UNIVERSITY OF SWAZILAND

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF JOURNALISM AND MASS COMMUNICATION

2017/2018 EXAMINATION QUESTION PAPER: SUPPLEMENTARY

TITLE OF PAPER: ONLINE JOURNALISM

COURSE CODE: JMC 349

TIME ALLOWED: THREE (3) HOURS

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. QUESTION ONE IS COMPULSORY
2. ANSWER ANY OTHER THREE QUESTIONS

Question One

Use Annexure 1 to perform the following tasks:

(a) Based on the attached Annex 1, write a solid online hard news story (500-600 words) and underline all words and phrases where you would have put your hyperlinks.

[25]

(b) Write a post for Facebook and provide a link (underline the words where you would put the links and indicate the picture or graphics you would use to accompany the post). **[5]**

(c) Write two tweets on the story and provide a link to the story on your website (underline the words linking the tweets to the main story). From the range of pictures and data on Annex 1, indicate which one you would use for each tweet.

[10]

Question Two

Discuss the role of blogging in the production, dissemination and interpretation of news.

[20]

Question Three

With the development of new media of communications, calls have been made for "reciprocal" journalism and the transformation of news from "lectures" to "conversations". In view of these comments,

(a) Identify and discuss the forms of audience participation in news production today.
(b) Discuss how audience participation has redefined journalistic practices and norms.

[20]

Question Four

Using current and relevant examples, discuss how the internet has aided the practice of journalism in Swaziland. **[20]**

Question Five

Define the following terms and outline how each of them positively contributes to good online journalism;

(a) UGC
(b) Blogging
(c) Podcasts
(d) Interactive Content

[20]

Question Six

Using relevant examples, critically discuss the ethical, economic, legal and operational problems posed to the journalism fraternity by news aggregation. **[20]**

ANNEX I - SUPPLEMENTARY (C349)
JMC

22 Africa

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22

Executive Summary

Evidence of warming over land regions across Africa, consistent with anthropogenic climate change, has increased (*high confidence*). Decadal analyses of temperatures strongly point to an increased warming trend across the continent over the last 50 to 100 years. {22.2.1.1}

Mean annual temperature rise over Africa, relative to the late 20th century mean annual temperature, is *likely* to exceed 2°C in the *Special Report on Emissions Scenarios* (SRES) A1B and A2 scenarios by the end of this century (*medium confidence*). Warming projections under medium scenarios indicate that extensive areas of Africa will exceed 2°C by the last 2 decades of this century relative to the late 20th century mean annual temperature and all of Africa under high emission scenarios. Under a high Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP), that exceedance could occur by mid-century across much of Africa and reach between 3°C and 6°C by the end of the century. It is *likely* that land temperatures over Africa will rise faster than the global land average, particularly in the more arid regions, and that the rate of increase in minimum temperatures will exceed that of maximum temperatures. {22.2.1.2}

A reduction in precipitation is *likely* over Northern Africa and the southwestern parts of South Africa by the end of the 21st century under the SRES A1B and A2 scenarios (*medium* to *high confidence*). Projected rainfall change over sub-Saharan Africa in the mid- and late 21st century is uncertain. In regions of high or complex topography such as the Ethiopian Highlands, downscaled projections indicate *likely* increases in rainfall and extreme rainfall by the end of the 21st century. {22.2.2.2, 22.2.3}

African ecosystems are already being affected by climate change, and future impacts are expected to be substantial (*high confidence*). There is emerging evidence on shifting ranges of some species and ecosystems due to elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) and climate change, beyond the effects of land use change and other non-climate stressors (*high confidence*). Ocean ecosystems, in particular coral reefs, will be affected by ocean acidification and warming as well as changes in ocean upwellings, thus negatively affecting economic sectors such as fisheries (*medium confidence*). {22.3.2, Table 22-3}

Climate change will amplify existing stress on water availability in Africa (*high confidence*). Water resources are subjected to high hydro-climatic variability over space and time, and are a key constraint on the continent's continued economic development. The impacts of climate change will be superimposed onto already water-stressed catchments with complex land uses, engineered water systems, and a strong historical sociopolitical and economic footprint. Strategies that integrate land and water management, and disaster risk reduction, within a framework of emerging climate change risks would bolster resilient development in the face of projected impacts of climate change. {22.3.2.2, 22.3.3}

Climate change will interact with non-climate drivers and stressors to exacerbate vulnerability of agricultural systems, particularly in semi-arid areas (*high confidence*). Increasing temperatures and changes in precipitation are *very likely* to reduce cereal crop productivity. This will have strong adverse effects on food security. New evidence is also emerging that high-value perennial crops could also be adversely affected by temperature rise (*medium confidence*). Pest, weed, and disease pressure on crops and livestock is expected to increase as a result of climate change combined with other factors (*low confidence*). Moreover, new challenges to food security are emerging as a result of strong urbanization trends on the continent and increasingly globalized food chains, which require better understanding of the multi-stressor context of food and livelihood security in both urban and rural contexts in Africa. {22.3.4.3, 22.3.4.5}

Progress has been achieved on managing risks to food production from current climate variability and near-term climate change but these will not be sufficient to address long-term impacts of climate change (*high confidence*). Livelihood-based approaches for managing risks to food production from multiple stressors, including rainfall variability, have increased substantially in Africa since the IPCC's Fourth Assessment Report (AR4). While these efforts can improve the resiliency of agricultural systems in Africa over the near term, current adaptations will be insufficient for managing risks from long-term climate change, which will be variable across regions and farming system types. Nonetheless, processes such as collaborative, participatory research that includes scientists and farmers, strengthening of communication systems for anticipating and responding to climate risks, and increased flexibility in livelihood options, which serve to strengthen coping strategies in agriculture for near-term risks from climate variability, provide potential pathways for strengthening adaptive capacities for climate change. {22.4.5.4, 22.4.5.7, 22.4.6, 22.6.2}

Climate change may increase the burden of a range of climate-relevant health outcomes (*medium confidence*). Climate change is a multiplier of existing health vulnerabilities (*high confidence*), including insufficient access to safe water and improved sanitation, food insecurity, and limited access to health care and education. {22.3.5.1} Detection and attribution of trends is difficult because of the complexity of disease transmission, with many drivers other than weather and climate, and short and often incomplete data sets. Evidence is growing that highland areas, especially in East Africa, could experience increased malaria epidemics due to climate change (*medium evidence, very high agreement*). The strong seasonality of meningococcal meningitis and associations with weather and climate variability suggest the disease burden could be negatively affected by climate change (*medium evidence, high agreement*). The frequency of leishmaniasis epidemics in sub-Saharan Africa is changing, with spatial spread to peri-urban areas and to adjacent geographic regions, with possible contributions from changing rainfall patterns (*low confidence*). Climate change is projected to increase the burden of malnutrition (*medium confidence*), with the highest toll expected in children. {22.3.5.3}

In all regions of the continent, national governments are initiating governance systems for adaptation and responding to climate change, but evolving institutional frameworks cannot yet effectively coordinate the range of adaptation initiatives being implemented (*high confidence*). Progress on national and subnational policies and strategies has initiated the mainstreaming of adaptation into sectoral planning. {22.4.4} However, incomplete, under-resourced, and fragmented institutional frameworks and overall low levels of adaptive capacity, especially competency at local government levels, to manage complex socio-ecological change translate into a largely ad hoc and project-level approach, which is often donor driven. {22.4.2, 22.4.4.3-4} Overall adaptive capacity is considered to be low. {22.4.2} Disaster risk reduction, social protection, technological and infrastructural adaptation, ecosystem-based approaches, and livelihood diversification are reducing vulnerability, but largely in isolated initiatives. {22.4.5} Most adaptations remain autonomous and reactive to short-term motivations. {22.4.3, 22.4.4.5}

Conservation agriculture provides a viable means for strengthening resilience in agroecosystems and livelihoods that also advance adaptation goals (*high confidence*). A wide array of conservation agriculture practices, including agroforestry and farmer-managed natural tree regeneration, conservation tillage, contouring and terracing, and mulching, are being increasingly adopted in Africa. These practices strengthen resilience of the land base to extreme events and broaden sources of livelihoods, both of which have strongly positive implications for climate risk management and adaptation. Moreover, conservation agriculture has direct adaptation-mitigation co-benefits. Addressing constraints to broader adoption of these practices, such as land tenure/usufruct stability, access to peer-to-peer learning, gender-oriented extension and credit and markets, as well as identification of perverse policy incentives, would help to enable larger scale transformation of agricultural landscapes. {22.4.5.6, 22.4.5.7, 22.4.6, 22.6.2}

Despite implementation limitations, Africa's adaptation experiences nonetheless highlight valuable lessons for enhancing and scaling up the adaptation response, including principles for good practice and integrated approaches to adaptation (*high confidence*). Five common principles for adaptation and building adaptive capacity can be distilled: (1) supporting autonomous adaptation through a policy that recognizes the multiple-stressor nature of vulnerable livelihoods; (2) increasing attention to the cultural, ethical, and rights considerations of adaptation by increasing the participation of women, youth, and poor and vulnerable people in adaptation policy and implementation; (3) combining "soft path" options and flexible and iterative learning approaches with technological and infrastructural approaches and blending scientific, local, and indigenous knowledge when developing adaptation strategies; (4) focusing on building resilience and implementing low-regrets adaptation with development synergies, in the face of future climate and socioeconomic uncertainties; and (5) building adaptive management and social and institutional learning into adaptation processes at all levels. {22.4} Ecosystem-based approaches and pro-poor integrated adaptation-mitigation initiatives hold promise for a more sustainable and system-oriented approach to adaptation, as does promoting equity goals, key for future resilience, through emphasizing gender aspects and highly vulnerable groups such as children. {22.4.2, 22.4.5.6, 22.6.2, Table 22-5}

Strengthened interlinkages between adaptation and development pathways and a focus on building resilience would help to counter the current adaptation deficit and reduce future maladaptation risks (*high confidence*). {22.4.3} Development strategies are currently not able to counter current climate risks, as highlighted by the impacts of recent extreme events; national policies that disregard cultural, traditional, and context-specific factors can act as barriers to local adaptation; and there is increased knowledge of maladaptation risks from narrowly conceived development interventions and sectoral adaptation strategies that decrease resilience in other sectors or ecosystems.

{22.4.4, 22.4.6} Given multiple uncertainties in the African context, successful adaptation will depend on building resilience. {22.4-6} Options for pro-poor adaptation/resilient livelihoods include improved social protection, social services, and safety nets; better water and land governance and tenure security over land and vital assets; enhanced water storage, water harvesting, and post-harvest services; strengthened civil society and greater involvement in planning; and more attention to urban and peri-urban areas heavily affected by migration of poor people. {22.4.2, 22.4.4-6}

Growing understanding of the multiple interlinked constraints on increasing adaptive capacity is beginning to indicate potential limits to adaptation in Africa (*medium confidence*). Climate change combined with other external changes (environmental, social, political, technological) may overwhelm the ability of people to cope and adapt, especially if the root causes of poverty and vulnerability are not addressed. Evidence is growing for the effectiveness of flexible and diverse development systems that are designed to reduce vulnerability, spread risk, and build adaptive capacity. These points indicate the benefits of new development trajectories that place climate resilience, ecosystem stability, equity, and justice at the center of development efforts. {22.4.6}

There is increased evidence of the significant financial resources, technological support, and investment in institutional and capacity development needed to address climate risk, build adaptive capacity, and implement robust adaptation strategies (*high confidence*). Funding and technology transfer and support is needed to both address Africa's current adaptation deficit and to protect rural and urban livelihoods, societies, and economies from climate change impacts at different local scales. {22.4, 22.6.4} Strengthening institutional capacities and governance mechanisms to enhance the ability of national governments and scientific institutions in Africa to absorb and effectively manage large amounts of funds allocated for adaptation will help to ensure the effectiveness of adaptation initiatives (*medium confidence*). {22.6.4}

Climate change and climate variability have the potential to exacerbate or multiply existing threats to human security including food, health, and economic insecurity, all being of particular concern for Africa (*medium confidence*). {22.6.1} Many of these threats are known drivers of conflict (*high confidence*). Causality between climate change and violent conflict is difficult to establish owing to the presence of these and other interconnected causes, including country-specific sociopolitical, economic, and cultural factors. For example, the degradation of natural resources as a result of both overexploitation and climate change will contribute to increased conflicts over the distribution of these resources. {22.6.1.1} Many of the interacting social, demographic, and economic drivers of observed urbanization and migration in Africa are sensitive to climate change impacts. {22.6.1.2}

A wide range of data and research gaps constrain decision making in processes to reduce vulnerability, build resilience, and plan and implement adaptation strategies at different levels in Africa (*high confidence*). Overarching data and research gaps identified include data management and monitoring of climate parameters and development of climate change scenarios; monitoring systems to address climate change impacts in the different sectors; research and improved methodologies to assess and quantify the impact of climate change on different sectors and systems; and socioeconomic consequences of the loss of ecosystems, of economic activities, of certain mitigation choices such as biofuels, and of adaptation strategies. {22.7}

Of nine climate-related key regional risks identified for Africa, eight pose medium or higher risk even with highly adapted systems, while only one key risk assessed can be potentially reduced with high adaptation to below a medium risk level, for the end of the 21st century under 2°C global mean temperature increase above preindustrial levels (*medium confidence*). Key regional risks relating to shifts in biome distribution, loss of coral reefs, reduced crop productivity, adverse effects on livestock, vector- and water-borne diseases, undernutrition, and migration are assessed as either medium or high for the present under current adaptation, reflecting Africa's existing adaptation deficit. {22.3.1-2, 22.3.4-5, 22.6.1.2} The assessment of significant residual impacts in a 2°C world at the end of the 21st century suggests that, even under high levels of adaptation, there could be very high levels of risk for Africa. At a global mean temperature increase of 4°C, risks for Africa's food security (see key risks on livestock and crop production) are assessed as very high, with limited potential for risk reduction through adaptation. {22.3.4, 22.4.5, 22.5, Table 22-6}