

**ASSESSMENT OF OWNERSHIP INFLUENCE AND CONTROL AMONG
BROADCAST STATIONS IN EDO STATE, NIGERIA**

BY

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ICT/2132051703**

DEPARTMENT OF MASS COMMUNICATION

NOVEMBER, 2022

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**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
HIGHER NATIONAL DIPLOMA (HND) IN MASS COMMUNICATION**

NOVEMBER, 2022

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this study entitled “**Assessment of Ownership Influence and Control among Broadcast Stations in Edo State, Nigeria**” was written by me and that it is the record of my own research. To the best of my knowledge it has not been presented in any previous application for an academic award. All sources of information have been acknowledged using references.

Oyewole Alaba Queen

Date

APPROVAL

This research is approved based on the student's declaration and its compliance with the requirements of the Department of Mass Communication, Auchi Polytechnic Auchi, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Higher National Diploma (HND) in Mass Communication.

Mr. Afam Anikwe
(Project Supervisor)

Date

Mr. Ikerodah Omoh Joseph
(Ag. Head of Department)

Date

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this project to God Almighty for His unfailing grace towards me and also my (Mrs Eunice Oyewole) for her endless love, support and encouragement throughout my pursuit for education.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to God Almighty for the possibility to complete this project.

Special thanks to my supervisor (Afam Anikwe) for helping me coordinate my project.

Very special thanks to my siblings Mr. Jacob Oloriegbe who has always been there for me from the very beginning to this point, Mr. Femi Olorigbe, Mr. Job Oloriegbe, Mr. Joseph Oloriegbe. I sincerely appreciate you all for your support, advice and financial assistance. I also want to thank Mr. Osimhe Omokpo and everyone else who contributed to the success and completion of my project and in one way or another. I am forever really grateful. Thank you and may God bless you. AMEN.

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Abstract

This study was undertaken to assess ownership influence and control among broadcast stations in Edo State. In order to achieve this aim, relevant literature were reviewed as the social responsibility and gate keeping theories were employed as theoretical framework. Four research questions were formulated to find out ownership influence and control of broadcast stations, as survey methodology was the research design employed, while the instrument of data collection was the questionnaire that was administered to the respondents. The Taro Yamani sampling procedure was employed to get a representative sample for the study, while simple percentages and statistical tables were used to analyse data. However, it was discovered that owners of media outfits have a lot of influence and control on media contents as he who pays the piper dictates the tune. With this, the study points to the fact that no type of media ownership, be it government, state or private that can be exonerated from being subjective in the face of ownership influence and control. The study however recommends inter alia that media owners should ensure that they give media workers and journalists the leeway for them to fully perform their social responsibility functions as well as making sure that they positively influence broadcast media contents.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In any given society, owners of the media exert tremendous influence on the information the media disseminate, even in the face of ethical implications and media social obligations. Hence, he who pays the piper dictates its tune. However, the reasons for owners of the mass media to either influence or control media contents are not far-fetched. It could be for self interest, political affiliation, religious inclination etc. Be that as it may, the issues of media ownership and control can never be overemphasized. With this, it is apparent that no matter how democratically oriented a government, group of persons or an individual may be, and no matter how advanced the society is, the mass media are usually subjected to some form of control from those who hold and operate the apparatus of power in the society in which the media operate.

Media ownership in Nigeria started with the government having a monopoly of the electronic media i.e. radio and television, while private entrepreneurship dominated the print media. Though ownership was different among these media, the goals seem similar- the protection of the interest of the owners. Be that as it may, the Radio Distribution or Rediffusion (RDS) was experimented on through the Post and Telegraph (P&T) in 1933. It was made possible through the application of the principles of the prominence, then, in Europe and America. It was officially commissioned in Lagos in 1935. In 1951 the Federal Government established the Nigeria Broadcasting Service with its headquarters in Lagos and regional transmitting stations in Ibadan, Enugu and Kaduna. In response to his limited access to the Federal Government-owned NBC, the Action Group government in 1959 established its radio and television stations in Ibadan. This was quickly followed by similar action by the Eastern and Northern regions. Not wanting to be left out of the game, the Federal Government established the NBC-TV, the television arm of the Nigeria Broadcasting Service.

The government pioneered the establishment of broadcasting in Nigeria. Due to what was considered the strategic nature of radio and television, the Federal Government of Nigeria

and the various state components maintained exclusive ownership and control over broadcasting.

In 1992, with the promulgation of Decree 38 by the military administration of General Ibrahim Babangida consequently opened windows of opportunity for many entrepreneurs to invest in the broadcast media industry. To further show the commitment attached to the Decree, as the National Broadcasting Commission (Amendment) Decree No. 55 of 1999. The Decree, therefore, did away with the monopoly of broadcasting by providing for licensing of private individuals to establish, own or operate radio and television stations, which for more than 50 years had been the sole authority of various states and federal governments. Interestingly, the decree created an opportunity for foreign investors to participate in the establishment of stations, a situation which never happened in the past.

Section 22 of the 1999 Constitution gave the first indication of a break in government's monopoly of the electronic media when it assigned the Nigeria media- both print and electronic- the obligation to “uphold the fundamental objectives of the state policy”, and also to “uphold the responsibility and accountability of the government to the people”.

However, Owumalam (2008), note that private ownership of broadcasting establishment is accentuated by statutory acts, which stipulates licensing procedure, type, and sphere of coverage, as well as the purpose of use. Most countries of the world prohibit the establishment of stations, which may run contrary to their national policies. He emphasised:

The ownership of private station is vested on individuals with legal corporate identities. It means that no one individual is allowed to own a broadcast station but a corporate establishments, recognized by law' through incorporation. In Nigeria for instance, the Africa Independent Television (AIT) is owned by DAAR Communications Limited. The Minaj Broadcast International (MBI) is a subsidiary of Minaj Group of Companies. It means that the legal requirement for the granting of broadcast license does not recognised the individual person *per se*, but deals with corporate citizens (p.159).

He further explain that the idea is that individual interests in the membership of the corporate establishment may provide a moderating influence, capable of ensuring compliance to established norms and policies in broadcasting. It also tries to justify the concept of public ownership of the airwave, as opposed to its private ownership, which could make the

individual even more powerful than, the government in his region or nation state. Private owned stations are established when the cooperating individuals, formed into a corporate entity, apply to an authority established by law, to be granted a broadcast license, based on approved statutes or constitutions. The established body, on the receipt of such an application, verifies all claims and recommends to the president, an appropriate advice on the matter. It is the state that grants such an approval.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The fact that ownership influence and control of the media seriously affects the way the mass media perform its social responsibility functions, is not in doubt. As observed by Duyile (1996), the journalist cannot be separated from the social political and economic environment in which the media operate. If the environment is incorruptible, the media will take a cue from there; if it is corrupt, a section of the media will be corrupt. None of the two is an island. The environmental culture affects the media, while the media culture reflects the environment

However, the mass media as an agent of socialization are saddled with the responsibility and obligation of bringing issues and happenings in the society to the knowledge of the people without coloration or embellishment even in the face of ownership influence and control. Here, the mass media at large and the journalist in particular are expected to be objective chronicler of events. They are not expected to be *dramatis personae* or part of the event, as the society assigned the role to give intelligible, nonfictional account of happenings around them. The pursuit of truth in bring meaning to bare on subjects of media enquiry thus represents the minimum, irredeemable social obligation of the media as the onus directly fall on them.

In view of the above, the question is, to what extent has the broadcast media been able to perform its social responsibility functions and obligations in the face of ownership influence and control? And what sort influence does media owners have on broadcast media? Providing answers to these questions and more is the focus of this study.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of this study are:

1. To find out the extent to which ownership influence affects broadcast media content in Nigeria.
2. To ascertain how objective is the broadcast media in the face of ownership control
3. To know the sort of implications ownership influence and control have on broadcast media content in Nigeria.
4. To find out the sort of influence and control media owners have on broadcast stations.

1.4 Research Questions

1. To what extent has ownership influence affected broadcast media contents?
2. How objective is the broadcast media in the face of ownership control?
3. What sort of implications does ownership influence and control have on broadcast media content in Nigeria?
4. What sort of influence and control media owners have on broadcast stations?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will be beneficial to communication scholars and students with regards ownership influence and control among broadcast stations.

The findings and recommendations of this study are hoped to be of immense benefits to both government and other policy makers.

On competition, this work will also serve as a reference material to future researchers who will or may have interest in carrying out research in relative area of study.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of Study

The scope of this study covers residents of Edo State. However, information in this study will be limited to residents of Edo state with regards to

The Limitation of this study ranges from time and respondents' unwillingness to provide useful information. More so, inadequate materials in the library were another cause of setback or limitation to the researcher in the area that has to do ownership influence and control among broadcast stations in Edo state.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Review of Relevant Literature

Literatures reviewed in this work were obtained from social sciences text books, particularly the ones put together by communication scholars. Other information was obtained via library research and the internet.

The political cum social stand of the proprietor of a news medium is crucial to news content although the proprietor of a news organisation ‘may not dictate’ editorial policies, or reverse the day-to-day running of the media, he is not likely to tolerate for too long items that frequently attack his political stand point. While they may want to be seen to give their editors a free hand, media owners have a way of making their views known on sensitive matters (Sobowale, 1985). Irrespective of ownership political stand and religion affiliation, public interest should be the hallmark of broadcasting. Owuamalam (2008) explained that it implies that stations in the programmes they produce, must consider an appreciation of the personal, general and national guaranteed rights of the audience members. It becomes necessary therefore, that rules should be formulated, which guide the broadcasters in their dealings with the public. He states: the character and significance of any professional organisation is expressed in its code for practitioners. It gives life and meaning to the expected manner of performance, acceptable to such an organisation. Membership of a profession, therefore, requires voluntary compliance, in order to maintain the status quo.

In Nigeria, for instance, the National Broadcasting Code (NBC, 1996), sets the expectations from the various stations, through a preamble which reads: ... Broadcasting in Nigeria should influence societal values positively, and in so doing, improve and strengthen the social, cultural, economic, political and technological fabrics of the nation... the major responsibility of broadcasting to inform, educate and entertain, shall not be at the expense of the nation interest, unity and cohesion of Nigeria’s diverse, social, economic, political and religious configuration. No broadcast shall encourage, or incite to crime, or lead to disorder or be offensive to public to public feeling, or contain an offensive reference to any person, alive or dead, or generally, be disrespectful to human dignity.

However, within an organisation, factors on the organisational level are key to understanding the presence of a certain type of content. Decisions about the target audiences and type of content are made on this level. According to Shmykova(nd), ownership structure, as one of the factors on the organisational level, also affects the content of mass media messages. Research usually indicates three basic types of mass media ownership: government owned (or government party owned), private owned, and owned both by government and private organisations or individuals.

2.1.1 Media Ownership

Media ownership according to Nwabueze (2020) refers to the possession and control of a medium of communication. Ownership of the media deals with how a specific medium of communication (such as radio, television, newspaper, etc.) is funded or financed, managed, who calls the shots especially in terms of control among other issues. The ownership of a medium may evolve based on partial or total financing of the medium either by an individual, an organization or a government. However, Media Information Literacy for Teachers (2021), note that monopolistic ownership of the media like state control, can pose a significant threat to media diversity and pluralism, and therefore to freedom of expression. Competition regulation is an important part of restricting monopolies as is the professionalism and independence of journalism. Diversity of viewpoints is also help by variety of forms of ownership (public, private and not- for- profit), as well as by the availability of different types of media (print, radio, television, internet, etc). It notes:

The widest possible dissemination of information from diverse and antagonistic sources and is essential to welfare of people. While separately-owned... broadcasters generally criticize each other's content, the concentration of media under common ownership may prevent any kind of mutual criticism and result instead in self promotion.

Print or broadcast media are owned by; individuals, government, groups of individual's etc. ownership of the media are the paternity or possession of a medium of communication. These means the act of owning this paternity may evolve as a result of partial or total financing of a medium either by an individual, an organization or a government (Raufu, 2003).The reasons for media ownership could be to achieve political goals, economic

goals among others, which is why many newspapers in Nigeria are owned by politicians eg. Tinubu owns the Nation while Tribune was established by late Awolowo. The media thus becomes agents of propaganda that will not publish anything against the owner because he who pays the piper dictates the tune.

2.1.2 Types of Media Ownership in Nigeria

Basically, there are four kinds of media ownership. They include:

1. Government ownership
2. Private ownership
3. Mixed ownership

1. **Government ownership:** These are media organizations that are being set up, financed, owned and managed by the government. According to Azubuike and Ikiriko (2019), government-ownership of the media is a situation where the medium is completely financed by the government. For example, Nigeria Television Authority (NTA); Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN) as well as broadcast outfits owned by State Government.

Today, there is still massive involvement of both the federal and State government in the media industry. For instance, the Federal government owns the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN), the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA), the News Agency of Nigeria (NAN) and the Voice of Nigeria (VON).

Various state governments have also established radios, televisions, and newspapers in the various states of the federation. Aina (2002) believes that “one obvious feature of government media is their trusting support of government policy, which the government sustains by carefully appointing her (loyalists) into their boards and other managerial positions.”

2. Private Ownership: This sort of ownership according to Azubuike and Ikiriko(2016), refer to the situation where individuals(one person or group of persons) establish, finance and direct the administration of the media organization, for instance, MINAJ, AIT,

SILVERBIRD. In this regard, the individual or individuals see to the success of the station in all ramifications.

3. **Mixed Ownership:** This is the hybrid of total government ownership and complete private ownership. Some writers have also identified other forms of ownership such as:

- a. Political parties and politicians ownership
- b. Foreign or overseas ownership
- c. Religious body's ownership, etc.

2.1.3 Issues of Media Ownership in Nigeria

Ownership is a critical factor in the regulation of the mass media. Media managers are often faced with the dilemma of balancing the media owner's interest and public's interest without infringing on the laws of the land or the ethics of the profession. Whether media ownership is private or public, the interest of the owner plays a dominant role in determining what the media managers do or fail to do. Hardly can an owner tolerate a manager who operates contrary to his interest. Media ownership has remained a topical issue in media discourse. This is because a popular saying has it that "he who pays the piper dictates the tune". Again, type of media ownership determines the level of freedom and efficiency of the organization. Sobowale (1985) for instance, observed that when the ownership of a country's media is vested in government or concentrated in the hands of a group, or an individual, the media tend to become mere megaphones of those in control. He explained that instead of performing the function of surveying the environment, correlating parts of that environment and transmitting culture; or providing entertainment, the media are turned into indispensable tools for relating power by those controlling them. (Freedom of Information Act 2011).

Similarly, Udejah (2004) points to the fact that ownership has had some influence on the operation of broadcasting organizations. He further explained that the policy of the persons who paid the media workers salary determined the operation of the media station. Specifically, Udejah pointed that media practitioners in Nigeria were often subjected to all kinds of difficulties emanating from the ownership spectrum. Owners adopt various measures to exercise the desired level of control on media managers at various levels at all cost. A list of such measures according to Ekwelie (1986) include giving directives on what should be covered, redeployment of staff to lower positions or instant transfers, superimposing partners on the regular staff, promotion or denial of it, bribes, gifts and donation, the creation of fear and fiction within the media establishment.

2.1.4 Issues in the Constitutional Provisions for Media Ownership in Nigeria

It is clear from the above observations that ownership is a factor that media managers contend with in Nigeria. A look at the statutory provisions for media ownership in Nigeria will go a long way in explicating the issues of media ownership and control. For instance, section 39 (2) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria provides for media organization ownership as follows:

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 opinions, provided that no person, other than the government of the federation or of a state or any other person or body authorized by the president on the fulfillment of the constitution laid down by an Act of the National Assembly, shall own, established and operate a television or wireless broadcasting station for any purpose whatsoever.

The provision of the above section could be interpreted to imply that it is easier to establish a print media organization in Nigeria by any person other than the government. But to establish a broadcasting station; the provision must be fully complied with. Thus, whoever is interested in establishing a broadcasting station must comply with the NBC Act.

National Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) is the body authorized by the president as provided by the NBC Act and as required by the above section of the Constitution. Prior to the promulgation of the NBC Act, under Decree 38 of 1992, it was not possible for any person other than the government to own or operate a broadcasting station; it was an exclusive preserve of the government.

It is observed that suppression of the press, especially in Nigeria, is as a result of weak constitutional back up among others, which did not provide the press any special regard as the fourth estate of the realm. This is because; the phrase “every person” obviously refers to every individual- man or woman. Hence, it has been said that since Section 39 only guarantees the right of “every person,” it has not conferred any special right to the press as a social institution than that of the ordinary citizens. To Arowosegbe (2009) the correct position of Section 39 seems to have been given by the Court of Appeal in *Senate vs Tony Momoh* where the court held that the press possesses no special privileges or immunity under this section as the right guaranteed is for every person without distinction.

2.1.5 Issues in Media Control in Nigeria

1. Ownership/editorial policy control

Media are a public service organization and as such, come under several controls. One of such controls is ownership control. It is often said that “He who pays the piper dictates the tune”. Literally, this means that a piper must play the tune to satisfy the person who has hired him. Every news medium belongs to either an individual, group of individuals or government. Most media owners control their newspapers through the editorial policy.

The editorial policy of a medium is a broad-based set of ideas normally or usually formulated before the take off of the medium especially the print medium and articulated on the first day of appearance under what is called a mission statement. “The editorial policy states the angle or point of view that will guide the newspaper news and features including its editorials, ideas, desires, and interests, which it will protect and project the owner's interest” (Lang, 1959). Therefore, the editorial policy control what type of news goes out of a media organization as well as check makes/gate keeps the story of a reporter in a media organization. It is the editorial board that stipulates a media’s house style which guides the “stories gathering” of a media organization.

2. Advertisers’ control

Advertising is one of the major sources of revenue for media organizations. As such advertisers exert some sort of control over what goes on in the media. This is because he that pays the piper dictates the tune. With their financial power and influence, they do not only choose how their messages should be crafted, but also decide the page placement and the time to air their adverts in the broadcast media.

3. Legal constraints

Ndolo (2005) says every society is governed by a plethora of laws that guide human actions and activities. Plato notes that “without law, man differs not at all from most savage

beasts.” To this effect, some sets of laws are made to regulate the activities of the media to avoid the abuse of the industry by the bad eggs. Such laws include:

i. Defamation

Okoro (2004, p.65) defines a defamatory statement as any statement that has the capacity or tendency to lower the reputation of a right thinking person or cause him to be shunned or avoided, to expose him to hatred, contempt, ridicule or to convey an imputation on him disparaging or injurious to him in his office, profession, calling, trade or business.

ii. **Obscenity**:- Obscenity or indecent material is defined by Cockburn, cited in (Okoro, 2004, p.73) as one which has the tendency to “ ruin and corrupt those whose minds are open to immoral -influences and into whose hands is likely to fall.’

iii. **Contempt of court**:-The offense of contempt of court comprises conduct which interferes with the administration of justice or impedes or perverts the course of justice.

iv. **Sedition**:-Section 51 (1) of the Criminal Code Act states that any person who bring into hatred or contempt or excite disaffection against the person or Government of the Federation; or incite the citizens of Nigeria to attempt to procure the alteration, otherwise than by lawful means, of any other matter in Nigeria as by law established is charged as a seditious person and accountable to the law.

v. **Copyright**:-This is a law that forbids anyone from stealing another person’s intellectual work. However, for any work to qualify for protection under the convention, it must carry the symbol © and the name of the copyright owner, including the year of first publication (Kupe, 1999)

vi. **Passing-off**: - according to Enechi (1997), the law forbids anyone from the theft of business identities such as trademark, logo, label, etc.

vii. **Privacy**:-This law forbids anyone from infringing on or interfering in others private affairs. The right includes privacy of citizens’ homes, correspondence, telephone conversations and telegraphic communications. (Ewelukwa, 2004)

viii. **Official Secrets Acts:-**This law forbids anyone from spying communication of state secrets and breaching of official trust or document plan which has to do with anything situated in a protected place.

Media ownership pattern in Nigeria

With the promulgation of Decree No. 38 of 1992, on August, 24 of the same year, establishing the Nigeria Broadcasting Commission, (NBC), ownership of the media which use to be government monopoly came to an end. The Decree according to Owumalam (2008), made private ownership in Nigeria became possible. The 1999 Constitution vested the ownership on the people, who apply to the president, to be given a license to operate a station, cable or satellite distribution station in Nigeria.

According to Okwuchuku (2014) the ownership of the mass media namely; electronic, print and the new media in Nigeria has different historical origins. Presently however, the electronic and print media in Nigeria appear to have arrived at similar pattern of ownership. A look at their existing ownership pattern will reveal that that there is dual ownership i.e. public or government ownership, as well as private ownership of both the print and electronic media. This ownership pattern therefore involves the ownership of the print and electronic media by private individuals and /or private institutions. There is also the emerging ownership of the electronic media by institutions known as community broadcasting. What is interesting however is that, for some inexplicable reasons, in some instances the ownership of some media outfits in Nigeria is shrouded in secrecy. MSI Africa (2008) reveals that:

Media ownership in Nigeria is not transparent in most cases. The precise owners of some of media organizations are not always known to the public and, in many cases, the professional journalists serving as directors of such media companies are seen as fronts for unknown investors (cited in Okwuchuku, 2014).

Under the National Broadcasting Act, religious bodies and political parties are specifically precluded from owning broadcast media. Foreign ownership of broadcast media is also restricted, resulting in very little foreign investment in Nigeria media.

2.1.6 The Effect of ownership influence and Control of Media in Nigeria

That the media exert tremendous influence in society where they operate is not in doubt. Okwuchuku (2014) note that at one time or another in the history of most countries, media and information control has been a source of problem for governments around the world. Generally according to Omu (2000) cited in Okwuchuku (2014), this problem is associated with the owners' interest and punitive laws that make it difficult for media to perform its statutory functions without let or hindrance. These laws often include laws of libel, sedition, defamation, official secrets, and national security.

In Nigeria, three types of government (colonial, civilian and military) had been in power at one time or the other in the country and all three types of government have implemented policies that restrained freedom of the press in Nigeria. To achieve control, media outfits have been deliberately denied advertising revenue, while journalists have been killed, maimed, harassed, detained, jailed, and repressive laws and decrees enacted to cow the media.

The Nigerian experience was that broadcasting remained a government monopoly right from its inception till 1992 when the country's protracted economic constraints compelled the Babangida administration to end or at least reduce governments' heavy investment in broadcasting. In fact, prior to this development, Ume-Nwagbo (1990) observed, the huge capital investments by various governments in broadcast infrastructure, personnel, and support services appeared totally out of proportion to the country's economic realities, at least since the economy went bust.

Everything points to the fact that the ownership has had some significant influence on the operation of the media station. Top management, or the person, or body the top management reported to, were never ignored in deciding what to air in the electronic media. According to Wood (1967) cited in Udejaja (2004), the owner may call for a bold editorial course, or a bland one designed to make nobody unhappy. He may seek to inject his own persona prejudices into the news product; he may adopt news policies calculated to get the widest possible circulation, namely, the biggest audience. This constituted a significant

spectrum of real or theoretical encroachment faced by electronic journalists, especially during the military regimes.

During the period of government monopoly of broadcasting in Nigeria, ownership or at least top management of the broadcast stations backed the organisation with financial support. Although they entrusted the job to competent professionals they did not leave them free to do a first-rate job in broadcast programming. The assumption was that since the government has borne the costs for massive amounts of airtime devoted to live and special events, the government or its representatives should dictate the tunes, even when their knowledge of the tune was zero. This, perhaps, explains such incident of October 7, 1994, when two television journalists, Emeka Obinwa and Charles Igboamah of NTA, Enugu were sacked for asking Chukwumerijie, the Information Secretary, what was termed an ‘embarrassing question’ in an interview. Obinwa, a senior editor and newscaster had been in the employment of NTA for 11 years while Igboamah had worked for 10 years. Indeed, the network record on in-depth treatment of controversy is an uneven one, and many a contemporary observer perceived some bias here in favour of the media ownership. That the networks rarely editorialised could be explained by considerations not unrelated to management timidity (Udeaja, 2004).

According to Olugboji and his team, (1994) cited in Udeajah(2004), Ogun State FM station, OGBC-2 suspended its popular broadcast current affairs programme sometime in 1994. That was after a meeting of the State Security Council. The military authorities believed that the continued airing of the programme, “Today in the Papers”, might heighten the political tension in the country. Reports aired on the programmed were predominantly extracted from newspapers, and they differed significantly from the pro-government news carried by the government-controlled media.

Some OGBC 2 managers were also queried for airing news items on the July/August 1994 workers’ strike, which was part of public reactions to the annulled presidential election of June 12, 1993. Furthermore, security presence in the station increases, following a July 6, 1994 protest marches to the station by students of Federal university of Agriculture, Abeokuta. The students protested against the suspension of the ‘Today in the Papers’ programme. Several days after the programme was suspended without explanation, it

returned, albeit in a subdued tone. It was, however, reported that news copies needed the approval of at least four senior editors before being read by newspapers (Udejaja, 2004).

Media people in Nigeria were often subjected to all kinds of difficulties emanating from the ownership spectrum. In fact, varied and subtle were the measure adopted by media owners to control broadcast journalism. In a comprehensive list of such hard measures, Ekwelie (1986) included giving directives on what should be covered, re-deployment of staff to lower positions or sinecures, instant transfers, superimposing cronies on the regular staff, promotion or denial of it, bribes, gifts and donation, creation of fear and friction within the media establishment. Apparently interminable, the list spanned the spectrum of military sadism.

Olugboji (1994) identified other incidents illustrative of the methods by which ownership in impinged on broadcasting operations in Nigeria. According to him, Maxwell Nimfas, a reporter with the Adamawa State Television, was sacked, following his interview with the State Chairman of Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC), Ezra Joel, in which Joel criticized government's policies. It was also reported that the Information Secretary, Uche Chukwumerijie, ordered Ladi Lawal, head of News, at Radio Nigeria 2, Lagos, an FM station controlled by the Federal Government, to proceed to FRCN Enugu, within 24 hours. Lawal was the chairman of the Lagos State Council of the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ), which had been critical of Babangida's policies and he had called on media people to take to the street in protest against the proscription of some media houses. Indeed, Lawal and his colleagues had earlier complained of harassment and undue interference by government officials in the day-to-day packaging of news in the station. A day after receiving the letter Lawal resigned over victimization and federal government's interference with the editorial policies of Radio Nigeria 2.

As explain by Udejaja (2004), prior to this incident, the FRCN's Director-General, Abdulrahiman Michika, had warned some newscasters against deliberate misreading of the networks news. In fact, the FRCN had questioned the loyalty of some of its staff to the Babangida government. One Bisi Olatilo of Radio Nigeria 3 was taken off the network news for 'betraying his emotion while reading the network news and for being nonchalant as if the contents of the network news were against his conscience'.

Apart from the influence exerted through the information ministry, there were subsidiary pressures favouring friendly journalists, penalizing critics, or threatening them with physical harm or loss of employment. Such negative pressures impinged on the broadcast media people.

Government monopolistic control characterized a significant proportion of the history of broadcasting in Nigeria. One factor which, it seemed, top broadcast management took into account during the military regimes was that broadcast corporations were important listings on the Score Board of the owners, namely the governments. Indeed, ownership, whether public or private, constituted one strong factor on which all others would rest in a broadcast organisation. According to Okenwa (1998) the owner brought to bear on the outfit the philosophy that prompted the establishment.

Over the years under the review, Nigerian broadcasters were aware of their location within the political system and were sensitive to the views of those who wielded power. This sensitivity tended to produce some timidity, which resulted in submissions in the face of threats. The oppressive regime of Buhari and that of Abacha witnessed numerous instances when broadcast practitioners readily responded to calls from the military despots to alter, delete, or suspended programmes. One of the root causes of such incidents was that government during the Buhari era monopolised the broadcasting industry. Abacha was a dictator to the core. Many journalists were intimidated into submission during the Abacha years. Apparently, for broadcasters under such circumstances, the avoidance of conflict with those who own the station, on one hand, those who rule, on the other, amounted to an abdication of their responsibilities and professional duties as journalists.

Furthermore, the work of a broadcast practitioner, according to Negrine (1992) cited in Udejaja (2004), is premised on such professional imperatives as 'news values' and these cannot be ignored without a loss of credibility. This helps to explain the existence of many programmes or programme items, which created problems for the broadcasting institutions. Whether it concerned waste dump at Koko Town, the Ogoni crisis, the Sharia disturbances, the Warri Saga, or civil rights activism, those who dissented from the actions of the state might need to be represented. This was in keeping with the spirit of impartiality, namely, accommodating the expression of the widest range of views and opinions. When the form of

that dissent was dramatic, as in demonstrations, it became even more newsworthy and so more likely to obtain media coverage. The result of this is that the broadcasters and rulers, especially the military, were entangled in some unequal relationship that inevitably produced tensions.

2.2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study utilizes Social Responsibility and Gate Keeping theory which the researcher believes has close relation with issues discussed in this study.

Social Responsibility Theory

The Social Responsibility Theory owes its origin to an American Initiative-the Commission on Freedom of the Press called the Hutchins Commission in 1947. The commission according to Obaze and Ogbiti (2004) was set up with an endowment of 200,000 dollars by Henry Luce, the then publisher of time magazine and its stable mates like look, learn life, fortune, cinema houses and many radio stations.

With the promise of more funds, the commission was to look into press freedom in America, its alleged powers and its responsibilities. However, the synthesis of ideas put forward in the Hutchins commission report has become known as the social responsibility. Theory of the press (Siebert, Peterson and Schramm, 1956). It emphasizes the need for an independent press that scrutinizes other social institutions and provides objective, accurate news reports. The most innovative feature of social responsibility theory is that it calls for media to be responsible for fostering productive and creative “Great communities”. It said that media should do this by prioritizing cultural pluralism- by becoming the vice of all the people not just elite groups or groups that had dominated national, regional, or local culture in the past (Barron and Davis, 2006).

However, the report of Hutchins commission went on to say that free market (capitalism) have failed to fulfil the promised press freedom fit such as diversity of ideas due to monopoly of the owners.

The underlying principle of the Social Responsibility theory according to Okunna and Omenugha (2012) is that the press should be free to perform the functions which the

liberation theory had granted it freedom to perform, but that this freedom should be exercised with responsibility. The theory advocates that if journalists cannot control themselves and made themselves responsible, then the government should control them.

The willingness of government to act in ways calculated to ensure responsibility by the media and curb extreme freedom is evident in societies where this theory is in operation. This willingness is reflected in the establishment of press or media councils, setting up of commissions of enquiry into media performance, regulation of advertising, legislations against monopoly etc. these devices are used in different ways in different societies.

As adapted from Mc Quail (1987) cited in Okunna and Omenugha (2012, pp. 206-207), the basic principles or tenets of the social responsibility theory include:

- ✓ The mass media have to accept and carry out certain duties or obligations to society;
- ✓ Setting high or professional standard of truth, accuracy, objectivity, balance and informativeness is the best way for the media to fulfil these obligations;
- ✓ The press should regulate itself in accordance with the law and established institutions of the society within which the press is operating;
- ✓ There should be a multiplicity of media voices, that is pluralism, to reflect and represent the diverse categories and viewpoints in society;
- ✓ Journalists and other professionals who work in the media should be accountable to society, not only to their employers and others who could exercise economic control over them;
- ✓ The people have the right to expect the press to perform creditably, and a higher authority is justified if it intervenes to make the press do this and to ensure that the media are serving the public good.

According to Itule and Anderson (2008), reporters must recognize that today society expects them to behave more responsibly. This expectation fits in with “social responsibility” theory outlined by Siebert, Peterson and Schramm (1956). They wrote that freedom carries commitment obligations and the press which enjoys a privileged position under our government is obliged to be responsible to society for carrying out certain essential functions of mass communication. They further explained that in reaction to perceived shortcomings of the press under the liberation system. The commission on freedom of the press was formed

shortly after World War II made up of scholars and philosophers; it was particularly concerned about the shrinking newspaper market place (the number of daily newspaper had been declining since shortly after the turn of the century) and the accompanying loss of potential philosophies. The commission said that press should exercise more responsibility. It should make a concerted effort to discuss divergent views, even if the views were not compatible with those of management. The commission said that it was the responsibility of the press not only to present diverse view points but also to interpret them responsibly. The note:

What has been called social responsibility theory of the press emerged from the commission's report. According to this philosophy, everyone who wants to express views should be given access to the press, which is bound by professional ethics.

In exploring the evolution of the social responsibility theory, Peterson quoted in Itule and Anderson (2008, p.466) note that "a rather articulate Americans began to demand certain standards of performances from the press...chiefly of their own valuation; publishers began to link responsibilities with freedom. They formulated cods of ethical behavior and they operated the media with some concern for the public good as they regarded it at least.

Corroborating, Hanson (2005) asserts that the social responsibility theory of the press is an outgrowth of libertarian theory. It is based on the concern that is while the press may be free from interference by the government, it can still be controlled by co-operate interest. For example, in principle anyone can start up a newspaper, but in reality it is an expensive and difficult proposition. Moreover, only a limited number of radio and television are available. So while the press in a free society is not regulated by the government, it is controlled by a limited number of corporations and individuals. He continued:

Social responsibility theory says that the high level of concentrated power in the hands of the media require that they should be socially responsible in covering all sides of controversial issues and providing voters with all the information they need to make considered choice of the press is not sufficient vigilant. It is of the public to force it to be responsible.

However, the social responsibility theory of the press emphasized the need for an independent press that scrutinized other social institutions and provides objective accurate news report.

Gate keeping Theory

The term “gate keeping” was coined by Kurt Lewin (1951, 1958) to describe those individuals who control food channels and use within groups during the World War 1 and later, to describe those who control the transmission of media fare generally. The point is that no media establishment can transmit all messages it receives in the course of the day’s routine. Some individual have to decide which information to transmit, which to defer, which to modify, which to delete entirely. Such individuals, such as it were, open and close the “gate” that stands between the information source and the recipient. Gate keeping is not restricted to accepting and rejecting information. It involves shaping, displaying, timing, repeating the message for emphasis, and so on (Folarin, 2005).

According to Bittner (1980), a gatekeeper is any person or formally organized group directly involved in relaying or transferring information from one individual to another through a mass medium, “Bittner illustrate that:

a gatekeeper can be a film producer who cut a scene from the original script, or any other individual in the processing or control of messages disseminated to the public through the mass media.

Citing Branston and Stafford (2006), Okunna and Omenugha(2012) see gatekeeping as the ability to select some information for consideration and leaving some unexplored and unannounced. They illustrate this with the news where items are selected for inclusion, or issues set up, framed and encouraged to be discussed understood in a particular way.

Quoting Ekeli, Folarin (2005) state that gate keeping is known to be influenced by a number of factors. He placed emphasis on ethical dimension as he wrote:

Gate keeping is nothing but voluntarily self- censorship performed by the media themselves. Gate keeping emanates from the understanding by journalists that apart from legal restrictions on what is to be published, including photographs, journalists have a moral duty to be

socially responsible to their readers in whatever materials they package for them.

He added that gate keeping (or self – censorship) is a daily routine in all media establishments and that its strategies vary from organization to organization. As noted by Ailore, Ojomo and Bamidele (2012), there are two broad aspects to gatekeeping studies. The first aspect employs the concept to explain the responsibilities and practice s of specific individuals who decide what news stories get into the media and which do not. The second aspect employs the concept to look at the organization, institutions and contextual settings that play some parts in news selection.

According to Shaw and McCombs, cited in Ailore, Ojomo and Bamidele (2012):

...each day editors and news directors- the gatekeepers in the news media systems- must decide which items to pass and which to reject. Furthermore, the items passed through the gate are not treated equally when presented to the audience. Some are used at length, others severely cut. Some are lead-off items in a newscast. Others follow much later. Newspapers clearly state the values they place on the salience of an item through headline size and placement within the newspaper-anyone from the lead item on page one to placement at the bottom of a column on page 66.

This view of Shaw and McCombs describes everyday conduct in an average newsroom where news personnel, using various yardsticks decide what to and what not to publish. Thus, the readers read only what the editors want them to read. It is however important to consider what factors influence an editor's choice on what to include or exclude from a given story. This ranges from the editor's training and orientation, his or her medium's editorial policy and house style, the owner's interests and so forth.

Factors influencing Gate keeping

In media business a lot of factors influence gate keeping decisions as they affect media objectivity and social responsibility. Folarin (2005) enumerates the following as some of the factors that influence gate keeping decisions:

1. **Timing:** This is very crucial in gate keeping process. News is determined more by when it is received in the publishing circle than by any other single factor. Information

received early in the day when a large proportion of newspaper space or newscast time remains to be filled has a better chance of passing through the gate than a news item arriving later in the day. When two or more items arrive sufficiently early within the publishing cycle, editorial decision is influenced by several factors, including the following:

2. **Ownership pattern:** publicly owned and government control media tend to be more authoritarian and more prone to self-censorship than privately owned media: they carry more news favourable to the government of the day and avoid news unfavourable to it; they avoid direct criticism of government actions, suppress news that will amount to revealing government secrets; and so on. Party organs fall in the same category, they tend to report news from the perspective of their patron parties. This is not suggest that privately owned media are free to report what they like and the way they like to. There is the common saying that the ghost of the proprietor is ever hanging over the editorial conference whether that proprietor happens to be a government, a corporation or an individual. However , non-governmental media tend to be freer to do investigative reporting , for example, concerning government, which is the biggest source of news in any society.
3. **Management policy:** This is usually contained in the mission statements and reflected in the practice codes of each media establishment. It flows from the publisher through the management and editorial boards to the editors, writers and reporters. Indeed, every worker who aspires to grow with the establishment would normally be expected to get familiar with management policy. Given the pyramidal-cum-hierarchical structure of the media organizations, management policy tends to engender the kind of bureaucracy, which Democratic Participant theory frowns upon long-serving members of the top hierarchy can sometimes deviate within acceptable limits but;
 - (a) they must earn that privilege by conforming for long periods; and
 - (b) The acceptable limits are unique to each organization.
 - (c) **Size of the media:** large newspapers, for example tend to be less dependent on news items supplied by news agencies and to rely more on their own news gathering resources

than smaller newspapers. The same thing applies to large broadcasting networks, especially in more developed countries such as the United States of America. So, their editorial staff tends to be more loyal to house policy and house style.

- 4 **Perceive Needs and Preferences of the Audience:** Editors believe at least that they are providing their audiences with what they like or what they need to read, view and listen to. They claim to do this mainly through readership surveys and other forms of audience research. However, the extent to which these are carried out varies with the different organizations. Especially in developing countries with serious economic problems, the criticism is rife that news organizations, including news agencies, are becoming more and more dependent on government and company briefs, in the name of ‘development journalism’,. Well-to-do individuals and families are also literally “stealing” valuable broadcast time in the name of “news of social importance”. That is to say, coverage of burial, wedding and house-warming ceremonies. In this kind of milieu, editors, producers and so on must be hard put to it to confidently claim that that they are giving their audience the kind of media fare they like or need to consume. Besides regular surveys, avenues through which audience needs and preferences can be ascertained include feedback channels such as letters to the editor/opinion column, phone-in electronic programmes, audience open days, etc.
- 5 **Editor’s Perception of Reality:** perceived audience needs and preferences notwithstanding, editors sometimes have, or are expected to have a better grasp of a given social situation and to decide how best to report on it; say, a war situation.
- 6 **Views held by Editor’s Colleagues:** It is, to elicit such views that editorial conferences are held. The Editor-in-Chief’s own perception of reality is not infrequently swayed by the views expressed by his colleagues at such daily conferences. This procedure ensures a kind of internal consensus over what is put out as news. Editorial positions are also determined at meetings of Editorial Board, which includes outsiders brought in on account on account of their expertise. Here the editor-in-chief may also exercise a dominating but certainly not absolute influence.

- 7 **Influence of Advertisers:** Since the commercial press in particular is so independent on advertising revenue, the tendency of the press to differ to the feelings of the advertisers, especially big advertisers, is understandable. Advertisers are known to exercise considerable influence over the news purveyed by media they patronize especially news that have to do with such advertisers business, or clients including even governments.
- 8 **Appraisal of Offerings by the Competition:** Each establishment jealously watches what its competitors are providing as news, especially in times of crises or any newly breaking events. Indeed, it is claimed (but not indisputably proved) that some establishments maintain within rival organizations paid contracts who furnish them with prior information on their rivals' news positions.
- 9 **Availability of Photographs or Film Footage:** Visuals (photographs and films) are very important to journalists because of their ability to enhance the effect the effects of given news items. Television gatekeepers in particular often seem to base their news judgments more on the visual aspects (availability of good film footage) than on the significance of the news content.
- 10 **Legal Considerations:** The law of defamation (libel and slander) as well as of seditious libel hangs over the journalist like the Sword of Damocles. All journalists are expected to be aware of them and to strive to avoid running foul of them. Newspapers have legal departments and broadcasting houses have internal censors who screen news items in particular to ensure that they are free of libelous content. Besides defamation and sedition, there are other offenses that journalists try to avoid, such as contempt of court, which may arise from a few sources including commenting unconscionably on a matter that is subjudice; that is, undergoing a trial in a law court.
- 11 **Professional Ethics:** Objectivity, balance, fairness, social responsibility etc are the ethical terms that are banded about among journalists and media scholars. All journalists are expected to be sensitive to them when gathering, processing and reporting news.

- 12 Ideological perspective and political orientation:** These exercise a subtle yet significant influence on gate keeping. The basic editorial function is not performed through editorials but through the selection and treatment of all that is published.

By and large, the relevance of these theories to this study is that while the social responsibility theory states that the society has the right to be protected by accurately and objectively disseminating information to them, gate keeping or gatekeepers have the power to limit, expand, reorganize or reinterpret information we receive and with this subjectivity may set in.

2.3 Empirical Review

Media ownership is of interest to research on journalism due to assumption that ownership can have an impact of the contents and practices of journalism.

In communication literature, empirical reviews cum studies abound with regard to ownership influence and control of media contents. Various studies shown that government are likely to influence the content in state owned media than in privately owned media (Djakov et al., 2003, Kasoma, 2006).

A review of various studies has revealed that media ownership has a great influence on news content. However, most of these studies have been conducted elsewhere I Europe, Asia and other parts of Africa. For example, one study conducted in Macedonia revealed how ownership affected television news content in that country:

The trades of industrial stations that own television stations use them continually as space for advertising products that they produce or sell. On the other hand, the individuals behind these media, who belong to different political parties, use them as space for personal political promotion, especially at the time of election campaigns.[...] To our knowledge, we have seen several instances of pressure on journalists from media owners. One recent example is a quarrel between the owners of a television stations and its editor in Chief provoked by the owner's insistence to influence the manner of reporting the news, which led to the journalist's transfer to another TV station (Trpevska, 2004 cited in Samuel, 2018).

In Uganda during the 2016 presidential election, the state owned UBC television gave disproportionate coverage to the incumbent president Yoweri Museveni (ACME, 2016). The station “gave the incumbent 73% of its entire news and commentary airtime on elections, with the next candidate, Mr. Mubambi, receiving only 12% of the coverage. Dr. Besigye the eventual runner- up in the election received only 4.5% of UBC coverage (ACME, 2016). Esuh (2008) note that a situation happened in Nigeria during the 2007 general elections where state media compromised their ethical responsibility and openly supported candidates of the ruling People’s Democratic Party(PDP). Programmes on ‘the state-controlled television network National Television Authority(NTA) and state-controlled Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria(FRCN), which should have been model of public service broadcasting, demonstrated considerable bias in favour of the incumbent PDP’.

Throughout the world, government regulate media using measures ranging from content restrictions in broadcasting licenses to constitutional freedom of expression provisions. The type of regulations and their enforcement vary from country to country. Of the 49 countries surveyed by the World Association of newspapers (WAN), 14 have explicit restrictions on foreign ownership of newspapers. In Brazil for example, foreign participation in nonvoting capital is limited to 30 percent. Not surprisingly foreign owners are absent from the Brazilian sample. A further 21 of WAN countries regulate cross-media ownership. In Australia, proprietors of major metropolitan newspapers are not permitted town controlling interests in free- to-air television stations in the same market. In a study by Wackman, Gillmor, Giano, and Dennis (1975) they found that chain-owned newspapers in comparison to independent newspapers were more likely to endorse candidates for president, support the favored candidate of the press, and be homogeneous in endorsing candidates during observed election periods. The authors concluded that “chain ownership of newspapers discourages editorial independence in endorsing presidential candidates” (p 420). Another study concluded that newspaper ownership was an important factor in endorsement, although chain newspapers were found to be homogeneous to lesser extent (Gaziano, 1989). A study by Busterna and Hansen (1990) found no significant differences in endorsing the press-favored candidates. Chain-owned newspapers demonstrated even more autonomy that has been found in other research. This difference in results can be consequence of different methods as concluded by authors.

A study of the effects of foreign ownership on content by Hollifield (1999) found significant differences between domestically-owned and internationally-owned newspapers in the coverage of local stories. Control for circulation size and size of newspapers did not diminish these differences.

There were also studies that reported no effects of ownership on content of newspapers. For example, Akhavan-Majid and Boudreau (1995) compared the editorial role perception of chain-owned and independent newspapers. With control for the size of newspapers there was no difference in editorial role perceptions. Perception changed due to size of newspapers, not due to ownership.

Some studies addressed questions about effects of ownership and the size of newspapers on space and allocation of different kinds of content. Lacy (1991) found that ownership did not have an effect on how news were allocated. Yet group-owned newspapers, when compared to independently owned ones, had shorter stories and devoted more space and stories to editorial and op-ed material.

Although results of studies on effects of ownership on contents are contradictory, this area of study still attracts scientists and is among the most highly debated. Some studies did in fact show that mass media ownership has impact on the diversity of its messages on two levels:

- 1) Presenting different points of view or different perspectives on some issue (for example, while endorsing, newspaper either endorse one favorable candidate, or presents several);
- 2) Presenting a variety of issues in general.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Method

In this study, the survey research method was adopted as the scientific approach in the study. Survey was found to be appropriate for this particular study. According to Asika (1991), survey research focuses on population or the universe, as survey researcher selects a sample form or a subset of the population using some techniques of sampling. In the same vein, Orhewere and Aghomi (2013) explains that survey research is the study of large and small population (or universe) by selecting and studying samples chosen from the populations to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables.

However, survey research was employed in this study because it enables the researcher to get as much information as possible from different variables. The survey research design was adopted as the scientific approach. A survey according to Asemah, Gujbawu, Ekhaerafo and Okpanachi (2012), is an empirical study that uses questionnaires or interview to discover descriptive characteristics of a phenomenon. In the study, survey was found to be the most appropriate for this particular study. Survey as a research technique was used to obtain data either by interviewing the respondents or providing them with self-administered questionnaire.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of this study is 3,233,366 residents of Edo State gotten from the 2006 census. As noted by Asika (1991), a population is a finite in which case its size or extent is conceivable and estimable. According to Orhewere and Aghomi (2013) a population could be best described as the theoretical framework of interest to a researcher.

3.3 Sampling and Sampling Technique

A representative sample of 400 respondents was drawn from the entire population of Edo state among the three senatorial districts. That is, Edo central, Edo north and Edo south, using the simple random sampling technique. According to Asemah, Gujbawu, Ekhaerafo and Okparaechi (2012), sampling is the process of selecting part of a population and using it to

represent the entire population. It is the procedure of drawing sample from a population. Sample is precisely a part of the population. Citing Ndagi (1984), Asemah, Gujbawu, Ekhareafo and Okparaechi (2012), note that a sample is a limited number of elements selected from a population, which is representative of that population. Ndagi further notes that being representative does not imply that a sample is a mini-population that is having the exact characteristics of the parent population, except in the case of some finite populations that have been completely studied (Census report).

3.4 Sample Size

The sample size for this study is 400. Sample size is the number of observations to include in a statistical sample. Out of 3,233,366 populations, a sample size of 400 was gotten from the Taro Yamani formula which is:

$$\frac{N}{1+(N)(E)^2}$$

Where N = population

E = level of error (0.05)

$$= 3,233,366$$

$$n = 1 + 3,233,366 (0.0025)$$

$$n = \frac{3,233,366}{8083.4175}$$

$$n = 399.99$$

$$n = 400$$

3.5 Method of Data Collection

The primary and secondary methods of data collection were employed in collecting data for the study. However, the questionnaire was employed as an instrument of primary data collection. The questionnaire was used because it has advantage of being administered to a

large number of people at the same time. It requires less skill to administer and respondents have greater confidence in their anonymity.

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

The method employed by the researcher to analyse data that were collected from the respondents was the simple percentage and statistical tables. The data collected were tabulated and itemized according to responses received. It was done this way:

$$\frac{\text{Number of Respondents}}{\text{Total Number of Respondents}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

3.7 Validity of Research Instrument

Questionnaire was the valid instrument for the study. The survey questionnaire was rightly structured to measure the independent and dependent variables identified in this research. Questionnaires were brief and direct for easy responses allowing roughly thirty (30) seconds for each question.

3.8 Reliability of Research Instrument

For the purpose of this study, the pre-test and the test methods were used to test reliability of data collectively. This entails giving some question the same respondent after an interval of one or two weeks. Respondents were indentified in this instance and the same sets of questionnaires were served to them again. The first set of the questionnaire were marked “Y”, while the second “X”. The correction between these two answers were determines by using person co-efficient correlation to arrive at the degree of reliability of two sets of answers from the selections

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 PREAMBLE

In this study, the statistical data from the respondents were collected, classified and presented in table form, frequencies and percentages. This was done in line with the research questions raised in this study. The demographic data of the respondents were presented first. This was followed by psychographic data.

Out of the 400 copies distributed 381 representing 95 percent were completed and returned valid while 19 copies representing 4.8 percent were not returned.

4.2 Analysis of Respondents' Bio-data

Table 1: Sex of Respondent

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	180	47.2
Female	201	52.8
Total	381	100

Field survey, 2022

From table 1 above, it was observed that 180 respondents representing 47.2% of the total sample are male, while 201 respondents or 52.8% of the total sample are female.

Table 2: Marital Status of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single	202	53%
Married	68	17.8%
Separated	4	1.4%
Divorced	5	1.3%
Widowed	2	0.5%
Total	381	100%

Field survey, 2022

Information from table 2 above shows that 202 respondents or 53% of the total sample are single, as 68 respondent or 17.8% are married while the separated, divorced and widowed

respondents represented 1.4%, 1.3% and 5% respectively. This shows that the number of single respondents outnumbered other groups.

Table 3: Occupation of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Civil servant	45	11.8%
Businessman/woman	90	23.6%
Student	236	61.9%
Retired	10	2.6%
Total	381	100%

Field survey, 2022

The above table shows that 45 respondents representing 11.8% of the sample are civil servants, as 90 respondents or 23.6% of the total sample are businessmen and women while 236 respondents representing 61.9% are students and 10 respondents or 2.6% of the total sample retired. These figures show that majority of the respondents are students followed by businessmen and women.

Table 4: Educational Qualification of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No formal education	25	6.6%
SSCE	144	37.8%
Diploma/NCE	62	16.2%
B.Sc./HND	120	31.5%
M.Sc and above	30	7.9%
Total	381	100%

Field survey, 2022

The above table shows that 25 respondents representing 6.6% of the total sample had no formal education, as 144 respondents or 37.8% of the total sample has SSCE, as 62 respondents or 16.2% of the total sample has ND/NCE, while 120 respondents representing 31.5% have first degree and 30 respondents or 7.9% of the sample has M.Sc. This implies that majority of the respondents are students and working class.

Table 5: Age of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
15-25	217	56.9%
26-36	102	26.8%
37-47	40	10.5%
48 and above	22	5.8%

Total	381	100%
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Field survey, 2022

Table 5 above shows that 217 respondents representing 56.9% of the total sample falls within the age bracket of 15-25 years, as 102 respondents or 26.8% of the total sample falls within the age of 26-36 years, while 40 respondents representing 10.5% of the total sample are within the age of 37-47 and 22 respondents or 5.8% of the total sample fall within 48 years and above.

Table 6: Responses on access to the broadcast media

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	381	100%
No	-	-
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 381 respondents representing 100% of the total sample said that they have access or they are exposed to the broadcast media.

Table 7: Responses on whether ownership influence affects broadcast media contents.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	301	79%
No	67	17.6%
I don't know	13	3.4%
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 301 respondents representing 79% of the total sample said that ownership influence affects broadcast media contents, as 67 respondents or 17.6% of the total sample said that ownership influence does not affect broadcast media contents while 13 respondents representing 3.4% of the total sample said that they don't know if ownership influence affects broadcast media contents or not.

Table 8: Responses on the extent ownership influence affects broadcast media contents.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
To some extent	301	79%
To a great extent	67	17.6%
I don't know	13	3.4%
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 301 respondents representing 79% of the total sample said that ownership influence affects broadcast media contents to some extent, as 67 respondents or 17.6% of the total sample said that ownership influence affects broadcast media content to a great extent, while 13 respondent representing 3.4% of the total sample said that they don't know whether ownership influence affects broadcast media contents or not.

Table 9: Responses on if broadcast media is objective in the face of ownership control

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	291	76.4%
No	90	23.6%
Total	381	100%

Field survey, 2022

The above table shows that 291 respondents representing 76.4% of the total sample said that broadcast media are objective in the face of ownership control, while 90 respondents or 23.6% of the total sample said that broadcast media are not effective in the face of ownership control.

Table 10: Responses on how objective is the broadcast media in the face of ownership control

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Objective	10	2.6%
Partially objective	20	5.2%
Subjective	342	89.8%
I don't know	9	2.4%
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 10 respondents representing 2.6% of the total sample said that the broadcast media is objective in the face of ownership control, as 20 respondents or 5.6% of the total sample said that broadcast media are partially objective in the face of ownership control, while 342 respondents representing 89.8% of the total sample said that broadcast media are subjective in the face of ownership control, and 9 respondents or 2.4% of the total sample said that they don't know how objective is the broadcast media.

Table 11: Responses on whether ownership influence and control has implications on broadcast media contents in Nigeria.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
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Yes	381	100%
No	-	-
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 381 respondents representing 100% of the total sample said that ownership influence and control has implications on broadcast media contents in Nigeria.

Table 12: Responses on the sort of implications ownership influence and control has on broadcast media in Nigeria

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Positive	30	7.8%
Negative	342	89.8%
I don't know	9	2.4%
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 30 respondents representing 7.8% of the total sample said that ownership influence and control has positive implications on broadcast media in Nigeria, as 342 respondents or 89.8% of the total sample said that ownership influence and control has negative implications on broadcast media in Nigeria, while 9 respondents representing 2.4% of the total sample said that they don't know the sort of implications ownership influence and control has on broadcast media in Nigeria.

Table 13: Responses on whether ownership influence and control on broadcast media contents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	381	100%
No	-	-
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 381 respondents representing 100% of the total sample said that media owners influence and control has influence on broadcast stations.

Table 14: Responses on the sort of influence and control media owners has on broadcast stations

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Positive	20	5.2%
Negative	342	89.8%
I don't know	9	2.4%
Total	381	100%

Field Survey, 2022

The above table shows that 20 respondents representing 2.6% of the total sample said that media owners have positive influence and control on broadcast stations, as 342 respondents or 89.8% of the total sample said that media owners have negative influence and on control broadcast media stations, while 9 respondents representing 2.4% of the total sample said that they don't know the sort of influence media owners have on broadcast stations.

4.2 Discussion of Findings**Research Question One**

To what extent has ownership influence affected broadcast media content?

From the findings it was apparent that ownership influence affects broadcast media content to some extent as shown in table 8 with 301 respondents representing 79% of the total sample admitting to that fact.

Research Question Two

How objective is the broadcast media in the face of ownership control?

This question was asked with the aim of ascertaining how truthful and objective the broadcast media could be even in the face of ownership control.

Findings show that the broadcast media have been subjective in the face of ownership control with 342 respondents or 89.8% of the total sample admitting to that fact.

Research Question Three

What sort of implications does ownership influence has on broadcast media contents?

This is apparent in table 12 which shows that 342 respondents representing 89.8% of the total sample saying that the ownership influence has negative influence on broadcast media contents.

Research Question Four

What sort of influence and control media owners have on broadcast stations?

This question was asked to find out to find out the sort of influence media owners have on broadcast media stations and the aftermath of such influence on the broadcast stations.

Findings underscore that 342 respondents representing 89.8% of the total sample says that broadcast media owners have negative influence on broadcast media stations as shown in table 14.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study was undertaken to assess ownership influence and control among broadcast stations in Edo State. In order to achieve this aim relevant literature were reviewed, as research questions were formulated in line with the objectives.

The study employed social responsibility and gate keeping theory as the theoretical framework and scaffold for the study. The survey methodology was adopted while the questionnaire was used as the instrument of data collection. The simple percentages method and statistical tables were used to analyse and present data collected.

The population of the study are 400 residents of Edo State. A total of 400 questionnaires were administered, out of which 381 were valid and found useable.

From the findings in the study, it was discovered that owners of media outfits has a lot of influence and control on media contents as he who pays the piper dictates the tune. With this, the study underscore the fact that no sort of media ownership, be it government, state or private that can be exonerated from being subjective in the face of ownership influence and control.

5.2 Conclusion

Government and broadcast media proprietors' control of broadcasting has always involved more than ownership, and extends beyond government- owned media to include privately- owned broadcast media. With regards to ownership influence and control of broadcast media content, it is apparent that objectivity, media social obligations, social responsibility and the people right to know have been compromised in the face of ownership influence and control. As noted by Sobowale (1985), responsive journalism demands that while media practitioners expose the ills in the society, they should do so in a way that they do not destroy that which they are seeking to build. The unity and stability of the country as well as its economic and political well-being should be paramount in the minds of its journalists. In this regard, there is need for self censorship and control. With this Ekeli (2008)

note that in performing their social responsibility, the mass media should make genuine efforts to ensure that the truth and nothing but the truth is reported. They should also be dutiful enough to avoid bias, slant, and unethical practices which present the mass media in bad light.

However, modalities must be put in place to ensure that a balance is strike between ownership interest and the people right to know what is happening in the environment in which they lived, which is an onus that directly falls on the mass media.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Media owners should ensure that they give media workers and journalists the leeway for them to fully perform their social responsibility functions.
2. Journalists should endeavour to be objective and fully perform their social obligations even in the face of ownership influence.
3. Media owners should make sure that they positively influence broadcast media contents.
4. News editors and broadcast media content producers should make sure that media owners do not negatively influence and control their broadcast station contents.

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Appendix I

Department of Mass Communication,
School of Information and communication
Technology,
Auchi Polytechnic, Auchi,
Edo State.

Dear Respondents,

REQUEST FOR COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a Higher National Diploma student of the department of Mass Communication, Auchi polytechnic, Auchi Edo State. I am conducting a research on assessment of ownership influence and control among broadcast stations in Edo State. The research is an academic study in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of post Graduate Diploma in Mass Communication.

I shall be grateful if you complete the attached questionnaire for me. Your anonymity is guaranteed as information will be treated in utmost sincerity.

Thanks in anticipation for your cooperation and understanding.

Yours faithfully,

Oyewole Alaba Queen

Appendix II

Please tick the appropriate boxes. Please do not tick more than a box as a response to a single question.

1. What is your sex?
(a) Male [] (b) female []
2. What is your marital status?
(a) Single []
(b) Married []
(c) Divorced []
(d) Separated []
3. What is your occupation?
(a) Civil servant []
(b) Business man/woman []
(c) Student []
(d) Retired []
4. What is your highest educational qualification?
(a) No formal education []
(b) SSCE []
(c) Diploma/NCE []
(d) B.Sc/HND []
(e) M.Sc and above []
5. What is your age bracket?
(a) 15-25 []
(b) 26-36 []
(c) 37-47 []
(d) 48 and above []
6. Are you exposed to broadcast media messages?
(a) Yes () (b) No ()
7. Does ownership influence affects broadcast media contents?

(a) Yes () (b) No () (c) I don't know ()

8. To what extent does ownership influence affects broadcast media contents?

- a) To some extent
- b) To a great extent
- c) I don't know

9. Is the broadcast media objective in the face of ownership control?

(a) Yes () (b) No ()

10. How objective is the broadcast media in the face of ownership control?

- a) Not objective
- b) Objective
- c) Very objective
- d) I don't know

11. Does ownership influence have any implication on broadcast media contents?

(a) Yes () (b) No ()

12. What sort of implication does ownership influenc`e have on broadcast media contents?

- a) Positive implications
- b) Negative implications
- c) I don't know

13. Do media owners have influence and control on broadcast stations?

(a) Yes () (b) No ()

14. What sort of influence and control do media owners have on broadcast stations?

(a) Positive () (b) Negative () (c) I don't know ()