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Understanding Media Policies

A European Perspective

E. Psychogiopoulou

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Understanding Media Policies

A European Perspective

Edited by
Evangelia Psychogiopoulou



Understanding Media Policies

Also by Evangelia Psychogiopoulou

THE EUROPEAN COURT OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND THE RIGHTS
OF MARGINALISED INDIVIDUALS AND MINORITIES IN NATIONAL CONTEXT
(*co-editor with Dia Anagnostou*)

THE INTEGRATION OF CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS IN EU LAW AND POLICIES

Understanding Media Policies

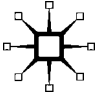
A European Perspective

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Evangelia Psychogiopoulou

Hellenic Foundation for European & Foreign Policy

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Athens, November 2011

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Recasting the Contours of Media Policy in a Political Context: An Introduction

Evangelia Psychogiopoulou and Dia Anagnostou

1. Introduction

In the past few decades, the media have undergone a fundamental restructuring, along with the policies and tools that intervene to regulate them. Rapid technological change, the intensification of regulatory processes beyond the state, and changes in the dominant ideas regarding regulation and the nature and the role of the media within the society have all contributed to such a restructuring. The rise of neo-liberal ideas since the 1980s and the 1990s, and the increasing pressures on the state to withdraw from and privatise various sectors of the economy, has had a fundamental impact on the media. The emergence of commercial broadcasters undermined the state monopoly in broadcasting, which prevailed in most of post-war Europe and challenged its underlying principles and social purpose. Technological advancements and the rise of the 'new media', first with the introduction of cable and trans-frontier satellite transmissions, then, more recently, with the emergence of online media services, were catalytic in this regard. They eroded the basis for the 'scarcity of frequencies' policy argument, bringing new challenges for policy makers in terms of media regulation. In addition, globalisation and the extensive mobility of capital have seriously undermined pre-existing forms of national regulation of the media.

In such a changing landscape, there has been a shift in the number and values of the actors and institutions, both within and beyond the state, involved in media policies, policy rationale, and regulatory instruments. Such changes have prompted a wealth of scholarly discussion and debate on how to reconceptualise the areas of government action that define the media's structure and operation within the society. They have also raised new questions concerning the relationship between the media and democracy, as well as the ways in which political relations and the distribution of political power both shape and are in turn influenced by the media. By nurturing (ideally) a broadly informed citizenry, the media have been

2 Introduction

seen as prompting the government to be responsive to the people, contributing to government accountability and control, and thus sustaining democracy.

Besides its presumed service to democracy, the justification for state intervention in the media sector has formed the object of considerable analysis by legal scholars, political scientists, and academics specialising in media studies. The economic value of the media has led many to argue that media policy is essentially an 'industrial' policy, aimed at ensuring the conditions necessary for increased competitiveness of the sector at the national and/or international level. Attention has also been drawn to 'market failures' inherent in media activity that require corrective action. It has been claimed, for instance, that media operators tend to form strategic alliances and develop oligopolistic behaviour with the aim to offset the unpredictability of public taste and its effects on their economic viability. The need to counterbalance this inclination of the media has been particularly highlighted as an argument in support of regulatory intervention.

While economic imperatives and technological innovation strongly bear upon media policy and regulation, it must be emphasised from the outset that media policy and regulation is not a disinterested process. Rules and norms are not adopted and applied through bureaucratic, technical procedures. Instead, decision-making for the policy approach is shaped by a series of competing interests that seek to inscribe their values and objectives on the policy agenda and the way media policy is eventually conducted.

The aim of this volume is to foster a better understanding of media policies in Europe. The book examines national media policies, and seeks to redefine their nature and scope through the study of both traditional and new media in 12 European Union (EU) member states and two EU candidate countries, respectively: Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, the UK, Croatia, and Turkey. What are the regulatory practices, policy tools, and institutional features of the media policies in these countries? How have media policies traditionally developed, and what have been the policy principles and values that have shaped them? How are the media policies of the countries under study currently reconfigured under ongoing pressures for deregulation and under the impact of technological evolution, European integration, and pressures from the global economy? And what are the historical-political forces and socio-economic interests that influence the structure and operation of the media in the countries under review?

The country selection included in this volume covers a large extent of the variety of European media markets in terms of size, competitive strength, and levels of media development and media use, in addition to their diversity in terms of the interrelationship between media structures and political systems. Drawing from the influential work of Daniel C. Hallin and Paolo

Mancini in *Comparing Media Systems: Three Models of Media and Politics* (2004), Belgium, Denmark, Finland, and Germany fall under the so-called *Northern European/democratic corporatist media model*. They are thus broadly characterised by strong state intervention through support and regulatory measures for the media, which co-exists with ample protection of media freedom and freedom of expression. Greece, Italy, Spain, and (arguably) Turkey belong to the *Mediterranean model*, also known as the *polarised pluralist model*. State intervention in terms of funding and regulation is equally strong in these countries, but the media are generally considered to be used as a means to political or other ends. The UK falls under the *North Atlantic/liberal model*, although in terms of state intervention in the media sector, it actually contradicts the model, which broadly favours a market-oriented approach. The UK has developed a strong public service broadcasting (PSB) system, and commercial broadcasting has also retained a strong public service orientation. Finally, the list of countries includes states from Central and Eastern Europe in order to take into account the post-Communist legacy and explore the specific media policy issues that the countries in political and economic transition generally face.

Certainly, over the past ten years or so there has been a wealth of studies that have explored media regulation at the national level. Scholars have examined the role of the media in the democratic process, and have investigated the various means employed to regulate the media often from a comparative perspective (Barendt, 1995; Price, 1995; Hoffmann-Riem, 1996; Humphreys, 1996; Craufurd Smith, 1997; Gibbons, 1998; Goldberg, Prosser and Verhulst, 1998; Price, Rozumilowicz and Verhulst, 2003; Katz, 2004; Curran, 2005, 2011; Open Society Institute, 2005; Feintuck and Varney, 2006; Hitchens, 2006; Ward, 2008a; Goldberg, Sutter and Walden, 2009). The focus has mainly been on the audiovisual sector with surveys of broadcasting regulation. Research has shown that most European countries share a common model defined by a dual system of public and private broadcasting (Humphreys, 1996; Papathanassopoulos, 2002; Iosifidis, 2007, 2010). At the same time, from the mid-1980s onwards, mixed patterns combining market liberalisation, regulation, and deregulation in various ways have also gradually emerged. New technologies, the resulting market restructuring, and changes brought about in media production and consumption have prompted academics to rethink assumptions about the regulatory models in use. On the other hand, the press, traditionally recognised as a bulwark of democracy, has not been heavily regulated. For the most part, it has been subject to generally applicable laws relating to such matters as defamation, privacy, the protection of public security, and public order among others.

A privileged area of academic study has been the regulation of media markets at the EU level. Many authors have examined the evolution of EU media policy, giving particular weight to the Television without Frontiers Directive,¹ its recent review leading to the adoption of the Audiovisual

Media Services Directive,² and the application of EU competition rules to the media sector (Collins, 1994; Drijber, 1999; Ward, 2002, 2008b; Craufurd Smith, 2004, 2006; Harcourt, 2004; Picard, 2006; Holoubek, Damjanovic and Trainer, 2007; Sarikakis, 2007; Psychogiopoulou, 2008; Pauwels *et al.*, 2009). A significant number of studies have further concentrated on the interrelationship between state and EU media regulation (Levy, 1999; Harcourt, 2002). David Levy's work in particular has pointed to the wide diversity of state policy styles that persist despite EU harmonisation in the field of broadcasting. A similar point has been made by Denis McQuail (2007). Conversely, some authors have argued that policy convergence is occurring across the EU member states, but that it is primarily influenced by non-EU factors, namely technological change and globalisation (Humphreys, 1996).

While drawing heavily from the previously published academic works, this volume is innovative both in the approach it adopts and its thematic and analytical focus. It conceptualises media policy as an intrinsically political and intensely contested process, which simultaneously involves national and supranational dynamics. In this regard, it departs from narrow single-discipline approaches that take a perspective of the media as a market, or that are confined to the legal and normative rules regulating it. Instead, it employs an interdisciplinary approach that places legal rules and market regulation in their socio-political context. The wide range of the countries selected allows us to consider the diversity of contemporary European media markets, regulatory frameworks, institutional structures, and policy strategies. While some of them have been analysed in a bulk of existing literature, others have so far remained at the margins of academic attention. It is important therefore to note that rather than building on an all-encompassing concept of media policy that is used (or ought to be used) in different country contexts, this book deals with and aspires to depict the variety of media policies practised in different country settings. It is thus mainly concerned with understanding and explaining the various ways in which media policy is conceived, negotiated, and applied in the selected group of European countries. This, in fact, explains the choice of the plural form 'understanding media policies' in the book's title, rather than 'understanding media policy'.

Another innovative aspect of this volume, which is also closely related to the choice of the plural term 'media policies' mentioned above, is that it combines an analysis of the traditional print and audiovisual media with the study of new online media services. In most of the countries under study, distinct policies have been formulated and applied for the printed press and broadcasting, with no particular efforts deployed to coordinate policy action for the media sector in its entirety. The press has, by and large, remained less regulated, contrasting the regulatory pressure faced by the broadcasting media. Still, significant differences between European countries can be noted in terms of regulatory approach and the breadth of regulatory intervention. Policies have tended to be less or more interventionist, due, among other

things, to different national cultural, political, and regulatory traditions. In reality then, various media policy regimes have existed in Europe (Siune, 1998; Hallin and Mancini, 2004; Terzis, 2007b), highlighting the absence of a single (or widely-shared) European media regulatory model.

The digital revolution, which has substantially altered the media environment, multiplying the communication and information channels available, has brought new elements of regulatory complexity. Both licensed and unlicensed mainstream media have sought to make use of the new technologies in order to diversify their outlets and reach a wider audience. An unparalleled increase in the provision of information has further derived from the launch of innovative, interactive communication services provided online, with citizens directly engaging in content production and/or dissemination activity. One of the principal questions policy makers are currently compelled to cope with is whether or not the long-established and so far largely diverse regulatory approaches – both across European countries and with regard to different media – are important for and relevant to the new digital environment. Is there a growing need for more inclusive policies addressing the media sector as a whole, and if yes, how should the various media services be regulated and by whom? Our book examines the implications of the new information services for media policy making, and explores policy patterns and attitudes in their regard.

2. The shifting nature and scope of media policy in conditions of technological convergence

In recent years, media policy has become an increasingly elusive policy field to demarcate. To a large extent, this stems from processes of technological convergence that blur market boundaries between previously distinct industry sectors due to technological innovation, and consequently between the services these sectors provide and the platforms they use to deliver them. Initially conceived as a process fostering the ability of different network platforms to carry similar kinds of services and the transformation of different consumer devices such as telephone, television, and computers into products that are alike (European Commission, 1997: 1), convergence has proved to be a more complex and sophisticated venture (Marsden and Verhulst, 1999; Ariño and Llorens, 2008). Its effects have been multi-faceted and multi-dimensional, extending to market convergence and the convergence of platforms, devices, and services. This has raised serious questions about the delineation of the domain of contemporary media policy, and in particular the extent to which it can be treated separately from the field of communications policy more broadly.

Communications policy deals with a wide range of issues concerned with the structure and the organisation of communications systems (Papathanassopoulos and Negrine, 2010: 3). For decades, media policy has

been mainly conceived as the policy that aims to shape the conduct of the mass media, essentially press and broadcasting, as media of 'public communication'. Often used interchangeably with the term 'mass communication policy', media policy has been dissociated in academic literature and policy practice from telecommunications policy. The latter has been traditionally understood to be concerned with telecommunications networks as carriers of 'private communication' between individuals. State intervention in these two policy areas has displayed different characteristics and variation in the degree of intensity. It has been driven by different policy rationales, and has sought to attain diverse policy objectives, though in both cases, in the pursuit of the 'public interest', a notion subject to varying interpretations (Feintuck and Varney, 2006; Papathanassopoulos and Negrine, 2010: 7–9).

Technological innovation has brought together previously distinct industry sectors, inducing operators to enter each other's territory. Digitalisation, in particular, has yielded a series of market developments that disrupted the distinction that was commonly drawn between a telecommunications and a mass media policy perspective. Changes in operators' market strategies resulted in the blurring of markets, and increased competition has gone hand in hand with the development of innovative, 'user-generated' services. These services have triggered substantial changes in communication styles and models, blending 'public' and 'private' forms of communication.

In such a context, the technological field within which media policy operates has broadened, if not altered. The classic inclination to restrict media policy to the mass media and the processes through which communication takes place from one to many has been put to the test. Many scholars have argued for policy convergence and the dismantling of the traditional policy separation between the media and the telecommunications industry (Van Cuilenburg and Slaa, 1993; Van Cuilenburg and McQuail, 2003: 181). Others have claimed that the field of media policy should be considered co-extant with that of information policy, the latter being defined as all laws and regulations pertaining to information creation, processing, flows, and use (Braman, 2004, 2010). The picture has been further complicated by the gradual expansion of targeted action to foster economic, social, and cultural change by focusing on the role of information in the economy and society. Despite the absence of a single theoretical framework for reaching a good understanding of what the term 'information society' actually stands for (Garnham, 2005: 287), the media, together with information and communication technologies, were seen as key drivers of growth and social development.

The delineation of the field of contemporary media policy is of pragmatic importance for policy makers, legislators, and regulators who need to be aware of its limits. It is also an important legal, and in fact, constitutional issue, given the implications it entails for the protection of freedom of expression and other fundamental freedoms and rights, such as the right

to information. Media policy has traditionally been founded on safeguarding free speech and the freedom to hold, receive, and impart information and ideas. Embodying central democratic and social values, free speech, and the right to information have been explicitly protected in Western democracies by means of domestic constitutional law and/or parliamentary acts, and have served to shape media policy discourse. Identifying the issue area of contemporary media policy is thus closely linked to protecting fundamental rights and civil freedoms.

Despite the variation in analysis and points of theoretical departure, it is generally agreed that media policy is concerned with the conduct of media systems (Freedman, 2008: 10). In dealing with the organisation of media markets and media performance, media policy favours specific market configurations and seeks to advance particular types of media behaviour. This book is interested in the media as agents of information and debate that facilitate public discourse in a functioning democracy. From this perspective, media policy is understood as the whole range of policy approaches, strategies, and tools that are employed to shape the media in a way that promotes their role as facilitators and carriers of public discourse. Hence, the focus is more on the media's role of mediating the public, including on how the media's role as such is transformed by new technological advancements. It is less concerned with other functions of the media, such as entertainment or private communication (important as these may be). The country-based studies are underpinned by a common interest in the *constitutive* role of the media, namely that of structurally shaping the society by enabling the public to engage in its production and reproduction (Braman, 2004: 179–181, 2010: 41–42). Accordingly, they are not restricted to the examination of those policy areas that concern what is commonly known as the 'traditional' mass media. They also extend to the policies that target new forms of public communication, including the internet as a medium of public communication, in so far as these have a direct or indirect bearing on societal discourse and participatory decision-making processes. Moreover, highly debated topics, not typically associated with media policy (i.e. broadband access, net neutrality, intellectual rights protection, etc.), are of interest to the extent that they condition and/or transform the ability of the media to act as platforms of public discourse.

3. Media policy and media regulation

It might be useful at this point to draw a distinction between the two terms that are often used interchangeably in media policy studies: media policy and regulation. Des Freedman makes an important point in this regard: 'if media policy suggests the broader field where a variety of ideas and assumptions about desirable structure and behaviour circulate, then regulation points to the specific institutional mechanisms for realising these aims'

(Freedman, 2008: 13). In this sense, ‘policy’ precedes ‘regulation’. Whereas media policy refers to the development of objectives to shape the structure and behaviour of the media, media regulation ‘focuses on the operation of specific, often legally binding, tools that are deployed on the media to achieve established policy goals’ (Freedman, 2008: 14).

Two main models of regulatory intervention can generally be discerned in the media sector: structural regulation and content regulation (Barendt, 1997/1998; Hitchens, 2006). Structural regulation normally addresses the architecture of the media landscape. It typically builds on competition rules, which are aimed at ensuring a competitive media market and may sometimes be enriched with a media-specific component. It also draws on media ownership norms that define the number of media outlets that any natural or legal person may own, whether from a mono-media or cross-media perspective, as well as permissible participation in media enterprises. Media ownership rules can also prevent the integration of the media industry with other sectors of the economy, and preclude particular organisations, such as political parties or religious associations, from owning key media outlets. Licensing rules, commonly concerned with traditional broadcasting media, also affect the structure of the market, as they determine the type and number of mainstream operators available. The configuration of the media market is further conditioned by access rules, like ‘must carry’ obligations generally aimed at ensuring that control of key networks, services or facilities does not prevent market access for alternative media operators and services. The regulatory picture is complemented by various support measures, such as licence fees, direct grants, preferential tax regimes, or benefits in kind, designed to foster the development of particular media market segments. Market entry can also be encouraged by measures fostering the development of high-capacity transmission networks and spectrum management policies.

In the field of broadcasting, the European ‘dual’ regulatory model is a clear example of structural regulation. Despite pressures for radio and television to be left to ideologically and politically ‘neutral’ market forces, broadcasting has not been entirely liberalised. Instead, it is still characterised by a duality of public and private operators (Ward, 2002). Admittedly, the dismantling of state monopolies from the late 1980s onwards sought to counteract government influence over broadcasting and promote content diversification, besides being responsive to economic and industrial considerations. Nonetheless, consensus has also built around the idea that PSB, funded exclusively or mainly through state resources, would provide a range and quality of media services that the market alone would not achieve. PSB was thus considered to be an appropriate means to minimise the programming limitations arising from commercial modes of media financing (i.e. advertising) and cater for fair, balanced, and impartial reporting besides other objectives in the public interest. Structural regulation for the state’s preservation in the broadcasting market has been supplemented by content

requirements imposed on public service media to shape the content of their services. These have sought to foster public discourse, promote social integration and the national culture, and represent minority tastes and interests, among other things.

States have also been favourably disposed to the adoption of rules targeting the content of commercial audiovisual media, whereas for the most part and mainly for free speech reasons, they have refrained from regulating the press. Such a broad tendency that recognises the necessity for radio and television to be subject to greater state-imposed constraints in comparison with the press has been partially justified by the greater power that these arguably exert over citizens. Content requirements have been widely imposed either in order to preclude material that is considered to be harmful or undesirable, or with a view to enhancing the range of voices and opinions expressed through the media. They have ranged from measures prescribing respect for the personality, honour, private and family life of the persons depicted in programmes, to measures intended to increase content diversity and plurality of information, including provisions concerning political advertising and access to airtime for political parties and politicians, especially during election campaigns. Other rules and regulations have dealt with minors' protection from unsuitable content, the accessibility of programmes for people with visual or hearing disability, sponsorship, audiovisual commercial communications, and teleshopping. Transmission quotas and investment obligations in specific content genres have also been imposed, while subsidies and other financial and tax incentives have been granted to promote particular types of programmes.

Media regulation also involves forms of public intervention, which are not necessarily media-specific, but which produce effects for media performance (Braman, 2004: 164, 2010: 30–31). Legislation regarding access to public documents is probably the most common example of 'hidden' or 'covert' media policy. Acts and statutes about access to public documents and information are generally not specifically concerned with the media. And yet, they constitute one of the principal pieces of legislative intervention that may influence their workings. On the one hand, they can facilitate the gathering of information by creating structured channels for the media to obtain information from public authorities. On the other hand, they can substantially constrain media reporting: grounds for withholding access to information are commonly incorporated in such acts in order to protect national security, public safety, international relations, military intelligence, business secrets, privacy, and so on.

At the same time, it is essential to note that media policy is broader than media regulation. Whereas regulation primarily refers to the adoption of legal rules and norms to govern the media, the concept of media policy encompasses the full array of actors involved in and the processes leading to the adoption of specific policy decisions and instruments. In Des Freedman's

formulation, media policy refers to the ‘formal as well as informal strategies, underpinned by specific interests, values and goals that shape the emergence of mechanisms designed to structure the direction of and behaviour in particular media environments’ (Freedman, 2008: 17). In other words, media policy comprises as much the formal mechanisms of policy formulation (of which state regulatory instruments are a part) as the informal ones (such as lobbying and advocacy by different interest groups). Informal policy making is more difficult to discern, precisely because of its non-formal character. It can nevertheless be highly influential. The frequent unreported conversations between politicians and corporate lobbyists are a clear case of informal policy making where consensus is built and agreements are reached outside formal decision-making structures, with no consideration of democratic procedural safeguards.

Media policy is also about the implementation, monitoring, and enforcement of the legal rules adopted. Once the direction, objectives, and means of media policy have been decided and concretely defined, the process continues with the actual efforts deployed to attain the goals identified and make use of the policy instruments chosen for policy to work. This is a crucial stage in the policy chain, as it very much conditions whether policies can make a difference and deliver the desired results. Bad policies can yield bad results, but good policies can also lead to failure if no steps are taken to ensure effective follow-up.

4. Making media policy

In recent years, the term ‘global media policy’ (Hamelink, 1995; Castells, 1996; Ó Siochrú, Girard and Mahan, 2002; Raboy, 2002; Castells and Gardoso, 2006; Chakravarty and Sarikakis, 2006; Raboy and Padovani, 2010; Iosifidis, 2011) has become increasingly used to denote the plurality of processes where actors with different degrees of power and autonomy intervene in different policy venues to shape the media market and media conduct. Although the role of national governments remains crucial, it has widely been acknowledged that media policy making is no longer confined to the state. International and regional organisations, other supranational bodies and entities, the media industry itself, and the civil society operating across states have gradually become important actors in media policy formation.

The variety of stakeholders that play a role in defining the values, norms, and tools of media policy has led others to suggest a change in terminology from ‘media policy’ to ‘media governance’ (Hamelink and Nordenstreng, 2007; Latzer, 2007; McQuail, 2007; Puppis, 2008, 2010). Besides the recognition of the fact that the policies concerning the media are formulated at different levels – the national and sub-national, the supranational and the international – the concept of governance has also been used to convey the fact that the state might no longer be the decisive player. The state makes

media policy alongside a variety of other public, semi-public, and private actors. This implies a network of control and exercise of power, in which the state might have lost the pre-eminence it previously enjoyed.

Media governance has also been used to reflect the variety of formal and informal, visible and invisible, express and latent media policy mechanisms (Braman, 2004: 164, 2010: 30–31) deployed to govern the media. For Denis McQuail, media governance ‘refers not only to formal and binding rules, but also to numerous informal mechanisms, internal and external to the media, by which they are “steered” towards multiple (and often inconsistent) objectives’ (McQuail, 2005: 234). Understood as a term that is broader than regulation both spatially and instrumentally, Des Freedman observes that ‘media governance refers to the sum total of mechanisms, both formal and informal, national and supranational, centralised and dispersed that aim to organise media systems’ (Freedman, 2008: 14).

Media policy making has no doubt progressively become an increasingly complex and multi-layered process. Not only are the rules being modified due to the blurring of boundaries between distinct policy sectors, but the way in which the rules are devised is also being radically transformed. The number of *actors* that participate in the configuration of media policies has increased impressively. Both state and non-state actors contribute different understandings and knowledge, through their interaction, to the framing of the media policy agenda and the shaping of the principles and rules that govern the media sector (Feintuck and Varney, 2006: 201). Next to governmental bodies and state ministries, independent regulatory agencies, private corporations, media and journalists’ associations, trade unions, standard-setting entities, civil society organisations working in the field of human rights and media freedom, and also individuals with an interest in the areas and topics dealt with (i.e. media professionals, scholars, and researchers) seek to leave their imprint on the media policy discourse. Competing values represented by different policy actors become subject to negotiation, re-negotiation, balancing, and often conflict at the points of institutional interaction.

Clearly, certain policy participants possess resources that substantially increase and strengthen their ability to exercise leverage over policy formation. Private corporate interests, in particular, can exert an overwhelming influence on policy decisions. First of all, they typically enjoy financial and expert resources, which enable them to pursue their interests through government. Scientific evidence has progressively become a prerequisite for media policy development, and public officials often rely on the media for the provision of statistics and data, given the lack of resources, time, and expertise to produce or compile the information themselves. Major media groups and operators are able to provide such material and data, and formulate policy options and scenarios on their basis. Equally important is the ability of the media to affect the climate of policy debate through their