

1 Measuring and Modeling Russian Newspaper Coverage 2 of Climate Change

3 Abstract

As a significant emitter of greenhouse gases and a country rich in fossil fuels, Russia plays a crucial role in achieving a comprehensive solution to climate-related challenges. Yet, Russia’s official position on climate change has varied considerably since the beginning of global negotiations, with the country playing everything from policy leader to laggard. While there are a number of factors that shape domestic policy positions on climate change, this study offers a comprehensive investigation of newspaper coverage on climate change in Russia. How have Russian newspapers discussed the issue since the Yeltsin era? We approach this question by compiling the largest data set of Russian newspaper coverage to date, which includes 11,131 climate-related articles from 65 papers over a roughly 35 year period. After introducing a “computer assisted” approach to measure the core themes running through climate change coverage, we statistically evaluate the national- and newspaper-level factors associated with how coverage is framed, focusing attention on 23 high circulation papers over the period from 2000 to 2014. We find that national-level predictors—particularly economic conditions—are highly influential of whether climate change is covered and how the issue is framed, while paper-level factors such as the presence of energy interest and ownership structure also have notable effects. Overall, this study offers a rich data set and an array of methods to better understand the drivers of climate communication in Russia.

4 *Keywords:* climate change, newspaper coverage, Russia, text analysis

5 1. Introduction

6 As the world’s fourth largest greenhouse gas (GHG) emitter, Russia remains a
7 vital piece of any comprehensive and effective plan to mitigate the harmful effects
8 of climate change (UNFCCC 2014). Although Russia played an ambiguous
9 but, nevertheless, pivotal role in the Kyoto Protocol’s acceptance (Afionis and
10 Chatzopoulos 2010, Andonova 2008), its current commitment to reducing GHG
11 emissions remains unclear. Recently, Russia announced its withdrawal from the
12 second commitment period to the Kyoto Protocol (Bedritsky 2014), eliminated
13 expenses on energy efficiency from the 2015 federal budget (Davydova 2015),
14 and released a set of “intended nationally determined contributions” (INDCs)
15 that could increase GHG emissions considerably above current levels by 2030

16 (Levin and Damassa 2015). It is thus an open question as to whether Russia
17 will be a leader or laggard in the pursuit to negotiate and implement an effective
18 solution to challenges posed by anthropogenic global warming.

19 Understanding Russia’s position on climate change policy requires careful
20 consideration of the international and domestic factors that promote or impede
21 cooperation. While a diverse array of factors have been suggested in the lit-
22 erature, media coverage is seen to play a crucial role in various aspects of the
23 climate debate. First, considering the agenda-setting function of mass media
24 (McCombs and Shaw 1972) and its influence in shaping public opinion in Russia
25 (White and Oates 2003), news coverage offers a useful means to discern domestic
26 support for climate change action. Discerning public opinion is crucial, as only
27 roughly 3 in 10 Russians believe that climate change is a serious problem and
28 overall concern has decreased by roughly 10% since 2010 (Stokes et al. 2015).
29 Second, mass media also play an important role in translating state views of
30 climate change to national and international audiences, particularly in nations
31 with limited press freedom (Bell 1994, Boyce and Lewis 2009, Boykoff 2012,
32 Butler and Pidgeon 2009, Davidsen and Graham 2014, Dirikx and Gelders 2009,
33 Doulton and Brown 2009, Grundmann and Scott 2012, Lockwood 2009, Lyy-
34 timäki 2011). Having a long history of close relations with the state, Russian
35 media coverage often serves as a window into official government positions on
36 climate policy and thus inform interested parties on how to understand Russia’s
37 position at future climate change negotiations (Poberezhskaya 2015).

38 Against this backdrop, we examine the evolution of Russian media discourse
39 on global warming in the post-Soviet era. Although a number of studies ex-
40 amine climate change-related communication in Russia (Poberezhskaya 2014;
41 Tynkynen 2010; Wilson Rowe 2009; Yagodin 2010), past work is limited both
42 in terms of time period under study and the number of media outlets examined.
43 We contribute to the literature by 1) compiling the largest corpus of Russian
44 newspaper coverage on the issue of climate change, collecting 11,131 relevant
45 articles from 65 newspapers over the time period from May, 1980 to May, 2014;
46 2) introduce a computer *assisted* approach to content analysis appropriate for
47 a large corpus of documents; and 3) offer a multi-level statistical framework for
48 assessing the drivers of media coverage in Russia. To our knowledge, this study
49 offers the first large-scale analysis of Russian print media coverage of climate
50 change that statistically evaluates how both paper and national level charac-
51 teristics shape climate discourse. Overall, the evidence suggests that economic
52 conditions are more likely than political factors to explain climate coverage,
53 while paper-specific characteristics—such as energy interests, ownership struc-
54 ture, and ideology—also play a role. Our study thus questions arguments on
55 the predominant influence of political personalities over climate discourse in the
56 country and suggests a range of alternative explanations for the media approach
57 to the problem.

58 **2. Media Coverage of Climate Change in Russia: Theory and Hy-**
59 **potheses**

60 The importance of mass media in communicating climate change risks has
61 been stressed by a variety of scholars (Bell 1994; Boyce and Lewis 2009; Boykoff
62 2012; Butler and Pidgeon 2009; Carvalho and Burgess 2005; Davidsen and Gra-
63 ham 2014; Dirikx and Gelders 2009; Doulton and Brown 2009; Grundmann and
64 Scott 2012; Lockwood 2009; Lyytimäki 2011; Olausson 2009). Often the first
65 point of contact between public and climate science, the media is tasked with the
66 crucial role of interpreting the somewhat abstract and difficult to comprehend
67 scientific discourse (Beck 1992; Boykoff and Boykoff 2007; Carvalho 2007; Nelkin
68 1987; Rapley and De Meyer 2014). Olausson and Berglez (2014 p. 251) suggest
69 that scholarly investigations of media coverage of climate change issues should
70 expand inquiries of the power dynamics within national media discourses: “it
71 is vital to examine who becomes the ‘primary definer’ of the climate issues.” In
72 other words, it is crucial to identify the role of mass media in “setting the agenda”
73 (Newell 2006; Boykoff and Boykoff 2004; Carvalho and Burgess 2005) and “fram-
74 ing” the debate around the policy and science of global warming (Boykoff 2007a,
75 Boykoff and Rajan 2007, Carvalho 2007).

76 The media’s ability to define the issue of climate change does not take place
77 in a vacuum—mass media both shapes and is shaped by social, political, and
78 economic forces. Bailey et al. (2014 p. 199) note, in their comparative study of
79 Spanish and American media coverage of climate change, that “media portrayals
80 of climate (un)certainty are steeped in the historically contingent space of ideol-
81 ogy, culture, and politics, where various actors and institutions battle to shape
82 public understanding and engagement.” When studying the Russian case, one
83 observes a historical progression marked by an ambiguous relationship between
84 the media, the state, and key economic actors. Towards the end of the 1980s and
85 in the early 1990s, the media became an influential actor in the regime change
86 process through its increasingly open criticism of the old regime and growing
87 support of emerging political actors (Coyne and Leeson 2009, Mickiewicz 1999,
88 Strovskiy 2011, Voltmer 2000). During the presidency of Boris Yeltsin, the mass
89 media’s political role swung from that of active support for the ruling elite to ex-
90 treme criticism of some of its more questionable political decisions (for example,
91 the war in Chechnya, see Grabel’nikov 2001). Furthermore, Yeltsin’s presidency
92 was marked by the growth in power of the so-called “oligarchs” and their ex-
93 panding control over the media market (Lipman and McFaul 2001; Zassoursky
94 2001). The dawn of the Putin era in Russian politics further signified a move
95 towards the centralisation of the media market and the re-establishment of state
96 authority in the public discourse (Becker 2004; Zassoursky 2004). Moreover,
97 when studying media coverage of climate change, it is important to consider
98 that “oligarchs” and the state have close connections to the Russian fossil fuel
99 industry, with such “gas giants” as Gazprom owning a vast number of national
100 media outlets (Toepff 2013). As will be discussed below, the interests of such
101 owners are expected to shape newspaper coverage of climate change.

102 *2.1. Presidency and Kremlin loyalty*

103 Richard Sakwa (2010: viii) argues that Russia is “a dual state” where “the
104 legal-normative system based on constitutional order is challenged by shadowy
105 arbitrary arrangements.” For example, it can be argued that power in the coun-
106 try is disproportionately skewed towards the president or towards key political
107 figures (for example, Putin’s personal domination over Russian politics (Hanson
108 2010)). Regarding Russia’s climate policy, it has been suggested that stagna-
109 tion in its development can be explained by Putin’s personal negative attitude
110 towards this environmental problem (Henry and Sundstrom 2012). At the same
111 time, the recent positive change in national climate affairs could be attributed to
112 Medvedev’s striving for a green economy and modernisation (Monaghan 2012).
113 Therefore, we suggest that while pro-Kremlin newspapers are expected to closely
114 follow the state’s agenda on climate change, their coverage will adjust depending
115 on whether Putin or Medvedev is in power. Where Putin’s presidency would
116 have a negative impact on the quantity of articles and qualitatively on their con-
117 tent, the discussion will steer away from the sensitive issues of domestic politics
118 and emphasize the costs of climate action. Under Medvedev’s leadership, we
119 expect to see an increase in coverage with more discussions dedicated to energy
120 efficiency, international cooperation, domestic politics as well as science.

121 *2.2. Newspaper ownership, interests and ideology*

122 As Andonova (2008) argues, we cannot oversimplify Russia’s political pro-
123 cess by narrowing it down to the changes at the executive level. Therefore, we
124 need to consider a range of other societal and newspaper-level variables that
125 may determine newspaper attention to climate change. By examining the UK
126 quality press, (Carvalho 2007 p. 223) discusses how the media representation
127 of climate change, “is strongly entangled with ideological standpoints.” In Rus-
128 sia, the ideological orientation of the newspapers has to be treated with caution
129 as the distinction between left, centre and right are often blurred and need to
130 be treated in consideration with media ownership structures and their govern-
131 mental links. That said, as demonstrated by previous research on the influence
132 of the newspapers’ political leanings on their approach to climate change cov-
133 erage (Carvalho and Burgess 2005, Carvalho 2007, Poberezhskaya 2015), we
134 can suggest that oppositional newspapers (far-right and far-left) owned by non-
135 governmental political parties will be very vocal across various topics as they can
136 use climate change as an opportunity to criticise the state. Similar expectations
137 (but to a lesser degree) could be expected from the newspapers whose majority
138 shareholders are journalists, especially those on the political left. At the same
139 time, the media outlets belonging to the political right and centre should be
140 quite reserved in their climate coverage and likely eschew economically prob-
141 lematic areas (e.g. Russia’s international obligations or fossil fuel industry). We
142 expect that avoidance will also be intensified if a newspaper is owned by business
143 interests or if it state-owned. At the same time, considering the nature of the cli-
144 mate change problem, we hypothesise that newspapers with energy interests will
145 avoid discussing the problem in the context of fossil fuels or renewable energy

146 development, and should also be less likely to discuss climate change overall.
147 It should be noted that, throughout the studied years, the Russian newspapers'
148 market has been dominated by the business led ownership structure with various
149 degrees of their relations with the state (Lehtisaari 2015).

150 2.3. National economic performance

151 It has been argued that during economic recessions people tend to privilege
152 financial stability over environmental security (e.g. Inglehart 1995, Scruggs
153 and Benegal 2012, Shum 2012). For decades this has been the case for Russia
154 where the environment has been persistently sacrificed to economic development
155 (Henry 2010). Therefore, we can assume that economic crises (e.g. high
156 inflation) should reduce newspaper attention to climate change, as the national
157 economic well-being would take precedence. However, the state of the economy
158 might also have an impact on what themes are focused on when climate change
159 is indeed discussed. We posit that poor economic performance should be positively
160 associated with discussion of climate change in the context of economic
161 opportunities (e.g. Arctic development, international cooperation and energy
162 efficiency).

163 2.4. Natural disasters

164 There is some (but limited) evidence in the literature linking the influence
165 of extreme weather events to media coverage of climate change (Shanahan and
166 Good 2000, Boykoff and Boykoff 2007, Boykoff 2007b, Schäfer et al. 2014). However,
167 impacts of natural hazards on attention to global warming seem to also
168 depend on various social, political, economic, and other country-specific factors.
169 Current understanding suggests heterogeneous effects, with cross-national variation
170 in the intensity of the negative consequences of climate change on public
171 discourse (e.g. Schäfer et al. 2014, Schmidt et al. 2013). However, there is evidence
172 which indicates that warm temperature anomalies might impact individual
173 attitudes toward climate change (Li et al. 2011, Zaval et al. 2014). Considering
174 Russia's growing climate vulnerability, we suggest that climate change related
175 natural hazards should increase media attention to global warming. The 2010
176 Russian heatwave, which resulted in the deaths of over 55,000 people and an estimated
177 economic loss of \$15 billion (Barriopedro et al. 2011), was a catastrophic
178 event that led to a strengthening of ecological groups in Russia (Yanitsky 2012).
179 We therefore expect that when natural disasters occur, newspaper coverage of
180 climate change should be more likely.

181 3. Measuring Russian Newspaper Coverage of Climate Change, 2000- 182 2014

183 This study extends previous work on media coverage of climate change in
184 Russia by incorporating an extensive list of Russian newspapers over a considerable
185 period of time. To create the corpus, we retrieved newspaper articles

186 which contained the terms “climate change”, “global warming”, or “greenhouse
187 effect” from the Eastview Russian Central Newspapers database (UDB-COM).
188 This resulted in the identification of 11,131 relevant articles from 65 newspapers.
189 The temporal coverage of the corpus is large, ranging from 3 May 1980 to 7 May
190 2014. The full list of newspapers and article counts, along with an illustration
191 of temporal variation in coverage for the entire period are presented in ?? . Most
192 newspapers entered the Eastview database in the late 1990s and early 2000s.
193 Estimates of attention to climate change by the Russian press are therefore re-
194 liable starting around 2000. It is for this reason that the analysis conducted in
195 Section 4 relies on 6,527 articles from the 23 most circulated newspapers over
196 the period Q1/2000-Q2/2014. Specifically, we focus the study on a sample of
197 papers with moderate to high circulation counts, ranging from 85,000 (the social-
198 political weekly magazine *Itogi*) to a maximum observed count of 2,985,000 (the
199 national popular weekly *Argumenty i fakty*). We expect that newspapers with
200 very large circulation figures are influential due to massive exposure and that
201 newspapers with average circulations are likely to have more narrow audiences.
202 However, these somewhat smaller papers (e.g. *Kommersant*) are also likely to
203 be influential since they are more likely to target “elites” and opinion leaders.

204 It is also important to note the potential limitations associated with focusing
205 on newspapers to measure media coverage. As in many other countries around
206 the world, the majority of Russians get their news from television, with over 90%
207 of Russians tuning in each week ([Broadcasting Board of Governors 2014](#), [Deloitte
208 CIS Research Centre 2016](#)). Moreover, consistent with international trends in
209 media consumption, the importance of online news has increased steadily over-
210 time, particularly among younger individuals and those living in urban areas
211 (Ibid). At the same time, print media remains an important source of news in
212 general and political news in particular, with over 50% tuning to newspapers
213 and magazines for their news each week ([Deloitte CIS Research Centre 2016](#)).

214 Figure 1 displays quarterly counts of climate change related articles for the
215 23 most circulated Russian newspapers. Several features of aggregate media
216 coverage based on the corpus are worth noting. Coverage of climate change in
217 the Russian press maintained a steady increase until 2007, when we can observe a
218 significant spike in attention. This finding is somewhat unexpected, as existing
219 literature on Russian media coverage of climate change focuses on the period
220 around 2009; prior years such as 2007 have been relatively ignored. Following a
221 brief drop in coverage after 2007, there is a renewed spike in attention over the
222 2009-2010 period (Copenhagen meeting and 2010 Russian heat wave), which is
223 then followed by a steady decrease in coverage. This attention pattern, more or
224 less, maps well with coverage rates from major American newspapers ([Boykoff
225 et al. 2015](#)). However, as is clear from the plot, in terms of absolute coverage,
226 Russian newspapers have devoted strikingly low attention to the issue when
227 compared to the American press. Notably, the *New York Times* has published
228 more climate change related articles than all prominent Russian papers combined
229 for most of the 2000-2014 period.

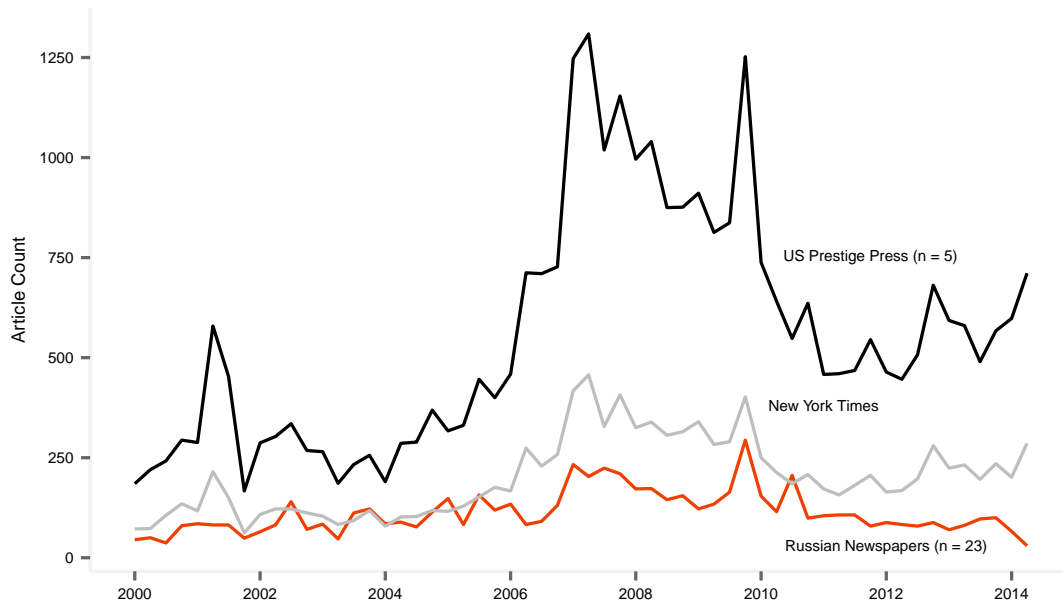


Figure 1: *The number of newspaper articles that mention climate change over time.* Displays quarterly counts of climate change related articles for the US “prestige press” (*Washington Post*, *Wall Street Journal*, *New York Times*, *USA Today* and *Los Angeles Times*) [black], the *New York Times* [grey], and the 23 most prominent Russian newspapers based on circulation [orange]. US newspaper data are derived from [Boykoff et al. \(2015\)](#). See ?? for a detailed list of the most prominent Russian newspapers.

230 *3.1. Measuring climate-related themes: computer “assisted” content analysis*

231 While aggregate trends offer some insight into climate-related coverage, the
 232 obvious next question centers on what themes are prevalent in Russian newspa-
 233 pers. Past content analyses of climate change coverage rely almost exclusively
 234 on traditional methods based on human coders ([Antilla 2008](#), [Bailey et al. 2014](#),
 235 [Olausson 2009](#), [Shrestha et al. 2014](#), [Taylor and Nathan 2002](#)). These meth-
 236 ods are, however, extremely costly—in terms of both time and effort—and thus
 237 researchers are often forced to make important trade-offs, either constraining
 238 temporal coverage (c.f., [Nissani 1999](#), [Painter and Ashe 2012](#)) or focusing on
 239 thoroughly reading a smaller, more manageable set of documents (c.f., [Elsasser
 240 and Dunlap \(2013\)](#), [Dunlap and Jacques \(2013\)](#)).

241 Yet, if traditional content analytic methods do not scale to meet the needs
 242 of scholars of climate communication, it is essential to identify approaches that
 243 do. More recently, scholars have examined the “promise and pitfalls” of au-
 244 tomated classification methods across a range of common tasks in the social
 245 sciences ([Grimmer and Stewart 2013](#)), and for classifying news story content in

246 particular (Ali et al. 2010, Young and Soroka 2012). The promise of computa-
247 tional methods is clear: they offer a reliable means to classify the primary topics
248 or themes for large corpora of text (Mikhaylov et al. 2012). The drawback of
249 computational methods, however, is that considerable effort must go into ensur-
250 ing model validity (Quinn et al. 2010). In short, important trade-offs must be
251 considered irrespective of whether an analyst chooses to employ traditional or
252 automated forms of content analysis.

253 We argue that much may be gained by combining aspects of both method-
254 ologies. Consistent with recent literature on the use of text analytic models
255 in the social sciences, our approach views computational methods as *assisting*,
256 not replacing, traditional techniques (Grimmer and King 2011). Grimmer and
257 Stewart (2013 p. 2) summarize this position quite well:

258 “the complexity of language implies that automated content analysis
259 methods will never replace careful and close reading of texts. Rather,
260 the methods that we profile here are best thought of as *amplifying*
261 and *augmenting* careful reading and thoughtful analysis.” (emphasis
262 in original)

263 As such, we analyze key themes in climate-related articles using an approach
264 that strikes a balance between traditional methods based on human coding and
265 recent advances in the field of natural language processing. Specifically, we
266 employ the following three-step procedure:

- 267 1. we first “augment” the corpus using an *unsupervised* algorithm to iden-
268 tify meaningful topics (or clusters) in Russian newspapers and utilize the
269 estimated topics to identify a small subset of documents that require a
270 “careful and close reading;”
- 271 2. use the results of step 1 and traditional inductive content analytic methods
272 to code a sample of documents into a set of valid, reliable, and substantively
273 meaningful themes;
- 274 3. combine the results from steps 1 and 2 to develop a computational proce-
275 dure for classifying the primary themes in the corpus, validating the model
276 using common classification performance metrics (i.e., accuracy, precision,
277 and recall).

278 The remainder of this section briefly outlines our approach—a fuller description
279 of all of the methods described in this section is available in the online appendix.

280 3.1.1. Reducing dimensionality via unsupervised learning

281 We begin with the observation that while reading 11,131 articles is practically
282 infeasible, carefully assessing 100 key “topics” is much more attainable. As
283 a first step, then, we need a method to reduce our overall corpus to a core
284 set of topics or themes. To achieve this objective, we utilize the well-known
285 latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) model originally proposed in Blei et al. (2003).
286 Viewing each document as a finite mixture of “topics” (i.e. meaningful clusters

287 of words), the LDA models the random process responsible for “generating” a
288 particular text (see the supplemental appendix for technical details). While the
289 Bayesian methods used to produce “topics” are a bit involved (see the appendix
290 for details), the important point is that the LDA has been shown to preform
291 well in a wide range of areas, from population biology to information retrieval,
292 and thus provides a suitable method our data reduction task (Blei 2012 see).

293 The results from estimating a 100 topic model are available in the appendix
294 (see Table ??). Analyzing all 100 topics, however, is unwieldy and many top-
295 ics deal with similar overarching themes. As such, there are substantive and
296 practical benefits from further coding the topics into higher order themes that
297 conform with key aspects of climate change coverage. To do this, we first cate-
298 gorize topics into topic families or “meta-topics” using the topic keywords and,
299 more importantly, the descriptive labels derived from a careful read of the top
300 5 to 10 most probable documents. This procedure yielded a total of 23 sub-
301 stantive meta-topics which cover themes related to science, energy, economics,
302 international and domestic politics, and society. A full list of these meta-topics
303 are displayed in Table 1 along with the labels and identification numbers of each
304 meta-topic’s underlying topics, a measure of how often the meta-topic is sam-
305 pled from the corpus (prevalence), and two classification accuracy scores which
306 are discussed in detail in Section 3.1.2.

307 3.1.2. Model validation

308 A critical—if not *the* critical—step in any computer-assisted approach to
309 content classification is model validation. If the specified model is working well,
310 then the predicted primary topic or topics should correspond to the categories
311 assigned by human coders. To construct a manually annotated set of documents
312 to use for purposes of validation, we relied on the standard operating procedure
313 of “inductive” content analysis: we use a small (randomly selected) set of docu-
314 ments, classified the primary topic of each document using the 23 codes outlined
315 in Table 1, discussed disagreements, and modified accordingly. More specifically,
316 we repeated this inductive process until reliability was sufficiently high (Krip-
317 pendorff’s $\alpha \geq 0.80$). After ensuring sufficient reliability, each individual coder
318 classified the primary topic of 225 documents, leaving a total of 450 manually
319 annotated for validation purposes.

320 With a human-coded test set in hand, the next question is what criteria
321 should be used to judge model validity. One approach is to draw on procedures
322 commonly used to assess supervised learning problems, which include measuring
323 some combination of classification accuracy, reliability, and precision. We rely on
324 this approach here. Table 1 examines classification accuracy using the harmonic
325 mean of precision and recall—i.e., the well-known and often used “F1 score”.
326 First, we compare the primary (or “top”) topic suggested by the model to the
327 primary topic identified by human coders. As demonstrated in Table 1, there
328 is considerable variation in classification accuracy across the 23 categories, with
329 the F1 score ranging from 0.84 (*Health*) to only 0.25 (*Russian Cities*). For
330 the set of issues salient for the literature on Russian coverage of the climate

Meta-Topic Label	Prevalence	F1 Score		Underlying Topic Label [ID]
		Top	Top 2	
<i>Activism</i>	0.01	0.73	0.76	Activism (Protests) [26], Earth Hour [30]
<i>Agriculture</i>	0.01	0.59	0.74	Food security [42]
<i>Arctic politics</i>	0.01	0.82	0.87	Arctic geopolitics [4]
<i>Climate impacts</i>	0.08	0.54	0.76	Water resources [27], Sea level rise [31], Archeology [35], Housing [36], Wild life [41], Sea life [69], Climate impacts (Mountains and glaciers) [73], Climate consequences (Scientific forecast) [90]
<i>Climate science</i>	0.08	0.53	0.76	Space (Celestial bodies) [19], Carbon emissions [22], Meteorology (Roshydromet) [24], Space science (Sun) [49], Climate science (Ocean and climate) [62], Climate change (General) [84], Science (Atmosphere) [93]
<i>Comparative politics</i>	0.04	0.63	0.68	Politics (Germany) [5], Politics (USA) [20], Politics (UK) [33], Politics (South America) [54], Politics (Elections) [68], IR (China) [95]
<i>Disasters/Extreme weather</i>	0.07	0.72	0.83	Nature disaster (Forest fires) [0], Weather abnormalities [39], Catastrophe (Futuristic predictions) [45], Nature disaster (Hurricanes and floods) [58], Catastrophe (Response/MCHS) [60], Winter abnormalities [66]
<i>Economy/Business</i>	0.08	0.47	0.67	Budgeting climate risk [1], Business [6], Economy general [29], Corporate responsibility [59], Economy (Sustainable development) [86]
<i>Education</i>	0.01	0.36	0.67	Education [23], Education (University competition) [52]
<i>Non-renewable energy</i>	0.02	0.61	0.81	Energy (nuclear) [48], Energy (gas) [99]
<i>Renewable energy</i>	0.01	0.50	0.78	Energy (Sustainable sources) [8]
<i>Energy efficiency</i>	0.02	0.43	0.67	Transport (Mostly aviation) [15], Transport (Cars) [17], Energy (Efficiency, Emission reduction) [82]
<i>Health</i>	0.01	0.86	1.00	Health [47]
<i>Information technology</i>	0.004	0.50	0.80	IT [78]
<i>Int'l climate agreements</i>	0.03	0.84	0.91	Climate research (Russian-Belarusian) [10], Climate politics (COPs) [28], Climate politics (Kyoto Protocol) [61]
<i>International politics</i>	0.05	0.53	0.71	UN (and Russia) [21], IR (ASIA-APEC) [34], Politics (EU) [53], IR (Summits) [64], IR (Bilateral relations) [83]
<i>International security</i>	0.05	0.5	0.71	Russian national security [50], IR (Power politics) [55], Military [65], Russian national security policy [67], IR (Security-conflicts) [94], Russian foreign policy [98]
<i>Polar science</i>	0.01	0.75	0.89	Antarctic [12], Arctic (Science) [89]
<i>Pollution</i>	0.01	0.29	0.46	Env. protection (General pollution) [57], Env. protection (Air pollution) [87]
<i>Russian cities</i>	0.01	0.25	0.33	Moscow [79]
<i>Domestic climate politics</i>	0.04	0.49	0.74	Russian legislation [2], Medvedev's politics (Russian politics) [9], Politics (Russian officials meet) [13], Russian mitigation legislature [40], Russian diplomacy [51], Russian Politics (Ministries/docs) [91]
<i>Science (other)</i>	0.02	0.67	0.73	Russian Science [71], Scientific discoveries (Genetics) [96]
<i>Society and culture</i>	0.10	0.44	0.70	Historical mysteries [3], Justice (crime) [7], Art (Film/music industry) [11], Nobel Prize [88], Sport [97], Art (Music) [25], Philosophy [43], Population growth [46], Fashion [63], USSR [70], Religion [74], Literature [75], Politics and Society [76]

Table 1: *Meta-topics and underlying topics within the newspaper corpus.* This table provides the meta-topics determined using the methodological approach outlined in Section 3.1.1. “Prevalence” offers a rough measure of the importance of a meta-topic to the corpus and is measured using the proportion of words assigned by the LDA to a particular meta-topic over the sample period. The table presents two measures of predictive accuracy using the F1 score (see Section 3.1.2 for a full description). Lastly, we present the topic labels that underlie each meta-topic.

331 issue, meta-topics such as *International Climate Agreements* (0.84) and *Arctic*
332 *Politics* (0.82) are classified accurately, while other themes such as *Domestic*
333 *Climate Politics* (0.49) do not perform well.

334 Yet judging an LDA model based only on the primary topic alone offers a
335 conservative assessment of model accuracy. Even a cursory glance at articles in
336 the Russian media corpus suggests that a single story will often discuss multiple
337 climate-related themes, and it is not always easy for either human or computer
338 to decide on what topic is “primary.” To offer a less conservative assessment of
339 predictive accuracy, we examine whether the model classifies the human-coded
340 primary topic as either the first or the second most probable topic for each doc-
341 ument in the sample. When doing so, the F1 scores improve considerably for
342 several important climate-related themes (see Table 1). For instance, we ob-
343 serve a sizeable increase in the F1 scores for energy-related themes, with both
344 *Non-renewable* and *Renewable Energy* registering values near 0.80. Similarly, we
345 observe a considerable increase in the F1 scores for the *Climate Science* and *Cli-*
346 *mate Impacts* themes, as well as a dramatic improvement for *Domestic climate*
347 *politics* and *International security*. Overall, while this analysis demonstrates a
348 range of validity across the 23 meta-topics, we find reasonable predictive accu-
349 racy for key climate-related themes.

350 4. Explaining coverage: the correlates of climate change reporting

351 We now turn to examining the correlates of climate change coverage. What
352 societal- and newspaper-level factors explain variation in coverage on key climate-
353 related issues in Russia? To examine this question, we focus on 23 newspapers
354 for which sufficient data was available over the 2000 to 2014. These papers rep-
355 resent a substantial percentage of the overall circulation in Russia and include
356 a representative cross-section of papers based on ownership structure, politi-
357 cal ideology, and ties to the Russian central government (see appendix table
358 A.2). The remainder of this section outlines our variables of interest, statistical
359 methodology, and presents our main empirical findings.

360 4.1. Outcome variables

361 The 23 meta-topics in Table 1 offer a detailed set of themes for measuring
362 the intensity of climate coverage. Yet, to keep the analysis manageable, we fo-
363 cus our attention on three sets of meta-topics that 1) cover salient themes that
364 are important in the Russian climate change literature (Poberezhskaya 2014;
365 Tynkkynen 2010; Wilson Rowe 2009; Yagodin 2010) and 2) exhibit reasonable
366 levels of predictive accuracy ($F1\ top\ 2 > 0.70$). First, we examine the intensity
367 of coverage for two key aspects of climate change by combining *climate science*
368 and *climate impacts* (see Table 1) into *climate science & impacts*. This variable
369 represents a core aspect of climate literacy and provides a useful means to gauge
370 coverage of climate change fundamentals. Second, we combine *international se-*
371 *curity* and *arctic politics* into *geopolitics*, which centers on discussions of climate
372 change in the context of international relations. Further, we seek to explain vari-
373 ation in how Russian newspapers have reported on climate change negotiations
374 by investigating the *international climate agreements* meta-topic. Lastly, we in-
375 vestigate the variation in newspaper attention on energy-related themes within

376 the context of climate change by combining *non-renewable energy*, *renewable*
377 *energy*, and *energy efficiency* into *energy issues*. Time-series plots of these out-
378 come variables over the period Q1/2000-Q2/2014 are illustrated in Figure ??,
379 which can be found in ?? of the supplemental appendix.

380 The obvious next step involves determining an operational definition for the
381 selected themes. As described in [Boussalis and Coan \(2016\)](#), there is no agreed
382 upon “best” strategy for generating measures from underlying topic data and the
383 appropriateness of a particular strategy is contingent on the research question of
384 interest. Given the literature on Russian climate communication, our primary
385 interest is in determining how papers frame the climate issue and whether the
386 framing changes according to national- and newspaper-level factors. In particu-
387 lar, we examine how different papers make trade-offs when discussing different
388 climate-related themes, focusing on the proportion of all words devoted to a
389 particular meta-topic in Table 1 for each paper-quarter. As such, this measure
390 allows us to examine under what context a particular paper discusses the issue
391 of climate change.

392 4.2. National and newspaper-level covariates

393 We also focus on national and newspaper-level covariates considered impor-
394 tant in the communications literature. Classifying Russian newspapers’ own-
395 ership, ideology and their relations with the state has proven to be a difficult
396 task for researchers, and as [Koltsova \(2006\)](#) notes due to the rapid and constant
397 changes in the Russian media market, these variables often remain a mystery
398 even to market actors. In order to eliminate as many coding inaccuracies as
399 possible, we have consulted a range of sources including: web-pages of the stud-
400 ied newspapers, publicly available databases (e.g. [media-atlas.ru](#), [mediageo.ru](#))
401 and relevant literature sources (e.g. [Nenashev 2010](#), [Strovskiy 2011](#), [Zassoursky](#)
402 [2004](#)). To account for national level variables which may influence newspaper
403 coverage of climate change, we control for consumer prices and the occurrence
404 of extreme temperature, drought and storm events. A list of the variables along
405 with their levels and descriptions are presented in Table 2.

406 4.3. Statistical methods

407 The next challenge is finding a suitable statistical model to examine variation
408 in climate coverage as a function of key covariates. We assume that decisions
409 regarding climate coverage result from a mixture of two random processes: news-
410 papers first decide whether to discuss the issue of climate change at a given point
411 in time and next decide how much coverage to devote to a particular theme.
412 More specifically, we model climate coverage using a mixture of a Bernoulli
413 distribution for the decision to cover the issue *at all* and a beta distribution
414 to represent coverage *intensity* (see the appendix for technical details). While a
415 Bernoulli-beta mixture model offers a flexible approach to examining the skewed
416 and zero-inflated proportions that are typical in our data, the standard setup
417 ignores the clustering produced by examining a cross-section of newspapers over
418 time. We thus extend the standard model to include random effects for both

Variable Label	Levels	Description
Ownership structure	Business	Ownership structure is dominated by the business organisations with interests outside of the media market
	State	Predominately state-owned newspapers
	Journalist collective	Predominately owned by people with main interests in the media market
Energy	Political party	Owned by oppositional political parties
	Yes	Owners have interests in energy sector
Political spectrum	No	No obvious connection with energy sector
	Left	Supports or advocates socialist/communist ideas
	Centre	Supports or advocates ideas of political and economic stability, and traditional values
Kremlin affiliation	Right	Supports or advocates ideas of capitalism and liberalism
	Pro-Kremlin	Non-state owned paper supports government in power
	Independent	No obvious support for the government in power from non-state owned paper
Inflation	<i>Mean</i> = 11.78 <i>SD</i> = 5.04	Average quarterly consumer prices (all items), percentage change on the same period of the previous year (OECD 2016).
Disasters	<i>Mean</i> = 0.67 <i>SD</i> = 1.00	Quarterly counts of extreme temperature, drought and storm events (Guha-Sapir et al. 2015).

Table 2: *National and newspaper-level variables and descriptions.* Note: The identification of the Russian political spectrum is a complex task, as notions of the political “right”, “centre” and “left” have been altered and even swapped over time (see more in Simonsen 2001). In this article we have adopted the most common interpretation of the concepts. Summary statistics and descriptions are also presented for *Inflation* and *Disasters*.

419 the newspaper ($n = 23$ papers) and time ($t = 58$ quarters). All of the models
420 presented below are estimated using a fully Bayesian approach (see the appendix
421 for additional details).

422 4.4. Results

423 We begin with the first step in the data generating process by examining the
424 factors that influence whether or not a paper covers climate change at all in a
425 particular quarter. Figure 2 provides estimates from a logistic regression for the
426 decision to cover the climate issue, where the outcome is equal to 1 if a paper
427 mentions climate change in a given quarter and zero otherwise. The figure plots
428 the estimated coefficients (log odds) for each variable of interest based on the
429 median posterior value, while also providing 90% credible intervals. To ease the
430 interpretation, we set the baseline category to the group expected, *a priori*, to
431 have the most overall coverage of climate change based on the past scholarship:
432 left-leaning papers, owned by journalists, without a direct energy interest, and
433 not beholden to the Kremlin (Poberezhskaya 2015). The results generally fit with
434 expectations. The overall state of the economy—as measured by inflation—has
435 the largest overall influence on the probability of covering the climate issue. Not
436 surprisingly, when times are tough economically, climate change is less likely
437 to appear in the news agenda: moving inflation from its minimum to maximum
438 value—while fixing all other variables at constant values—leads to a 0.10 decline

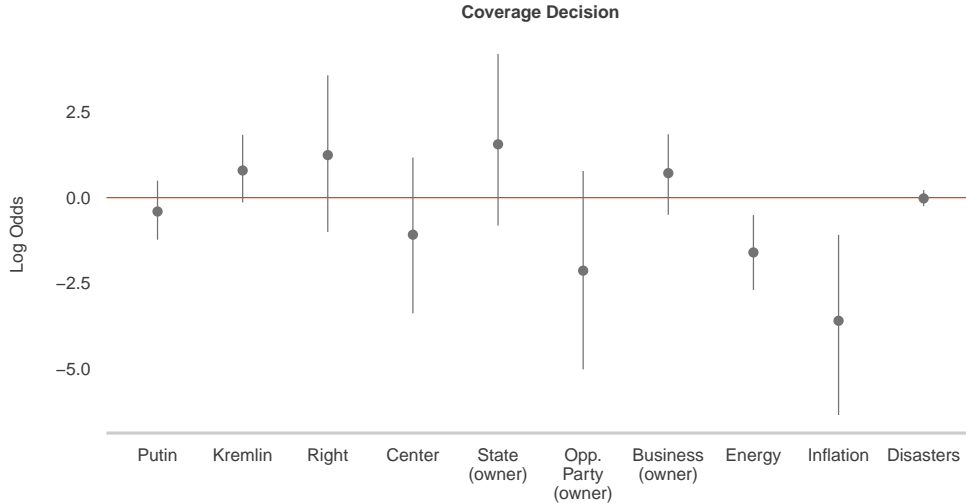


Figure 2: *Explaining variation of any mention of climate change.* Dots represent parameter estimates based on the posterior median; lines provide the 90% highest density intervals. The baseline represents the newspaper profile expected to cover climate change most frequently: left leaning, journalist-owned newspapers, with no direct energy interest, and not affiliated with the Kremlin. The estimated coefficient for the intercept (not shown) is 5.7 (HDI = [2.8, 8.5]).

439 in the probability of covering climate change. This level of change, however,
 440 represents a considerable swing in economic conditions and, for more moderate
 441 changes (e.g., from the 1st to the 3rd quartile of inflation), inflation leads to a
 442 roughly 1% decline in discussing climate-related issues. Energy ownership also
 443 reduces the propensity of a newspaper to report on climate-related issues, with
 444 the likelihood of covering climate change again falling by roughly 1% for papers
 445 owned by an energy company. Lastly, opposition party papers are approximately
 446 2% less likely to mention climate change at all—though, this estimate is quite
 447 uncertain. We do not find a significant difference in the likelihood of climate
 448 change coverage between Putin or Medvedev presidential periods. Further, we
 449 do not find a significant conditional relationship between presidential period
 450 and state-owned or Kremlin-loyal papers on the probability of covering climate
 451 change (not shown).

452 Examining mentions alone, however, offers little insight into *how* climate
 453 change is being covered in the Russian press. That is, if a paper decides to cover
 454 the climate issue, in what context do they do so? To examine this question,
 455 we use the relative measure of coverage intensity introduced in Section 4.1 and
 456 the mixed effects zero-inflated beta model outlined in Section 4.3. We begin

457 with two central features of climate change communication—reporting on *cli-*
458 *mate science & impacts*. As demonstrated in Figure 3, we find support for the
459 impact of national-level variables on coverage of climate science in the Russian
460 press. Specifically, we find that if a paper covers climate change during times of
461 high inflation, the discussion is less likely to be framed around climate science
462 (log-odds = -1.03, CI = [-1.96, -0.26]). Moving inflation from one standard de-
463 viation above to one standard deviation below the mean leads to around an 8%
464 decline in the likelihood of emphasizing climate science and impacts. Conversely,
465 during periods with high instances of natural disaster, coverage is more likely
466 to emphasize scientific discussion (log-odds = 0.07, CI = [0.02, 0.13]). Here,
467 moving from no extreme weather events to 4 extreme weather events (i.e., the
468 maximum), increases the likelihood of framing discussion in terms of climate
469 science and impacts by roughly 7%. There does not seem to be a substantive
470 presidential effect on how newspapers discuss *climate science & impacts*. Fur-
471 ther, by and large, there is little evidence for newspaper-level effects. There are,
472 however, several exceptions: right-leaning (log-odds = -0.22, CI = [-0.64, 0.18])
473 and opposition party papers (log-odds = -0.40, CI = [-0.93, 0.11]) are generally
474 less likely to emphasize science, while state-owned newspapers are more likely
475 to focus on science-related issues (log-odds = 0.30, CI = [-0.10, 0.72])—though,
476 again, uncertainty remains relatively high for these estimates.

477 Next, we move beyond science to issues associated with the political econ-
478 omy of climate change in Russia. Figure 3 provides estimates for our aggregate
479 measure of *geopolitics*. As shown in the figure, both paper-level and national-
480 level factors seem to play a role in the level of climate-related discussion devoted
481 to geopolitical issues. Considering paper-level variables, energy ownership in-
482 fluences discussion of *geopolitics*, yet papers with energy interests are only less
483 than 1% more likely to cover climate change in the context of international rela-
484 tions. Oppositional party papers are also more likely to frame climate coverage
485 in the context of security concerns and international competition over the Arc-
486 tic region (log-odds = 0.52, CI = [0.07, 0.97]). To a lesser extent, right-leaning
487 and state-owned papers are more likely to cover climate change in the context
488 of *geopolitics*—though, there is still a fair level of uncertainty associated with
489 both estimates. And we continue to find evidence for the influence of economic
490 conditions; when inflation is high, papers are more likely to frame the climate
491 change debate in terms of geopolitical competition. Further, when disaggregat-
492 ing *geopolitics* into *international security* and *arctic politics* (not shown), we find
493 that security is largely responsible for driving geopolitical frames. That is, the
494 effects of energy and opposition party ownership as well as inflation are stronger
495 when focusing on *international security* alone. There does seem to be a marginal
496 presidential effect. Specifically, we find that during a Putin presidency, papers
497 are less likely (log-odds = -0.15, CI = [-0.31, -0.01]) to discuss climate change in
498 the context of *geopolitics*, however the effect is quite small: newspapers under a
499 Putin presidency are only 0.4% less likely to frame global warming in terms of
500 geopolitical concerns.

501 The analysis next shifts to climate change discussions in the context of *in-*

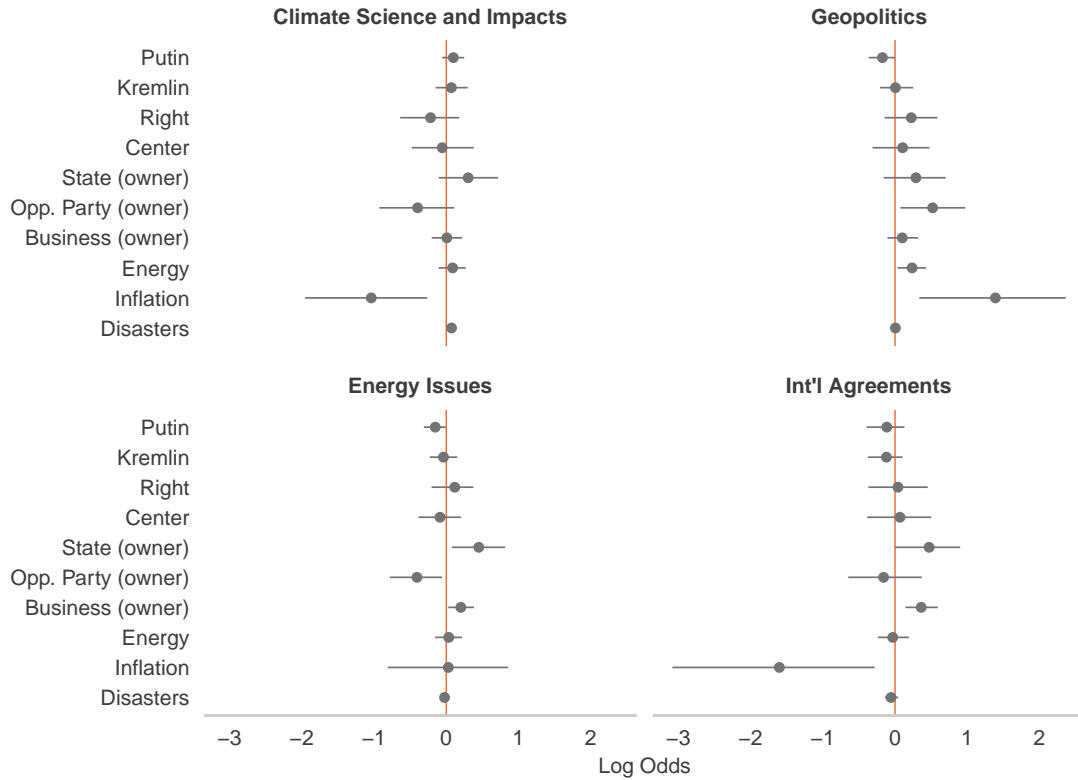


Figure 3: Coverage of specific climate-related issues. Dots represent the parameter estimates (posterior medians) from the zero-inflated beta regression model described in Section 4.3, and the lines once again represent the 90% HDI. We employ the same baseline as Figure 2 above and thus compare to a “high frequency” newspaper profile. The estimated intercepts (not shown) are as follows: climate science and impacts (-0.59, [-1.55, 0.32]), geopolitics (-4.55, [-5.68, -3.48]), energy issues (-3.46, [-4.42, -2.60]), and international agreements (-2.22, [-3.74, -0.74]).

502 *ternational climate agreements.* Again, economic hardship, as measured by in-
 503 *flation*, has a negative impact on newspaper attention to climate change nego-
 504 *tiations* (log-odds = -1.60, CI = [-3.08, -0.28]). For instance, moving inflation
 505 from one standard deviation below its mean to one standard deviation above, de-
 506 creases discussion on global warming negotiations by roughly 4%. With respect
 507 to newspaper-level variables, the results suggest that state- (log-odds = 0.47, CI
 508 = [0.0001, 0.90]) and business-owned newspapers (log-odds = 0.36, CI = [0.14,
 509 0.59]) are more likely to frame global warming along the lines of climate diplo-
 510 *macy.* Substantively, government ownership is associated with an approximate

511 5% increase in discussion, while business group ownership leads to a roughly 4%
512 increase.

513 Lastly, we examine the extent to which newspapers frame climate coverage
514 in terms of *energy issues*. Not surprisingly, business-owned newspapers are more
515 likely to emphasize climate change in the context of energy issues (log-odds =
516 0.20, CI = [0.03, 0.39]). Yet, the strongest newspaper-level effects are observed
517 for state-owned (log-odds = 0.45, CI = [0.08, 0.82]) and opposition party papers
518 (log-odds = -0.40, CI = [-0.78, -0.06]). State-owned papers are approximately 2%
519 more likely to highlight energy issues when covering global warming, while op-
520 position party papers are 2% less likely to do so. When digging a bit deeper into
521 these estimates, we find that attention devoted to *renewable energy* and *energy*
522 *efficiency* play a particularly influential role. While we observe weak differences
523 across papers for *non-renewable energy*, business- and state-owned papers have
524 a strong positive influence on the likelihood of framing climate change in terms
525 of “energy solutions,” while opposition party outlets generally avoid discussion
526 of these issues. We also find a negative effect of a Putin presidency on discus-
527 sions of climate change with respect to energy issues (log-odds = -0.17, CI =
528 [-0.36, -0.002]). However, yet again, this effect is substantively small: newspa-
529 pers during a Putin presidency are 0.2% less likely to discuss climate change in
530 the context of energy.

531 5. Discussion

532 Newspaper attention to climate change has risen steadily ever since the issue
533 was identified as an international problem. A key question for both scholars
534 of climate communication and Russian politics centers on the similarities and
535 differences of Russian media coverage to other major actors in climate politics.
536 We start by considering overall trends in coverage of the issue. [Boykoff et al.](#)
537 [\(2015\)](#) demonstrates how interest by the global press increased rapidly starting
538 in late 2006 and remained high for the following few years (see also [Schmidt et al.](#)
539 [2013](#)). This increase coincided with important events such as the release of the
540 IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4), the release of Al Gore’s *An Inconvenient*
541 *Truth*, and the awarding of the Nobel Peace Prize to Al Gore and the IPCC.
542 There is another pronounced spike in attention in late 2009 that was triggered by
543 the Copenhagen Conference (COP-15) on climate change and the “Climategate”
544 scandal that preceded it. Our data suggest that Russian newspaper attention
545 generally followed this pattern and, in particular, we find noticeable similarities
546 between Russian coverage and that of the U.S. prestige press (see Figure 1). Yet,
547 although the general trends are similar, there are several key differences. First,
548 and perhaps most importantly, our analysis confirms that Russian newspaper
549 coverage of climate change is relatively low in absolute terms ([Poberezhskaya](#)
550 [2015](#)). As demonstrated in Figure 1, a single major American newspaper (*The*
551 *New York Times*) has published more articles on climate change than 23 of
552 the most widely circulated papers in Russia. This low level of media attention
553 may offer an explanation of why, when compared to 40 developing and developed

554 nations, Russians are the *most likely* to report that “global climate change is not
555 a serious problem” (Stokes et al. 2015). Second, while it seems that international
556 media have picked up their interest in climate change in recent years and it has
557 again acquired “celebrity status” (Pepermans and Maesele 2014 p. 217; see
558 also Fischer 2015), we find that Russian newspaper coverage has been steadily
559 decreasing since 2010, with a pronounced drop starting in late 2013. This decline
560 in coverage, moreover, corresponds to an increase in media attention associated
561 with the Russian economic crisis and the onset of the security crisis in Ukraine.

562 Next, moving from trends in general attention to the correlates Russian cli-
563 mate coverage, we find that the state of the economy is crucial for predicting
564 both whether climate change makes onto the media agenda and the way in which
565 the issue is framed. When economic conditions are bad (as measured by high
566 inflation), the media tend to avoid discussion of global warming and discuss cli-
567 mate change less in the context of science and international commitments, but
568 more with respect to geopolitical concerns. In other words, instead of portraying
569 climate change as an environmental problem, during hard times, the media will
570 present climate change as just another item of discussion in the international
571 arena, outlining opportunities which could be realized with a shift in global
572 climate conditions. The influence of the economy on climate change commu-
573 nication has been identified in other countries as well. For instance, Carvalho
574 (2005 , p. 21), in her analysis of the UK media points out how “free-market
575 capitalism and neo-liberalism” restrict climate public discourse by encouraging
576 the avoidance of problematic topics (e.g. restrictions of the economic growth in
577 order to mitigate the problem). Holt and Barkemeyer (2012) also find negative
578 effects of poor national economic performance on coverage of climate change in a
579 large comparative study of 112 newspapers from 39 countries. As such, our anal-
580 ysis provides additional evidence that economic conditions plays an important
581 role in governing the well-known “issue attention cycle” (Downs 1972).

582 Previous research also suggests that Russian media coverage of climate change
583 is sensitive to political factors (Poberezhskaya 2015). Interestingly, our study
584 provides little evidence of substantive variation in climate change coverage or
585 attention to various climate change related themes between different presiden-
586 tial administrations (Putin vs. Medvedev). Further, we do not find conditional
587 presidential administration effects on how state-owned newspapers or papers
588 that are loyal to the Kremlin discuss climate change. That is, newspapers that
589 are beholden to the government do not discuss global warming differently when
590 Putin or Medvedev are serving as President. Also, non-state-owned newspapers
591 that are loyal to the Kremlin do not seem to systematically differ from the base-
592 line case in their reporting of global warming. These results contribute to the
593 on-going academic debate on the role of the personality of the state leaders in
594 shaping climate discussion in Russia (Henry and Sundstrom 2012). The weak
595 evidence found in our study could be explained by the constant powerful impact
596 of Putin’s politics regardless of whether he is the Prime Minister or President.
597 On the other hand, as Andonova (2008) states, Russian climate policy cannot
598 simply be explained by the will of the executive but rather by a combination of

599 various political processes.

600 We also find a much weaker role for natural disasters in explaining variation in
601 coverage of global warming and framing of the issue by the Russian press. Our
602 results indicate that the occurrence of climate-related natural hazards, such
603 as extreme temperature, drought and storms, are associated with an increase
604 in discussions of climate science and climate impact. However, we find little
605 evidence of a disaster effect on overall coverage rates or discussion of energy,
606 geopolitics, or international climate negotiations. Given these findings, we might
607 speculate that natural disasters bring climate change to the realm of popular
608 scientific discourse by trying to explain events, providing advice or raising the
609 alarm of the observed (or possible) negative outcomes. This correlates with
610 Wilson Rowe’s (2013) argument that while Russian climate scientists rarely act
611 as “policy entrepreneurs” but rather concentrate on educating policy-makers
612 and the public by explaining the scientific side of the problem.

613 While national-level factors are predictive, paper-level characteristics also
614 play a role, with papers varying in how they frame the issue. In terms of news-
615 papers’ political affiliation and ownership, there is some evidence to suggest
616 that the media outlets on the political right are less likely to address climate
617 change in terms of science and impact. However, when such papers do discuss
618 climate science, they typically provide a rational account of anthropogenic cli-
619 mate change with descriptions of its cause and consequences. Newspapers on
620 the extreme political left and right bring into their discussion of climate science
621 sensationalism and in some cases governmental critique:

622 The region is not yet experiencing climatic difficulties, and its prob-
623 lems are due to the irrational management of agricultural production
624 and water waste (Pravda 9/01/2004)

625 On the other hand, newspapers of the political center express a range of views
626 on the issue. Moreover, when taking a closer look at the corpus—particularly
627 among state-owned papers—there are clear instances of climate scepticism. For
628 instance:

629 Global warming will soon finish (Rossiiskaia gazeta 19/09/2007)

630 Maybe the president’s advisor, Andrey Illarionov [an infamous Rus-
631 sian climate sceptic], is right in his stubborn resistance to the Kyoto
632 Protocol? (Rossiiskaia gazeta 31/08/2005)

633 This finding also correlates with the development of the state’s climate policy,
634 which until a few years ago was dominated by sceptical discourse. Newspapers
635 with connections to the energy sector mostly tend to look at the problem from
636 the position of international security which often involves discussion of Russian
637 energy interests. For instance, when surveying climate-related articles in our
638 corpus with a high probability of containing a topic related to geopolitics, we
639 found numerous discussions of global competition for the Arctic’s resources by
640 papers with energy interests:

641 Russia continues to strengthen its positions in the unavoidable divi-
642 sion of the Arctic [...] The Arctic shelf presumably contains up to
643 25 per cent of the world’s hydrocarbon reserves, and in connection
644 with global warming, the possibility of their extraction becomes real.
645 (Izvestiia 24/12/2008)

646 A similar pattern was detected with oppositional and right-wing newspapers also
647 being more likely to discuss climate change in relation to international relations.
648 However, these papers differ slightly in their approach, where the media outlets
649 from the political right provide a more straightforward account of the potential
650 losses and gains in the geopolitics of climate change. In contrast, newspapers
651 belonging to the extreme left and right tend to briefly mention climate change
652 in their elaborate analyses of global politics:

653 Today Anglophone plans are implemented under the guise of a state-
654 less “globalization” and ultra-Malthusian scam called “global warm-
655 ing,” pushed by former US Vice President Al Gore’ (Zavtra 18/4/2007)

656 Our study also demonstrates that ownership structures impact the way Rus-
657 sian newspapers approach energy-related topics, with business-owned and state-
658 owned papers not only mentioning climate change within energy discussions
659 more often, but also paying greater attention to “energy solutions” (e.g., renew-
660 ables and energy efficiency). *Izvestiia*, for example, has pointed to American
661 excess when discussing how, “until recently uneconomical and environmentally
662 ‘dirty’ cars were the most popular choice among American consumers” (Izvestiia
663 13/02/2004). Business owned papers were likely to express an interest in energy
664 conservation as well:

665 The country has a long-term commitment to provide energy for ex-
666 port. It is currently almost the only real means of Russia’s political
667 influence [...] Therefore, Russia has to seriously think about a more
668 rational use of its energy resources, as well as of the use of energy-
669 saving technologies’ (Kommersant 19/10/2005).

670 A similar pattern was noticed in how these types of newspapers tackle the topic of
671 international environmental agreements by strategically assessing Russia’s gains
672 and losses from the process:

673 Russia needs to fit into a new global climate order. While Russia does
674 not persevere in promoting their GHG emission reduction projects, in
675 April 2009 a new US administration has claimed its global leadership
676 in the fight to preserve the environment and to development the ideas
677 of global “climate control” (Rossiiskaia gazeta 6/05/2009).

678 Our data also show how media coverage is influenced by similar considerations as
679 the Russian state’s climate policy. Interest in the issue began to “take off” after
680 policy makers began to consider mitigation efforts for their potential benefits to
681 the country (e.g. introducing renewables into the national market in order to

682 increase fossil fuel exports , reducing energy costs, attracting investments, etc.).
683 Though this approach may be seen as “green washing,” in the Russian case, it
684 offers a tangible—and even optimal—solution for attracting the interest of the
685 state. Moreover, this approach allows for increased attention without causing a
686 political confrontation among key stakeholders by demanding economic sacrifice
687 and allocating blame for over-reliance on the fossil fuel industry.

688 6. Conclusion

689 This study offers a systematic and comprehensive analysis of Russian news-
690 paper coverage and discussion of climate change since the end of the Yeltsin era.
691 Employing methods from machine learning and natural language processing, we
692 have been able to classify a large set of climate-relevant newspaper articles into
693 distinct themes related to global warming. Using a sub-sample from these data,
694 we investigate whether a set of national and newspaper-level factors help ex-
695 plain variation in Russian newspaper coverage of climate change as well as how
696 newspapers frame the issue over the period 2000-2014. Overall, our analysis
697 has helped us to understand *when* climate change is more or less likely to enter
698 Russian public discourse (the first level of the agenda-setting function of mass
699 media (McCombs and Shaw 1972), and *how* newspapers cover climate change
700 during its peaks and lows of attention (the second level of media agenda-setting
701 function (ibid)). We find that national level factors such as the state of the
702 economy are highly predictive of coverage, while paper-level indicators are less
703 consistently related to changes in the media discourse.

704 While the current study focuses on the issue of climate change, our empirical
705 findings raise broader questions on the political economy of media production in
706 Russia. First, it is clear from our analysis that economic considerations—general
707 economic conditions and energy interests—play a vital role in what the media
708 choose to present. Second, it is striking just *how little variation* one observes
709 across newspapers with very different underlying ideologies and ownership struc-
710 tures. These findings, moreover, are at odds with scholarship based on West-
711 ern countries—primarily in the US and UK—which suggests that the ideological
712 predispositions of media outlets significantly influence which issues are discussed
713 and how these issues are framed (for ideology and climate change coverage, see
714 for instance Carvalho 2007, Schmid-Petri et al. 2015), though there is evidence
715 that Dutch newspapers are also not affected by ideological disposition on the
716 issue of climate change (Dirikx and Gelders 2010). Similarly, changes at the ex-
717 ecutive level—from an arguably skeptical Putin to the environmentally-minded
718 Medvedev—did not appear to systematically alter how the media covered climate
719 change. And though speculative, the consistency of coverage across (seemingly)
720 diverse media outlets underscores the challenge of getting the issue of climate
721 change onto the political agenda and perhaps offers an observable implication
722 of wider changes in the Russian media market, which has become increasingly
723 centralized and controlled over the last decade (Lehtisaari 2015). While it is
724 difficult to know the extent to which these findings generalize to other political

725 issues, the analysis does raise questions regarding how media operate in Russia
726 and the ways in which corporate elite influence the media landscape.

727 The study does, however, have a number of limitations. First, our analysis
728 does not consider the sentiment and tone of the newspaper articles. For instance,
729 when a paper is discussing climate science, we cannot determine whether the
730 author is being skeptical or dismissive. This is an important drawback which
731 should be addressed in future work. Second, the study relies exclusively on
732 print media, while not including television, radio, and online media, which might
733 present a more complete picture of climate discourse in Russia. Lastly, due to
734 data availability, we were forced to exclude newspaper articles from the Yeltsin
735 era. We, therefore, are not able to generalize our findings on newspaper coverage
736 to the 1990s.

737 Nevertheless, our results offer a number of valuable insights into climate
738 change communication in Russia. During the Paris COP-21 meeting in Septem-
739 ber 2015, President Putin re-affirmed Russia's pledge to contribute to the global
740 fight against climate change through further GHG reductions. Some have thought
741 that Putin could have been more ambitious in his claim since a reduction of 25-
742 30% in GHG emissions to the 1990 level will not revolutionize Russia's energy
743 market. On the other hand, considering Russia's ambiguous history of climate
744 change policy, any move forward should be treated as a positive development
745 where the interested parties (climatologists, environmental activists and the in-
746 ternational community) should not only understand all of the intricacies of Rus-
747 sian climate discourse but should also learn how Russian media can be utilized
748 in order to popularize climate-related discussions. In other words, focus should
749 be shifted to when climate is more likely to receive attention from the Russian
750 media and how it can be framed in order to involve various media actors re-
751 gardless of their ownership structure, energy interests and political affiliation.
752 It is our belief that this study makes a substantial contribution in this regard
753 and can also be utilized as a platform for further inquiries into Russian public
754 discourse of climate change-related topics.

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