting network which enables them to share news and views.

The National Public Radio network (NPR) is an association of public radio stations, that is, of non-commercial and educational broadcasters. NPR is known for its quality news and discussion programs. Another public radio network, American Public Radio (APR), created the *Prairie Home Companion*. This commentary and entertainment program quickly became a national cult program, and a book growing out of this series, *Lake Wobegone Days*, was an enormous best seller in 1985.

The largest television network is not CBS, NBS, or ABC. Nor is it one of the cable networks such as CNN (Cable News Network), which carries only news and news stories, ESPN, the all-sports cable network, or even MTV, which is famous for its music videos. Rather, it is PBS (Public Broadcasting Service) with its over 280 nonprofit, non commercial stations sharing programs. The growth of public television in the past two decades has been dramatic. This is especially noteworthy when one considers that these stations must often survive on very limited budgets, on viewers' donations, and on private foundations. Their level of quality, whether in national or international news, entertainment, or education, is excellent. Children and parents in many parts of the world are familiar with Sesame Street, a series that was a breakthrough in children's programming. The Muppet Show, or Reading Rainbow.

The majority of commercial television stations receive most of their programming, roughly 70 per cent, from the three commercial networks. The networks with their financial and professional resources have several advantages. They are able to purchase the distribution rights, for example, to the most recent films and series. They can attract the best artists and performers. Above all, they are able to maintain large news-gathering organizations throughout the nation and throughout the world. They also have a considerable income from selling news and video material to other international television systems.

All of the networks have nationwide news programs which also stress feature stories in the mornings, throughout the week. 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 most durable TV show is NBC's *Meet the Press* which has been aired weekly since 1948. This show, in which important political figures or leaders are interviewed by journalists, now has imitators in virtually every other country.

Local television stations also have their own news teams, reporters and film crews. Usually, local television stations will offer between half an hour to two hours of local, city, and state news, weather and business information in addition to the national network news programs. The local stations are also in competition with one another for getting the most recent news. If their programs are watched by many people, they are more likely to attract more money from advertisers.

Most of the commercial series and programs which have been successful in the United States have also been successful internationally. They have been regularly purchased and shown even in nations that only have government-financed or controlled television systems. No commercial network in the U.S. thinks that *Dallas*, for example, is fine drama. But they've watched foreign television companies such as the BBC and ITV fight over the broadcast rights, and others hurry to make their own imitations. They conclude, therefore, that such popular entertainment series are in fact popular.

There is less concern today than there was once about how much influence advertisers might have on television programming. The U.S. liquor industry did not stop the commercial stations from voluntarily banning all liquor advertising and commercials from TV in the early 1950s. And the strong tobacco lobby could not stop cigarette ads being banned either. All three commercial networks gave extensive, and strongly critical coverage to the war in Vietnam. The Three Mile Island nuclear accident was widely reported in depth, as were and are airplane crashes or industrial pollution stories. The commercial networks have discovered what the newspapers did earlier: good critical investigative reporting on important issues will attract viewers. If one advertiser is offended, another will not be.

Commercials take up about ten minutes of every 60 minutes during "prime-time" viewing. This is the period in the early evening when most

viewers are watching television. Commercials range from those that are witty, well-made, and clever to those that are dull, boring, and dumb. Advertisers have learnt that unless their commercials are at least amusing, viewers will either switch to another channel or use commercial “breaks” to get up and do something else.

With the rising popularity of public television and commercial-free cable TV, viewers can, if they wish, turn to stations that do not have commercials. Experience in those countries which lead in the amount of television programs available – Canada, the United States, and Japan, in that order – seems to indicate that even with other choices available, commercially produced programs are still popular with many people. Here it is interesting to note that Britain’s commercial ITV channel now attracts more viewers than does the BBC. Many Americans, who pay no fee for either commercial or public TV, simply accept commercials as the price they have to pay if they choose to watch certain programs.

There is no nationwide system or policy on cable television. Local communities are free to decide whether or not they will have cable television. There are many different types of schemes, systems, and programs. Some offer top-rate recent movies on a pay-as-you-watch system, some offer opera and symphonic music. All are willing to provide “public access” channels where individuals and groups of citizens produce their own programming. It does not appear, however, that the hopes once voiced for cable television will be realized. Cable firms must be able to offer something special to get many people to pay for what they can normally see free of charge through regular public and commercial stations. It will also be difficult to get people receiving satellite programs with the help of dish antennas to pay for all the programs they simply grab out of the air.

A few remarks on how much television that “typical American” watches should be added. Obviously, there is a lot to watch and a great variety of it. Live sports events are televised at full length and attract a lot of viewers. Recent full-length movies are popular and there is always at least one station that has the “Late Late Movies”, often old Westerns or Japanese horror films that start after midnight and go on until 3 or 4 a.m. And quite a few viewers in the United States and elsewhere enjoy the many television series and made-for-television specials which seemingly never end. Statistics show that the number of hours spent watching television are highest for women over 55 years of age, and lowest for young men between 18 and 24 years.

The popular press is often not very careful when reporting statistics of television-viewing times. The U.S. statistics published each year tell how long a television set in a typical American household is, on the average, turned on each day (and night), not how long an American is actually watching television. Such differences are important. The household might include parents who watch the local and national news programs each evening. The older children might watch a program, say *the Bill Cosby Show*, the most popular show in 1986. The teenager might then switch to the cable MTV, the famous channel featuring rock and modern music videos. What is counted, then, is the total time the TV set is turned on (now just over 6 hours a day). In fact, the number of hours of television the so-called average American watches has been stable for the past three years at around 4.5 hours a week. Furthermore, a *Gallup poll* found that while 46 percent of Americans chose television as “their favorite way of spending an evening” in 1974, only 33 percent did in 1986.

Television sets in America are turned on in much the same way and for the same reasons that radios are, as background music and noise. Life does not stop in either case. Many morning and daytime programs are only viewed intermittently, while other things are going on and demand one’s attention. The

television set is only watched, in other words, when something interesting is heard. If our typical American were actually “glued to the tube” an average of six or seven hours a day, seven days of the week, very few would be going to school, earning university degrees, raising families, working, running businesses, or even getting much sleep. And few would have time to read all those newspapers, magazines, and books.

//American Life and Institutions, 1997.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

Широкое разнообразие программ; денежные пожертвования; лицензия; содержание передач; предписание; объявления и реклама; рекламные объявления; тип программы; современная музыка; песни прошлых лет; текущие события; сенсационный материал (по радио или телевидению); переключить на другой канал; пользоваться популярностью у кого-либо; коммерческая радио или телепередача (оплачиваемая рекламодателем); телезрители; статистика показывает, что ...; в среднем; спутниковые программы; передачи в прямом эфире; музыкальный фон; перемежающийся с чем-то другим.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. How is the variety of American radio and television reflected?
2. How are the non-commercial radio and TV stations funded?
3. What kind of agency is the FCC?
4. What are its functions?
5. What does the *Fairness Doctrine* require?
6. What do local radio stations broadcast?
7. What about the local TV stations?

8. What is a format?
9. What are the most popular types of programming that appeal to the listening audience?
10. What languages do radio stations broadcast in?
11. What do NPR and APR stand for?
12. Which television network is the largest in America?
13. What are the others?
14. What are the most popular news series and types of programmes?
15. Are commercials and adverts popular with American TV viewers?
16. How much time does a typical American spend on watching TV?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why. Discuss your ideas with another student.

1. There is no difference between commercial and non-commercial radio stations.
2. Each TV and radio station in the United States is licensed to broadcast by the FCC and the license is given for only a year.
3. The regulations for owning radio and television receivers are very strict: the permission from the FCC and fees are needed.
4. “Something-for-everyone” policy presupposes complete freedom for radio and television stations.
5. Most commercial radio stations must follow a special format which the FCC imposes on them.
6. ABC, CBS NBC are public networks, licensed to broadcast.
7. The NPR and APR are commercial networks known for their quality news and discussion programs.
8. PBS is the largest television network.

9. Local television stations are quite popular.
 10. Advertisers have a lot of influence on television programming.
 11. Americans have to pay a fee for public television.
 12. According to the U.S. statistics of television viewing times, Americans spend very little time on watching TV.
- Discuss your ideas with another student.

UNIT IV

LAW AND THE MEDIA

Law and the media in Britain

The media operates under many legal restraints. Broadcasters are governed by several statutory controls specific to them and operated via the Broadcasting Standards Council, the BBC Charter, the ITC and the Radio Authority. Although newspapers and magazines are not so tightly regulated as TV and radio, all forms of media must prepare material within five legally defined boundaries. These are:

DEFAMATION

OBSCENE PUBLICATION

INCITEMENT TO RACIAL HATRED

BLASPHEMY

SEDITION

DEFAMATION is the aspect of law which most affects journalists and it covers a multitude of sins. A statement is defamatory if it damages reputation by exposing a person to hatred, contempt, shame or ridicule or makes a person likely to be avoided or shunned. It is defamatory to attack a person's honour, to injure them (or a company) in following their trade. It is also defamatory to

wrongly accuse somebody of criminal activity, dishonesty, cruelty, hypocrisy, incompetence, inefficiency or stupidity.

There are two sorts of defamation: slander is non-published and libel is published. There are five defenses to accusations of defamatory libel:

Justification/truth

Fair comment

Privilege

“Innocent” defamation

Apology

Justification: truth is the first defense against a libel action. It is for the journalist to prove that what has been published or broadcast is true, rather than for a plaintiff to disprove it. Therefore, keep notes and background material for at least three years, after which libel claims are barred by statute through lapse of time.

Fair comment: this is a journalist’s genuinely held opinion and one which is held without malice and in good faith on a matter of interest. Malice means dishonest or improper motives as well as personal spite.

Privilege: defamation laws are, under certain circumstances, suspended. These are reports of public judicial proceedings; statements made in Parliament; and public meetings. To avoid libel, a court would need to be convinced that a report of a privileged event was fair accurate and contemporaneous.

“Innocent” defamation: the mere absence of an intention to defame is not defense enough against a charge of libel. However the 1952 Defamation Act allows journalists the defense of saying they did not know the circumstances which make a statement libellous. An offer of a correction and apology is a key to this defence.

Apology: this admits a libel without malice or gross negligence and offers recompense via published apology and sometimes a payment. It originates from the mid-19th century, and is a dangerous defence which must be met to the letter if a court is not to move immediately to its own assessment of damages.

OBSCENE PUBLICATION legislation makes it illegal to publish material which will tend to deprave and corrupt persons who are likely to read, see or hear it. The 1950 Obscene Publications Act allows expert evidence to be given using artistic, literary, scientific or other merits as a defence.

INCITEMENT TO RACIAL HATRED legislation is framed in the 1986 Public Order Act forbids publication of material likely to incite hatred against any racial group.

BLASPHEMY – aka blasphemous libel – only applies where a piece of work is “so scurrilous and offensive as to pass the limit of decent controversy and to outrage Christian feeling”. Under this law, only Christians can be outraged.

SEDITION is a little used catch-all to ban publication of material which either incites contempt or hatred for Parliament or the Monarch, or promotes reforms by violent or otherwise unconstitutional means.

//Media in Britain. – Longman UK Ltd., 1999.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

Жесткий контроль; радио(теле)вещание, трансляция; диффамация; клевета в устной форме; клевета в печати; богохульство; антиправительственная агитация; разжигание расовой ненависти; непристойная (неприличная) публикация; незаконно обвинить кого-либо в преступной деятельности, жестокости, лицемерии; журналистская неприкосновенность; по истечении времени; своевременный; злоба; ненависть; порочить чье-либо имя; обвинение в клевете; оценка

компенсации за убытки; развращать; также известен, как; запретить публикацию материала.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. What are the controlling bodies that govern and monitor the media in Britain?
2. What are the five legally defined boundaries within which the media must prepare their materials?
3. Which statement is regarded as a defamatory one?
4. What are the kinds of defamation? What is the major difference between them?
5. How can defamatory libel be defended?
6. What is the first defense against a libel action?
7. What are the other four types of defense?
8. What does the 1950 Obscene Publications Act say?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false. If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why.

1. The media in Britain operates under no legal restraints.
2. Broadcasters are governed by several statutory controls specific to them and operated via the Broadcasting Standards Council and the BBC Charter.
3. Newspapers and magazines are as tightly regulated as TV and radio.
4. All forms of media must prepare material within three legally defined boundaries.
5. Defamation is the damage of someone's reputation by saying something bad and untrue about them.
6. There are two sorts of defamation: libel is non-published and slander is published.

7. There are four defenses to accusations of defamatory libel: justification, apology, privilege and “innocent” defamation.
8. Justification is the first defense against a libel action. It is for the plaintiff to prove that what has been published or broadcast is true, rather than for a journalist to disprove it.
9. Fair comment: this is a journalist’s genuinely held opinion and one which is held without malice and in good faith on a matter of interest.
10. Defamation laws are, under certain circumstances, suspended. These are reports of public judicial proceedings; statements made in Parliament; and public meetings. To avoid libel, a court would need to be convinced that a report of a privileged event was fair accurate and contemporaneous. This is an instance of the “innocent” defamation.
11. The 1952 Defamation Act allows journalists the defense of saying they did not know the circumstances which make a statement libellous.
12. Apology: this admits a libel without malice or gross negligence and offers recompense via published apology and sometimes a payment.
13. Obscene publication legislation makes it illegal to publish material which will tend to deprave and corrupt persons who are likely to read, see or hear it. The 1959 Obscene Publications Act allows expert evidence to be given using artistic, literary, scientific or other merits as a defence.
14. Incitement to racial hatred legislation is framed in the 1986 Public Order Act which forbids publication of material likely to incite hatred against any racial group.
15. Blasphemy only applies where a piece of work criticizes someone unfairly or untruthfully in a way that may damage his/her reputation and outrage their Christian feeling.

16. Sedition bans publication of material which either incites racial hatred or promotes ignorance of constitutional means of administering justice.

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student.

Freedom of the Press in the U.S.

The First Amendment of the US Constitution guarantees freedom of the press, among other protected personal freedoms. A free press naturally tends to be critical of government due to close scrutiny of its operations and personnel.

The first test of freedom of the press was the Sedition Act of 1798, passed by a Federalist-dominated Congress in an attempt to muzzle Democratic-Republican criticism. Although unconstitutional on its face, eight editors were convicted under the Sedition Act before it lapsed in 1801. It was a dangerous moment in U.S. history; the Constitution had effectively failed. Soon the shoe was on the other political foot when Harry Crosswell, pro-federalist editor of the weekly paper *The Wasp*, was indicted in 1804 by New York State for seditious libel. Crosswell had copied another paper's charge that President Thomas Jefferson had bribed an editor to slander ex-President George Washington. Federalist Party chief Alexander Hamilton defended Crosswell with the same argument used by Andrew Hamilton to defend Zenger – that the truth can be published with impunity. Hamilton lost the case, but New York's legislature passed a law in 1805 providing that truth was a defense in a libel case. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled in 1812 that the English common law of seditious libel was not applicable in the United States.

Even more dangerous to the press's constitutional protection was the Sedition Act (1918), which prohibited publication of disloyal language about the federal government, the Constitution, the military, or the flag. The Post Office and a Censorship Board were given broad powers of search and seizure of the mails to enforce the act. Socialist leader Eugene V. Debs was convicted

under the Sedition Act and imprisoned. He challenged the constitutionality of the Espionage and Sedition Acts, both of which were upheld by the Supreme Court.

The federal courts have been called upon to interpret the First Amendment more in the twentieth century than previously. The Supreme Court extended First Amendment protection for the press by overturning a state law in *Near v. Minnesota* (1931). The American Newspaper Publishers Association challenged the constitutionality of a Minnesota law prohibiting scandalous or malicious publications. The Supreme Court threw out the Minnesota law by applying the First Amendment through the Fourteenth Amendment's due process clause. The Court did not, however, rule out all cases of prior restraint. At the behest of Governor Huey Long, the Louisiana legislature passed a 1934 law to tax the advertising revenue of larger newspapers that opposed the governor. In 1936, the Supreme Court found the tax to be punitive in nature and thus unconstitutional (*Grosjean v. American Press Company*). In *Bridges v. California* (1941), the Supreme Court used the First Amendment to strike down contempt charges against *the Los Angeles Times* for printing a labor leader's threatening telegram and editorials that were critical of a judge.

The classic case of prior restraint was *New York Times v. United States* (1971), involving the publication of the so-called Pentagon Papers. After the Times published the first of the series of summaries detailing the origins of the Vietnam War, the Justice Department under President Richard Nixon asked for a restraining order to stop further publication. The government's case was based on the argument that because the papers were top secret, their publication endangered national security. The Supreme Court ruled that the papers were historical, did not threaten national security, and could be published. The Court warned the Government not to apply prior restraint unless there was an overwhelming basis to support it.

Government attempts to keep former intelligence agents from publishing secrets they once promised to keep – from “telling it all”, as the newspapers say – have been notoriously unsuccessful. One of the best known recent examples was when The New York Times and The Washington Post published the so-called “Pentagon Papers”. These were secret documents concerning U.S. military policy during the war in Vietnam. The newspapers won the Supreme Court case that followed. The Court wrote (1971): “The government’s power to censor the press was abolished so that the press would remain forever free to censure the government”.

The Supreme Court has also been engaged in the debate about obscenity laws. In 1943, *Esquire* was denied its second class postage rate because it did not contribute to the public welfare. The Supreme Court found that mere opinion of Post Office officials was an insufficient basis for punitive treatment and ruled in favor of *Esquire*. In *Roth v. United States* (1957), the Supreme Court established the obscenity standard, ruling that publications could be censored if they appealed solely to “prurient interests”. The Court refined its position in *Miller v. California* (1973) by suggesting that local community standards could be the basis for defining **obscenity**. The decision meant that different standards might apply in different communities.

The concern about government secrets and the collection of information about individuals in government files led to the passage of the Freedom of Information Act (1966). It allowed individual citizens to have access to government files containing information about them, but matters of national security would still be protected by the law. The act also allowed media access to government documents, which could be copied or **cited** in news stories.

//D.W. Hollis. The ABC-CLIO Companion to The Media in America. The ABC-CLIO, Inc., 1995.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

I. Find the English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

передовая статья; обвинения в чей-либо адрес; проиграть дело в суде; вносить вклад в процветание общества; поправка к конституции; тщательное расследование действий правительства; гарантировать свободу печати; утвердить законопроект; редактор газеты; обвиняться в клевете на правительство; давать взятки должностным лицам; безнаказанность; иметь доступ к правительственным документам; ставить под удар государственную безопасность; принимать судебное решение в чью-либо пользу; особо секретные материалы.

II. Read through the text and answer these questions.

1. What is the concept of free press in America?
2. What instances of the press and its testing were the most relevant ones in the 18th and 19th centuries?
3. What laws were passed in the 20th century to prohibit scandalous and malicious publications?
4. What was the outcome of *the New York Times v United States* case?
5. What do we come to know about obscenity laws?
6. What are the provisions of the Freedom of Information Act (1966)?

III. Read the statements below and say whether they are true or false.

If you think a statement is false, be prepared to say why. Discuss your ideas with another student.

1. A free press tends to ignore the Government.

2. The first test of freedom of the press dates back to the Sedition Act 1798, under which ex-President George Washington was convicted for bribery.
3. The Sedition Act (1918) prohibited publication of slander against the government and the Constitution of the U.S.
4. In the 20th century the federal courts were never called upon to interpret the First Amendment.
5. The classic example of prior restraint was *New York Times v. United States* (1971), involving the publication of the so-called Pentagon Papers. The Justice Department under President Richard Nixon asked for a restraining order to stop further publication and the government won the case.
6. The obscenity laws are far from being straightforward.
7. The Freedom of Information Act (1966) allowed individual citizens to have access to government files containing information about matters of national security. The act also allowed media access to government documents to be published and broadcast in any sort of press.

IV. Discuss your ideas with another student.

UNIT V

YOU ARE THE JUSTICE!

The Case of the Scandal Sheet

Conference Notes of Justices

October 10, 3:00 P.M.

PRESENT: James Cooper, Presiding Justice

Deborah Tracy, Justice

Kenneth Martin, Justice

Maria Alton, Stenographic Reporter

COOPER: Well, the first case on our calendar today is a tough one. It involves Arthur Corliss, the editor of a weekly scandal sheet. You have probably seen it at the checkout counter of the supermarket.

MARTIN: Oh, yes. That's the *Eagle Gazette*. It finds fault with everything and everybody. You used the right words when you called it a scandal sheet.

TRACY: Everyone calls it that. Corliss doesn't seem to care whom he insults. I must admit though he sometimes sheds light on some local condition that needs to be fixed – like graft.

C: The case has been well covered by other newspapers and radio and television. So I'll summarize the facts of the trial. Corliss is editor and publisher of the weekly *Eagle Gazette*. Every week he runs a front-page editorial. It attacks the mayor, other city officials, other newspapers, and foreigners. It's very sensational stuff.

T: So all of the people he has been attacking got together and managed to get a law passed. This new law says that if you run a newspaper and publish anything scandalous or defamatory, you can be charged with being a public nuisance. Anyone who wants to can ask the court to stop the publisher from any further publishing of that kind.

M: Right. So just as soon as that law was passed, a group of people Corliss had been attacking in his editorials took action. They claimed that Corliss had made attacks on public officials and on large numbers of honest, law-abiding people who happened to be foreigners. Therefore, under this new law, he could be **enjoined**, or stopped, from any more attacks.

T: And Corliss hit right back. He filed suit against the lawmakers. He claimed that even if they were right and he was wrong, the law they had passed was unconstitutional. It was unlawful to stop him. But the Superior

Court didn't agree. It ordered him and his employees to stop publishing scandalous material or go to jail. Since he didn't like the idea of jail, Corliss stopped. However, he has now appealed to this court. He is asking us to reverse the lower court's ruling.

M: What we have here is the government's stopping someone from doing something in the future. This has been called "prior restraint". It seems the new law doesn't stop Corliss from publishing everything – just the things the public officials don't like. In other words, they are saying, "If you see us making stupid mistakes – or taking graft – or making deals that go against the public interest, don't mention it in your newspaper or you'll go to jail."

T: Unless what you print is true and you can prove it.

C: That's the troublesome part. You can't always prove it. To get proof, you'd probably need investigators, witnesses, documents. And most people and even newspapers aren't able to gather proof. They don't have the time or the money. So if you have some important information that you can't prove at once, how do you get it to the public? That is, if you let this new law stand.

T: Well, if you don't let the new law stand, a lot of people could have their reputations ruined by papers like *the Eagle Gazette*.

C: I haven't heard anyone mention freedom of the press as guaranteed by our First Amendment to the Constitution.

M: Well, all three of us understand that the First Amendment prohibits censorship. Not 100%, of course. You can't yell "Fire" in a crowded theatre.

T: Remember what happened when old King George the Third tried to censor criticism of the officers and agents he had sent to this country?

M: Sure. We rebelled. Otherwise we would probably still be an English colony.

C: This is very complicated. We may be talking about someone who claims a constitutional right to print scandal even though it is untrue. Are we going to say we cannot stop that sort of thing? If not, how can innocent victims be protected?

T: I don't think you can stop it before it is published. Not if the story is untrue, the victim can file a whopping big libel suit against the publisher after the story appears in print. We've seen that happen in the past.

M: You're right – we have. So what we have to do is balance one right against another. Do we say it's okay to publish a story about possible wrongdoing even if that story is untrue? Or do we say it is not okay to publish a story about possible wrongdoing just in case somebody might be hurt by it?

C: I think you've stated the problem quite well, Ken. Want to draft the first opinion?

M: Sure, why not?

C: Okay, everyone. Time to **adjourn**? Ordered adjourned.

Justice's "Think Sheet"

WHAT ARE THE FACTS? Refer back to the conference notes if necessary.

1. What is the difference between the kind of newspaper we read at home every day and a "scandal sheet" type of newspaper?

2. Name some "scandal sheets" that publish absurd stories.

3. Why did people call Mr. Corliss' *Eagle Gazette* a scandal sheet?

4. If someone writes a lot of lies about a person, and people who read them believe those lies, what are some of the ways in which the person lied about can be hurt or injured?

5. Does freedom of the press, which is guaranteed by the Constitution, mean that any publisher or broadcaster or individual can say anything he or she wishes about another person? What are the arguments for and against?

6. If a person is libeled in print or slandered verbally, can he or she sue the individual who has libeled or slandered them? What would the damaged person have to prove to win the suit?

7. Suppose you have been informed that a person is going to defame you by publishing lies about you. Can you get an order of court stopping him or her from publishing before the lies are published? Give reasons for your answer.

8. We have had laws in the past saying it was illegal to print or broadcast bad things about public officials. This is called “prior restraint”. Should we have such laws now?

9. Why can't someone yell “Fire!” in a crowded theatre?

IN THE APPELLATE COURT OF THE STATE, DISTRICT TWO,
DIVISION ONE

THE PEOPLE OF THE STATE

Plaintiff and

Respondent

Vs

No. 94-008

ARTHUR CORLISS

Argued: January 10

Defendant and

Decided: January 21

Appellant

OPINION AND ORDER OF THE COURT

Appeal from a judgement of the Superior Court of the State,
in and for the County of Harris, Dept. 1,
Judge Albert Hodge.

MARTIN, J.:

Arthur Corliss is owner and editor of a widely-circulated publication called the Eagle Gazette. He publishes his newspaper once a week. For the past half year Corliss has been on a campaign against what he calls graft and corruption in the city's local government. He has printed names of officials, such as the mayor, chief of police, city attorney, and members of the town council, among others. He appears to have information showing that some of these people took pleasure trips on what they pretended was official business. And he has claimed – with some merit – that the chief of police owns an interest in the garage where police vehicles are serviced, repaired, and parked or stored.

It is also clear that some of the officials he accuses or condemns are entirely blameless. To curb Mr. Corliss' activities, the city passed a law that publishing anything scandalous or libelous is a public nuisance, and the people affected by the published story can get a court order to have such stories and articles stopped.

When that law passed, a group of people Corliss had been attacking in his editorials took immediate action. They demanded that Corliss be enjoined from any more attacks on public officials and on honest, law-abiding people who happened to come from another country.

Corliss then filed suit against the lawmakers, saying the law they had passed was unconstitutional. He lost his case. The Superior Court ordered him to stop publishing scandalous stories and articles or go to jail.

DISCUSSION

Mr. Corliss has brought his case before this appeal court. He says the city is trying to stop something he might want to say in the future. This, he says, **is/is not** prior restraint. This is/is not in conflict with the Constitution's First Amendment which guarantees the right of free speech.

It is/is not important that people be protected from careless or malicious lies told about them. It is/is not even more important that the media (newspapers, broadcasters, magazines) tell what they know about the misdeeds of public officials or other people of power.

This court feels that people should/should not be allowed to publish scandalous or libelous material. But if they do so, the person affected by it should/should not have the right to sue for damages.

Therefore we **approve/reverse** the judgement to Mr. Corliss.

So ordered.

COOPER, C.J.

TRACY, J.

MARTIN, J.

//M. Lipman, J.D. You Are the Justice! – Academy Therapy Publications, Inc., 1981.

GLOSSARY

ADJOURN: to bring (a meeting, trial, etc.) to a stop, esp. for a short period or until a slightly later time.

ADVERTISEMENT: something used for advertising things, such as a notice in a newspaper, or a short film shown on television. /also **ad, advert**/.

ANIMATED CARTOON: a cinema film made by photographing a set of drawings.

ARTICLE: a separate piece of writing on a particular subject in a newspaper, magazine, etc., that is not fiction.

BROADCAST: to send out radio or television programmes.

BROADSHEET: a newspaper printed on a large sheet of paper.

CABLE TELEVISION: a system of broadcasting television by cable, usu. paid for by the user, and giving the user a choice of more channels to watch than the usual channels which every television receives. It is also used in areas where the television picture would otherwise not be very good. In the U.S. different cable television companies operate in different areas, sometimes offering a large number of different channels for a monthly charge.

CAPTION: words printed above or below a picture, newspaper article, etc., to say what it is about or give further information.

CARTOON: a humorous drawing, often dealing in a clever and amusing way with something of interest in the news, usu. with a caption.

CENSOR: to remove something that one finds objectionable.

CHANNEL: (the shows broadcast on) a particular television station.

CIRCULATION: the average number of copies of a newspaper, magazine, etc., that are regularly sold.

CITE: to mention, esp. as an example in a statement, argument, etc.

CLASSIFIED AD: a small advertisement placed in a newspaper by a person wishing to sell or buy something, offer or get employment. /also **classified, small ad/**

COLUMN: an article by a particular writer on a particular subject, that regularly appears in a newspaper or magazine.

COMIC STRIP /also strip cartoon: a set of drawings telling a short story, often with words showing the speech of the characters in the pictures.

COPY: a single example of a newspaper.

COPYRIGHT: the right in law to be the only producer or seller of a book, play, film for a fixed period of time.

DEFAMATORY: a statement about a person's reputation that is untrue (can be written or verbal).

DESIGN: by ~: as a result of purposeful planning; intentionally.

DRAFT: the first rough and incomplete form of something written, drawn, or planned.

EDIT: to prepare for printing, broadcasting, etc. by deciding what shall be included or left out.

EDITOR: a person who is in charge of a newspaper or magazine, and responsible for its organization and opinions.

EDITION: (any one of) a number of copies of a book, newspaper, magazine, etc., that are produced and printed at one time.

EDITORIAL: a statement of opinion in a newspaper, usually written by the editor or publisher.

ENJOIN: literally means "to stop". In law, the courts may enjoin an act of someone – for example, building a house that cuts off another's view. A court may also enjoin someone to do an act, such as pay child support.

FEATURE: a special long article in a newspaper or magazine.

FICTION: stories or novels about imaginary people and events, as compared to other sorts of literature like history or poetry.

FUNNIES: comics, also **funny papers**.

GRAFT: dishonest use of one's position to gain money.

INTERNET: an international network of computer databases (=stores of information) that was established for the use of universities and military leaders, but is now available to the public. It handles electronic mail and provides a large amount of information on many subjects.

ISSUE: something which is produced so as to be publicly sold or given out.

LAUNCH: to begin an activity.

LIBEL: a printed or written statement that says unfairly bad things about a person and may make others have a low opinion of him or her. libel usually concerns famous people who may then go to court to clear their name.

LICENCE: a freedom of action, speech, thought.

MALICE/MALICIOUS: evil intent; deliberately planning to hurt or injure. If you accidentally run into and hurt someone, you're liable for damages. But if you did it on purpose, you would be liable for a lot more damages and probably face criminal penalties as well.

MEDIA: the newspapers, television, and radio. /also **mass media**.

NEWS: facts that are reported about a recent event or events; new information.

OBSCENITY: the language offensive to accepted ideas of morality; indecent.

PERIODICAL: a magazine, esp. one of a serious kind, that comes out at regular times.

PRIOR RESTRAINT: stopping someone from publishing something.

PUBLIC NUISANCE: conduct by a person or company that is not a crime as such but which may disturb a number of people. For example, low-flying aircraft over a neighborhood or a smoking factory chimney. Usually the courts will regulate or stop a public nuisance once it has been proved.

PUBLICATION: something published.

PUNITIVE: intended as punishment.

QUALITY PAPER: a British daily or Sunday newspaper aimed at educated readers. Quality papers are sometimes called the serious papers. They contain detailed news articles, features, and reviews written in a serious style.

QUIZ SHOWS: a competition or game in which competitors have to answer questions.

REPEATS: performances shown or broadcast a second time.

REVAMP: to give a new and better form or structure to something old.

REVENUE: income, esp. that which the government receives as tax.

REVIEW: a magazine or newspaper article that gives a judgement on a new book, play, television show, etc.

SATELLITE TELEVISION: the broadcasting of television programmes over a wide area by the use of satellite in space. Satellite television in Britain has five stations of which BskyB is the largest.

SCANDAL SHEET: a newspaper or a magazine that publishes shocking stories about people which may or may not be true.

SECTION: a separate part of a newspaper.

SLANDER: an intentional false spoken report, story, etc., which unfairly damages the good opinion held about a person by others.

SOAP/SOAP OPERA: a television or radio programme about the continuing daily life and troubles of characters in it, which is broadcast regularly, e.g. two or three times a week, or sometimes every day. In both the

US and Britain there are soap operas that have been running for 20 years or more. Most people either like or strongly dislike soap operas.

STANCE: a way of thinking, esp. a publicly-stated position regarding a particular situation; attitude.

SUBSCRIBER: someone who receives magazines, newspapers or any other media services.

SUB/SUBSCRIPTION: an amount of money given regularly, in order to be given a magazine, newspaper, etc.

SUMMARIZE: a brief report covering the main points.

SUPPLEMENT: an additional part of a newspaper, magazine.

SYNDICATE: to arrange (for written work) to be sold to a number of different newspapers, magazines.

TABLOID: a newspaper of which two pages make up one printing plate, and which contains many pictures, and short accounts of the main points of the news.

UBIQUITY: existing everywhere.

VIEWERS: people who watch television.

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