KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE OF DIGITAL SAFETY AMONG JOURNALISTS IN KANO STATE

BY

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF MASS COMMUNICATION, FACULTY OF COMMUNICATION, BAYERO UNIVERSITY KANO. IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF SCIENCE (Msc) IN MASS COMMUNICATION

FEBRUARY, 2020.

DECLARATION

I, Ummahani Jadeshola Aroyehun, hereby declare that this work emerged out of my own wholesome effort under the supervision of Dr. Usman I Abubakar. To the best of my knowledge, this work has not been presented anywhere for the award of a degree or any kind of academic certificate before now. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

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CERTIFICATION

This research work entitled; *Knowledge and Practice of Digital Safety among Journalists in Kano State* by Ummahani Jadeshola Aroyehun with the Reg no. SPS/16/ MMC/00020 meets with the standard governing the award of the degree of Master of science (M.sc) in Mass communication of Bayero University Kano, and is approved by the supervisor, Dr. Usman I Abubakar for its contribution to knowledge.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Finally, I am thankful to all my lecturers in the Department, as you all have ingrained in me the seed of knowledge, discipline and research. I am ever grateful to all your contributions. Thank you and God bless.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents, darling mother Kudirat Aroyehun, to my ever lively father, Tajuddeen Aroyehun and all those who have been supportive and impactful to the essence of my existence with or without my knowledge.

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Abstract

This study examined the issue of knowledge and practice of digital safety among journalists in Kano state. Journalism is a long established profession prevalent in the vast majority of the world. The emergence of new technology has altered the course of journalism and has made it as objects of trust and as it moves into the digital space, it will continue to benefit from expanding access to information, audiences and publishing tools that new technology offers. Despite its benefits, it is not without its attendant challenges. As lines increasingly blur between online and offline activities, journalists in today's digital environment daily face threats ranging from online intimidation to death. The study employed the knowledge-gap theory and the technological-determinism theory. The study also adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods of data gathering. It used survey methodology using reliable structured questionnaires through simple random sampling technique, data were solicited from 248 respondents and an in-depth interview was conducted with the purposive sampled editors and analyzed using statistical package for the social science (SPSS). Findings revealed that most of the journalists studied were aware of digital safety; digital threats, and have fair knowledge on digital safety strategies. Although were not aware of the advanced digital safety strategies. Most practice to a certain extent. The study indicated that journalists in Kano state, in ensuring their digital safety appear to be vulnerable and tend to use the basic safety strategies of strong password and anti-virus software as their major digital safety tools. Therefore, the study suggests that there is the need for more training, awareness and digital education for journalists.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the study

The issue of safety of journalists has been of major concern around the World and has generated great momentum to practitioners, intellectuals, policy makers, civil societies, international organizations, agencies as well as different stakeholders in the media industry. This has prompted the United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (UNESCO) to develop modalities, mechanisms, and safety framework for journalists around the globe which was vividly captured in Windhoek's 1991 declaration (Berger, 2017). However, base on this declaration by Windhoek's 1991 declaration, UNESCO report on UN Plan of action recognizes that safety of journalists is an issue both offline and online. (Berger,& Pöyhtäri, in UNESCO, 2015).

As such, these international organizations especially UN and UNESCO have adopted a Multi-stakeholders and holistic approach in trying to address the issues through combating impunity which has been the major threat to journalism.

There has for long been a wide recognition of the media's contribution and its significant role in man's life. It acts as a disseminator of information and a channel of communication between people in the society. The media as an institution educates people by providing wealth of information related to socio-cultural and politico-economic aspect of the society. It is entrusted with the task of educating the people about rights and creating awareness on various issues and problems concerning the society. However, journalists are charged with this enormous role and responsibility through the media in reporting issues that are socially, politically, economically and culturally inclined which are of public interest including government policies that have contributed to the revitalization of the public sphere, where

people make informed decisions. For these reasons, intimidation, confrontation and violence against journalists are been executed in a way to silence and prevent journalists from reporting such information (www.osce.org/fom). This has posed many safety challenges to various journalists including those on a daily basis, who interface with different technological devices. Hence, there are different dimensions to the issues of safety of journalists. It is of public concern that journalists exposed to digitally interfaced activities are susceptible to attacks.

However, in recent decades, new technology has changed the course of journalism, as it moves into the digital space; it will continue to benefit from expanding access to information, audiences, and publishing tools that new technology offers (Getachew, in Henrichsen, Betz, &Lisosky,2015). Journalism is developed through human interaction, yet it is often generated, processed and disseminated through electronic means-particularly digital. In today's global multimedia environment, journalism can be practiced in a multi-million dollar newsroom. Wherever it takes place, journalism often involves enormous risk to journalists and their sources, particularly where its output challenges power or brings to light information that other actors seeks to conceal. Those who practice journalism may get attacks because of informing and educating its audience, and it is because of this role that they also particularly merit protection (Henrichsen, 2015). They need to be safe and free to provide opportunities for the expression of opinions and information, monitor, and shed light on government and corporate operations and encourage accountability.

Digital safety remains a pressing concern, as arbitrary surveillance becomes increasingly widespread across all regions, putting both journalists and their sources at risk and encouraging self-censorship. But, can also make it safer through the need for digital security tools that will help to minimize the dangers as digital surveillance increases (CIMA, 2016).

Furthermore, technological innovations have made it easier than ever to engage in newsgathering and content dissemination. As of December 2013, almost 40 % of the World was online (although this connectivity was substantially higher in developed World) and there were 96 mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 people. Today, anyone producing journalism can face risks (Henrichsen, Betz,& Lisosky, 2015, p.10). Though, the safety of journalists has been of major concern of several multi-stakeholders; the States, Human Rights Groups, International organizations such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ), the African Union (AU), the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, the Council of Europe, the European Union, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ), Reporters without Borders (RSF), International Freedom of Expression Exchange (IFEX), Inter-American Press Association (IAP), etc. However, concerted efforts by these stakeholders were prompted by the rise of attacks, intimidations, violence and by extension deaths of various media actors (UN General Assembly report, 2015; INSI, 2014; IFJ, 2013).

Journalists have been attacked whilst reporting on collusion between criminals and government officials and they have been targeted while pursuing crime or corruption stories during times of both peace and war (INSI Report, 2014). In fact, there are even cases of outright murder in which journalists or their sources have been targeted. More than 800 journalists, media workers and social media producers have been killed during the past ten years. Among those killed journalists, during the past two years 59% were killed in war zones, and 41 % were killed out-side armed conflict areas (UNESCO 2014, UNESCO in Cottle, 2017). According to Henrichsen, Betz and Lisosky (2015), from 2011-2013, 37 of the 276 journalists killed did Internet-based work and used digital tools. The Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) (2015) similarly stated that 44% of the 70 journalists recorded killed

in 2013 worked for online media platforms and accounted for half (106) of the journalists imprisoned in 2013.The IJF report of 2015 showed that, at least 2297 killings of journalists and media professionals and targeted assassinations, cross fire incidents and bomb attacks was recorded from 1990 to 2015, while OSCE report revealed that more than 800 journalists have been killed worldwide since 2005, most of them intentionally or in the line of duty. According to Cottle (2017), almost up to 50% of journalists in the Nordic region have experienced online hatred and verbal abuse, including serious death threats. However, the technological-perspectives is implicit in the view of the former UN special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of the right to freedom of opinion and expression – Frank La Rue: "Journalists are individuals who observe and describe events, documents and analyze, events, statements, policies and any propositions that can affect the society; with the purpose of systematizing such information and gathering…..Facts and analyses to inform sector of the society".(Henrichsen, Betz & Lisosky ,2015),

Moreover, it is recognized that, irrespective of technology, not all media actors who produce or   contribute in a systematized way to journalism do so to the same extent as those individuals who engage in newsgathering activities (Henrichsen, Betz, & Lisosky, 2015, p.13). This conception corresponds with the UN plan of action on the safety of journalist and issue of impunity "which states that the protection of journalists should not be limited to those formally recognized as online journalist (working for online version of the mainstream media), but should cover other media actors too." (UNESCO 2016 in Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017).

The Internet is becoming the dominant force in the information world, transforming the ways in which information is aggregated, stored, searched, and retrieved. In addition, Campbell, Martin, and Fabos (2009:8) noted that the Internet is facilitating the convergence of media forms, the process whereby old and new media are available via the integration of personal

computers and high-speed satellite based phone or cable links. Moreover, the Internet is a pathway for information sharing and a virtual meeting square where individuals can provide contrary information and views, debate key issues, and associate with each other, offering the opportunity for people to realize the right to freedom of expression and association like no other time in history. Newsgathering and information dissemination can often overlap with social media, as well as blogs and mobile phone communications. The activities can be done by both professional journalists and untrained citizens who nevertheless produce journalistic content. These latter media actors serve as increasingly vital sources of information as new platforms and tools allow them to produce content in an unprecedented way, and to engage with the output of more traditional journalism on a range of platforms (Henrichsen, Betz, & Lisosky, 2015 p.13).

As more actors take up the mantle of participating in journalism and contribute to informing public opinion, they also become subjects of interest to actors wishing to control the flow of information. According to a report on the safety of journalists from the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights in July 2013 'As the number of online journalists has increased, so have attacks against them, such as illegal hacking of their accounts, monitoring of their online activities, arbitrary arrest and detention, and the blocking of websites that contain information critical of authorities.' (Henrichsen, Betz, & Lisosky, 2015 p.14).

According to the Committee to Protect Journalists' East Africa representative Tom Rhodes: "The levels of threats against press increases every year … as government authorities among other actors are looking more closely at the impact of online media. Besides receiving threats online, many are tracked down via mobile phone networks and threatened further via their phone lines. We also have cases of online journalists/commentators being killed. It is becoming just as dangerous, if not more dangerous given the impact of online media, for

journalists who work for online media outlets as it is for other mediums such as print and radio".(Henrichsen, Betz & Lisosky 2015),

 Moreover, the internet also provides the pathway for journalists and other actors doing journalism with digital technologies to face several ranges of digital challenges and dangers, which sometimes contribute to the hostile environment they face in the physical world. According to the Committee to Protect Journalists, 44 per cent of the 70 journalists they recorded as killed in 2013 were journalists who worked for online media platforms. Meanwhile, such 'online journalists' accounted for half, 106, of the prisoners CPJ recorded as imprisoned in 2013(CPJ, 2015) However, dangers face not only those who publish online. They apply to all actors whose journalistic activities interface with electronic technology, whether through their use of computers to process information, their utilization of telecoms or the Internet for news gathering and research, or simply their reliance on email for communications   .

This is because almost every person connected to journalism today, uses the internet and telecoms to one extent or another, even if their output is published or broadcast offline. Therefore, digital safety is a matter of generic relevance. (UNESCO, 2016 in Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017). It is at this point that this study aims to find out the kind of digital threats facing journalists, whose use of digital communication for journalism may expose them to dangers and also to find out the level of awareness of digital safety issues among journalists in Kano State.

Safety of journalists can be classified into 10 major categories of issues according to the UNESCO research agenda which include: (1) Right-based issues; (2) Psychological issues; (3) Economic issues; (4) Digital issues; (5) Conflict issues; (6) Educational issues; (7) Practitioner issues; (8) societal issues; (9) Legal issues and; (10) Thematic issues (UNESCO,

2015). This study adopts digital issues, since the focus of the study is on Digital Safety of Journalists.

1.2   Problem Statement

Journalists play a key role in societies; acting as a watchdog on the state and informing citizens about the decision that affect their everyday life. But journalists face a number of new threats that limit their ability to fulfill such roles. The impact on productivity and disruption of traditional journalism by digital technology raises clear risks for journalists. And these threats facing journalism are varied and swiftly evolving. However, the safety of journalist has taken a front burner in all discourse. Due to the increasingly dangerous developments on the media scene, it has become a preoccupation for several stakeholders in the industry. The underlining issue is that safety issues of journalists are in several dimensions and digital safety is no exception. This conception corresponds with the UN plan of action on the safety of journalist and issue of impunity "which states that the protection of journalists should not be limited to those formally recognized as online journalist (working for online version of the mainstream media), but should cover other media actors too." (UNESCO 2016 in Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017).New technology has changed the course of journalism, as it moves into the digital space, and the relationship between the public and journalism is ever changing. This is because digitalization is changing media as objects of trust and new forms are developing in proving their trustworthiness. For instance, there is more information about the journalists in their capacity as authors of articles and other write-ups as they often provide alongside basic and personal information about themselves. Therefore, which makes the recipients get considerably more information about the journalists and it is becoming easier to gain access to these people (Blobaum, 2014) despite its benefits, is not without its attendant challenges. As lines increasingly blur between online

and offline activities, journalists in today's digital environment daily face threats ranging from digital surveillance, hacking of data, disruptive attacks on websites and computer websites, online intimidation to death. Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, (2017) posit that most of the challenges been faced by journalists are as a result of the inadequate knowledge of safety issues and that knowledge is key, and without it journalists would not be able to adequately protect themselves from any kind of threats being exposed to. It is against this backdrop that, this study intends to find out the digital safety knowledge and practice among journalist in Kano State.

1.3   Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to understand the nature of digital challenges Journalists in Kano State are exposed to and if they are aware of the digitally safe mechanisms when interfacing with such technological devices. The study specifically seeks:

1. To investigate the level of knowledge about digital safety among journalists in Kano state.

2. To study the extent in which journalists in Kano state practice digital safety.

3. To identify the digital threats that journalists are exposed to in digital environment.

4. To identify the various digital safety security tools used by journalists in protecting themselves.

1.4   Research Questions

1. What is the level of knowledge about digital safety among journalists in Kano State?

2. To what extent do journalists in Kano state practice digital safety?

3. What are the digital threats that journalists are exposed to in digital environment?

4. What are the safety security tools used by journalists in protecting themselves?

1.5   Significance of the Study

Considering the importance of safety issues of journalists around the world, enhancing the practice of journalism and its performance at large has become imperative.

This study will help to contribute to the existing discussion of safety issues especially digital safety. This is possible for a study of this type as it is tailored to provide more awareness on protective safety mechanisms for journalists when interfacing with various technological devices.

This report will increase the understanding of the researcher about the threats inherent in the practice of journalism worldwide. The study will make the researcher knowledgeable of the kind of risks digitally associated with the profession.

This study also helps in providing an empirical data to subsequent researchers, taking into account that digital safety is relatively new among the various safety issues of journalists. It will also serve as a basis for further research in the area and also a basis for comparative analysis, when it comes to the adherence of digital safety mechanisms in other regions of the country.

1.6   Scope of the study

This study is concentrated solely on digital safety among journalists, which has to do with the technological dimension among the several aforementioned issues of safety. The scope is limited to the knowledge and practice of digital safety through finding out their level of awareness, threats and digital security tools associated to its practice i.e. if they do practice. The scope also is limited to registered journalists and selected editors in Kano State.

1.7   Limitations of the study

The major restriction to this study is that there are other journalists in the profession who are not registered with the NUJ and at the same time not editors. Also, another limitation to the study is that most of the respondents interviewed did not want to speak out about what had happened to them because of the kind of embarrassing statements used against them.

1.8   Operational Definitions of terms

1.**Knowledge**: Within the context of the study, knowledge refers to how much of the population of the study (the Journalists in Kano state, Nigeria) are aware of the benefits, threats, and how to practice safety digitally when it involves the use of any kind of technological devices. However, for the purpose of clarity, a continuum is categorized into levels. The levels include; No knowledge, Medium knowledge, Average and High knowledge. They are operationalized as such;

a. **No knowledge** – this within the context of the study explains a situation where the journalist is not aware.

b. **Medium knowledge** – this implies that the journalist knows or implies knowing about digital safety.

c. **Average knowledge** – this implies that the journalists know and could relate to other aspects of digital safety.

d. **High knowledge** – this implies knowing and even practicing digital safety by the journalist.

2. **Journalists:** In this context, implies any person that specializes in collecting, processing, writing and reporting information and disseminating news through media of mass communication and are registered with NUJ Kano State Chapter.

3. **Digital Safety**: This has to do with the ability of journalists taking the necessary precautions, preventive and protective measures in safeguarding his story, source and himself online.

4. **Practice:** This has to do with the application of the knowledge of digital safety.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections; the first part provides reviews of relevant and related literature on concepts, theoretical underpinning and empirical evidence as explicated by different scholars on the concept, issues, arguments and major concerns in the field of safety of journalists, technology and journalism, digital journalism, digital risks, threats and measures deployed by different media organizations and bodies in ensuring the safety of journalists. This gives a picture of the whole research work. The relevant materials reviewed include all available research work, journals, articles, books, online materials and any other literature found relevant.

2.1   Conceptual framework

2.1.1   Evolution and development of media in Nigeria: Technological impact

Since inception, there is no doubt that politics has been one of the major forces driving the mass media industry in Nigeria. However, one cannot neglect the fact that the growth and development of the mass media industry in any society is driven by economics and technology. Media of communication have been a product of technology. No matter how primitive, human communication system always grapples with one form of technology or another. Before the invention of printing technologies such as the letterpress, linotype, lithography, offset lithography, desktop publishing and now digital publishing, human being in their caves, huts and settlements have always device means of communication (Bittner, 2005 & Hassan, 2013).

In Africa for example, songs, horns, flute, town crier etc have been used as form or means of communication. These according to Ugboajah (1985) can be attributed to oral media; they are systematically classified from idiophones, symbolography to aerophones, membranophone,

among others. The important point is that, the gongs, horns and flute were product of technical knowhow. No matter how primitive, it takes technology to smelting iron to produce the gong used by the town criers.

The Nigerian mass media have been described as a product of nationalist struggle (Oso, 2011, p. 2). While this is believed to certain extent, Omu (1978) on the other hand, opined that the missionary activities in West African coast, beginning from Freetown were actually the bedrock of media evolution in Nigeria. Tador (1996) however classifies the development of the Nigerian media into three phases as follows: The early press (1800-1920); Nationalist press (1929-1960); and contemporary press (1960-till date). In the opinion of Ogunsiji (1989), the history of the Nigerian media can be classified into four eras. These are the era of Missionary journalism (1846-1863), the era of alien-dominated press (1863-1914), the emergence of indigenous press (1914-1960) and the new era (1960-till date).

However, the way for the emergence of newspapers in Nigeria was paved by an Anglican Missionary, Rev. Henry Townsend who established the first newspaper, *Iwe Irohin*in 1859 at Abeokuta. His motives were a combination of religion, education, economic, social and cultural with a view to penetrate and influence the Yoruba speaking community of Nigeria with Christian religion. Other factors that later contributed to the evolution and growth of the press in Nigeria include the increased literacy level and the later consciousness of some African intellectuals whose awakened interests in social, political and economic matters fuelled a renewed zeal to contribute to national discourse through the mass media (Sobowale,1985).

The post-world war era between 1940 and 1960 was particularly significant in the history of the Nigerian press. Apart from the greater popularization of newspaper industry, as well as

the take-off of stronger and more vibrant media with increased nationalists' consciousness, the period also signified the advent of broadcast media in Nigeria.

Specifically, by 1957, the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation was initially established to serve the interest of the British Colonial government. However, its monopoly was broken in 1959 when the Western Nigeria Broadcasting Corporation commenced its commercial television and radio broadcasts in Ibadan (Akinfeleye, 2011). The other two regions, North and South East also followed by establishing their broadcast media in the early 1960s, with the creation of 12 states out of the three post-independent regions, licenses were issued to the new states to establish radio and television stations. The government monopoly of broadcasting was however, broken in 1992 when the National Broadcasting Commission was established under the military administration of Gen. Ibrahim Babangida. Licenses were issued to private individuals to own and run broadcast media.

The Nigerian press is 55years older than the amalgamated Nigeria in (1914) and it is 101 years older than the independent Nigeria in (1960). It has been there at every milestone in Nigeria's march towards independence; during the post-independent era, especially at the critical time of unification and sustenance of the nation during and after the civil war, (July, 1967- January, 1970); and during the different transitional periods from military rule to civilian (1966-1999) (Akinfeleye 2011).

Over the years, the media industry has witnessed tremendous progress in terms of expansion, coverage, technology, personnel and managerial capability. According to Ukonu (2006), the electronic press era is witnessing breath-taking improvements in the mode of message gathering, storage, retrieval, packaging and dissemination. The print media are also circulating at electronic speed through the satellite and computer-aided technologies thus making the entire world a global village. The usual pattern of small scale sole proprietorship

where the editor alone determines the outlook and editorial focus of the paper has given way for partnership in the running and management of the media (Azegbeni 2006). It is also worthy of note the spread of media houses due to improved literacy level, political awareness and perceived economic advantage of the media business which gave birth to more outfits across the six geo-political zones of Nigeria. Nigeria presently has a total number of 152 radio stations, 116 television stations, 40 cable stations, 143 newspapers and 25 magazines (Wogu 2006; Odeh, 2007).

2.1.1.1 The Digital Age
The competition going on between the print and broadcast media in the accumulation of market share is drastically forcing the two media platforms to improve. The print media have been forced to embrace new technologies to better present its products (newspapers/magazines), in order to survive the onslaught from the electronic media, as well as stand out from the pack of other newspapers houses. Aside from investing in automated web-offset machines that assure speed (to beat delivery time), newspaper companies are investing heavily in computer-to-plate technology (ctp), Dizard (2000, p 125) expresses that "… newspapers have been moving towards computerization of their internal operations. Newspaper production is now almost totally automated, from newsroom word processing to computerized delivery programs."

The print media industry has derived immense benefits from the Computer-to-plate. The ctp eliminates all the actions that used to be carried out like film exposure and stripping before imaging on the printing plates. The imaging in this case is done by software those images directly to the plates (Afolabi, 2015).

Awoga (n.d) explains that the Ctp technology which has been adopted by many newspaper houses makes excellent color reproduction a reality, even on newsprints. This has translated

into endless streams of income to these outfits through exposure of colorful and impactful press adverts. *Punch* Newspapers made the pioneer effort of introducing the use of CTP (computer-to-plate) in newspaper production in Nigeria in 2003.

Magazine publishers are not behind in the race of blending with the computer age. They are making the shift to new technologies in increasingly impressive ways with a view to improving their editorial contents as well as their revenue. One of the strong points of magazine is the high production quality. As Belch and Belch (2003, p. 398), put it, "one of the most valued attributes of magazine advertising is the reproduction quality of the ads. Magazines are generally printed on high-quality paper stock and use printing processes that provide excellent reproduction in black and white or color."

Afolabi (2011a) notes that the emergence of digitalized print operations in Nigeria has been a plus for the print media industry. To be specific, the introduction of Direct Imaging (DI) machine has changed the face of color reproduction in Nigeria. The top-class companies who, in their search for quality prints, had patronized foreign printing firms do not have to go that far again. Central to achieving this landmark is the deployment of the Computer Print Control (CPC) which has taken away the control and regulation of ink from the subjective judgment of the printing machine operator. The CPC popularly referred to as "the brain of the machine" takes over the tasks of ensuring the consistency of print, registration, etc. Consequently, the subjectivity of the printer's craft is replaced by the predictability of the machine.

Aside the computer-to-plate technology which is aided by desktop publishing, the print media in Nigeria –especially the newspaper- are moving online. The advent of the internet has transformed the print media organization into both online and offline media outlets. The migration of newspapers to the World Wide Web is a global trend which Nigeria has also follow suit. Readers demand is what moves the market as such, the newspapers are moving

online. Virtually all Nigerian national dailies have online version. The internet technology is still shaping and reshaping the operation of the print media.

2.1.1.2 Broadcasting

Radio broadcasting in Nigeria started in 1932 with the first Radio Distribution Service (re diffusion) which came into Lagos, as a means of distributing programs that originated from the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (Udeajah 2005). The purpose, as observed by Mackay cited by Udeajah (2005, p. 8) "was to develop some political culture and economic links between Britain and the English speaking countries". One of such stations was located in Lagos and turned out to be the "ears and the eyes" of both BBC and the British government. Content-wise, the programs broadcast in the colony "consisted of a mixture of selected BBC materials and some colonial government programs" (Udeajah 2005, p. 8). And between 1935 and 1950, the BBC monitoring station in Lagos was developed into an extensive Radio Distribution Service (RDS) to cater for more parts of Nigeria, particularly those that were identified as densely populated centers. The RDS was through subscription. The introduction of wireless broadcasting in 1951 showcased a turning point in the history of broadcasting in Nigeria (Udeajah 2005).

The history of Television in Nigeria followed the same pattern as that of the radio. While it was the Federal Government that started the first radio broadcasting station in the nation, the regional governments were the first to venture in T.V. broadcasting. It was on October 31, 1959 that the former Western Region produced and transmitted the first television signals in the whole of Nigeria and Africa (Ayotunde, 2012).

However, since inception, both radio and television in Nigeria are undergoing changes on daily basis courtesy of technological advancement. It has been work in progress. The Nigerian broadcast media are gradually waking to the operational challenges posed by

advanced technology. The old ways of doing things are being replaced with more sophisticated and advanced technologies. Working equipments such as midgets, cameras, microphones are being advanced. Audio and video editing has become easier with the computer assisted technology. The workforce and hour used in production has drastically reduced. Transmission power and quality have also changed. The reach of the broadcast media in Nigeria is far greater and the quality of reception has increased. The giant stride in the broadcast media in term of technology however is in the digital switchover.

Digitization is the current trend in broadcasting, both in Nigeria and the world at large. The International Telecommunication Union, ITU, set 2015 for the entire broadcasting stations in the world to go digital. Nigeria set 2012 for broadcast stations in the country to be digitized (Ihechu & Uche, 2012). The broadcast industry in Nigeria is undergoing transition from analogue to digital. Both government and private media outlets have acquired and have started broadcasting with modern digital equipments or facilities in order to enhance their performance or delivery rating among their listenership and viewership.

2.1.2 Overview of Technology and Journalism

Journalism has been undergoing dramatic changes as it adapts to and takes advantage of digital technologies and the new media, and they are having profound effect on all levels of the journalistic enterprise. The pace of these changes is quickening now, altering the practice of the journalism profession as never before. These changes encompass a wide range of activities from news gathering to dissemination and are bringing many benefits, but with attendant challenges. Journalism Conference in Dublin, Trench (1996:2) identified "several ways in which Information Technology touches on the practice of journalism, all of which have affected how journalists do their job". He posited that technology has led to the following direct input by reporters and from external agencies into the editorial system. The way reporters gather and disseminate news is changing. Internet is emerging as a medium of

mass communication. That brings in fresh competition to other media, even forcing changes in content. The emergence of Communication Technology has made it necessary for media establishments to make their presence felt on the net and technology has facilitated the creation of websites with social networking sites to complement them, while some smarter media organizations are also making use of blogs, to make their presence more pronounced. According to Amodu (2007), cited in Anaeto & Anaeto (2010), the unprecedented success of the Internet in most aspects of human endeavor, particularly e-commerce, has precipitated the incorporation of the same into the communication process. Also explaining the usefulness of the Internet in communication, Negroponte (1995) in Anaeto & Anaeto (2010) states that the fact that the Internet has the power to cut across social and geographic distance and help find new ways of facilitating the flow of information and knowledge makes it an especially attractive medium of communication. However, activities such as on-screen page make-up; electronic scanning and on-screen editing of photographs and graphics; development of in-house electronic libraries access to electronic information sources (Trench, 1996). Direct input and transmission of copy has been greatly enhanced by the availability of a network of high capacity digital telephone lines. This has allowed high speed, error-free transfer of all sorts of information across wide areas. Such information would include large quantities of text, photographic images and Computer programs, all of which may be sent from one side of the globe to the other in minutes. The recent combination of mobile telephones and laptop computers both have allowed the ultimate mobile office to offer reportage direct from the scene of news events, almost anywhere in the world. Other computer-based technology has caused a blurring of some traditional responsibilities in the workplace because element of the skills of some workers has been automated. Inexpensive desk-top publishing (DTP) systems have made available much of the skills of former print and design houses to many people with a personal computer and an eye for design. This ease of demarcation in the workplaces

have reduced substantial cost and offered a growing degree of flexibility and speed to operations (Trench, 1996).For each of these aforementioned activities, today's technology offers journalists a growing capacity to accomplish them with ever-increasing efficiency. Such technology is becoming increasingly more powerful and more affordable, by smaller media organizations.

2.1.3   Journalism and Journalists

Journalism thrives in a free environment. Freedom of expression is the bedrock of journalism practice and a hallmark in any democratic society. However, journalism practice requires more than general freedom; its distinction from gossip or propaganda or casual speech, necessitated the need for specialized freedom. Journalists operate to serve the public interest (Berger, 2017)

 Although, society has a particular stake in protecting those who produce journalism. The interconnectedness that the Internet and mobile technologies foster has enabled everyday citizens to participate in journalism by documenting local events or even researching and analyzing distant ones, and disseminating news and opinion around the world (Henrichsen, Betz, and Lisosky, 2015)

However, the question is who is a Journalist?

According to Oktavía Jónsdóttir in Henrichsen, Betz, and Lisosky, 2015, p.11, program director of the Securing Access to Free Expression (S.A.F.E.) Initiative at the International Research Exchanges Board (IREX): 'It's not about where you conduct your work, but the fact you engage in newsgathering activities.'11 This approach is similar to that of the Council of Europe in its Recommendation No. R (2000)7: 'The term 'journalist' means any natural or legal person who is regularly or professionally engaged in the collection and dissemination of information to the public via any means of mass communication.' It also parallels the United

Nations (UN) Human Rights Committee, which in 2011 defined journalism in its 12 general comment No. 34, as 'a function shared by a wide range of actors, including professional full-time reporters and analysts, as well as bloggers and others who engage in forms of self-publication in print, on the Internet or elsewhere' (para. 44).

Journalists are individuals dedicated to investigating, analyzing and disseminating information in a regular manner through any type of media, including electronic ones (Kārkliņš, 2012). These journalists report, investigate issues of public concern, speaking truth to power, investigating crime and corruption, holding governments to account and reporting from insecure contexts often carry risks of violent retaliation, harassment or arbitrary detention. As a result, virtual ways of censorship or attacks against their freedom of expression have emerged and is evolving also in the use of any technological means to disseminate information as an attempt to silence them.

2.1.4   Media freedom and Freedom of expression.

Since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948, media freedom and regulation has been an important area of research by scholars in the fields of communication and journalism, law, political science and theory. Researchers such as Siebert (1946) and Franklin, (1981) have investigated the underlying principles and justification of media freedom and regulation. The big question has been as to whether media can be regulated without violating freedoms provided for by various statutes and conventions. McQuail (2005 p. 166) for instance argues that media should be free from control by government and other powerful interests, sufficient to allow them to report and express freely and independently and to meet the needs of their audiences.

Article 19 of the UDHR, which guarantees freedom of expression and information through any media, has largely been used as the basis of various treaties and principles on freedom of

media. Consequently, states at the international level developed the Camden Principles on Freedom of Expression and Equality and the Geneva Joint Declaration on Freedom of Expression and Internet. At the African continental level, the Johannesburg Principles on National Security and Freedom of Expression was initiated.

Article 19 of the UDHR sets a solid foundation for freedom of expression and the media. It states: ―Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers (http://www.udhr.org/UDHR/udhr.HTM, accessed January 5, 2012).

Scholars and media practitioners such as Kovach and Rosenstiel, (2001) inform that the justification for freedom of media includes enabling journalists to act as watchdogs over the government and other influential people in society, thereby rendering the government more responsible and responsive to the needs of the people and the larger society. Free news media help to improve governments respect for human rights (Amnesty International 2006). Freedom of media is therefore a crucial component in improving the living standards of the citizenry because the news media provide a fundamental informational linkage between the public, elites, and governments. Free media help the public to make informed choices while at the same time they get correct information on the role of government, the public and the manner in which to develop themselves. Whitten-Woodring (2009) argues that freedom of speech and the ability to petition the government is more important to democracy than democratic institutions themselves. For instance in Nigeria, the media is relatively free. As stated in the 1999 constitution as amended, section 39 guarantee "freedom of expression and section 22 freedom of the media".

Since the adoption of the UDHR by the UN General Assembly on 10 December 1948, most states in the world have developed laws that regulate media. The debate, among scholars of media and communication, law and sociology has been whether media freedom should be limited so that they do not infringe on other people's equally fundamental rights. Even earlier, before the UDHR, classical scholars like John Stuart Mill (1859) examined the purpose of controlling speech and concluded that for purposes of protecting other people from harmful speech, there is a need to exercise restraint when communicating to audiences. This implies that speech that does harm to others require to be controlled. The liberty of the individual must be thus far limited if he or she makes himself or herself a nuisance to other people. Mill's argument that mankind are not infallible; that their truths, for the most part, are only half-truths; that unity of opinion, unless resulting from the fullest and freest comparison of opposite opinions, is not desirable, and diversity not an evil, but a good, explains why journalists need to balance the information they publish.

2.1.5 Digital Journalism

Online Journalism, also referred to as digital journalism, has influenced news access and choice (Deuze, 2001). It is a contemporary type of journalism in which editorial material is distributed through the internet differently, from traditional publishing on broadcast or print (Scott, 2005). This has enabled the speedy access and easy choice of informative, educative and entertaining news around the globe. The use of online newspapers has tremendously increased due to rapidness, timeliness, accessibility to their sites and the ability to select particular news to reach their technologically savvy audiences (Arango-Ferero & Roncallo-Dow, 2013).

Platforms such as Websites, Face book, Twitter, You Tube, Blogs and many other digital online platforms have opened up a new chapter to online journalism. According to Lacy and Simon (1993), online news goes beyond geographical boundaries to reach audiences at far

distances. Similarly, print media companies that have embraced online journalism are operating in dual geographic market, satisfying both the local and long distance audiences (Thurman, 2007).

Internet based digital journalism gives audiences an opportunity to focus on the news of their choice since these internet outlets such as websites and news blogs, are relatively specialized (Chaffee & Metzger, 2001). Some of these online news outlets offer products that are differentiated. The audiences' need for selected news items is a driving factor for digital media online selection. According to Singer (2001), different newspapers in the United States of America came up with different versions of news for online and print. Thus, a lot of sport and local news were increased online compared to national news that was more reserved for print (Barnhurst, 2002). By 1995 in the USA, there were barely 5% online news seekers; however, by 2002 that number went up to 35% (Siapera & Veglis, 2012). Online audiences for newspapers skyrocketed to a high peak totaling 179.3 million readers in 2015. The explosion in the interaction between the audiences and the digital newspaper material is due to the digital technology of mobile devices such as tablets and smart phones, leading to newspaper digital audiences growing as fast as those of the internet in the past 12 months of the year 2015 (Conaghan, 2015). Since Singer (1998), wrote about search engines in the United States of America, the most widely used popular websites initiated by traditional media outlets employees are the Matt Drudge, pseudonymous online scribe and the Wall Street Journal (Cohen, 2002).

However, tremendous transformation is now taking shape in the arena of journalism that could be the most important since the time of the Penny Press in the mid-19th Century (Pavlik, 2013). In the 21st Century we are witnessing a kind of journalism with characteristics such as high level of content specialization, ubiquitous news, worldwide news access, and speedy coverage of news, interactivity, multimediality and hypertextuality (Scott,

2005). Traditional media has been full of gatekeepers that choose relatively all news that they themselves think are worth reporting disregarding the needs, feelings and wishes of their audiences (White, 1950). Online journalism is a new phenomenon in the history of journalism, especially in African countries like Nigeria where the growth of internet is only a recent initiative. To a larger extent online journalism has redefined traditional journalism and its audience (Mabweazera, 2013). This is possible because technology enabled the practice of journalism on net.

2.1.6   Key factors in the process of Digital journalism.

a.   Digitalization and Trust

The Internet as noted several times influences the formation of trust. With reference to the example of media and journalism. It is evident that digitalization is changing the relationship between public and journalism and hence the relationship between trustor and trustee (Sambrook, 2012; Blobaum 2014). Recipients are comprehensively equipped with digital communication technologies. The average Internet use time in Germany in 2015 was 108 min per day (ARD/ZDF Onlinestudies 2015). A great many people are "permanently online" and "permanently connected" (Vorderer & Kohring 2013). Even in the digital world, news continues to be important. Data from the Digital News Report (Reuters Institute 2013) indicated that, in most of the participating countries, more than 80 % of respondents consumed news on a daily basis.

Digitalization is changing media as objects of trust. Online offerings are emerging alongside traditional mass media. Within the digital environment, media are developing new forms of proving their trustworthiness. This represents a major challenge for journalism. Yet technological changes, such as the development of radio and television, have already presented the media with the task of adapting to new conditions on many occasions in the past. In the course of such developments, new forms of presentation have emerged in each

case (Blobaum, 2014). The media system as a whole and individual newspapers and broadcasting corporations have earned reputations over many years. Because the brand names carry reputations, traditional mass media are transferring their names into the realm of the Internet. This enables the online versions to benefit from tradition, from reputation from the offline world, and from the integrity and competence that have been established there. Those who avail themselves of news via a smart phone or tablet trust traditional media brands more than new providers (Reuters Institute, 2013, p. 14). The reputation and expertise of the provider influence the assessment of trustworthiness (Flanagin & Metzger 2007). As is the case with traditional media, media use on the Internet is becoming a habitual behavior too. Media have developed a number of features for the Internet that has the potential to document trustworthiness. In the case of online journalism, for instance, there is more information about the journalists in their capacity as authors of the articles. In online media, photos of journalists are often provided alongside their texts, and bylines are linked and enriched with additional information about the journalists, such as age, department, a short bio, or accolades. It is possible to follow authors on Face book, and they can occasionally be addressed directly via email. On the Internet, the recipients get considerably more information about the people who are responsible for media coverage, and it is becoming easier to gain access to these people. This form of personalization paints a picture of the journalist and provides information about his or her skills and experience. Recipients can include these factors in the evaluation of trustworthiness (Blobaum, 2014).

b. Public Online Presence

Online social networks generated by social media are complex environments for human interaction and interpersonal relationships. Most social media portals feature both the possibility to interact directly with other network participants and to observe them. Participants can interact through communicational devices such as chats or wall posts

(compare Sherchan et al. 2013, pp. 20–21) or observe each other through features such as news feeds, personal profiles or reputational systems(compare Botsman & Rogers 2011, pp. 140–143; Howard 2008, p. 16; Astheimer et, al. 2011, pp. 19–21). Often, interaction and observation happen simultaneously (Sherchan et al. 2013, p. 21).

However, these basic factors of digital communication create more bases for awareness between journalists and their audiences which plays a vital role in communication. Though, this act of trust remains too risky to journalists as it now threatens the safety of individual journalists

2.1.7 Digital Journalism in Nigeria

Technology has shaped journalism practice all over the world and Nigeria is no exception. This assumption is well acknowledged by Kovach and Rosenstiel (2001) that "new technology, along with globalization and the conglomeration of media, is causing shift away from journalism that is connected to citizen building and one that supports a healthy democracy". Citizen journalism is a type of journalism that allows individual with the help of information and communication technologies such as the Internet, mobile phones, etc, package and transmit information to media houses on one hand and also, sort for information and try to establish the truth or the veracity of the story without recourse to the journalist who usually package the information prior to now. Soola (1998) observes that information and communication technology has precipitated a revolution in the communication industry with an emphasis on improved methods and efficiency. This can be seen more in the Print media industry as compared to the Broadcast media in Nigeria.

2.1.7.1 Unique Characteristics of Digital Journalism

However, there are some unique characteristics that are attributed to digital journalism. The widespread adoption of significantly hyper textual, interactive, immediate, multimedia, online Journalism with ability to store news (back up) by media practitioners has to a large

extent influence news access and choice by internet users (Deuze, 2001). **Hypertext capability** is one of the most useful factors in online journalism. Nelsion (1965) defines hypertext as a computer based nonlinear group of texts that are linked together by hyperlinks. Deuze (1999) highlights on how hypertexts used innovatively provide many advantages over print media. He explains that hypertext has no limitation of space and it offers variety of perspectives, direct access to source, no finite deadline, personalized paths of news reading and perception, and also the simultaneous targeting of different groups of readers such as those interested only in the headlines as well as those interested in deeper analysis of news. Interactivity is also an important characteristics of online journalism. Steensen (2011) demonstrates that interactivity is one of the biggest strength of online journalism due to its ability to make frequent updates. His research shows that editors are becoming more eager to interact with readers. According to Sambrook (2005), the citizen's contributions cascades exceptionally a notch higher, such that news reporters' interaction with their audiences has tremendously improved. The work of Domingo (2008) on Interactivity in the Daily Routine of Online Newsrooms across Europe argues that many online print media aim to create discussion platforms, giving their audiences opportunity to participate by providing their views to the topics of media debates on current issues. This is done either by giving the users an opportunity to comment just below a news story or forming debate spaces from chosen stories felt suitable for discussion. In this era, photos, videos and comments on stories and discussions forums are allowed in the mainstream media and users are allowed to Select or filter news. Also, immediacy plays a major role in online journalism. Fortunati, Raycheva, Harro-Loit and O'Sullivan (2005) write on how the world today wants news fast and furious, how the immediacy of online media was tested when majority of people turned to the internet to find out what had happened in United States after the terrorist bombing of the world trade center in New York on September 11, 2001. They say that some websites collapsed, for

failure to contain the capacity to respond to the overwhelming search for news requests. In this sense, audiences were able to access the on-goings online via Websites, blogs and Twitter.

Farhi (2011) demonstrates that Andy Carvin of the United States National Public Radio, by use of Twitter to report on the Tunisian Arab Spring had about 15,500 followers in December 2010. Carvin proceeded to other countries like Libya and Egypt in 2011, as the protests escalated across the northern Africa. By April 2011, his followers surged to 42,000 and fully blown to 70,500 in June, the same year. He used to tweet for 16 hours each day doing an average of 400 tweets in a day. These studies concentrated on how Websites, blogs and Twitter complement traditional news media but there were no conclusive findings available on the extent to which journalists have the safety knowledge of protecting themselves against digital threats.

Similarly, the multimedia feature of online journalism is a driving factor that attracts news audiences. The understanding of online journalism according to Deuze (2004) is in two ways: first, in form of media format such as text, audio, or graphics and secondly, the packaging of stories in different media such as newspapers, radio or television. Back-up ability of online journalism has led to the permanent availability of published news online.

According to Poteet (2000), portable technological devices such as smart phones and computers that include wireless connections to the internet offer extensive storage capacity for published news.

2.2   Safety of Journalists

Journalism safety can be broadly defined as "a broad category that extends from preventive, protective and preemptive measures, through to combating impunity and promoting a social culture which cherishes freedom of expression and press freedom" (UNESCO, 2015, p.1).

According to Berger (2017), to understand the meaning of safety and anticipate its trajectory worldwide, it is important to understand the dynamics that have been driving it. The origins of the ascendance of safety issues according to him can be understood as an indirect outcome of the end of the Cold War period which brought about the enactment of the 1968 UNDHR. The fundamental human right of freedom of expression enjoys relative most protection, and serves as a prerequisite for several other democratic rights.

According to Carlsson and Pöyhtäri (2017), freedom of expression is a right, but it implies responsibility and respect for the rights of others. Limits on freedom of expression are not constant, but are marked by the cultural and social context. Yet there must be no doubt as to where the responsibility lies. Freedom of expression has legal, ethical and moral dimensions. For many years, the media have been the lifeline of freedom of expression. The presence of pluralism and independence of the media are essential to democratic rule, and freedom of the media is crucial to the practice of journalism. People who exercise their right to freedom of expression through journalism must be allowed to practice their work without restrictions (Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017). This is the responsibility of the state, courts, media companies and journalist organizations, but also of NGOs and civil society, in the era of globalization and digitization. Pate and Idris (2017) state that:

Journalists require autonomy, independence, flexibility and credibility to investigate issues that may be dangerous to their safety. As 'watchdogs', their actions may offend groups or individuals, with repercussions for their personal and institutional safety. Their levels of vulnerability may be higher in situations of violent conflicts and terrorism. However, irrespective of the circumstances, journalists have to fulfill their professional mandate of informing and educating the society through reporting (p. 161).

Freedom of information and expression are fundamental as well important human rights that enjoy protection locally and globally. The killing of a person for their journalistic practice not only brutally eliminates that person's right to freedom of expression, it also puts a symbolic gag around the same right for every citizen. Attacks such as online threats and harassment are on the rise, especially journalists that are exposed to the use of various technological devices. Freedom of expression in a democratic society is also crucial in uncovering and protecting against abuses by public officials. Free speech, a free press, and the freedom to assemble can be major forces in checking the potential abuse of power by elected representatives (CEELI, 1996). Correspondingly, it serves to make public officials more accountable to the public, more responsible, and less prone to aggrandize power unlawfully. For this reason, any attempt by the government to prevent a publication or a broadcast faces the highest possible level of scrutiny (CEELI, 1996).

But so many journalists have been murdered, attacked, intimidated etc. just for exercising their fundamental human right of free speech and expression. The world is facing serious security threats, including those from terrorist groups, some of whom have also directly targeted journalists to amplify their message and suppress freedom of expression (UNESCO, 2014).Eritrea, North Korea, Saudi Arabia, Ethiopia, Azerbaijan, Vietnam, Iran, China, Myanmar and Cuba are considered the ten countries which have been listed at the top as regards censoring the media and media professionals in 2015. Imprisonment, repressive laws and restrictions of access to the Internet remain the most prevalent forms of intimidation and harassment against journalists (CPJ in Pate & Idris, 2017).

According to Henrichsen, Betz and Lisosky (2015), from 2011-2013, 37 of the 276 journalists killed did Internet-based work and used digital tools. The Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) (2015) similarly stated that 44% of the 70 Journalists recorded killed in

2013 worked for online media platforms and accounted for half (106) of the journalists imprisoned in 2013.The IJF report of 2015 showed that, at least 2297 killings of Journalists and media professionals and targeted assassinations, cross fire incidents and bomb attacks was recorded from 1990 to 2015, while OSCE report revealed that more than 600 Journalists have been killed worldwide since 2005, most of them intentionally or in the line of duty. According to Cottle (2017), almost up to 50% of journalists in the Nordic region have experienced online hatred and verbal abuse, including serious death threats.

2.3   Safety of journalist in Nigeria: A democratic problem

The development of democracy is closely linked to the development of the mass communication system in every country. Indeed, it can be argued that one cannot do without the other. It will be difficult to have a healthy democracy without a supportive media system or to have a blossoming mass communication system without the provision of positive facilitation by the democratic system. Boyd-Barnet (2001) observed that" a responsible nationwide democratic system requires a media system which is coterminous with it and which can generate discussion of issues of public concern in a way which does not favor partisan interests, whether these be the interests of particular political parties, the interests of media bosses or media professionals". This implies that in their relationship, the media must possess democratic rules or "possess the spirit of democracy" in such a way that discussion of public interest issues are not just prioritized but also treated with independence, objectivity and professionalism. Pate and Akingbulu (2016) while writing on the relationship between media and democracy note that there is interlink between the growth of mass communication system and development of democracy in any country. They argue further that one cannot do without the other. It will be difficult to have a healthy democracy without a supportive media system or to have a blossoming mass communication system without the provision of positive facilitation by the democratic system. Although, this wasn't the case during the

military regime. The media and government prior to transition of democratic government in 1999 are in a tensed relationship (Pate, 2003). Media became subject of attacks, harassment and all sorts of mayhem were meted out to the media during the military regime. Any media out-lets that broadcasted or published anything the government felt insulting and malicious, is subject to arrest, detention, proscription and even fine (Abati, 1999, Pate, 2003). However, even with the stringent operational environment and untold punishment, the media still carry out its responsibility by mobilizing the public for political participation and return of democracy. Media outlets like radio Kudirat and similar others were so critical of government (Pate, 2002). With the support of the media and doggedness of some civil society organizations like NADECO, democracy returned to the country on the 29th of May 1999 after a prolong military regime (Sanda, 2016).

With the return of democracy in 1999, it was expected that the relationship between the media and government will be harmonious, peaceful and symbiotic. However, with the current trend of event in the country, the more things seem to change, the more they appear to remain the same. Media harassment, proscription of publication, murder, overt and covert censorship and similar other features characterizing the relationship between the media and government under the military dispensations are still in play today. This might not be unrelated to the fact that "Nigeria has not yet succeeded in demilitarizing governance" to quote Pate (2017). The democratically elected government in Nigeria rule with military mindset. Violation of law, draconian tendencies and insensitivity to public sentiment remained the driving force of successful government since 1999.

At the heart of government/media relationship are press freedom and press laws. The history of government/media relationship has been characterized by conflicts, frictions and disagreements. Since the emergence of mass communication in the early nineteenth century, governments the world over have always wanted to control the media, while the media have

always wanted to be free. The situation has not been different in Nigeria. Both parties seem not to agree on the operational definition of press freedom. While government does not want journalists to handle public information as the journalists see fit, the journalists protest unwarranted controls that stifle reporting (Ukonu, 2006).

Despite the provision in section 39(1) of the constitution and the signing of freedom of information act (FOIA), media in Nigeria are faced with herculean task of digging deep to get information -about what should naturally be in the public domain- to the public. This mostly happen with the displeasure of the public office holders.

However, this relationship has not changed the way journalists are being treated across the country. Records across the globe indicate the continuous and growing incidences of unlawful and dehumanizing attacks on journalists. According to the Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) (2014) report, of the 370 cases of journalists murdered in different countries between 2004 and 2013, 333 cases remain for which not a single person has been convicted. The Nigerian story is no different from the threats, intimidation and harassment happening in other climes (Unaegbu, 2017). Journalists are constantly made victims of various forms of threat, intimidation and harassment. The 172 cases corroborated by the global impunity against journalist index, shows that Nigeria is ranked 13th globally (and 3rd in Africa after Somalia and South Sudan). Till today, there are five (5) unresolved cases of journalist murders within the period in Nigeria (CPJ 2015). Moreover, there are numerous incidences of unlawful arrest, mob attack, undue intimidation, closure of media outlets, seizure of tools, etc., directed at journalists (Unaegbu, 2017). Though, Violence and overt harassment of journalists are tracked and documented by a number of international non-governmental organizations (NGOs; e.g. Committee to Protect Journalists 2015; Freedom House 2015a; Reporters without Borders 2014). These are the most visible, the most extreme, and arguably the most urgent instances of harassment of journalists. This is because the perpetrators of

violence against journalists are commonly states, insurgency groups, or organized crime (e.g. Freedom House 2015a, 1), such violence is sometimes rarer in democratic countries, where the state can guarantee the rule of law and has a monopoly on legitimate violence (Chalaby , 2000)

However, we may conversely expect certain conditions that may "encourage" harassment to be more applicable in democratic nations than in non-democratic ones. Journalism is a public profession, and journalistic work is performed in the public eye. The visibility of and public access to journalists have increased manifold in recent years due to the rise of audience interactivity as a core value in the contemporary media industry (Gillmor 2006; Hedman& Djerf-Pierre 2013; Usher 2014). In most democratic nations, journalists are more visible and accessible than ever, and audience members have unprecedented opportunity to (anonymously) express whatever sentiments they wish to journalists, in particular in the online context.

Hence, regardless of journalism seen as an agent of democracy, most of the violence, threats, and harassment of journalists constitute a democratic problem, particularly if such attacks are systematic and sustained. Furthermore, systematic violence toward and intimidation of journalists also commonly indicates more widespread democratic problems, for example, the inability of the state to maintain a monopoly on legitimate violence, weak police, and judiciary authorities who are unable to guarantee the rule of law, low status of freedom of expression in general, and so on (Waisbord,2002). Violence and harassment of journalists are indeed generally successful in this purpose and have a strong chilling effect on critical reporting (Chalaby 2000; Waisbord, 2002). Harassment of journalists is thus a democratic problem because it affects journalistic autonomy, the ability of individual journalists to work and act independently of factors internal and external to the newsroom (cf. Reich &

Hanitzsch 2013, 135), and is widely considered a necessary condition for journalism to fulfill its democratic functions. In spite of the safety challenges of journalists, media enjoys considerable freedom in Nigeria (Rights Watch, 2003). There are a large number of daily newspapers, weekly magazines, and other publications and several private radio and television stations. With the exception of the federal and state government media outlets, much of the media regularly carries a range of opinions, including strong criticism of government policies and debates on different issues. However, in reality, genuinely independent journalism is not as common in Nigeria as it may seems, and there is an unspoken threshold beyond which criticism is not easily tolerated. The media like so many other sectors is tainted by corruption. Many journalists expect bribe before reporting an event which affects the accountability of many reports (Human Rights Watch, 2003). Moreover, cases of harassment of journalists are also prevalent in the democratic dispensation. In January this year, the police stormed Premium Times head office in Abuja and arrested the publisher, Dapo Olorunyomi, alongside the paper's judiciary correspondent, Evelyn Okakwu for writing stories which the authorities described as exposing a "deep hatred for the leadership of the Nigerian Army'" (Premium Time, 2017). Similarly, in February same year, a blogger Kemi Olunloyo and a Port Harcourt- based reporter, Samuel Walson were arrested for cyber crime (SaharaReporter, 2017). However, even though the blogger has met bail condition, she remains in the prison custody for several months. The publisher of Sahara reporters, Omoyele Sowore, was also harassed by the police in Lagos because of the report he published.

The very tragic side of it all was the killing of Bayo Ohu, a reporter for The Guardian, who was shot dead on 20th of September 2009 while attending Church (the Guardian, 2009). Three years before then, precisely in 2006, Journalists Against Aids founder, Omololu Falobi

was murdered and that same year, THISDAY newspapers lost Godwin Agbroko and Abayomi Ogundeji less than 2 years later. (THISDAY , 2006).

However, various intimidation, violence, harassment and attacks of journalists can also be categorized as exclusionary or inclusionary (Nerone, 1994). Exclusionary violence is meant to prevent media attention toward certain groups and ideas, and this is based on the fact that this can be related with the aforementioned cases experienced by Nigerian journalists of being harassed and that the threats and harassments are exclusionary and political in the sense that they are strategic with the intention to silence journalists. Inclusionary violence, on the other hand, constitutes a way for some people to try to impose a different news agenda on the media. Hence, with the far-reaching digitalization of journalism, combined with the increasing transparency of journalistic work, has opened up new possibilities to intimidate and harass journalists for those who are dissatisfied with the proprieties of public discourse. Readers' comments, social media, and email, in this sense, represent platforms where different forms of cyber-bullying can be used as tactics to force the media to include what is perceived as excluded ideas and groups. Journalists' reluctance toward audience interactivity has often been explained by an increased workload or the fear of losing control, especially in the case of readers' comments (Mitchelstein, 2011; Viscovi & Gustafsson, 2013).

2.4   Dimensions of safety of Journalists: Digital Safety

UNESCO has clearly defined different forms of challenges journalists encounter in their work. They include various issues from psychological, economical, gender and technological safety which has to do with the digital dimension of safety of journalists.

2.5   Digital Safety of Journalist.

Digital harassment is an area of threat to journalists. As more journalists engage in digital journalism and use of digital tools in their reporting and publishing, they have received

increasing threats to their safety online. Electronic surveillance and eavesdropping can help hostile party track the physical movements of journalists and monitor their confidential communications with sensitive sources. This endangers both the reporters and the contacts that trust them. However, little legislation exists on an international or national level to protect journalists from digital harassment and threats.

A large number of media workers lack encryption software that can protect their communications up to a point or know about cyber safety measures like password protection, limiting exposure and information shared on social media or communicating through code. News organizations and regulatory bodies continue to struggle with balancing freedom of expression with appropriate steps to combat cyber abuse (IWMF, 2016)

2.6 Digital Safety: Information Security for Journalists.

Information security for journalist is a vital practical tool for journalists. For the first time journalists are now aware that virtually every electronic communication we make or receive is being recorded, stored and subject to analysis and action. As this surveillance is being conducted in secret, without scrutiny, transparency or any realistic form of accountability, our sources, our stories and our professional work itself is under threat.

Journalists were dismayed by the realization that almost all digital communications are now being recorded; for them and their sources there are real risks and now danger in their work. This danger does not just worry reporters, whistleblowers and other sources, but all those who have privileged information. Information security, or 'InfoSec', according to Carlo and Kamphius (2014) is the practice of defending information from unauthorized access. The information at stake may include a news report you are working on and any associated files, the identity of your source(s), your communication with them, and at times, your own identity.

Cyber threat or threat to journalism in terms of computer was not a known issue until the Snowden revelation. The Snowden revelations exposed the extraordinary abilities of certain government intelligence agencies to intercept communications and gain unauthorized access to data on almost any personal computer or electronic communication device in the world. This could pose an information security risk to investigative journalists working on stories concerning the interests of those governments, their agencies, and their private intelligence contractors.

Many states lack these sophisticated surveillance technologies – but all states do possess surveillance capabilities, some of which can be, and at times have been, used against journalists, with potentially severe consequences. Ethiopia, a less technologically advanced state, is alleged to have launched remote attacks against journalists stationed in US offices.

In the globalised age, some transnational corporations have greater wealth and power than many sovereign nation states. Correspondingly, some transnational corporations possess greater 'security' or surveillance capabilities than many nation states.

Carlo and Kamphuis (2014) said email is very likely the means by which you most frequently contact colleagues and sources. Vitally, it is the means by which a new source could contact you as a journalist. Therefore, having secure email, not only for everyday use with colleagues but as a secure channel for initial contact, is important for any journalist.

Using email therefore might be subjected to threat as well. The risks to your email communications include an adversary doing any of the following: reading email content; reading subject header; seeing who you are contacting, how often and when; intercepting email attachments; "Man in the middle" attacks (an impersonator intercepting communications); seeing where you are emailing from (location). These are some of threats peculiar to email usage.

However, these problems can be averted by doing some of the followings: use strong passwords; use a trustworthy email provider; encrypt your email; verify your keys; put minimal information in your email subjects; email from Tails (if/when you need to); and use anonymous email addresses for select purposes.

For protection against most non-state level actors, using a very strong password is a good defense against unauthorized access to your email account. However, for state level actors, it may be no defense at all.

An email provider that is 'trustworthy' is one who has a good basic security infrastructure, and who won't hand over your data to an intelligence agency in a hurry. If you do not trust the country where the email provider is based, it is best not to use an email address there. For example, we know that the default position of the US and UK intelligence agencies is to record and store as many email communications as possible. Even if you don't feel your email communications to be of relevance to these agencies now, they will be retroactively accessible should you and/or your work become relevant in the future. So, if you don't trust the US approach to email privacy, be aware that the email providers based there (Outlook, Gmail, Riseup, etc.…) may be subject to that approach. Some email providers are thought to be more co-operative than others, but unless you run your own server (or the organization you work for runs their own server in a country with good privacy laws, like Switzerland or Iceland), we should assume that your emails and email metadata are not secure with any email provider. Other considerations are whether you have to hand over your mobile phone number, a postcode/address, or another of your email addresses in order to register an account with a provider, as you may want to avoid donating that information in future (and especially if/when you use an anonymous email address).

2.7   Types of Digital Threats, Harassment and Attacks

Direct intimidation via email, harassment on social media which may include instigating other individuals and groups to publicly defame and question a journalist's character, trolling including posting deliberately offensive or provocative comments online with the intention of eliciting an angry or upset response, leaked information or doxxing is type of abuse entails the public release of private information such as physical addressor personal details, impeded or cut electronic communications and access, hacking private accounts for identity theft or to send false messages that harm a journalist's standing.

Bartofy (2017) identified various types of digital threats, harassments and attacks on journalists. They include the following; **Rhetorical aggression** : this term refers to the act of repeatedly posting/pushing counter arguments to journalistic work that are not necessarily explicitly offensive or targeted at the journalists themselves, but that aim to overwhelm the discussion and make it impossible to maintain a fruitful conversation. An example of a typical instance of this behavior would be repeatedly posting the same lengthy argument against, e.g., the European Union's migrant relocation quota by emphasizing the alleged crimes that 'migrants' committed in other countries.

Trolling: is also a highly common method of harassment. All 20 journalists in the study reported having suffered trolling through public channels and 85 percent (17 journalists) reported also having suffered trolling through private channels. For the purposes of this study, 'trolling' is defined as explicitly aggressive and offensive verbal behavior that aims to block or destroy the conversation. It does not necessarily target the specific journalist in question, but rather the role of journalists more generally, in addition to fellow readers and comments. Typical examples are posts using offensive or insulting language, such as "all you journalists are liars".

Public shaming, i.e., posting semi-private information about a journalist, on a platform where the content is not just potentially but actually accessible to a larger audience, with the intention of intimidating him/her.

Violation of personal privacy, e.g., the leaking of personal data. Various types of malicious social media interaction, including stalking, befriending/following with the intention of getting closer to the subject with unclear/suspicious motivations; and anonymously spreading misinformation or propaganda online.

Cyber attacks/site hacking, i.e., breaking into the online editorial system by third parties (HRL, 2017). These are but a few aforementioned threats faced by journalists.

2.8 Press Freedom Online and Nigeria's Cyber Crime Act Of 2015 (challenges and implications).

Press freedom, as part of freedom of expression, is protected by Section 39 (1) and (2) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (amended). Subsection 1 provides that "every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression, including freedom to hold and to receive and impart ideas and information without interference." Subsection 2 goes on to say that "without prejudice to the generality of subsection (1) of this section, every person shall be entitled to own, establish and operate any medium for the dissemination of information, ideas and opinion."Subsection 2, however, states that private ownership of a television or wireless broadcast station for any purpose whatsoever must be authorized by the president. The popularity of online journalism in Nigeria can be attributed to the rise in internet access. Traditional journalism in Nigeria has been greatly influenced by the internet revolution; almost all nationwide newspapers have an internet presence targeting online readers. Press freedom in Nigeria, as in all known modern democracies, is not absolute. Section 45 of the 1999 Constitution (amended) places limits on the freedom of the press provided in Section 39. Section 45 legalizes any law that censors press freedom if said law is determined to be in

the interest of national security or if it is necessary to protect the rights or freedoms of other persons. The restriction of press freedom on these grounds is applicable to print, electronic, and online media. The existing legislations in Nigeria that regulate press freedom for the reasons spelt out in Section 45 of the Constitution are the Criminal Code and the Cybercrimes Act. While the Criminal Code places limits on traditional press (print and electronic) freedom, the Cybercrime Act was introduced in 2015 as a result of the difficulties associated with the prosecution of cyber-related offences such as cyber stalking.

The advent of digital technology gave birth to modern communication hardware, internet access, and computer data-processing systems. Cyberspace has created geometric growth by accelerating opportunities for business through the removal of economic barriers (Ehimen & Bola 2010). Online press or journalism is one of the many profitable economic activities that have become popular as a result of the rise in internet accessibility in Nigeria. It is a contemporary form of journalism where editorial content is distributed via the internet as opposed to being published via print or being broadcast on radio or television. Online journalism allows for connection and discussion at levels that print and traditional broadcast media cannot offer. It represents a revolution in terms of how news is consumed by society – for example, consumers can comment on articles and start discussion boards to talk about articles with other consumers (Cohen 2015).

 However, despite the benefits online journalism offers its readers, it has also posed some serious challenges to cyber security in Nigeria. It is now possible for anyone who is internet-literate to write articles and post them online. The average person can now have an impact in the news world through tools such as blogs, and it is increasingly difficult to sift through the massive amount of information coming in from the digital area of journalism (Ornebring 2010). In the digital media world, it has become common practice for users to ridicule,

harass, or insult those who disagree with their point of view. This, according to Maho (2016), has led to frequent damage to people's reputations online. The absence of any form of mandatory registration or demand for strict compliance to any ethical and professional standards makes the regulation of articles published though the online press more difficult (Maho 2016).

The Cybercrime Act of 2015 is the first legislation in Nigeria that deals specifically with cyber security. It was signed into law by former president Goodluck Jonathan on 15 May 2015. The act provides an effective, unified, and comprehensive legal, regulatory, and institutional framework for the prohibition, prevention, detection, prosecution, and punishment of cybercrimes in Nigeria (Cybercrime [Prohibition, Prevention, etc.] Act2015). Cybercrimes are crimes in which a computer is the object of the crime or is used as a tool to commit an offence. Offenders may use computer technology to access personal or commercial information, or use the internet for exploitative or malicious purposes (Okoh & Chukwueke 2016). Section 24 in part III of the Cybercrime Act is aimed at regulating the latter. The Cybercrime Act prohibits cyber stalking in order to effectively regulate the spread of false stories and sometimes also indecent or unethical images online. Section 24 (1a) of the act states that any person who knowingly or intentionally sends a message or other matter by means of a computer system or network that "is grossly offensive, pornographic or of an indecent, obscene or menacing character or causes any such message or matter to be sent" has committed an offence under the act and shall be eligible for prosecution. Also, Subsection 1b provides that any person who knowingly or intentionally spreads messages or other matter by means of a computer network system that "he knows to be false, for the purpose of causing annoyance, inconvenience, danger, obstruction, insult, injury, criminal intimidation, enmity, hatred, ill will or needless anxiety to another or causes such a message to be sent" faces the same possibility of punishment.

The role of the internet, particularly social media, in influencing voters' participation and the outcome of the 2015 presidential election in Nigeria as observed by experts such as Omojuwa (2015) and Reid (2015) is an indication that the internet has become an influential source of information and social mobilization. Thus, there is a need to tackle cyber stalking – that is, the spreading of false information and/or images on the internet aimed at discrediting or defaming another person's character. Maho (2016) notes that because anyone with basic knowledge of internet usage can become an untrained online journalist with potentially thousands or even millions of followers, it is imperative for the government to control the kind of stories published online. In the age of online journalism and extensive use of social media in the redistribution of news, this provision in Section 24 of the act has immense implications not only for online press freedom in Nigeria, but also for freedom of expression in general. Section 24 of the Cybercrime Act 2015, addresses offensive and annoying statements on the internet. The section talks about cyber stalking and prescribes punishment of a fine ranging between NGN 7 million and 25 million, as well as imprisonment ranging between one and ten years, depending on the severity of the offence. The government has abused this section of the act to "silence" opposition views in the online media. First, stories published online have been deemed "offensive," "obstructive," "insulting," or "annoying" with actionable consequences under Section 24 of the Cybercrime Act even when the stories are factual. Second, some stories published through traditional media outlets (print and electronic) that were never sanctioned by the government have been attacked by the same government upon being rebroadcast or republished through online platforms. The government considers these reports "offensive" and libelous because of the rising influence of online platforms in Nigeria as major sources of information dissemination.

In this way, authorities in Nigeria have used the accusation of cyber stalking to harass and press charges against online journalists for expressing views that are considered unfavorable

to the government. According to the 2016 and 2017 Freedom House reports on Nigeria, internet freedom declined due to an unprecedented pattern of arrests and prosecutions against bloggers after the passage of the Cybercrime Act in 2015. (Freedom House, 2016)

2.9   Instances of violence, threats and attacks against journalists.

There are high –profile cases of violence and intimidations against journalists that have been recorded by many studies. Some of these cases have resulted in prolonged detention and physical ill-treatment etc. This illustrates a persistently hostile and suspicious attitude on the part of the state and non state actors towards journalists carrying out their legitimate professional duties. For example, there are arrests and harassment of journalists in Nigeria for alleged cyber-stalking since 2015. These are incidents where the abuses appeared to be motivated specifically by an intention to suppress information or to silence them.

Example 1: Abubakar Sidiq Usman .

On August 8, 2015, he was arrested by armed operatives of the Economic and financial crimes commission (EFCC) for criticizing the commission in his blog. He was detained for over 36hours and denied access to his lawyer.

Example 2: Musa Babale Azare.

On August 20, 2015, Musa was arrested in Abuja by police from Bauchi state for criticizing the policies and actions of the state government on social media platforms. The arrest was illegal, as it was made outside the jurisdiction of Bauchi state.

Example 3: Seun Oloketuyi.

On the 25th of the same month of August, 2015. Seun, a blogger was arraigned before a Federal High Court for publishing a story about secret affairs of a bank chief executive.

Example 4: Chris Nwandu.

Mr Nwandu, the president of the guild of professional bloggers of Nigeria, on 1st September 2015, was arrested and remanded in prison for 13days after he expressed his personal opinion on the charges against Seun Oloketuyi.

Example 5: Omoyole Sowore.

On January 2017, Mr Sowore, a publisher for online news outlet Sahara reporters was harassed by police in Lagos on the basis of a complaint about a report published on its website.

Example 6: Kemi Olunoyo and Samuel Walson

They were both detained on March 2017, in prison for one week before being granted bail for publishing an article about an elite individual in Rivers state. (Source*:* Nwanga*,* 2016, Sahara reporters, 2017).

Example 7: Attila Varga (Index.hu), a journalist who is exceptionally and infamously active in engaging in conversations with commenter's and trolls, said he encounters a significant amount of online harassment each day. The harassment, he noted, can emerge from almost anything: even a slight quarrel or a simple typo – not uncommon in online journalism – might lead to a flame war or a verbal fight ending in serious threats.

Example 8: Szabolcs Dull, an investigative journalist at Index.hu who focuses on politics, intentionally avoids social media channels and ignores offensive messages sent to him. For this reason, Dull, who previously worked for Hungarian public radio and the news site Origo.hu, told International Press Institute (IPI) he rarely faces online harassment, though he is unable to avoid it altogether. According to Dull, the online abuse of journalists can arise

from unexpected quarters. The most serious instances of abuse were sent to him directly via email.

2.10   Impunity: the unending threat to Journalist.

Threats against journalists often increase in some regions because of the extent of the existing impunity, which means that the majority of those who kill journalists are never brought to justice (www.newssafety.org). Countries where the criminals are never prosecuted, this impunity may act as a message that silencing of journalists is acceptable. Until there is a deterrent in the form of an effective justice system targeting of journalists may as well continue.

Impunity for attacks and violence against journalists constitutes one of the greatest challenges to the safety of journalists, and that refusal to ensuring accountability for crimes committed against journalists is a key element to future attacks and intimidations (UN General Assembly, 2016)

UNESCO 2014 report "World Trends in Freedom of Expression and Media Development", found out that, between 2007 and 2012, less than one in ten cases of killings of journalists had led to a conviction. The Director-General of UNESCO himself laments that out of 593 cases of killings of journalists; only 39 cases had been resolved (6.6%).

In its 2014 report titled "The Road to Justice: Breaking the Cycle of Impunity in the Killings of Journalists", the Committee to Protect Journalists found out that impunity rates had increased steadily over the past decade in most countries, and that in places with widespread impunity journalists, were vulnerable to new acts of violence. It also recorded twice as many convictions for the murders of journalists in 2013 than the previous high mark in 2004.

States fail to protect journalists, and to investigate and prosecute attacks against them often as a result of a lack of political commitment. Impunity also flows from deficits in the rule of law

and general disrespect for human rights: abuse of power, corruption, flawed legal frameworks, weak law enforcement and weak judicial institutions. (UNESCO,2014).

The UNESCO report (2015) also found out that "traditional media" was the most affected by fatal attacks. The highest number of killings was among print journalists, with 244 killed (41%) between 2006 and 2013, followed by television journalists with 154 killed (26%) and radio journalists, with 123 killed (21%). Journalists working exclusively online, such as bloggers, were also subject to fatal attacks. Most notably, 33 web based journalists (5.6%) were killed in the Syrian Arab Republic in 2012.The Nigerian story is no different (Unaegbu, 2017). Journalists are constantly made victims of various forms of threat, intimidation and harassment. The 172 cases corroborated by the global impunity against journalist index, shows that Nigeria is ranked 13th globally (and 3rd in Africa after Somalia and South Sudan). Till today, there are five (5) unresolved cases of journalists' murders within the period in Nigeria (CPJ, 2015)

2.11 Knowledge and Practice of Digital Safety: Empirical review

Empirical studies are researches carried out by other authors related to a particular study. It reveals findings, opinions postulated by other authors or journalistic organizations who have carried out similar studies, projecting their standpoint and take on a particular issue.

The digital revolution has empowered journalists in carrying out their duties. However, this is not without its consequences. Journalists, digital truth tellers and media organizations have been targeted for surveillance through phishing and cyber spying (UNESCO 2015), fake domain and denial of service attacks (McDowell 2013), which sometimes result in death (CPJ 2015). Civil society organizations in Nigeria have indicated that these attacks are now on the rise.

A related study titled: *An overview of the current challenges to the safety and protection of journalists by* IWMF, Matloff and Barton (2016) analyzed the threats of journalists around the world which include impunity, threats and violence. The study examined how the issues of safety of journalists have received increasing attention by multi-stakeholders within the media industry and around the world during these past few years. The study reveals that many journalists who report in dangerous environment consider uncertainty and risk to be inherent in their work especially as digital revolution has empowered journalists in carrying out their duties. The report highlights key themes that affect journalists' safety globally, including; impunity for crimes against journalists, which fosters killings and abductions. Also the range of dangers facing journalists and the lack of resources for comprehensive security training and the hands¬-off approach of many news media organizations, particularly related to freelance and local journalists in violent societies lacking press freedom (IWMF, 2016).

A related study titled *"Journalist security in the Digital world: a survey.* Carried out by CIMA and analyzed by Ramos (2016). The study examined that the need for security tools that journalists around the world have are vast and diverse, such tools exist. The study reveals that journalists have become more vulnerable not only while on assignments in dangerous places, but also in their daily routines, at home, in the newsroom, as digital surveillance increases. Though, digital world has made journalism a riskier profession. Hence, digital technology can offer tools to minimize the dangers whether physical or digital, that reporters and editors face on the job.

The study used a survey method where a total of 154 journalists around the world were emailed with online questionnaires to find out what the journalists know, are they aware of such tools, do they use them and do they know how reliable they are?, The study reveals that most journalists do not include the practice in their general safety procedures either physical

or digital. About 60% of the respondents reported not using these tools in any situation. Finally, the survey reveals that regional differences in usage reflect the level of assimilation of technology in journalism. As charts and diagrams show these levels, journalist in North America and Europe are more likely to use digital tools for security, while journalists in Africa are the least likely with 10%. The study suggested that while there is an awareness of the need for security, there is little education about what is safe to use.

Internews (2012) carried out a research to provide *a snapshot of the awareness and practice of digital security strategies among journalists and bloggers in Pakistan.* The study reveals that Pakistan is among the world's most dangerous places for journalists: threats, assaults ,kidnapping and murder are among the everyday dangers reporters face simply for doing their jobs, according to the Committee to Protect Journalists. In fact, among 66 journalists killed worldwide in 2011, 10 were killed in Pakistan. On a day-to-day-basis, journalists face hardships such as phone tapping, physical surveillance, computer hacking, threats to family and friends, the possibility of losing their jobs, and being exiled. Unfortunately, such repression is conducted not only by radical elements in society, but in some cases by the government itself. Amid Pakistan's deteriorating environment for freedom of speech and expression, not only traditional journalists, but also bloggers confront threats to their personal safety and censorship of their writings. However, given the increasing security threats faced by these journalists and bloggers, the main objective of the study was a survey to assess online security perceptions, knowledge and practice of journalists and bloggers in Pakistan. Some of the principal findings were that; though 1 in 19 Pakistanis uses the internet (5.2%), most of them are quite wired. 81 % of respondents use the internet for research in writing stories. And most journalists and bloggers were aware of basic strategies to safeguard their online interactions, such as installing anti-virus software and using strong passwords, but are unaware of more sophisticated security tools. The study reveals an overwhelming 90.4% of

respondents reported that they have never received any training on how to ensure their digital security and some respondents were reluctant to use digital security tools, because of perceived costs and believed they were complex to use. Finally, it was found that journalists and bloggers do not have a strong knowledge of Pakistani laws or privacy and the right to information, as well as their constitutional rights to freedom of information, speech and expression. Some of the recommendations made by the study were that, as the majority of journalists and bloggers in the study reported that they have experienced some security concerns; they urgently need to understand how their online activities can threaten their personal safety as well as the security of their sources.

Journalists and bloggers also need training on how and why to maximize mobile phone security, so that interviews, photos, or videos recorded using these devices or sensitive data such as sources and contact information, may remain secure if a reporter's phone is lost or stolen. Therefore, in situations like this digital security training of the journalists and bloggers should be introduced to them where various security tools and platforms available online, including encryption, IP blockers and anti –censorship software etc, with an emphasis on how they can serve journalists and bloggers.

Suraj and Olaleye (2016) carried out a related research titled: *Digital safety among Nigerian journalists. A Knowledge Attitude Practice(KAP) study on the print media organization in Nigeria.* The study examined the level of knowledge, attitude and practice of digital safety by Nigerian journalists. They employed a survey method and selected twenty active newspaper outlets out of the entire 28 print media houses in Nigeria which were randomly sampled using simple random technique. Some of the principal findings show that Nigerian journalists, while admitting their knowledge of the range of digital threats, considered compromised users accounts, disinformation and smear campaigns, confiscation of journalistic products

and fake domain attacks to be a major threats. Also, the study reveals that Nigerian journalists were aware of all the security strategies indicated in the study. However, they preferred the simple security strategies of changing and using strong password to advanced security strategies. The study also found out that Nigerian journalists did practice digital safety to certain extent. Findings indicated that almost all of the journalists make use of strong pass-words and anti-virus programs on their digital communication devices. However, most do not encrypt their sensitive information and fail to enable their virtual private networks (VPN), when operating on non-secured public networks. This finding is in corroboration with Bertoni (2013) who observed that Mexican journalists do not consider data encryption a priority. Thereby, exposing them to danger. In conclusion, a critical review of the literature revealed that factors ranging from ignorance, a carefree attitude and lack of technical knowhow have contributed to this menace. Obviously, a knowledge gap exists.

2.12   Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the Knowledge Gap Theory and the Technological Determinism Theory as its theoretical base.

Knowledge Gap Theory was first proposed in 1970 by Philip J Tichenor, George A. Donohue and N Olien, who postulated that: "As the infusion of mass media information into a social system increases, segments of the population with higher socioeconomic status tends to acquire this information at a faster rate than the lower status segments, so the gap in knowledge between these segments tends to increase rather than decrease".(Anaeto, 2008)

Basic assumptions and principles of knowledge gap theory

Ojobor ,(2002) in Anaeto, (2008) give the principles of the Knowledge gap theory as follows:

1. The media output grows in a given society, so will the knowledge between privileged and underprivileged social groups.

2. The theory maintains that increase in media output, rather than even out differences between the information-rich and information poor, actually accentuates those differences.

3. There is a ceiling at which the gaps may level out, as the information rich become satiated while the information poor continue to search till they catch-up with the former.

4. With a variety of mass media concentration on one in order to reinforce one's views may not necessarily be helpful.

Criticisms of the theory

Dervin (1980) criticized the knowledge –gap theory for being based on the traditional source-sending-messages-to-receiver paradigm of communication. She argued that this paradigm has been pervasive in American communication research but it hides certain assumptions. Basically, this emphasizes attaining source goals and trying to manipulate receivers to those ends. She recommended that communication should be user-based. According to Evatt (1998) has also argued that researchers conducting knowledge-gap studies should be sure the information they are testing with surveys is useful and relevant for the audience being studied. Hence, knowledge of digital safety and its practice by journalists is of utmost importance to the practice of journalism.

Discussions of the theory

The theory proposed that if knowledge (in relation to this study: digital threats and safety measures information), like any other commodity, is not distributed equally throughout the society, the result will be a knowledge gap that could put those with lower access to the information at a disadvantage. Hence, the knowledge gap must be reduced through information sharing events such as debates, free lectures (workshops and conferences) and

other communication means (media) in order to help increase the benefits of having access to such information. Consequently, the choice of this theory is informed by the fact that considering the inevitable and rapid change in journalism through technology. In a way, it could be argued that since people rely on the media for information, it is therefore, needful that journalists become aware of safety security measures that are abounds, when interfacing with any technological devices in the dissemination of information.

2.12.1 The Technological Determinism theory

Technological determinism is a theory that presumes that a society's technology drives the development of its social structure and cultural values. The term is believed to have been coined by Thorsten Veblen (1857–1929), an American sociologist. The most radical technological determinist in the United States in the twentieth century was most likely Clarence Ayres who was a follower of Thorsten Veblen and John Dewey. William Ogburn was also known for his radical technological determinism.

The first major elaboration of technological determinism came from the German philosopher and economist Karl Marx, whose theoretical framework was based upon the idea that changes in technology and productive technology are the primary influence on the organization of social relations, and that social relations and cultural practices ultimately revolve around the technological and economic base of a society. Marx's position has become embedded in contemporary society, where the idea that fast-changing technologies alter human lives is all-pervasive. Technological determinism seeks to show technical developments, media, or technology as a whole, as the key mover in history and social change. Most interpretations of technological determinism share two general ideas: that the development of technology itself follows a predictable and traceable path largely beyond cultural or political influence, and that technology in turn has "effects" on societies that are inherent, rather than socially

conditioned or produced because that society organizes itself to support and further develop a technology once it has been introduced.

Strict adherents to technological determinism do not believe the influence of technology differs based on how much a technology is or can be used. Instead of considering technology as part of a larger spectrum of human activity, technological determinism sees technology as the basis for all human activity. Technological determinism has been summarized as "The belief in technology as a key governing force in society ..." (Smith 2016, p. 14). The idea is that technological development determines social change. It changes the way people think and how they interact with others and can be described as a three-word logical proposition: 'Technology determines history' (Williams, 2015). It is the belief that social progress is driven by technological innovation, which in turn follows an "inevitable" course.' (Smith, 2016). This idea of progress or doctrine of progress is centralized around the idea that social problems can be solved by technological advancement, and this is the way that society moves forward.

Discussion of the theory

The concept of technological determinism expresses McLuhan's belief that the nature of the media technology prevailing in a society at a given point in time greatly influences how the members of that society think and believe" (Defleur & Ball – Rokeach, 1984). In its easiest form, technological determinism theory suggests the influence of technology on the society, but more importantly, it is interested in how the journalist operates within a given technological era. Obviously, the emergence of the wonderful ICT infrastructure has far-reaching influence on the knowledge expected of journalists and how such knowledge is deployed in achieving a timely and credible presence on the newsstands for print and airtime for broadcast channels.

Much of what is known on the technological determinism perspective has its origins in the work of Innis (1950) before the intervention of the media iconoclast Marshall McLuhan in 1964. According to Ekeanyanwu and Edewor (2009, p. 17) cited Iivus (1950):

"The nature of media technology prevailing in a society at a particular point in time greatly influences how the members of that society think, act and behave. However, books and other print media for example, are said to promote causes-effect thinking in societies where print dominate, because the technology of print forces a linear form of presentation either across or up-down a page". Moreover, the kind of threats is determined by how we share and relate our experiences through the use of technological devices.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0   Research Design

This research study examined the issue of knowledge and practice of digital safety among journalists in Kano state. According to Kothari (2004), research methodology is the science of studying how to carry-out a research scientifically. It refers to all those methods or techniques that are use for conducting a research work. A choice of methodology depends on the type and kind of data needed for the study. Therefore, this study employed the mixed methods approach by collecting data across the broad spectrum of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. Thus, it might be used to refer to multi –method research in which it is aimed, in this study, to provide a more complete set of findings than could be arrived at through the administration of just one method. As such, mixed method becomes a device for enhancing the credibility of the research. Therefore, the study employed the two methods to complement one another.

The qualitative aspect (In depth interview) generates data from the selected editors, while the quantitative technique (a cross sectional survey which gathers information on a population at a single point in time) captured the registered journalists in the state using questionnaire as the instrument for data collection. According to (Kothari 2004) both qualitative and quantitative approaches share basic principles of science but differ in significant ways.

3.1   Research Method

A descriptive survey method and In-depth Interview were decided as the most tenable means of securing constructive and valuable data for this study. Survey and In-depth Interview (IDI) were used as the research method for gathering relevant information for this study, as the researcher considers them most appropriate method that can be used for the target population in view of the research topic. The qualitative technique involved an in-depth Interview with

some selected editors in Kano state, and the quantitative technique; a survey, involved the reporters, freelancers, staff journalists, producers, and presenters that are registered with the Nigerian Union Journalists (NUJ). Therefore, the complementary approach chosen by this study gives a more in depth and more clarified data on Knowledge and Practice of Digital safety of journalists in Kano state.

Creswell(2009) observes that in a quantitative approach, the researcher identifies research question based on trends in the field or the need to explain why something occurs. Neuman (2003) opines that quantitative method use empirical procedure for analysis. To this end, the researcher adopts the use of survey method as explained in (Creswell, 2009) as the procedure in quantitative research in which the researcher administers a survey to a sample population.

On the other hand, qualitative research method is a way by which scientists collect data and also a means of getting a deeper knowledge about human behavior (Hunter, Laura & Erin, 2008)

3.2.1 Survey Method

Surveys are a major form of quantitative research that does not involve any manipulation of participants or their circumstances in advance. Surveys collect data after the fact. Because it obtains information from respondents about their knowledge, beliefs, attitude, values and behaviors on a post hoc basis, survey cannot test cause- effect relationship directly instead it explores relationships or degree of association between variables. Kerlinger (1973) considered survey research as social scientific research that focuses on people, the vital facts of people and their beliefs, opinions, attitude, motivations and behavior. However, in critic to this definition according to Gunter (2000) argues that survey is not just a matter of asking a group of people a few questions. It requires much planning and a high level of skill in its administration to ensure that valid and usable data are obtained. Furthermore, surveys have

been conducted among media professionals to obtain data, for instance journalists working practices, management, job satisfaction in the media industries and now at the moment the safety of journalists from various dimensions are been studied.

3.2.2 In-depth Interview

An in-depth interview involves interviewing a respondent and may take more than one session. Intensive interviews, or in-depth interviews, are essentially a hybrid of the one-on-one interview approach (Wimmer &Dominick, 2011). It involves the use of smaller samples and provides detailed background about the reasons respondents give specific answers and elaborate data concerning respondents' opinions, values, motivations, recollections, experiences, and feelings are obtained (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). Thus, the study adopts this method to generate detailed information from selected editors as these editors would have more experience on safety challenges especially digitally compared to the reporters and presenters. Also, due to their prolong field practice in journalism. Since their interface with electronic technology is through their use of computers to process information, their utilization of telecoms or the internet for newsgathering and research or their reliance on email for communication. The In-depth interview would give the chance for more details from the respondents than a questionnaire can provide.

3.3   Population of the Study

The first step in obtaining a sample is to define the population by identifying the features which members of a group have in common that will distinguish each unit as part of the group. (Osuola,   2001, p.119) Also, Asemah, et al. (2012) defines population as all the members of any well-defined class of people, events or subjects. In most instances, it is impossible to study all members of population and therefore, a subset of the population is used to represent the population. This is called a sample .In this regard, the population of the

study was of two types; the registered journalists and selected editors in Kano State, Nigeria. The population of the study includes journalists in Kano state registered under the auspices of NUJ and some selected editors. However, records from Nigerian Union of Journalist Kano state chapter shows that it has a total of 700 members (figures obtained from NUJ official) as at January 2018 was considered for the study.

3.4   Sample and Sampling technique

A sample is a subset of the target population being studied. Sampling is a systematic selection of a portion of the population which must be the representative of the whole (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011).Sampling technique ,on the other hand, is the strategy adopted in composing a representative sample of the population for the study (Jen, 2007). The sample size of a sample should depend on the nature of the population interest or data to be gathered (Best, 1981)

 The study employed two techniques in generating the data i.e. quantitative and qualitative technique. However, at the level of survey for the administration of questionnaires to respondents, this study adopts the simple random sampling of the probability sampling technique where 248 respondents out of the population of 700 registered journalists were administered with questionnaires. The above figure is gotten using (the Krejcie & Morgan's, 1970 sampling formula to arrive at the sample size. The qualitative technique involved in-depth interview with editors. The study used a purposive sampling of the non-probability sampling technique in the selection.

3.5 Instruments of data collection

Since the research is a mixed-grill using complimenting approaches of acquiring data, firstly, the questionnaire were distributed to all sampled registered journalists in Kano state (i.e. 248 Copies of questionnaire to sampled journalists). And also an interview

guide was used for In-depth interview with the four purposively selected editors in the state through identifying them by their organizations.

3.6 Validity of the Research Instruments

The reason for using in-depth interview as the method of gathering and analysing data for this research work is justified because of the usefulness of in-depth interview in investigating issues in an in-depth way so as to discover how an individual think and feel about a particular problem. On the other hand, the choice of questionnaire as an instrument for data collection in this research work is due to the fact that bulky information was obtained and flexible as well as more objective when it comes to analyze the data obtained during the field work.

3.7 Research Instrumentation/Data Collection Procedures

This research work used self administered questionnaire and interview schedule guide as its procedures for data collection.

3.8 Method of Data Presentation and statistical analysis

Data analysis is a major part in any research work. It is a process of handling data and summarizing it to an interpretable value. In other words, data analysis involves treatment of data using statistical tools in order to simplify and make the data interpretable (Jen, 2007:73). According to Owuamalam (2012), this section of the research report shows how the researcher has dealt with the obtained data in order to achieve result.

The quantitative data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed using tables and percentages, while the qualitative data gathered from respondents through in-depth interviews were analyzed using narrative analysis.

3.9   Limitation of the Methodologies

Although in-depth interview and survey are variable tools in mass media research and due to this variability that makes this study to adopt them. However, they sometimes encounter obstacles which include the inability of the subjects or respondents to recall information. Respondents sometimes keep what George Bishop called "top-of-the head reaction questions". This simply means the respondents are not thinking deeply. Sometimes, there is also variation in the meaning whereby the respondents give different meaning to different questions. Again, the unwillingness of the respondents, sometimes, the respondents may not like to take part in the study. All these constitute some of the limitations of the methodologies.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0   Introduction

Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating or recombining the evidence to address the initial propositions of the study (Yim, 1984:99). It is also the process of developing answers to the questions through the interpretation of data. The basic steps in the analytical process consist of identifying issues, determining the availability of suitable data, deciding on which methods are appropriate for answering the questions of interest, applying the methods and evaluating, summarizing and communicating the results (Binder&Robert, 2003).

The study examined journalists/editors representing the media stations in the state namely; Abubakar Rimi (TV/Radio), Pyramid Radio FM/AM, NTA, Radio Kano FM/AM, Freedom Radio, Dala Radio, Triumph Newspaper, Tribune Online. Kanotoday.com, Solace.com and Daily trust Newspaper/ Online, Image News Magazine.

The objective of this chapter is to present and interpret the data collected from the questionnaires distributed to the 248 sampled journalists. Tables have been used to present the data generated, while percentage tests have been used to analyze the data collected. In addition to the analysis, in-depth interview was also conducted with some selected editors.

4.1   Data Presentation

A total of two hundred and forty eight (248) copies of questionnaire were distributed of which two hundred and twenty eight (228) copies were returned valid. The remaining twenty (20) questionnaire could not be analyzed because they were unavailable. Also in-depth interviews were conducted with some editors of Television, Radio, and Newspaper/Online media houses, who have experience in the field of journalism from five- thirty years above.

Table 1: *Respondents' Gender*

Gender	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	124	54
Female	104	46
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that a total of 124 (54%) of the people asked were male, while 104 (46%) of the remaining respondents were female. This analysis shows that an ensured equal fair representation of the respondents in participating in the study shows immense importance of analyzing the views and responses.

Table 2: *Respondents' Age Bracket*

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
18-24	32	14
25-34	79	35
35-44	62	27
45-54	36	16
55-64	19	8
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows the age bracket of the respondents. In order to ascertain the age bracket of sampled respondents this virtually affects the thinking, experiences, and knowledge of the respondents. The highest age category of the respondents fell within ages of 25-34 with (35%), 35-44 has (27%), and respondents under the age of 45-54 (16%), 18-24 (14%) while 55- above have only 19 (8%).

Table 3: *Membership Of NUJ.*

Membership Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Registered Members	228	100
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 228(100%) of the respondents asked were registered members of the Nigerian Union of Journalists Kano Chapter. This shows that all the respondents were registered members of Nigerian Union of Journalists. In the qualitative method, the respondents were also registered members of the Union.

Table 4: *Respondents' type of the Media Work.*

Type of Media Work	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Television	61	27
Newspaper	38	16
Magazine	23	10
Internet (Online)	29	13
Radio	77	34
Total	**228**	**100**

Most respondents in the table above shows that 77(34%) worked with Radio stations, 61 (27%) worked with TV stations, 38(16%) worked with Newspaper Publishing Houses, 29(13%) worked with Internet (Online) while another 23(10%) of the respondents worked with the Magazine. In the qualitative method, most of the respondents worked for Television, Radio, and Online and Newspaper media outlets.

Table 5: *Respondents' Roles.*

Roles	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Freelancer (paid per story)	20	9
Staff journalist	67	29
Producers	30	13
Photographer	18	8
Junior reporters	63	28
Senior reporters	30	13
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 67(29%) of the respondents were staff journalists, 63(28%) were junior reporters, 30(13%) were producers, 20(9%) were freelancers, and 18(8%) were Photographers while another 30(13%) were senior reporters. Based on the statistical analysis above, it can be deduced that the highest number of the respondents were to some extent knowledgeable of the research topic due to their years of experience and vast knowledge in the field of journalism. This also further indicated that while in the interview all the respondents interviewed played the role of an editor in their various media organizations, though some of them explained that they do other responsibilities aside of being an editor such as regional manager, assistant manager ,News manager etc.

Table 6: *Respondents' years of experience*

Years of experience	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-5	60	26
6-10	66	29
11-15	36	16
16-20	21	9
21-25	17	7
26-above	28	13
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 66(29%) of the respondents had been in the profession of journalism for about 6-10 years and had gained reasonable experience within this years. 60(26%) fell within 1-5 years, then 36(16%) fell within 11-15years, 21 (9%) respondents fell within 16-20 years, another 17(7%) fell within 21-25years, while 28(13%) respondents fell within 26-above years of experience. Most respondents in the qualitative method had spent more than 15years in the profession and were permanent workers.

Table 7*: Type of stories mostly covered by Respondents.*

Stories types	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Politics & Governance	44	19
Technology	11	5
Security & Crime	13	6
Accidents & Disasters	11	5
Health	21	9
Religion & Culture	21	9
Education	19	8
Art & Entertainment	15	7
Business	15	7
Environment& sports	25	11
Covers more than one beats	33	14
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that most of the stories covered by these respondents were politics and governance stories with a representation of 44(19%), technology had 11(5%) of the respondents, 13(6%) of the respondents covers security and crime , similarly, with Technology, Accidents and Disasters had 11(5%), also Health, Religion and Culture were covered by 21(9%) of the respondents, while Art and Entertainment and Business each had 15(7%) of the respondents, and 25(11%) Environmental& sports stories. In the statistical analysis, this shows that 33(14%) of the respondents covered more than one beat. This further indicates that the stories covered by the majority of the respondents i.e politics and governance with 44(19%) were stories of utmost interest and these type of stories steer-up the public sphere through debate and conversations especially because of a political interest or political benefits, or even because of advertisers, when redistributed online. while in the interview, most of the respondents said that they had covered most stories in their years of experience before reaching their present positions.

Table 8: *Method of Storing information or data by respondents*

Information storage	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Digital	228	100
Analog	0	0
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above indicates that 228(100%) out of the sampled respondents store their information digitally, using various technological devices, while none of the respondents store their information using the analog method of storage.

Table 9: *Usage of technological devices or tools at work.*

Technological devices	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Desktop pc	39	17
Tablets	43	18
Mobile phones	21	9
Email	15	7
Internet	13	6
Networking websites (facebook, linkedin)	13	6
Audio recording devices	22	10
Laptops	12	5
Usage of more than one devices	50	22
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that majority of the respondents with 50(22%) were those respondents that used more than one device in their work. Followed by 43(18%) of the respondents that used more of tablets, 39(17%) of the respondents used only desktop, 22(10%) of the respondents used audio recording devices, 21(9%) of the respondents used more of their phones in their work as a journalists. while 15(7%) of the respondents were those that used only their emails and other collaborative tools in their work and 13(6%) of the respondents used both internet and other networking websites and 12(5%) of the respondents used laptops.

While in the interview, most of the respondents use the available technology in their work. An excerpt from the interview made with Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu of The Daily Trust revealed that

"The use of technology or technological devices in today's world of journalism is inevitable. Because it has made the life of journalists so much easier. Technology is the order of the day where you have to use it or never work at all. It is so important to a journalist that it helps to bring about speed and accuracy when it has to do with information dissemination."

Most of the respondents unanimously agree with the above statement by one of the respondents. It can be deduced, based on the study that technological devices are so significant and helpful to journalists in discharging their responsibilities to the public.

RQ1. On the level of knowledge of digital Safety among journalists in Kano state.

Table 10: *Respondents' awareness level of digital safety.*

Awareness level	Frequency	Percentage
High	145	64
Medium	83	36
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows the awareness level of the respondents concerning digital safety, with 145(64%) of the respondents in affirmation while 83(36%) of the respondents indicated Medium as their response. This further indicates that with the development of journalism by technology, it has made the life of journalists so much easier in the dissemination process of information yet so much difficult as more emerging safety threats are linked to this digital development.

In the qualitative approach, most respondents affirmed to the fact that they were aware of digital safety. According to Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu of The Daily Trust Newspaper, he said,

"Yes, I am aware of digital safety. Especially in this world of technology where it has changed journalism. Digital revolution has empowered journalists in carrying out their duties with a lot of speed and accuracy. However, it is not without its own challenges, risk and consequences. That is why, most of the devices I use, I tend to use protective digital security tools such as anti-virus software to protect myself even when online".

Similarly, in an in-depth interview with Bala Nasir of Freedom Radio, who shared his views;

"Yes, even though I work in the broadcast media, we are not separated from these technological devices. As long as our core responsibility is to disseminate information. A journalist must devise means of using these modern technologies to reach out to different audiences. I am aware of digital safety especially my personal safety, so I tend to use most of the safety tools available when interfacing with these technological devices".

Contrary to this, Musa Ahmas Tijjani of The Triumph Newspaper said that he was not aware of what digital safety is, because he does not frequent these devices all the time. Based on this submission, it can be deduced that most of the editors were aware of digital safety, but defined it based on their individual perspectives and device preference.

Table 11: *Understanding of digital safety*

Understanding and usage level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
High	86	36
Average	62	28
medium	46	20
Low	20	9
None	14	6
Total	**228**	**100**

The understanding of digital safety is that which could be linked to the emerging safety threats associated with the use of technological devices and platforms by journalists, as they continue to work without paying attention to this hazardous digital environment. However, respondents of this study were classified based on their comprehension of the subject matter. Majority, of the respondents with 86(36%) were those that do not have a clear understanding to what digital safety meant but do not dispute the fact that most of these respondents do utilize the various technological devices or tools exposed too. However, it can be deduced that, these respondents do not pay attention to the hazardous digital environment that poses threats, intimidation and abuse to their physical safety. 62(28%) of the respondents were of the view that digital safety has to do with taking the necessary protective and precautionary measures of safeguarding both their information and themselves. 14(6%) respondents responses were like " to prevent your story from been tampered with" also " to protect your account from any unknown source from accessing it and the ability of a journalist to be safe on the internet and being aware of the dangers associated with while online".

Also, 46(20%) of the respondents understands digital safety to be the process of securing your information or data through storing these information online in a way you can retrieve it without any part of it been tampered or missing. For example, in a situation where stories with videos are been photo -shopped and the information is altered. However, through the usage of the available digital tools 20(9%) of the respondents were of the view that using these digital tools by journalists while online or offline is the safest way of been protected from hackers, harassers and dangerous viruses and malwares.

RQ2 On the extent of practice of digital safety.

Table 12: *Practice of digital safety online by respondents*

Practice of digital safety online	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Often	84	37
Always	81	35
Sometimes	63	28
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 84(37%) of the respondents often practice digital safety, 81(35%) of the respondents always practice, while 63(28%) sometimes practice safety online. this table indicates that the majority of respondents in some instances practice but become vulnerable in some occasions to practice.

In the interviews, three of the respondents do practice digital safety most times when using any available technological devices or tools especially when online to protect themselves and their stories.

An interview with Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu of The Daily Trust Newspaper, revealed that ;

"The practice of digital safety is very important to a journalist because of the multiple- users using these platforms. People can easily tell their opinions regarding a story you post online. However, with the emergence of digital development, there has been a rise in possible surveillance on digital communication. I try in my capacity to protect my devices using the necessary security tools like the use of strong password and anti- software applications. For example, an incident happened to me when my email was hacked and this anonymous person demanded money from me".

Similarly, another editor Muhammad Sunusi of ARTV, responded that,

"When it comes to the usage of these technological devices, tools and platforms in executing my work as a journalist. I try to some extent to practice through the use of strong password and encryption of information".

Nevertheless, few respondents said they rarely do practice digital safety because when it comes to the use of these devices or tools and platforms they are not ardent users. It can be deduced that majority of the respondents do practice sometimes using the known safety strategies while others don't.

Table 13: *Use of web/internet for research purposes when writing stories*

Use of web for research	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Low use	60	26
Average use	102	45
Heavy use	66	29
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that whether the respondents tend to use the internet for research purposes or not when writing stories. 60(26%) of the respondents were adjudged to be of a low use of the internet, while 102 (45%) of the respondents were average users of the internet and 66(29%) of the respondents use the internet for research with over half reporting heavy use.

Table 14: *Respondents' email provider preference.*

Email preference	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gmail	126	55
Hotmail	18	8
Yahoo	32	14
Organization email account	29	13
Others	23	10
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that when asked which email service that they prefer to use for their work, 126(55%) of the respondents reported using Gmail. This was an encouraging result, because Gmail is relatively secure compared to other email service providers even if they are

provided with an exclusive email address by their company or organization(Internews, 2012). 18(8%) of the respondents uses hotmail, 32 (14%) of the respondents prefer to use yahoo while 29(13%) of the respondents prefer to use organization's private email account and 23 (10%) represents others.

In the interview, most of the editors interviewed unanimously responded like this when they were asked what features are most important to them in selecting an email service. The result clearly explained the preference for Gmail. In their own words; those editors interviewed said,

" The most important feature for them in an email provider preference is the storage space. Because Gmail provides and offers around 7.5 gigabytes (GB) of free space and it is easy to use".

Table 15: *Respondents' awareness of secure email features*

Secure email feature	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	75	33
No	153	67
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that the majority of respondents with 153(67%) were unaware of the existence of secure email features such as point-to-point encryption, where emails sent and received from the respondents computer to email providers serves are encrypted using the secure sockets layer (SSL) protocol. However, this is affirmed by the responses that majority of the users are not fully aware of this feature.

In the interview, one of the editors Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu interviewed said,

"I have experienced a lot with regarding to the use of email. An incident occurred where unsecured addresses or links were sent to my email and not knowing how to use the secure

email feature. I just clicked on the address and it redirected me to other pages that were not useful to me and to my work".

Table 16 : *Respondents' Social media usage*

Social media use	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Never	27	12
Rarely	35	15
Sometimes	85	37
Often	37	16
Always	44	20
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that in researching, distributing or writing stories, respondents reported that Face book, You tube and twitter were the three most used social media platforms. 85 (37%) of respondents sometimes use these platforms, 35(15%) rarely use,44 (20%) of respondents always use these platforms and 37(16%) of the respondents often use these platforms while 27(12%) of respondents never use these platforms whether in researching, writing and distributing of stories.

Table 17: *Respondents' meeting informants*.

Contact with informants	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	138	61
No	57	25
Don't know	33	14
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 138(61%) of the respondents were involved in meeting or interacting with sensitive informants, while 57(25%) of the respondents do not and 33 (14%) don't know whether they meet sensitive informants. It can be deduced that majority of the respondents with 138(61%) meet and interact with these sensitive contact informants could have caused them a lot of security concerns. This could be seen in the next table shown below.

Table 18: *Respondents' Security concerns*

Security concerns	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	138	60
No	90	40
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 138(60%) of the respondents said that their work as journalists has caused them security concerns. While 90(40%) of the respondents said they had never had any security concerns related to their work.

Table 19: *Issues concern to respondents*

Issues concern to respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Personal safety	67	29
Security of information	57	25
Security of informants	36	16
Security of family	20	9
Security of people I work with	48	21
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that the respondents were asked to specify, what were the types of issues that were of concerned to them. They said, the majority of respondents with 67(29%) replied personal safety, followed by security of information 57(25%), security of people I work with 48(21%), then security of information 36(16%) and security of family 20(9%) respectively.

RQ3 On the kind of threats journalists are exposed to in digital environment

Table 20: *Experience of intimidation, threats or abuse online by respondents*

Experiences of intimidation, threats, etc	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	110	48
No	118	52
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 110(48%) of the respondents experienced one form of threat or abuse. While 118 (52%) have never experienced such. In the qualitative method, based on the interview conducted, one of the respondents stated that "abusive messages sent via private channels (emails, face-book messages) are the most aggressive and straight forward and even comments made by these online followers tend to be more severe because of a story posted by the journalist".

Table 21: *Respondents personal security- the greatest threat*

Personal security threats	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Being arrested by authorities	60	26
Being personally threatened	62	27
Having their identities exposed	16	7
Having their websites hacked or attacked	16	7
Having their emails intercepted or data stolen	16	7
Being sacked at work.	20	9
Having their publications attacked or site hacked	22	10
Having their friends and family threatened	16	7
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that the largest group of respondents 62(27%) were personally threatened. 60(26%) were being arrested and detained by authorities; this was the most significant threat journalist face. Very few respondents with 16 (7%) each were exposed against their wishes, websites hacked or email intercepted or data stolen, or their friends and family were threatened while 20(9%) of the respondents were sacked at work and 22(10%) of respondents were their publications were hacked. This analysis shows that it can be deduced that physical safety is the primary concern and more work needs to be done to understand

how digital security breaches and email interception can threaten a journalist's physical safety.

Table 22: *Common perpetrators of intimidation, threats and attacks to respondents*

Perpetrators of these attacks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Co- workers	24	11
Government officials	92	40
Police	35	15
Sources	30	13
Online followers	47	21
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 92(40%) of the respondents stated that Government officials are the most common perpetrator of these acts, followed by online followers with 47(21%), then police with 35(15%), 30 (13%) of respondents said their sources and 24(11%) of the respondents stated that some of their co-workers tend to intimidate them as well.

Table 23 : *Respondents' experience on consequences due to any kind of journalistic activities online.*

Consequences	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	114	50
No	114	50
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows a balance representation of respondents on their experiences of any consequences due to their journalistic activities online whether recently or in the past. Based on the statistical analysis, 114 (50%) of the respondents affirmed to have faced different consequences while 114(50%) of the respondents stated that they have never faced any consequences online.

Table 24 : *Types of online threats experienced by respondents*

Consequences of online threats	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Personally threatened online	40	18
Threatened by email	30	13
Threatened by SMS	21	9
My computer got a virus and my data was affected	31	14
Had by email intercepted	16	7
My publication website hacked	13	6
None	77	33
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 77(33%) of the respondents had never experienced any consequences whatsoever due to their work or activities online and this is due to the fact that reference to the previous table 23 half of the respondents responses were No. 40(18%) of the respondents were personally threatened online with severe comments posted. 30(13%) of the respondents threatened by email, 21(9%) threatened by SMS, while 31(14%) respondents got their computer affected by virus, and some of the respondents with 16(7%) had their email intercepted, then 13(6%) of the remaining respondents had their publications website or blogs hacked.

Table 25 : *Respondents' views on the top most threats exposed to journalists online*

Most threats online	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Threats by email	36	16
Surveillance of your online activities	41	18
Virus in computer that harms data	44	19
Personal or organization website hacked	18	8
Tapped phone or recorded calls	15	6
Impersonation online	16	7
Online disinformation campaign	17	7
Compromise users account	12	5
None	29	14
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 44(19%) of the respondents had their computer affected by virus, 41(18%) of the respondents were surveyed online, where their activities were monitored. 36(16%) of the respondents were sent threats through their email,18(8%) of respondents had

their organization's website hacked, while 15(6%) of respondents had their phone calls either recorded or tapped, the 16(7%) and 17(7%) of the respondents had issues of either impersonation or online disinformation campaign respectively. 12(5%) with compromise users account ,29(14%) of the respondents selected .

In the qualitative method, most of the editors interviewed responded that, they had experienced one or two threats in the course of their duties. When asked on the threats, intimidation and abuses exposed to by them. One of the editors said, Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu

"Being an editor for decades now, in today's world of journalism, where digital threats, harassments and intimidation are linked to digital development is inevitable. I had experienced it but not much. They are rare, but these threats still occur. I don't know if sometimes it's a gender thing because sometimes women receive more threats online than we men in my opinion. And these threats portend danger in our lives and work. For example, my email account settings was peered into an obscure corner under the mail forwarding tab was an email address I had never seen before, that other email address had been receiving copies of all my incoming emails for months. Not knowing my account had been hacked. I received abusive messages".

Similarly, an interview with Bala Nasir of Freedom Radio said,

"Threats and intimidation online is a basic thing that journalists needs to cope with because this attacks happens always and comes with the job. Sometimes it's not the threats or abuses that are disturbing, but the frequency and overwhelming persistence. So as ajournalist's one needs to get use to it. For example, I wrote a political story and redistributed it online, that steered up different opinions and debate among various online followers, but some of these followers insulted and intimidated me by their comments. I couldn't do anything because most of these harassers do not disclose their real identities."

Contrary to the above response, another respondent Musa Ahmad Tijjani said that,

"I was physically threatened, because of a story I wrote about the murder of a prominent politician in Kano. The story's headline captures "who is the murderer? And some group of aggrieved individuals felt offended by the story. And I was detained for several hours and this lead to my demotion in the office as an editor".

From the foregoing, based on the in-depth interviews, it can be inferred that most journalists had suffered one form of threats , intimidation and harassment especially in their early phase of their career or years of experience as journalists. This is because of the pivotal role they play in the society as news bringers of the society. However, more and more intimidation, threats and abuses have become a tool of choice to scare journalists into staying away from discharging their responsibilities especially with the emergence of internet as the pathway.

Table 26: *Impact of these threats on respondents*

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	69	30
No	73	32
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 69(30%) of the respondents responded to have been subjected to various kinds of threats, intimidations and abuses, that these threats had an impact on them. 73(32%) responded no to have never been subjected to these kinds of attacks while out of the respondents were impacted to some extent by these threats with 86 (38%).

Table 27*: Effects of intimidations, threats and abuse on respondents*

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Personal safety	66	29
Psychological trauma	53	23
Depression	34	15
Suffered economically	50	22
Shunned by colleagues	25	11
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that based on the statistical analysis 53(23%) of the respondents were psychologically traumatized by these threats, 66 (29%) of the respondents were affected personally, then 50(22%) of the respondents suffered economically by these threats either had to spend, repair or even buy devices that were affected. 34(15%) of the respondents had depression while 25(11%) of the respondents were shunned by colleagues.

Table 28: *Reasons that make perpetrators to carry out these attacks*

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
They think they were offended by the report	87	38
Access to journalist profile online	41	18
They were misrepresented	27	12
They didn't like the report	37	16
Others	36	16
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that 87(38%) of the respondents stated that they believed that the actors were offended by the report, 41(18%) of respondents believed they had access to the journalist profile online, 27(12%) stated that they were misrepresented and 37(16%) of the respondents believed these actors didn't like the report while 36 (16%) fell within others.

RQ4 On the safety security tools used by journalists in protecting themselves

Table 29: *Respondents' views on ways to increase the security of information and individual using digital security tools and strategies*.

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
More awareness of Safety Education	140	61
No	88	39
Total	228	100

The table above shows that the majority of the respondents 140(61%) replied that they were aware of strategies and platforms to keep them safe online but advocated for more safety education for journalists. These results were surprising, because earlier questions indicated that respondents were not particularly concerned about the security aspects of their online

activities. However, 88(39%) of the respondents said had no views on ways to increase the security of information and individual. To solve this, respondents were given a list of the most important digital security strategies and asked which strategy they had used in the past to secure their online interactions. This is statistically analyzed in the subsequent tables represented as follows.

Table 30: *Respondents' views on ways of protecting information*

Ways on protecting information	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Using strong password	45	20
Encrypting data	32	14
Using anti-virus	13	6
Using anti-censorship software	17	7
Using private virtual software	13	6
Keeping your operating system updated	13	6
Safe deletion of data	13	6
Secure backups to prevent any information loss	26	11
Others	11	4
None	45	20
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that, based on the statistical analysis the results addressed the enigma found in table 29 by the researcher. Those respondents who said, they were aware of security tools and platforms for their online interactions mainly had heard of basic strategies like " using strong passwords with 45 (20%) and using secure backups to prevent any information loss with 26(11%). Another set of respondents 32(14%) indicated, they were familiar with encrypting data, 13 (6%) of the respondents heard of using anti-virus, 17(7%) heard of anti-censorship software, using private virtual network, keeping your operating system updated and safe deletion of data were most of the security technique knew by the respondents with 13 (6%) respectively. While 11(4%) fell within other security strategies and out of the total respondents 45(20%) had never heard of any security tools.

In the interview, most of the respondents responded in the different viewpoints concerning the use of safety tools and strategies. Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu revealed that,

"My nineteen years in this profession, I had been exposed to sixteen different kinds of training of which nine is related to the use of modern technology and different safety tips on how to use these devices in relation to work were all taught in the training".

Similarly, another respondent Bala Nasir of Freedom Radio said that;

"The organization I work for is always concerned with our safety and most staff undergo at least one or two month's in-house training concerning the use of technology. Despite, these devices are manufactured with various safety measures. The organization invites experts to train us in the use of digital software, anti-virus security tool and anti-censorship software on how to use them to protect our work and selves"

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that most of the respondents use these safety tools or mechanisms especially the basic ones like the use of strong passwords, anti-virus software etc. in protecting themselves and their works. As surveillance threatens the lives and liberty of reporters, editors and other media actors worldwide, this has led to the incarceration of so many journalists.

Table 31: *Respondents' views on digital security tools usage.*

Digital security tool use	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Using strong password	45	20
Encrypting data	32	14
Using anti-virus	13	6
Using anti-censorship software	17	7
Using private virtual network	13	6
Keeping your operating system updated	13	6
Safe deletion of data	13	6
Secure backups to prevent any information loss	26	11
Others	11	4
None	45	20
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows that the majority of respondents with 45(20%) used strong password, 13(6%) of the respondents used anti-virus software to safe guard themselves online.13(6%) said they like encrypting their data, 32 (14%) of the respondents update their operating systems regularly, some of the respondents used anti-censorship software with 17(7%), using private virtual network with 13(6%) safe deletion of data with 13(6%) and secure backups to prevent any information loss with 26(11%) and 11(4%) of the respondents fell within others and 45(20%) had no view regarding the usage of digital security tools .These however, were the statistical analysis of the respondents on their usage of various digital tools in their day -to-day journalistic activities.

Table 32: *Respondents' views on needed support system for the journalists*

Support system needed	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Digital safety training	98	43
Digital safety awareness	84	37
Others	46	20
Total	228	100

 The table above shows that, 98(43%) of the respondents were of the opinion that digital safety training by employers to journalists should be incorporated among other trainings provided by the organizations and 84(37%) were of the opinion that more of digital safety

awareness should be provided by the organization to the journalists while 46(20%) of the respondents fell within others. This could be inferred that, it is so important because these actors perpetrating these attacks and threats are using various online platforms and sophisticated digital strategies by the day. However, to this end, it is so imperative for media organizations to equip and educate their personnel on the various digital safety strategies and tools to combat any digital threats, abuse, harassments and attacks. Moreover, these digital safety strategies and tools are evolving every day.

In the interview, most of the respondents agreed with the need of digital safety support system for journalists. Some of the respondents suggested that more of awareness and training are what is needed. According to an editor interviewed, Bala Nasir of Freedom Radio he said

"More sophisticated digital tools and devices are evolving every day. There is the need for media organization to educate and enlighten journalists on the current digital trends that are emerging every day. This is much needed because of how technology has changed journalism even traditional media are trying to meet up with the current digital trends of news and information dissemination. This enlightenment approach should start from various media organizations."

Yusha'u Ibrahim Adamu suggested that,

"Government should make or enforce the cyber-crime act 2015 act at all levels in the state to ensure the protection of journalists while executing their assignments."

Other editors like Musa Ahmad Tijjani and Muhammad Sunusi both suggested that,

"More of training should be advocated. As more sophisticated digital tools and devices are emerging, training of new and old staffs on these tools is needed. With these they believed to some extent that the safety of journalist especially digitally can be assured".

Table 33 :*Respondents' views on the knowledge and practice of digital safety by journalists*.

Knowledge and practice	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Poor	26	11
Fair	29	17
Good	56	25
Average	64	28
Excellent	43	19
Total	**228**	**100**

The table above shows the various assessment level of knowledge and practice of digital safety by the respondents, 68(28%) of the respondents claimed to have average of both knowledge and practice, 56 (25%) of the respondents fell within good, 43(19%) of the respondents were claimed to have excellent knowledge and practice of digital safety, 29(17%) of the respondents were claimed to be fair while 26(11%) of the respondents were also claimed to have poor knowledge and practice of digital safety.

Major Research Findings.

Based on the data collected and analyzed, the research work discovered the following findings.

1. The study revealed that journalists in Kano State were aware of digital safety. The majority of the respondents with 145(64%) were of the view that digital safety is the ability of a journalist to stay safe online while using the necessary protective and precautionary digital security tools when interfacing with any technological device or platforms.

2. The study discovered that as a journalist, one's public online presence makes him an easier target, but not all journalists treat threats in the same way or necessarily perceive

certain comments as threats. This largely depends on personal traits and professional socialization. Also, discovered through the study was that serious threats tend to come via emails and Face book messages etc.

3. The study revealed that the practice of digital safety is a situation that is made more complicated by the traditional media's willingness to invite more and more participation from the public e.g send us your emails, contact us through twitter, share with us on Face book, just text us etc. This indicates that the traditional media is trying to meet the new technology of news and information dissemination. Majority of the respondents do practice, but tend to use the basic digital security tools such as the use of strong password and anti-virus software etc.

4. The study revealed that one of the causes of digital threat is the fusion of identities. This implies that journalism was a one-way communication in the past but with the new technology and moving on the online environment, it has become a two-way communication, because people can easily tell their opinions regarding any story or information posted online. Even though some journalists were aware of their identity and believe it is distinct from their professional identities. Some of the respondents were not aware of the distinction between these two identities. Because they don't make it very clear if they post on an online profile where they were perceived as a public person or as a normal individual with their own opinion. This further indicates that sometimes re-tweeting or commenting in a certain way that may seem fun may have a professional backlash.

5. The study also revealed that most of the respondents were aware of the basic safety security tools available but were unaware of the increasingly sophisticated safety security tools emerging.

Discussion of findings.

Based on the analysis of the field survey and the in-depth interview conducted, quite a good number of findings were revealed which requires proper discussion with other empirical and theoretical studies carried out by other researchers in other to provide answers to the research questions under study.

The findings of this study with regards to research question one on the level of knowledge about digital safety among journalist s in Kano state. The study revealed that 145(64%) of the respondents were aware of digital safety but had different viewpoints. However, these majorities of the respondents were categorized within the middle knowledge continuum, as this is in line with the data in table 10 and it corresponds with the interview excerpt inserted within the table.

The findings with regards to research question two on the extent in which journalists in Kano state practice digital safety. It was revealed that majority of the respondents sometimes practice digital safety to a certain extent with 84(37%). The above finding is in conformity with the assertion of Suraj and Olaleye (2016). Who discovered similar results that Nigerian journalists do practice digital safety often. Findings indicated that almost all of the journalists make use of strong pass-words and anti-virus programs on their digital communication devices. However, most do not encrypt their sensitive information and fail to enable their virtual private networks (VPN), when operating on non-secured public networks, thereby exposing them to danger.

The findings with regards to research question three on the digital threats exposed to journalists. From the findings shown in table 25, majority of the respondents had their computers affected by virus with 44(19%), followed by 41(18%) of the respondents who

were surveyed online i.e there were surveillance of their online activities. Most of the editors affirmed to the above findings.

A related study titled *"Journalist security in the Digital world: a survey.* Carried out by Committee for International Media Assistance (CIMA) and analyzed by Ramos (2016) reveals that journalist have become more vulnerable not only while on assignments in dangerous places, but also in their daily routines, at home, in the newsroom, as digital surveillance increases. Though, digital world has made journalism a riskier profession. Hence, digital technology can offer tools to minimize the dangers whether physical, digital, that reporters and editors face on the job.

Similarly, These findings corresponds with one of the findings of Suraj and Olaleye (2016) that Nigerian journalists while admitting their knowledge on digital safety noted that there are different range of digital threats, considered compromised users accounts, disinformation and smear campaigns, confiscation of journalistic products and fake domain attacks to be a major threats. In line with this, Bertoni (2013) reported that these constitute major security issues among Mexican journalists.

Additionally, in a similar study by Internews (2012) carried out a research to provide a snapshot of the awareness and practice of digital security strategies among journalists and bloggers in Pakistan. The findings with regards to research question four on the safety security tools or mechanisms. The study revealed that there are ranges of digital security strategies to increase the security of information and individuals. The majority of the respondents 140(61%) were aware of the digital security strategies to keep them safe online. This is validated by the findings of Suraj and Olaleye (2016) carried out a related research titled: Digital safety among Nigerian journalists. A KAP study on the print media organization in Nigeria. The study reveals that Nigerian journalists are aware of all the security strategies indicated in the study. However, they preferred the simple security

strategies of changing and using strong password to advanced security strategies. This could be attributed to their limited technical skills.

Similarly, in a similar study by Internews (2012) carried out a research to provide a snapshot of the awareness and practice of digital security strategies among journalists and bloggers in Pakistan. The main objective of the study was a survey to assess online security perceptions, knowledge and practice of journalists and bloggers in Pakistan. Some of the main findings are that; though 1 in 19 Pakistanis uses the internet (5.2%). 81 % of respondents use the internet for research in writing stories. And most journalists and bloggers are aware of basic strategies to safeguard their online interactions, such as installing anti-virus software and using strong passwords. But are unaware of more sophisticated security tools. The study reveals an overwhelming 90.4% of respondents reported that they have never received any training on how to ensure their digital security and some respondents were reluctant to use digital security tools, because of perceived costs and believed they were complex to use.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1   Summary

Safety of journalists and media actors has been a major concern around the world due to the increased number of journalists who have been murdered, attacked, intimidated or threatened among others just for exercising their fundamental human right of free speech and expression. This has made many international and regional institutions like United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO),International Safety News Institute (INSI), International Women Media Foundation(IWMF), Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe(OSCE) UN plan of action to recognize that safety is an issue of both offline and online etc as well as academics to undertake studies on journalists' safety issues.

Most of the studies that were conducted have revealed that more than 800 journalists, media workers and social media producers have been killed during the past ten years. Among those killed journalists, during the past two years 59% were killed in war zones, and 41 % were killed out-side armed conflict areas (UNESCO 2014, UNESCO in Cottle, 2017) According to Henrichsen, Betz and Lisosky (2015), from 2011-2013, 37 of the 276 journalists killed did Internet-based work and used digital tools.. According to Cottle (2017), almost up to 50% of journalists in the Nordic region have experienced online hatred and verbal abuse, including serious death threats. Moreover, the internet also provides the pathway for journalists and other actors doing journalism with digital technologies to face several ranges of digital challenges and dangers, which sometimes contribute to the hostile environment they face in the physical world. However, dangers face not only those who publish online. They apply to all actors whose journalistic activities interface with electronic technology, whether through

their use of computers to process information, their utilization of telecoms or the Internet for news gathering and research, or simply their reliance on email for communications.

The first chapter therefore, introduced the concept of safety of journalists. It also contained with statement of the problem which triggered the study; the disruption of traditional journalism by digital technology which raises clear risks for journalists and these risks and threats facing journalism are varied and swiftly evolving. It is evident as digitization is changing the relationship between media and journalism as online offerings are emerging alongside traditional media .within the digital environment; media are developing new forms of proving their trustworthiness. This represents a major challenge for journalism. Subsequently, the purpose of the study was to collect data on the kind of safety challenges faced among journalists in Kano State in order to acknowledge the specific digital threats and risks journalists experience in the exercise of their duty in both online and offline situations.

At the same time, it seeks to increase the understanding of media actors about the threats inherent in the practice of digital journalism in Kano State in order to know what can be done to mitigate these dangers. The objectives of the study included: To find the level of knowledge about digital safety among journalists in Kano state, to find the extent in which journalist in Kano state practice digital safety, to identify the digital threats that journalists are exposed to in digital environment, to examine the various digital safety security tools used by journalists in protecting themselves.

The scope of the study is the entire registered journalists in Kano State. Chapter two reviewed the available literature on safety of journalists, technology and journalism, digital journalism etc. It discussed the knowledge gap theory and the technological –determinism theory which the study adopted as its theoretical framework. From the review, it could be deduced that

journalists are aware of digital safety and practice it to some certain extent. This is deduced based on their individual perspectives and preference to digital technology usage, safety tools and mechanisms. Several studies have found out that while admitting their knowledge on digital safety, there are ranges of digital threats that journalists encounter due to their lack of awareness to the emerging and sophisticated digital safety tools available in protecting themselves. Facts have also shown that on a day-to-day-basis, journalists face threats such as phone tapping, physical surveillance, computer hacking, threats to family and friends, the possibility of losing their jobs, and being exiled. Unfortunately, such repression is conducted not only by radical elements in society, but in some cases by the government itself. And most journalists and bloggers are aware of basic strategies to safeguard their online interactions, such as installing anti-virus software and using strong passwords. But are unaware of more sophisticated security tools available.

Chapter three discussed the methodological approach of the study. The study used a mixed method. The qualitative aspect i.e the in-depth interview was used to generate data from the selected editors, while the quantitative aspect was used to capture the journalists using questionnaires as the instrument for data collection.

Chapter four presented the data gathered from the field. It used simple statistical tables with percentages in presenting the data. The study have found that journalists are exposed to certain digital safety challenges such as phone tapping, physical surveillance, computer hacking, threats to family and friends, the possibility of losing their jobs, intimidation, online harassments and being exiled. The most frequent digital threat faced by journalists reported acts of surveillance, abusive messages sent by private channels and hacking of their devices. From the finding alsothat most of the journalists are aware of digital safety and have fair knowledge of digital safety strategies, although were not aware of the advanced digital

security tools emerging, most of the journalists practice to a certain extent. Government officials and online followers despite their willingness to express their support and views hide their identities and use prefabricated phrases. These groups mostly are the perpetrators of intimidations, attacks and threats against journalists.

5.2   Conclusion

Based on the findings the study concluded that some journalists in Kano state do not yet possess the knowledge and digital safety skills required to operate in today's digital environment. However, they have shown a certain level of knowledge and practice and seem to be aware of the various threats they face with regards to their safety online. obviously, they need to mitigate the inherent dangers abound as individuals, organizations, states and Governments employs the world's most sophisticated technology to watch, scare, and suppress journalists. To this end, safety is a fundamental pillar of the universal right to press freedom. Each state, institutions and stakeholder has a duty to ensure a safe and enabling environment whether online or offline for journalists to perform their public-interest duty independently without any interference.

5.3   Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations were made;

To the media organizations/ management.

1. The study recommends that the media stations in Kano State should acknowledge the threats and learn to anticipate attacks. The media must strengthen the awareness of executives and journalists and implement emergency internal mechanisms.

2. The study recommends that the media Stations in Kano State should ensure the need for more training and digital education about the increasingly sophisticated tools evolving.

3. The study recommends that media organizations in Kano State should encourage the creation of networks to exchange best practices by developing a digital safety holistic approach. Those involved should include editors, community managers, digital security and legal executives as well as journalists within the media organizations.

To the journalists

1. A journalist should stay abreast with the emerging digital trends evolving as regards to his safety.

2. A journalist should ensure adequate knowledge and practice of digital security strategies abound and which one is safe to use.

3. A journalist should always draw the line between their personal identity and professional identity when it comes to executing assignments or redistributing stories online as digital surveillance increases.

To policy makers.

1. The policy makers should strengthen laws and enforce these laws strictly especially the Cyber-crime act of 2015

2. The government also must strengthen digital education i.e to increase internet user's awareness of the impact of online harassments, threats and the legal consequences for perpetrators.

To international organization.

1. International organizations should continue to urge government to uphold the principle that the same right that people have offline must also be protected online in particular to freedom of expression.

2. To also develop communication and awareness campaigns concerning digital threats, harassments and violence etc with special attention to the targeting of journalists.

5.4   Suggestions for further studies.

Safety of journalists has been a major concern around the world. This is because in trying to exercise their social responsibility to the society as journalist, more and more intimidation and threats are continuing becoming a tool of choice for those who want to control the flow of information. Moreover, the study recommends future research on the digital safety of female journalists, considering their vulnerability

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Interviews

Yushua, I. A. personal interview on 15th March, 2019: Kano

Musa, A.T. personal interview on 14th March, 2019: kano

Bala , N. Personal interview on 13th March , 2019: kano

Muhammad, S. personal interview on 12th February ,2019: Kano

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent(s)

This survey is designed to complete the academic requirement of a master's degree. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are hereby assured that any information you provide shall remain confidential and usage of the same shall be for research purpose only. Thank you for your time to share your insights and experiences on this important topic: ***knowledge and practice of Digital safety among journalists in kano state.*** However, this entails taking necessary precautions, preventive and protective safety measures when using any technological tools or devices while engaging in journalism.

1.   Male ( )   female (   )

2.   Which of the following age bracket do you fall within?

   18-24 ( ) 25-34 ( ) 35- 44( ) 45-54 ( ) 55-64( ) 65- 74( ) 75 above (   ).

3.   Are you registered with Nigerian union of journalists (NUJ)?

   Yes ( ) No ( )

4.   In which area of media do you work?

   Television (   )   Newspaper (   ) Magazine (   ) Internet (   ) if others, please specify_____.

5.   How would you describe your current occupation?

   Freelancer (   ) staff journalist (   ) producer (   )   photographer ( ) Reporter (   ) other_____

6. For how long have you been in this profession?

1-5 ( )   6-10 (   )   11-15 (   ) 16-20 (   ) 21-25 ( ) 26-30 (   ) 30 above (   )

7. Please describe the type of stories you primarily cover?

- Politics and governance ( )   Art and entertainment ( )

- Technology ( )   Business (   )

- Security and crime ( )   Environment and sports (   )

- Accidents and disasters ( )

- Health ( )

- Religion and culture ( )

- Education (   )

8. How do you store your information/ data?

Analog (   )   Digital (   )   if digital?

9. Which technology device or tools do you use in your work?

- Desktop (   )

- Laptop/ tablets (   )

- Mobile phones (   )

- Email   (   )

- Internet ( )

- Networking websites (   )

- Audio recording devices (   )

- Laptops (   )

10. Are you aware of digital safety?

Yes (   ) No (   ) if yes

11. What is your understanding of digital safety or safety online?

_____

12. How often do you practice digital safety especially when online?

Sometimes (   ) Always (   ) Never (   )

13. How do you use the web/ internet for research when writing stories?

Low use (   ) average use (   ) heavy use (   )

14. Which email service are you using for your work related interactions?

Gmail (   ) Hotmail (   ) Yahoo (   ) organization email account (   ) any other (   )

15. Are you aware of secure email services?

Yes (   ) No (   )

16. Do you use social networking platforms such as linkedin, google+ ,facebook, twitter etc
    when researching , writing and distribution of stories ?

Never (   ) Rarely (   ) sometimes (   ) often (   ) almost always (   ) if never
why_____

17. Does your journalism include meeting and interacting with contact informants?

Yes ( ) No ( ) don't know ( )

18. Has your work as a journalist ever caused you any security concerns ?

Yes ( ) No ( )

19. If yes, what type of issues are of concern to you ?

- Personal safety ( )

- Security of information ( )

- Security of informants ( )

- Security of family ( )

- Security of people I work with ( )

20. Have you ever experienced any act of intimidation, threat or abuse online?

Yes ( ) No ( )

21. Which of the following do you think is the biggest threat facing journalists?

- Being arrested or detained by authorities ( )

- Being personally threatened ( )

- Being having their identities exposed against their wishes ( )

- Having their websites hacked or attacked ( )

- Having their email intercepted or data stolen ( )

- Being sacked, demoted or reprimanded at work ( )

- Having their publication attacked or publication site hacked. (   )

- Having their friends and family threatened_____

22. Who are the most common perpetrators of intimidation, threats and attacks?

- Co- workers (   )

- Government officials (   )

- Police(   )

- Sources (   )

- Online followers (   )

23. In the past or recently, have you experienced any negative consequences do to your journalism activities especially online? yes (   )   No (   )

24. If yes, please select what is relevant from below.

- I was personally threatened online (   )

- I was threatened by email (   )

- I was threatened by SMS (   )

- My computer got a computer virus and my data was affected (   )

- I had my email intercepted (   )

- My publication, website or blog was attacked or hacked (   )

25. What are the top most threats exposed to you as a journalist especially engaging in journalism online?

- Threats by email ( )

- Surveillance of your online activities ( )

- Virus in computer that harms data ( )

- Personal website or news organization website hacked or attacked (   )

- Tapped phone or recorded calls ( )

- Impersonation online( )

- Online disinformation campaign ( )

- Compromise users account _____

26. Do the intimidation, threats and attacks have any impact on you?

Yes (   ) No ( ) to some extent (   )

27. If yes, which of the following do you think have an effect on you the most ?

- Personal security ( )

- Psychological trauma ( )

- Depression( )

- Suffered economically (   )

- Others _____

28. What do you think motivates actors to carry out these threats or attacks?

- They think they were offended by the reports (   )

- Access to journalist profile online (   )

- They were misrepresented (   )

- They didn't like the report (   )

- Others specify (   )

29. There are a range of ways to increase the security of information and individual using online platforms or tools. Do you know such methods?   Yes (   ) No (   )

30. If yes, which of the following have you heard of ?

- Using strong pass word for your email or other internet accounts (   )

- Encrypting data (   )

- Using anti- virus (   )

- Using anti-censorship software (   )

- Using private virtual network (   )

- Keeping your operating system updated (   )

- Safe deletion of data (   )

- Secure backups to prevent any information loss.

- Others_____

31. Which of the following tools of digital security do you use?

- Using strong pass word for your email or other internet accounts (   )

- Encrypting data (   )

- Using anti- virus ( )

- Using anti-censorship software ( )

- Using private virtual network (   )

- Keeping your operating system updated ( )

- Safe deletion of data ( )

- Secure backups to prevent any information loss.

- Others_____

32. What support could employers give to journalists to help them be safer as they practice their profession online?

- Digital training (   ) digital awareness (   ) others (   )

33. How would you rate your overall knowledge and practice of digital safety?

- Poor (   ) Fair(   ) Good (   ) Average (   ) excellent (   )

INTERVIEW GUIDE

- ✓ Which type of media do you work for?
- ✓ For how long have you been in this profession?
- ✓ Do you use any technological device to do journalism?
- ✓ Do you think that the internet poses a threat to your work? how
- ✓ Are you aware of digital safety?
- ✓ How often do you practice digital safety?
- ✓ Have you experienced any kind of intimidations, threat or abuse online? Can you please give an account of the event?
- ✓ Have you experienced any form of digital attack by hackers?
- ✓ Who are the most common perpetrators of the intimidations, threat and abuses online?
- ✓ Who do you think might be behind these types of attacks?
- ✓ What do you think motivates perpetrators to carry out these threats?
- ✓ Does your organization provide any personal or institutional safety measures for redress for victims?
- ✓ As an editor, do you think there is the need for awareness campaign for journalists on how to ensure digital safety since most journalists on a daily basis interfaces with different technological devices/internet/social networking sites? If yes, what kind of approach would you suggest?

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Table 3.1

Table for Determining Sample Size of a Known Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	1000000	384

Note: N is Population Size; S is Sample Size   Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970