

THE CHANGING TREND OF WOMEN'S STATUS IN JOURNALISM; A STUDY OF SOME
SELECTED MEDIA HOUSES IN KANO TOWN

BY

HALIMA USMAN MUHAMMAD
SPS/11/MMC/00016

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this work is the product of my own efforts undertaken under the supervision of Dr. Hajara Umar Sanda and has not been presented and will not be presented elsewhere for the award of a degree or certificate. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

Halima Usman Muhammad
SPS/11/MMC/00016

Date

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the research work for this thesis and the subsequent preparation of this thesis by Halima Usman Muhammad with registration number SPS/11/MMC/00016 were carried out under my supervision.

Dr. Hajara U. Sanda
Project Supervisor

Date

Dr. Mainasara Yakubu Kurfi
Project Co-ordinator

Date

Suleiman Yar'Adua (Ph.D)
Head of Department

Date

APPROVAL PAGE

This research work has been examined and found to have met the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Science in MASS COMMUNICATION at the Department of Mass Communication, Bayero University, Kano.

Supervisor

Name: Dr. Hajara Umar Sanda

Signature_____

Date_____

Internal Examiner

Name: Dr. Muhammad Bashir Ali

Signature_____

Date_____

External Examiner

Name: Professor Lai Oso

Signature_____

Date_____

Chief Examiner/Head of Department

Name: Suleiman Yar'Adua (Ph.D)

Signature_____

Date_____

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ABSTRACT

Years back, women are denied full participation and of course key positions to manage the operations of broadcast media houses. Women do not attain managerial positions as a result of poverty, illiteracy, gender related issues and gender bias. But in recent years and with the increase campaign by the government and non-governmental organization on the impact of female education, the level of literacy is getting higher among women and of course makes them have different sources of income which eradicates poverty among them. This research is aimed at examining the Changing Trend of Women's Status in Journalism with specific reference some selected media organisations in Kano town. The research aimed at investigating the factors that led to the changes in the status of women journalist, also determined the emerging roles of women in broadcast media organisations and analysed the major challenges women journalists face before attaining managerial positions. The result of the research would be of great benefit by adding value and knowledge to the researcher's work. It also adds to the existing literature and serve as another source of information to other students as well as the management of media houses to duly acknowledge the performance of women and allow them to take part in the decision making process. Most importantly the research highlights the gradual and positive changes in women's status, roles and assigned responsibilities in the broadcast media houses. Patriarchal theory was used in the study as the theoretical framework. In-depth interview was conducted in gathering data for the study. The research concluded based on the findings that women are still left behind in journalism. They are yet to attain managerial position like their male colleagues. Women journalist believe that there is no equality or women liberation between men and women in the job. In order to achieve gender equality, there is the need for the mass media to play its vital role in dissemination of information on the importance of the presence of women in the decision making positions of the media houses and improving the status of women is the only solution to the gender gap and providing a quality life for women.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Gender communication is intercultural communication Ojiakor (1997). In every society, there are sufficient differences in the distinct behavior patterns of men and women to qualify them as belonging to two different cultures/subcultures. As Mulvane (1994:3) points out, "Literature on intercultural communication often includes discussions of subcultures." Citing Porter and Samovar (1991:18), explained subculture as "a racial, ethnic, regional, economic or social community exhibiting characteristic patterns of behavior sufficient to distinguish it from others within an embracing culture or society." Porter and Samovar (1991:18). From all indications, men and women belong to two such different social communities or categories. Sims (1987) concludes that in male-dominated societies, women's subordination and men's dominance are so pronounced that their subcultures are literally separated by a world of difference. One such society is Nigeria. Sims (1987). Today, some women took the major decision about what they want to do in life. Every day, they challenge the society traditionally, bound roles of women in various societies. Chinyere (2004:39) writes "throughout history, the women have taken up various positions in the society; she has been a mother, a wife, a teacher, a farmer, a nurse, a lawyer even a doctor etc. in most cases combining two or more of the role over the years" Chinyere (2004:39). Despite the increasing scope of professional opportunities, for women access to various professions, their presence in some professions is still negligible. Mark (2009:16) posits that "Journalism is one of those professions in which few women are engaged". He (Mark) defined Gender as Gender a "system of roles and relationship between men and

women that are determined not biologically but by the social, political, economic context” Mark (2009:17).

According to Chinyere (2004:45): “Gender can equally be seen as the process by which individuals who are born into biological categories of male and female become the social categories of men and women through the acquisition of locally defined attributes of masculinity and femininity, beyond biological differences. All differences between men and women are socially constructed and no logical composition”. Chinyere (2004:45). Gender relations in Nigeria are characterized by a lot of imbalance to the dis-advantage of women. Adeniran, (2007) argued that we are in the twenty first century, yet traditional, culture, religion and other factors have continued to widen the disparity between men and women by keeping women in a subordinate position to men. The larger society and the male subculture still see women and their aspiration as subordinate, as resulting in a summation in which marginalization, trivialization and stereotyping of women are glaring aspects of Nigerian life Adeniran, (2007). OJiafor (1997) effectively captured the master servant relationship between them and women are at best, the rent paying tenants. Malin & Birch 1998:518 contends that “in the definition of gender, what defines a man or a woman is more related to culture and society rather than their sex, sexuality and personal appearance. In other words, gender is not just naturally given, but also socially constructed. (Malin & Birch 1998:518). Gender is built on social interactions through the interiorisation of norms and expectations on individuals’ behavior according to two differentiated patterns for women and men. According to Goffman (1997:303) “in all societies, initial sex class placement stands at the beginning of a sustained sorting process whereby members of the two classes are subject to differential socialization. He also added (Goffman) that “Gender is therefore the effect of reiterated acting, a collective performance, a social

construct based on sex-class codes that makes up social interactions and social structures”. (Goffman 1997:303), gender stereotyping indicates the process through which gender roles are perpetuated in the socialization of individuals. Gauntlet (2008:38) sees gender stereotyping as a preconceived idea whereby males and females are arbitrary assigned characteristics and roles determined and limited by their sex. He also said (Gaunlett) that “gender stereotyping forces individuals in adhering to a predetermined gender role just because of their sex and regardless of their natural predisposition (Gauntlet 2008:38). It may limit the development of their natural talents and abilities and it may result in a waste of human resources. Lorber (1994:57) reports that more generally, it has an influence on the formation of gender identities among young people, influencing their educational choices and consequently their future professional and private lives (Lorber 1994:57).

Gender stereotyping promotes an asymmetrical vision of women and men (girls and boys) in society and the unequal distribution of power and resources among them in all spheres and stages of life. This is the reason why gender stereotyping hampers the achievement of gender equality. In his overview of general trends in the representation of gender from mid 1950s to early 1960s, Gaunlett (2008) underlines that “mass media tended to be very stereotyped. With the exception of cinema, the second wave of women’s movement (1960s and 1970s) was largely ignored by almost every form of mass media, including those targeted at a female audience: for instance, magazines and adverts aimed at women in those years tended to reinforce the feminine and housewifely stereotypes”. (Gaunlett 2008:47)

The IFJ research on media and gender in the Asia and the Pacific region is a major exploration into gender equity in the region’s media industries. It delves into journalists’ experience at work; on career progression and pay; the types of challenges journalists’ face;

cultural and social attitudes; and what motivates them. Importantly, the media has a vital role to play in leading and influencing change from within the media environment as well as in the representation of women on issues more broadly such as equal pay for work, employment, promotions and leave provisions and the critical need for gender representation in decision making roles. Gender equality has long been a central concern of the IFJ. The organisation has regularly drawn attention to the contradiction between gender imbalances in media institution. The platform for action emerging from the united nations fourth world conference on women in Beijing (BPFA) in 1995 was one of the first UN documents to highlight the critical importance of media in attainment of gender equality and women's empowerment. Section J of the BPFA focused attention on women and media as one of the 12 critical areas of concern for the advancement and empowerment of women journalist. It stressed the need to "increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision making in and through the media as well as new technologies" and "promote balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media". (BPFA 1995)

According to Gallagher (2001:4) "at any rate international studies have provided convincing evidence to support the "feminization" of "journalism", considering the fact that some of the supposedly female characteristics such as empathy, thoughtfulness and the ability to work in team-oriented atmosphere are all considered to be qualification, asides academic qualification which could be used as a career advantages in contrast to supposedly typical male characteristics as cool, rationality, competitiveness, aggression and individualism in journalism practice. Gallagher (2001:4). However, the percentage of women in the field compared those who graduates from journalism institutes generates a cause for concern. The feminists of the 19th century certainly paved the way for demanding equal rights in all aspects of society which were

in large part secured through legislation. As cited by Carter (1998:15) however that” the feminists of the 20th century, however, especially during the second half of the century were charged with the responsibility of attempting to institute practice that would realise the promise of equity oriented legislation Carter (1998:15). Basow (1992:159) also pointed out that “Laws do not necessarily change attitudes about the worthiness of people to receive those rights. This was the task and challenge of 20th century feminists. Jung (2000:243) also contends that the state of women in public sector (that) reflects the level of true gender equality. The social state of women is determined by the number of women holding major post in the public sector and the kind of situation where women work. (Jung 2000:243)

Concerns about the limited role of women in the newsroom and the effect this may have on the nature of the news have been voiced for many years. In a classic early study, Gallagher (1981) reported that across many national news media women, accounted for not more than 40 per cent of news media jobs, and stories about women accounted for not more than 20 per cent of all news. Many statistical surveys of female journalists focus on the number or proportion of women working in newsrooms (Deuze, 2002; Chambers, Steiner & Fleming, 2004). However, a simple head count of female journalists relative to male journalists does not directly measure the visibility of female journalists. This is because the consumers of the news media - readers, listeners and viewers - do not know the proportion of women in newsrooms, nor the positions those women hold. Instead, consumers of the news can only deduce the relative involvement of women in the news media by the relative visibility of women journalists. To this end, some researchers have sought to measure the extent to which readers, listeners or viewers actually see female journalists.

Theoretical and empirical studies carried about over the years on the subject of women in the news confirm the result of GMMP and provide interesting explanations for the gender biases found in news coverage and news room practices. Van (1997:34) observed that” journalism and news media have traditionally been qualified as a masculine domain because of their themes, style, mode of address and the gender divides in audiences”. He also concludes that “gender is expressed in the composition of the journalistic personnel of various subdomains: the field as a whole is segregated with men being the majority in political, foreign, financial, sports etc. and women dominating human interests, consumer, health and other such domains and although there is ever more room and even appreciation for journalism that has a female label, because there are expectations that women have the competence to do journalism that could potentially attract more female audiences, this does not remove the power system of two genders”. Van (1997:34).

Researchers shows that the presence of women as TV news readers should be ascribed to the fact that although women have been hired for their capacities and not because of affirmative action policy or of their supposed attractiveness to audiences. There is an undeniable gender-specific factor in their presence. Gallagher (1996:2) reported in a research that “war reporting which is another former stronghold of institutional masculine journalism that has been challenged since the gulf war in 1991, is a similar phenomenon. It is clear that women journalists covering the war could either give more drama to the events reported or eventually distract audiences from the horrors of the war with the unusual image of a pretty presenter in a fleek jacket (Gallagher 1996:2).

Nonetheless, Kennedy et al (2003:73) contend that generally throughout history, men have limited and dominated women’s technological experience. Kennedy et al (2003:73).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.

With the increasing campaign by the government and non-governmental organizations on the importance of girl-child education, there seems to be reasonable increase in women education, especially in Northern Nigeria. Mass communication as a field of study has embraced a fair level of balance in this regard. It is also expected that the number of female journalist would be increasing with their male counterparts, but this does not seem to be the case as it is obvious that the number of men in the practice still outnumber their female counterparts. Even the women in practice seem to be relegated to the lower status and roles in journalism. There seem to be very few women as editor's, news managers, editors-in-chief, senior reporters etc. Studies in countries such as Nigeria reveal a huge disparity between the number of male and female faculty. In a survey of 28 federal, state and private Nigerian universities, Ashong and Batta (2011) cited in Audrey G. 2011:403 discovered that almost 80% of communication educators were male. They conclude therefore that "for communication educators and practitioners to add significant value to the ideal of gender justice in Africa, they must cast off the toga of masculine hegemony; and thereby position themselves as major change agents and advocates of gender equity". (Ashong and Batta, 2011:13).

A large number of female journalists are produced from different institution offering journalism courses or mass communication as a whole, a lot of female students participate in journalism but few of them excel in the profession. According to Omenugha (2004:4) "one thing that is glaring in the Nigerian media is the near absence of Nigerian women as news makers. Though, Nigeria is developing, it has gotten to a stage where the female journalists and their male counterparts should be competing in the media houses. Many female journalists who work in the media sometimes do not show keen interest in the job. This affect the female practitioners as the male

practitioners always tend to overshadow them both in position and in interest to work. This dormant attitude of female towards the profession has resulted to the males claiming superiority over them in the field and as such not portraying a good image of women in the society.

In the past, studies have shown that women are not equally represented in the mass media. For instance, Gallagher (1990) found that within every professional category in the media, there were more women at the bottom of the hierarchy and more men at the top. Men are also paid more than women across all jobs. (Gallagher, 1990). In recent years, there are changes in the status, roles and responsibilities of women in broadcast media industries. These changes have made women journalist to attain managerial positions in media houses irrespective of religion or cultural background. It paved way for women to take part in the decision making process and bring about positive changes and progress in the media industries and in the lives of women as they are able to explore in different field of journalism.

This study examines “The Changing Trend of Women Status in Journalism” with reference to some selected broadcast media organisations in Kano state.

1.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of the research is to examine “The Changing Trend of Women Status in Journalism” with reference to some selected broadcast media organisations in Kano state.

The objectives are:

- To examine the roles and positions of women journalists in the past.
- To determine the emerging roles of women journalists in broadcast media.
- To analyse the major challenges facing women journalists before attaining managerial positions.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research is aimed at answering the following questions:

- What are the roles and positions of women journalists in the past?
- What are the emerging roles of women journalist in the broadcast media houses?
- What are the challenges women journalists faces before attaining managerial positions in the broadcast media industries?

1.4 SCOPE AND LIMITATION

For over many decade, there has been gender inequality against women in different societies and organization which the media is not an exception. The study will focus on women journalists in broadcast media industries, how they are treated, the positions they occupy and the recent change in their status, roles and responsibilities.

The study is also limited to women journalist in some selected media industries in Kano town. The study conducts the research among women journalists in six media organizations that is; two federal media, two state and two private owned media organisations. This is because it would be difficult or rather impossible to access all female journalists in all the media houses in Kano State.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to Winner et al (1987:34), “the good of every research is to help further the understanding of the problems and questions in the field of study. If a study does not do this, it has little value beyond the experience the researcher acquires from conducting it.

The significance of this study can be viewed in three segments: significance to the researcher; to the field of study and to the general public.

- To the researcher, the findings would enrich the knowledge and capacity as well as adding value and information to the researcher's work.
- To the body of knowledge, it would add to what is already available as literature to the topic and the study would serve as additional source of information to other students who may wish to conduct research on issues related to this field of study. It would also help the management in the media organizations to recognize and assign women as part of the managerial positions in broadcast media industries
- Most importantly, the research would provide information about the positive changes in the status, roles and assigned responsibilities of women journalist in media organizations.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

- **CHANGING TREND:** A gradual progress, development or shift of women's position from subordinates in the broadcast media industries to being part of the decision making groups.
- **STATUS:** Status in the context of this research refers to the standing position of women in broadcast media organisations.
- **WOMEN JOURNALISTS:** An adult female human being who is an employee in broadcast media organization, holding the position of a writer, an editor, broadcaster etc.

- **BROADCAST MEDIA:** Broadcast media refers to the medium (either television or radio) through which program is transmitted or conveyed. They serve as the different technological processes that facilitates communication between sender and receiver of message

1.7 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

The research consists of five inter-related chapters. Chapter one outlines the design and focuses of the research as well as what it intends to achieve. Chapter two discusses different literatures from different scholars, textbooks and journals. Chapter three deals with the methodology of the research design. Chapter four discusses the presentation and analysis of data and finally chapter five consist of summary, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

There has been more attention paid to the nexus between gender and media in Africa since re-democratization spurred the growth of pluralistic media on the Continent. Audrey 2011:389 posit that “gender and media research in Africa is being enriched by synergies between those in academia and civil society, resulting in better knowledge on media representation, participation, audience reception as well as uncovering hidden histories of women’s contributions to the media, and on occasion, the political economy of media industries”. (Audrey, 2011:389)

Concerns among feminist scholars regarding the role of women in the news media have emphasized two essential points: according to dispute (Gallagher, 1981; Chambers, Steiner & Fleming 2004; McGregor, 2006). The first point is, the news media may misrepresent the demographic proportion and status of women with regard to men in society, in that female journalists often appear less frequently in the news media than do their male counterparts. Second, a male-dominated newsroom may produce stories that emphasize male sources and male characteristics, such as triumph, controversy or dispute (Gallagher, 1981; Chambers, Steiner & Fleming 2004; McGregor, 2006). These two factors may impede the extent to which female journalists operate as positive role models for aspiring female journalists and women in general. (ibid). The existence of a glass ceiling, which refer to an invisible barrier to promotion that women experience in many professions can exacerbate this. (Tedesco 1974:76) believed that “it has not yet been shattered. It is true that women are now able to negotiate non-hierarchical management mode more conducive to their needs and to introduce new ways of working

including flexible hours, job shares and childcare support in order to undermine the culture of long hours traditionally associated with journalism ((Tedesco 1974:76)). she added that “as yet, however, there is no evidence of women managers effecting an acceleration of the promotion of women from junior ranks ((Tedesco 1974:76). There is a little consensus between women themselves about whether the rise in the number of women journalists have made a difference to news values and newsroom culture. Bowman (1974) argued that women have transformed newsroom culture by their central involvement in widening definitions of news. However, the evidence is contradictory and suggestions that women have spearheaded changes in the definitions of news values have been questions Bowman (1974).

Research evidence shows that compared to men, women are underrepresented in the news as subjects and sources (GMMP 2010; Yeboah 2010). As a field of research, gender and media studies has had a short trajectory in Africa, and knowledge on the subject is generally still dominated by Western feminist scholarship (GMMP 2010; Yeboah 2010). McLaughlin and Carter (2001:7) cited in Audrey (2011:391) captured this status quo situation when they note that “The imbalance in access to representative space has tended to be perpetuated in the scholarly world with most publicly perceptible scholarship issuing from the more privileged institutions of First World countries and English prevailing as the language of most journals, conferences, and so on McLaughlin and Carter (2001:7).

Many women groups have been formed in Nigeria to intervene towards the empowerment of women and improving their lives. (Oyelude and Bamigbola 2012) observed that “women groups like Women’s Aid Organization and (WAO), Women Crisis Centre (WCC) and Empowering Women for Excellence Initiatives (EWEI) have been formed in Nigeria and mostly concern themselves with challenging media and cultural practices that are inimical to

Nigerian women. They insist on a fundamental transformation of gender relations in Nigerian society (Oyelude and Bamigbola 2012). To work towards this, Adetoun & Alice 2012 added that they are required to use a multimedia approach to campaign, educate, lobby and to question the representation of women in the Nigerian society. Some of these women's groups have sponsored the production and airings of jingles in English and other indigenous languages with special focus on suggestions about women in traditionally male dominated professions Adetoun & Alice 2012. This challenges the dominant images of women's domesticity. Many too have sponsored campaign messages against gender violence.

2.1 BACKGROUND ON WOMEN EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

Traditional education existed in Nigeria before the coming of the Europeans. It constituted the process of acculturation and the development of national character and facilitated the transfer of societal rules, regulations, custom, tradition and culture from one generation to the other. It also enhanced the development of social attitude and optimal development of the individual. It is as a result that Fafunwa (1974) maintains that "the history of education in Africa is incomplete without adequate knowledge of the traditional or indigenous education". Ngwu (2006:23) reiterated that "before the coming of the Europeans to Nigeria, there were well established systems of education in the country". According to him, this education was part of the cultural system of the people and took place in the environment where the children grew up, in the homes where interpersonal communication skills were taught; in the villages where group process and skills were learned, in the farms where they learned vocational skills and methods of agriculture, in the age grade sets where social communication and political skills and knowledge were acquired, in the market for learning economic and marketing skills etc. There was no rigid division between learning and life.

In Nigerian pre-colonial era, there was no laid down education for women. An average Nigerian traditional woman was a complete servant to the husband and children and was bound to live her life as the culture and tradition of her community dictates. Chinyere (2004:13) put it succinctly: “basically, a woman in traditional Nigerian society was only domestically inclined. Her main duty was to keep the home, work in the farm and teach her female children the rudiments of home keeping”.

Early Western education in Nigeria was centered on literacy and its origin can be traced to Muslim traders and the Portuguese Priest. Literacy among the Muslims was centered on Koran and the worship of Allah while among Christians it centered on the Bible and the worship of God. According to Omolewa (1981), in his study ‘Adult Education Practice in Nigeria’ “these contact with Muslims and Christians led to traditional religion being gradually abandoned. It should be noted that women generally had no place in the early literacy efforts in Nigeria; attention was given to only men. The journey in women education has progressed tremendously since then. Drawing attention to the situation of women education in early years of Nigeria education, Maduewesi (2004) noted that Nigerian woman was seen as passive sexual object who was both a devoted wife and a mother for whom society has carved out defined roles, manners and acceptable characteristics. In those bad old days according to Nigerian cultures, women are not seen or heard, but in few cases could occasionally be seen with absolute permission of her husband Maduewesi (2004). She cited that “the Nigerian woman was relegated to the background, ignored, dehumanized and generally confined to lower status in society. She only featured when allowed and in none descripts activities like, serving, dancing and entertainment. This was why when western education came to Nigeria women were shielded from its influence until very late”. (Maduewesi 2004:97). But in recent years’ women have now embraced

education and the disparity between men women in education closing day by day. That is why we are having more women in the media and other professions competing with men.

In Nigeria, government has shown interest in women education because of its commitment to the International Conventions on the Rights of Women. Nigeria is taking a cue from what is happening in other countries of the world. Afemikhe (1988) had indicated that women lag behind men in education and also indicated an increase in number of women occupying decision making positions. Oyinlola (2000) reflecting on Kofi Annan's point of view indicated that 'in economic terms, the gender gap is still widening; women earn less, are more often unemployed and generally are poorer than men'. Jellema and Unterhalter (2005) quoting Herz and Sperling (2004) articulate the benefits of women education to include availability of 'women able to resist debilitating practices such as female genital cutting, early marriage and domestic abuse by male partners'. Therefore, building capacity of women is a desideratum. As a result, one cannot but agree with Pant (2004) who opined that "capacity building for women's collectives is an essential input to reduce the vulnerability of group members to poverty and to enhance their participation in economic growth through improved livelihoods". It is no wonder therefore, that many initiatives have come up stream in an endeavor to promote women education.

2.2 PARTICIPATION AND INFLUENCE OF WOMEN IN THE MEDIA

Studies have found that although the number of women working in the media has been increasing globally, the top positions (producers, executives, chief editors and publishers) are still very male dominated (White, 2009:46). Myers, (2009) reports that this disparity is particularly evident in Africa, where cultural impediments to women fulfilling the role of journalist remain e.g. travelling away from home, evening work and covering issues such as

politics and sports which are considered to fall within the masculine domain (Myers, 2009). The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) reports that throughout the world, female journalists are more likely to be assigned 'soft' subjects such as family, lifestyle, fashion and arts. The 'hard' news, politics and the economy, is much less likely to be written or covered by women. Historically, Armstrong (2006:447) writes "the majority of news sources have been male". Armstrong (2006:447). A recent study of international media revealed that 79 percent of experts quoted in the news media around the world are men while mere 21% are women. Ahmed (2000:11) added that "only 25% of news makers were women; at this rate, it will take at least 75years to achieve gender parity in all aspect of representation in news media". Ahmed (2000:11). Fahs (2005) notes that at the end of the 19th century, women were entering the journalism profession in record numbers. He (Fahs) added that "whereas the 1870 census reported only 35 women employed as editors and reporters, in 1880, it reported 288 women, and in 1890 it reported 888 women and in 1900, 2,193 out of the total of 30, 098 journalists. In twenty years, women have moved from being 2.3percent of the journalism workforce to 7.3 percent. Fahs (2005:308)

The level of participation and influence of women in the media also has implications for media content. Gallagher (1997) contends that female media professionals are more likely to reflect other women's needs and perspectives than their male colleagues. It is important to acknowledge, however, that not all women working in the media will be gender aware and prone to cover women's needs and perspectives; and it is not impossible for men to effectively cover gender issues. Recent research from 18 disparate countries shows that male and female journalists' attitudes do not differ significantly (Gallagher (1997). Nonetheless, the presence of women on the radio, television and in print is more likely to provide positive role models for

women and girls, to gain the confidence of women as sources and interviewees, and to attract a female audience.

2.3 WOMEN PORTRAYAL AND PARTICIPATION IN THE MEDIA

It does not make sense to study the portrayal of women by the mass media without looking at the status of women who work within them. Ogah (1992:54) reports that “there appears to be a direct two-way relationship between the sex of the people producing media content, and what is produced. That is why it is important to look at the position of women as media professionals. Ogah (1992:54). If the balanced portrayal of both sex in the media is the goal, then it cannot be done while there is an imbalance in the way people working in the media are treated. Van (1997:44) posits that “The representation of women in news is a very scarcely covered area of investigation, although as a recent report from the council of Europe highlighted that at the end, gender stereotyping is a challenge to media professionals to realise democracy in practice and to quality in journalism Van (1997:44). The largest and longest longitudinal study on the subject is the Global Media Monitoring Project promoted by the United Nations (GMMP) whose data have been collected every 5 years since 1995, the main findings of this project as written by (Lowe 2007) which in its third report (2010) covers 76 countries all over the world, demonstrate the scarcity of women’s voices in news media content in contrast to men’s perspectives: the news give a male-centered view of the world as far as both the content produced and the producers are concern. To monitor different indicators of gender in news media, the project looks at gender, the occupational category and the function in the story of people heard or read about in news. In the European countries, only a fourth (26 percent) of the subjects in the news monitored are female. Although there has been a rise from the previous results (1995:16 percent, 2005: 21 percent), there still is an underrepresentation of female

subjects. (GMMP 2010). Gallagher (1997:8) retreated that in the last few decades, large scale surveys of journalists have generally included gender along with other factors of social class, race, educational background, training, rank, responsibilities and so on. Such statistical data allow comparisons of men's and women's career patterns and professional advancement Gallagher (1997:8). Ukwu (1992:24) added that "however, given that such surveys are rarely designed to focus specifically on gender issues, the findings of gender difference are often schematic rather than conclusive". Ukwu (1992:24)

According to the United Nations Development Program report of 1990, 'women represent half of the world's population, one third (1/3) of the official labor forces, they receive one percent (1%) of the Nigerian income and own less than one percent (1%) of the world's property. (UNDP 1990). A research conducted by the United Nations Development Program report of 1990 found out that 'women represent half of the world's population, one third (1/3) of the official labor forces, they receive one percent (1%) of the Nigerian income and own less than one percent (1%) of the world's property. (UNDP 1990). Pate (1994:4) in his research 'Status of Women in the Nigerian Broadcast Industry wrote that "In Northern Nigeria, women constitutes about 43.9 million of Nigeria's 88.5 million people (Pate 1994:4). Nigeria is among countries that record the highest population growth rate in the world and also a male dominated society with strong religious and cultural affinities. It is believed that women are generally considered subordinates, also poverty, ignorance, illiteracy likewise mortality is higher among them as Chinyere, (2004:4) puts it succinctly: "A majority of them are afflicted by poverty, the causes of which could be traced to gender discrimination. One major cause of poverty among women is their low access to credit and income-earning opportunities, as well as their marginalization from major economic activity". (Chinyere, 2004:3)

However, Stromquist (1990:35) also added that ‘the very high illiteracy rates among rural women in the developing countries is attributable to the very heavy arduous task which women perform to ensure family subsistence – a situation which places poor rural women in inescapable domestic servitude and allows them little or no time to acquire formal education. The fate of such women and even the fate of their daughters are described thus by Stromquist 1990:37 “The existence of intensive domestic work, coupled with conflictual family dynamics, renders literacy an unattainable dream for a large number of women and even a dream for some of their children, particularly their daughters who early in life tend to be assigned the same domestic roles their mothers perform.” On the other hand, McBride (1980:382) criticize the above points that “representation and roles of women in the media field are often curtailed by religion and tradition, culture and prejudices based on social customs discriminatory laws and by disproportioned share of the responsibility for care of their homes. McBride (1980:382). Osuala (2006), in her study ‘Poverty, Media and Gender in Nigeria’ also agreed that the greatest barriers to women in the media are cultural and religious barriers which women face in their everyday lives. Stereotype notions about their inability to participate in the media and their responsibilities which keep them away from having full participation into the profession and causes barriers to their success. Osuala (2006:69)

The issue of gender bias too, contributes enormously to the low participation of women in journalism. Beverly’ (1995), notes that the society assumes that women should be mothers, school teachers, hairdressers, secretaries, nurse, maids and social workers only, therefore, they do not need education not to talk of taking part in decision making. This believe is wrong, as both men and women need and can purse politics and projects in development, each in their own unique ways, alongside each other. The home too is not left out in contributing to female lack of

participation in journalism. In the home husband's attitudes can directly or indirectly influence the choices their wives make in whether to enter into politics or not. Disparities among women and men in the media industry may be rooted in a phenomenon of progressive segregation into different career paths. For example, based on a 2003 study looking at the United Kingdom, the US and Australia, Delano found that in the United Kingdom, women tend to 'train into' the journalism field at magazines, whereas men get their experience at local papers. The study also revealed employers provide little support for family life; and in all three countries, most journalists do not have children, even if married. In addition, men continue to exclude women in social and professional venues, and this has led women to 'build their own occupational networks' (Delano, 2003: 285). Twardowska and Olczyk (2003) found in their study that, while more than half of the journalists employed at Polish TV stations were women, men made the decisions for the more 'demanding programs', while women were relegated to minor programs. (Twardowska and Olczyk, 2003)

This general pattern of segregation is also observed in the context of the US. Lauzen's (2011) study of 1 318 women, working in the 250 top grossing domestic films of 2008, found that women were seriously marginalised at about 20 % of the production designer jobs, 25 % of production manager jobs and between only 1 and 5 % of the more technical jobs (e.g. gaffers, sound designers). Lauzen's (2011) research into women's employment in US television for 2010–11 found that women were slightly better represented as producers (37 %), but were significantly underrepresented in other roles — 22 % of executive producers, 20 % of editors, 18 % of creators, 15 % of writers and only 4 % of directors of photography.

Early feminist media research has pointed an accusing finger at the hiring practices and production processes that largely account for gendered representation Tuchman (1978). Essays

by Nassanga (2002) and Okunna (2005) and other reports. For example: Gender and Media Baseline Study, 2003; Gender Equality in the Media in Eastern Africa 2008 suggest not only do male journalists still far outnumber female journalists in many newsrooms in Africa, especially in decision-making positions, but women journalists still face challenges such as gender discrimination in the allocation of assignments Nassanga (2002) and Okunna (2005). According to the Gender Equality in the Media in Eastern Africa study (Eastern African Journalists Association, 2008), only 3% of the total number of women journalists working in the nine East African countries included in the study, are in decision-making positions. Sally (2003) observed that the pay gap is least when young journalists enter the industry – women earn 2.5 per cent less than men in the fifteen to twenty-four-year age group. But as men and women rise up the ranks the pay gaps are more significant: women aged twenty-five to thirty-four earn 8 per cent less, thirty-five to forty-four 15 per cent less, forty-five to fifty-four 21 per cent less, and those female journalists aged fifty-five and over earn 20 per cent less than their male counterparts. Sally (2003). Abayomi (2003:33) disagree with this notion and posits that “the age difference of an average male journalist older than female journalist does not explain its significance in terms of women’s career patterns and advancement. He (Abayomi) suggest that “the difference may suggest that women do not stay in the profession as long as men, but this data is does not explain whether this difference is attributable to the lack of promotion prospects for women, lack of childcare support, a male dominated newsroom culture or something else. Abayomi (2003:33). Okunna (2005) argues that despite years of attention to improving the status of women in the media, research evidence continues to show that the power to define the media agenda in Nigeria is still mainly a male privilege. Nigerian female journalists, according to Okunna, are still largely “invisible” in the Nigerian press as the overwhelming majority of people who report the news are

men Okunna (2005). However, as Morna, and Ndlovu (2008) found in research on the tabloid press in Southern Africa, an increase of women in the newsroom may not be enough to address issues of gender African Communication Research, representation in newsrooms and news representation. Newsroom culture would have to change and so must the quality of training and sensitization of the gamut of people who work in the media generally Morna, and Ndlovu (2008). This process is still ongoing but seems to face the same challenges that were around decades ago. Merritt and Gross (1997:115) states that “Disappointingly, despite women’s greater presence in newsrooms, the landscape of news has changed very little over the past decade. Women ‘still tend to lag behind in terms of career progression and salary, there are still very few women in senior positions within news organizations” ((Merritt and Gross 1997:115). In the mainstream news media in Australia, it is predominantly men who determine content. Gallagher (2003) Byerly (2011) commends that’s “Women journalists are typically located *en masse* in low paid, low-status positions, struggling to attain real influence in editorial decision-making roles across all media platforms. While many women find jobs in reporting and some become well known for their work, few break through the glass ceiling and reach influential leadership positions”. Gallagher (2003) and Byerly (2011).

Colonisation or rather the attainment of independence made life miserable to people in Africa. They were not ensured complete freedom and independence especially women who were under complete servitude and slavery on men. Scholars like Leacock, 1972, Rodney, 1972, Hafkin and Ray (1976) have argued that ‘colonialism had worsened the status of women compared to men in African society. This was part of the total disruption of the traditional structures by colonialism’. Mullings (1972:78) explain that “colonialism segregated labour and introduced pure monetary economies. As a result, men had more opportunities of entering the

system than women. Although few became successful in the new dispersion, majority were confined to primary agriculture. Thus, the exclusion of women from access to the major means of production in the context of stratification means that they are equal to men of their class” (Mullings 1972:78).

Mba, (1982:65) argued that “Independence to Nigeria did not ensure complete independence to Nigerian women, they remained oppressed, their rights to land oppressed, they earn lower income, and they are victims of high unemployment, underemployment and cultural biases Politically they are marginalized” Mba, (1982:65). Pate (1994:4) added that “No woman has ever occupied the office of the president or Governor. In contrast, the majority are engaged in the non-formal sections like retail trading, embroidery, tailoring etc.” Pate (1994:4) Generally, if we look at the number of women appearing in the press, broadcast and film all over the world, whether as news makers or as fictional characters, it is still clear that as a sex, women are still severely underrepresented despite the advances made over the last thirty years. In terms of representation of women on TV or Radio programs, women are also underrepresented. Tedesco (1974) reports a gross underrepresentation of women as compared to men in her analysis of primetime network dramatic programming aired in the 1969 to 1972 seasons. Tedesco (1974). The ratio of men to women in the dramatic programs shown on local TV stations as reported by Cantor (1973) supports the claim of women’s limited visibility on Television. Wood (1999:440) also pointed out that “women are numerically underrepresented. Although the reported male to female ratios vary Wood (1999:440). Busby (1974:66) specifies appearance in terms of role significance, male outnumbered females in both major and minor roles, and that more male than female characters are identified with occupation. In an analysis Busby (1974:68) found that “the range of occupations held by males covered a much broader spectrum than those held by

females, who are mostly in low status and traditionally female jobs. Both in the television household and in society, males occupy positions of authority, while women are hardly ever shown in such positions. Busby (1974:68). Just as importantly, when they do make it into the media, they are usually confined to limited roles and images. In other words, there are still problems with both quantity and quality of women's portrayal. In 1989, the Australian Government set up a working party on the portrayal of women in the media, when this group reported in 1993 it had found that women are 'still grossly underrepresented in the media' and still portrayed in only a narrow range of roles. (Australian Office of the Status of Women 1993)

The International Federation of Journalists (IFJ 2001) report that, "the number of women journalists is on the rise in most countries surveyed. But the percentage of women in journalism ranges from around 50% in some countries to as low as around 6%. The average percentage of women journalist is 38%". (IFJ, 2001). This goes contrary to Gallagher (1996). as she believed that women are on the rise because of frequent employment and participation of women in the profession. Gallagher (1996:43) noted that "it is evident that the percentage of women employed in journalism has steadily increased within a short period of time. Because of gender role expectation, young women frequently choose this profession" Gallagher (1996:43). While the number of female journalist is on the rise, they still do not attain managerial positions. They are mere reporters or broadcasters dominated by men. The global media monitoring project by George, and Gallagher (1996) published by the World Association for Christian Communication (2000) reports that "media operations in ownership also reflect male dominance. Although, up to 41 percent of media professionals are women, their influence over news operations is minimal. This can be attributed to the ratio of male-female workers in the media including senior management which heavily favours men George, and Gallagher (1996). Women

comprised only 31 percent of the total on-camera or visible media workforce, including reporters". IWMF also agreed and report that management position continues to be dominated by men. Nearly 60 percent of the women journalists from around the world who responded to a 1997 International Women's Media Foundation (IWMF) survey said that "not even one out of the 10 decision-makers in their companies was a woman. The figure was even higher (79 percent) for respondents from Asia". (IWMF 2000). According to the Southern African Gender and Media Baseline study (2002), "on average, only about 20 percent of journalists are women while less than five percent are managers or owners of media houses. Women are also underrepresented in images or cartoons as well as opinion and commentary categories, the study cover Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe" (SAGMB 2000). Most frequently, as reported by Delano 2001 cited in Peters 2001 that women bring cases of unfair treatment on the basis of differential pay, unfair decisions made during recruitment or promotion interviews, ageism and dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy" (Delano, 2001).

The increasing proportion of women journalists has been noted in several studies, for example in Belgium (Neveu, 2000), in Croatia (Zgrabljic Rotar, 2011; Croatian Bureau of Statistics, 2011) and in Austria, where women comprise nearly two thirds of Austrian journalists aged under 30 years old (compared with 40 % among all age groups). These figures suggest that the profession is attracting a new generation of women. (Kaltenbrunner, Karsmasin and Kraus's, 2007). In Sweden, Djerf-Pierre's (2003) longitudinal analysis found that journalism has remained a masculine field, in spite of the high level of gender equality in employment. Djerf-Pierre's more recent research shows women professionals have made their strongest mark in public service broadcasting and in the popular press. Women in Latvian newspapers occupy 52

% of the positions in major dailies and hold 72 % of positions in regional newspapers. In addition, 48 % of Latvian owners of, and managers in, news companies are women, meaning that they are nearly at parity at the top level of decision-making. Djerf-Pierre's (2003). A 1995 UNESCO report showed that "the percentage of women employed in most Asian Media is "nearly lowest" in the world. In the Philippines, women comprise an average of 30 percent of the print media's staff. There were no data for the broadcast media. In Bangladesh, there were reportedly only four female reporters in a country of 120 million in 1998". The women's media center survey in Cambodia revealed that" only 10.8 percent of media workers are women, low for a country where more than half the population is female. Even more striking was that 31 out of 42 respondents worked in Government-run media as translators or office based writers rather than as reporters".

Peters, (2001) explained the standards of women in several countries. According to her, "Pakistani women journalists account for no more than six percent of the workforce. In South Korea, the percentage of women, according to a country report dropped between 1990 to 1995 because of low pay. Economic publications were hiring more women, but the pay was lower than in major dailies, which favored man. In Malaysia, women make up about 40 percent of print journalist, according to the national union of journalists whose membership, however does not include journalist in the management level". She (peters) also explained that: "The pacific Island Media show a similar trend, with nearly two thirds or 64 percent of journalist surveyed being male, and 36 percent female. Melanesia, with 75 percent of journalist being male and 25 percent female may be considered the most male dominated of the lot. In Fiji, 51 percent of journalists were men and 49 percent female, whose median age is 22. Generally female journalists tend to

be younger, have less experience and hold less senior positions. There are far fewer women in managerial and executive position”. Peters, (2001)

Several factors account for a “mainstream” media where the perspective is naturally and predominantly male. A study on the Cambodian Media Sector, by Britt-Louise 2000) suggest the following factors:

- Being on call at all times especially during crisis situations and being assigned at a moment’s notice to cover breaking news is routine in media. Long and irregular hours can discourage many women from staying in the media for the long haul because the routine is incompatible with their family obligations, a consideration that restricts few men. Despite their significant contribution to the economic upkeep of the society, women are expected to take care of the household.
- In some media organisations, the so-called soft news beats (health, education, science, agriculture, and environment) are usually assigned to women, while so-called hard beats (politics, economic, business, defence) are routinely given to male reporters. Hard news stories often land on the front page, giving their writers (usually male) added career boost and eventually propelling them to top editorial positions. Most of their female colleagues meanwhile languish in the rank.
- The traditional views about the Asian societies have not only cost them opportunities but also promotions. The perceptions and social expectations that women will put their families first before their careers has resulted in most women journalist being relegated to subordinate roles in favour of their male colleagues who are perceived as “taking their jobs more seriously”.

- In the broadcast media, heavy camera equipment makes for mostly male camera operators, closing yet another avenue where women can directly control the images seen onscreen.
- In the field traditionally reserved for men, practices such as the old boys' network, as well as acting (and drinking) like "one of the boys" are seen as acceptable, putting female journalists at a disadvantage.
- Having more male boss at the top rung of the corporation ladder has given rise to instances of sexual harassment, crude languages and lewd remarks, that make the media work environment less than women-friendly.
- In some Asian countries where media have remained a struggling venture, the absence of basic facilities in the newsroom, toilet for one makes it extremely difficult for women to stay on the job.
- Cultural expectations in Cambodia also discourage women from entering the media industry, starting at the university level. "Women cannot travel alone and without their families. It is seen as improper," said one male student. Editors gave the same reason to justify having very few female staff. Additionally, some editors claimed, women prefer desk work, typing or editing, rather than being reporters, a claim disputed by some female journalists.
- At the journalist section of the royal university of phnom penh, the dropout rate for women is much higher than for men. While no surveys have been done to explain this, both students and teachers said it had to do with the fact that women are expected to take on additional work outside of their studies, and that families refuse to let their daughters join field trips outside phnom penh. (Britt-Louise, 2000)

Although each country has its own unique set of experiences, women journalists share common grievances, among them:

- The lack of equal opportunities in promotion and training;
- The conflicts between their work and childcare or family obligations;
- Sexual harassment on the job; and
- Invisibility in newsroom and media boardrooms.

Journalists echo what most career women have been saying-that they are forced to make choices that men do not have to make, much less think about. A Korean participant in the 1996 International Women's Media Foundation (IWMF) report said that "93 percent of Asian women journalist feel they encounter more obstacle than men in career development. They point, in particular, to the difficulties of balancing family obligations and career". (Ammu 2002:4) cited in Pennie 2004 reiterated that "in South Korea, one journalist observed that most Asian women journalist are overloaded with work in the office and at home because "homemaking and child rearing is considered exclusively women's duties in the Confucianist East". (Ammu 2002:4). But India seems to be an exception, Ammu (2002:14) contends that "in nationally-circulated English newspaper and magazines, high-profile 24-hour TV news channels, and in media centers like Delhi, Mumbai and Bangalore, women are reporting and commenting on so-called mainstream issues like politics, business, economic, international relations and what is euphemistically known as defense". She, (Ammu) also added that "A number of women have been recognized for their reportage on conflict in and around the country, having broken exclusive stories and secured rare interviews with leaders of militant organisations operating in these hot spots. Several have become associated with some of the most sensational scoops of recent years,

including those on financial scams. Quite a few have made names for themselves in the prestigious field of political reporting or analysis or both”. (Ammu 2002:5). Women too tend to be the first casualties in penny-pinching decision by the management: The Asian financial crisis in 1997 took its toll on women journalist in some countries-the first to be let go in the staff cutbacks were single women, followed by married women.

The Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) adopted by the United Nation Member States in 1995 outlines the issue around women and media under section J and points to key strategies and actions that address the media concerns of women BPFA (1995). While the BPFA recognizes the advances made in communication technology, Van (1997:34) in his report suggests that “it is important to emphasize the continued stereotyped media portrayal with a significant increase in media images that perpetuate violence against women and also women’s lack of access to expression and decision-making in and through the media Van (1997:34). The recommendations to governments, NGO’S and media organizations are made under two specific strategies objective”

- Increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision making in and through the media and new technologies of communication.
- Promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

The BPFA calls for action to be taken in the areas of media policy on gender issues, women’s portrayal by media and the relatively low-ranked positions of women in media organizations. The BPFA underscore the importance of a gender perspective in media policies and programmes. It also emphasizes advocating for change with mainstream media that is based on sustained monitoring of media content and intent toward gender sensitivity.

2.4 CHANGES IN THE STATUS OF WOMEN JOURNALISTS

One of the trends that can be observed today is the steadily increasing female presence in professional spheres and management positions traditionally regarded as “male.” The range of opportunities for education and professional training is expanding, and today many women are able to obtain qualifications that allow them to apply for new positions in new areas. (Olga, 2013) refer it as “The glass ceiling,” which reflects both gender inequality in the social and economic spheres and rigid stereotypes of men’s and women’s social roles, is gradually being destroyed. Armstrong (2004: 136) cited “Women are stepping outside traditional occupations with limited responsibilities, low salaries, and few chances for promotion Armstrong (2004: 136). Another old struggle, which has been waged through research and advocacy for a long time, has been how to get more women into newsrooms and especially into decision-making positions. The research agenda here has tended to focus on analysing the disparities in numbers, positions and assignments of female versus male media practitioners. Poindexter (2008) believed that there are numerous consequences pertaining to the persistence of gender inequality in the media sector. In 2008, studies carried out on women and men in newsroom gate-keeping roles in the United States suggest that men’s dominance in supervisory roles allows them to pass along gendered values to the next generation (Poindexter, 2008).

According to the dictionary meaning, status means person’s legal social or professional position in relation to others. Aliyu (2001) contends that “The concept of status connotes from the circle of position; when we talk of position, we mean the stand of somebody or something”. Aliyu (2001). Therefore, status in relation to women can be seen as the position of women in the society. This is to say it is the level of respect and legal right given to women in the society.

According to Aliyu (2001 63): “However, women status must be improved if we are hoping to see the development of our society because as believed, the development of women leads to development of the society”. Aliyu (2001 63). What is missing is empirical data to help determine whether the increasing numbers of women in media training institutions and newsrooms in Nigeria has impacted positively on media content, or whether, as Tuchman (1996) contended a decade and a half ago, women’s judgments about news still resemble those of men, because they have the same priorities, preferences and stereotypes as their male counterparts Tuchman (1996). Peters (2001:23), posit that “less than fifty years ago, journalism was an almost exclusively male profession. Female journalists were an exception and women were discouraged to enter the profession, but today more women are increasingly employed as journalists. In some countries, for instance in parts of Central and Eastern Europe, women make up the majority of working journalists”. Peters (2001:23) Some years back (1987), the federal military government of Nigeria adopted a woman development approach with the intension to integrate women in socio-economic development of individual national economic and regional impact (op. cit) Therefore, the federal government granted the status of a specialized agency of better life program to mobilise in Nigeria through program project and activities for their participation in the integration process.

Studies show that there have been some advances for women in decision-making roles but the question is as posed by Malin and Birch (1998) whether women’s presence makes a difference in terms of how companies are managed and or how gender-related content is created and produced. A number of national studies have attempted to test this cause–effect notion. Malin and Birch (1998). Similarly, Marques (2010) found that the increasing proportion of women in the Portuguese media workforce had not ‘had effects in promoting alternative ways of

representing women in the media that would differ from prevalent female stereotypes'. Given the small-scale nature of these studies, it is not yet possible to conclude definitively that there is a positive relationship between the presence of women in the organisation, even in decision-making posts, and content. Marques (2010)

The last few years have also seen attempts to professionalise the industry, with reputable media companies offering entry-level jobs only to college graduated in related fields. Gallagher 1996 sees that the entry of younger reporters has augured too well for the profession, as they are generally more idealistic than their crusty colleagues and more receptive to changes than veteran journalist weaned on old school rules and traditions Gallagher (1996). In India, however, media educator Ammu observes “most journalists who grew up in the 1960s and 1970s tend to be more idealistic and desirous of change, in contrast to the new generation which seems more hard-nosed and focused on individual career advancement”.

Women in sizeable numbers have risen to managerial positions in Indonesia, Malaysia and Philippines. According to Schultz (2002) “There are more female editors now than there were 10years ago, but even a few can make a difference” Schultz (2002). Eric (2003) observed that Moneeza Hashmi, executive producer of Pakistani’s national TV, singled-handedly banned scenes that showed women being slapped or thrashed on television soap operas. As part of a UNDP_PTV project, Himmat Society has set up media watch chapters all over Pakistan and organizes yearly meetings and national conferences on good governance, dowry, women, armed conflict and a host of other issues. As one of the few media women who have reached management position in Pakistan, Hashmi has introduced gender training programs on PTV and produced a documentary on “Portrayal of Women in the Media.” She was also instrumental in the launch of Khawateen Times, an hour-long program for women. In March 2003, Hashmi

received the president's Pride of Performance Award for Professional Achievement, the highest award given to any professional in Pakistan. Eric (2003)

Furthermore, segregation patterns in the media, according to Robinson (2005), the career stagnation of women in reporting roles, contributes to gender inequalities in pay and with a gender pay gap estimated at 17 % across a number of EU Member States (Robinson 2005). Also according to Pilvre (2004), that pay-gap figure becomes 20 % for women journalists in Estonia, according to Pilvre (2004). For example, Delano (2000) researching the context in the United Kingdom, noted that while much has changed in British journalism, including the steady advancement of women into the profession by the 1980s, women are still under-represented and paid 20 % less than their male counterparts performing the same or similar duties Delano (2000). Some national journalism unions in some countries have been working to support women's career advancement, according to (Peters, 2001), those countries include Finland, Germany, Denmark, Hungary, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, by advancing women within the union structure. Some unions have created women's committees to boost women's voices and leadership. In addition, some German unions have set quotas for women in union governing boards (e.g. IG-Meridien). In 2012, the European Federation of Journalists (IFJ) published the Handbook on Gender Equality Best Practices in European Journalists' Unions, which provides a range of strategies that could be taken up across all sectors, not just in unions and associations. (Peters, 2001),

Significant progress has been made in recent years in women breaking into the war correspondents club, previously the preserve of men. While this is welcome, Gauntlett (2004) advised that employers must consider the extra risks faced by women in conflict zones. Not only are they subject to the same dangers as their male colleagues, but they also face additional

threats of sexual violence, intimidation and gender discrimination even when it comes to risks protection with women forced to use ill-fitting safety equipment designed for male shapes and sizes only. Gauntlett (2004). According to the International News Safety Institute (INSI) survey on Women reporting war in 2005, over 82% of the women surveyed reported physical attack or intimidation whilst covering conflict. Joya, Muktikam and Arunrima (2015) notes that it is also now widely recognized that anyone regularly covering traumatic events or working with severely traumatized people is also at risk of suffering long term mental health problems and may need access to professional support. Joya, Muktikam and Arunrima (2015). Over the last twenty or twenty-five years, in both US and UK, women have begun to achieve critical mass in certain subfields to break through the barriers of decision making positions. However, Lacey, (1996) argued that women's increasing presence in the profession does not necessarily indicate their empowerment within the media structures. They remain concentrated at the lower echelons of the profession while men continue to dominate top management positions in the newspaper, radio and television. (Lacey 1996)

2.5 PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN JOURNALIST IN NIGERIA

The International Federation of Journalists in 2002 provided the list of obstacles faced by women journalist. It was drawn up by women journalist in Asia, Pacific, America, Africa and Europe. These obstacles are:

- **PATRIARCHAL SOCIETIES.**

One of the biggest obstacles to women's access, participation and control of the media is the patriarchal structure of societies where men continue to see women as subordinate to them. Patriarchal attitudes of governments and media are manifest in their being predominantly male institutions which tend to view women as an undifferentiated

mass of low status in the society. Gender biases and gender based discriminations therefore result in stereotyped attitudes, sexual harassment, pay inequalities, discriminatory treatment in assignments and promotions, lack of support mechanism for working women and low education that deter women from joining the media or assume decision making positions.

- **OWNERSHIP OF MEDIA.**

The threat to the democratic right of citizens to a plurality of information sources and the means of expressing their view point is endangered by the power exerted by a few transitional media organisation that control the different media. Ownership monopoly, control of media by men and cross-cutting corporate interest would meritably influence media content and policy. There is increased concern over the levels of media industry concentration being attained through the convergence of communication and information technologies with other traditional media, bringing up issues of control in many countries.

- **LACK OF GENDER PERSPECTIVE ON ISSUES AND GENDER BIAS.**

Few journalism schools have incorporated gender issues in their curriculum. Journalists who attempt to introduce a gender focus in their work often meet resistance or ridicule from their colleagues or bosses. Women communicators point to discrimination and sexual harassment to be among the main obstacles to professional advancement. It is also extremely difficult to open a public debate on issues of communication and democracy, codes of ethics or the social responsibility of the media, when many media

directors and even some journalists refuse to recognize this responsibility and very few are willing to air the issues publicly.

- **LACK OF WOMEN'S ACCESS TO AND GROWTH IN MEDIA INSTITUTIONS.**

As gender issues are not seen as important or profitable, women face difficulties in entering media institution and organisations. Opportunities for women within the media industry in employment and decision making continue to be limited. Not enough women in media organisation have attained senior programming positions as these opportunities are not yet open to women based on routine but fair professional upgrading.

- **LACK OF WOMEN'S ACCESS TO ICT'S AND GENDER BIAS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF INFORMATION COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT).**

Women's lack of access to basic infrastructure such as electricity and phone lines makes broad access to new technology, a very distant possibility further complicated by factors such as illiteracy and economic restrictions. Even in urban centers, the main obstacle to access and use of ICT's are equipment and services cost, lack of training and language use. There has been little commitment from either private institutions to address women's situation vis-a-vis ICT's. It is widely acknowledged that the development of new technologies does not take into consideration women's practices and needs.

- **LACK OF WOMEN'S FULL PARTICIPATION IN MEDIA PROCESSES.**

The participation of women in communication process is largely related to their economic status, geographic locations and ethnic identities. Women who suffer economic, racial or other forms of exclusion are usually also excluded from the means to

communicate. National and international regulatory bodies are commonly conceived as technical entities, in many cases with no space for citizens to participate or express their opinion. Even where such cases exist, women's organisations are often not aware of them. At another level, significant areas of journalism are still male preserves and inherit gender bias and discrimination within the system constrains women media practitioners from participating fully in shaping media content.

- **LACK OF EFFECTIVE MEDIA POLICIES.**

Media policies against sexist and stereotyped coverage, representation and portrayal of women remain as a big gap. Existing media codes and guidelines are mainly concerned with “lewd”, “obscene”, “indecent exposure of human bodies”, “immoral sexual relations”, “sexually provocative materials” and “pornographic content”. Current policies are framed around questions of morality rather than recognizing sexual violence against women as violation of human rights. There have been some efforts to establish or maintain self-regulatory mechanism or media content.

- **LACK OF EFFECTIVE SANCTIONS AGAINST VIOLATORS.**

Although calls have been made for codes of conduct with minimum international standards and requirement to be instituted at the international levels, failure of response to the need bears on the continuing absence of sanction against violators of women's human right in the media.

- **SYSTEMIC CHALLENGES.**

In some countries, issues agreed to on sanction are not that straight forwardly easy to put into action and often required radical transformations of existing systems. For

instance, concepts such as increasing women participation or contribution can often be misinterpreted by the public as women's desire for domination or control.

▪ **THREATS TO MEDIA PRACTITIONERS.**

In several countries, there had been threat against community radio and television stations. In some cases, such as Paraguay and Uruguay, people in charge of them were threatened with imprisonment, as if they had committed a serious crime.

Furthermore, other problems include high stress levels, bullying and harassment, unacceptable workloads, and anti-social working hours' pressure working mothers into part-time, temporary or freelance positions. This in turn puts them in even more vulnerable positions in terms of job security, promotions, legal status and ability to share the same rights as contracted colleagues

The EAJA 2008 reports that in Eastern Africa, some media houses "violate rights of women journalists such as presenting them as sexual objects; sexual harassment, intimidation, abuse, undervaluing or ignoring their work, successes, efforts, rights and by symbolically destroying or frustrating them".

Sexual harassment remains an unspoken problem. Unnecessary touching, sending of unwanted emails, text messages, display of pornographic pictures in the workplaces, sexual comments etc., are generally considered as forms of sexual harassment, the impact of which can have a debilitating effect on the personality, working life and social behavior of the person harassed. In some countries, these problems are often compounded by poorer access to training and education, systemic or hidden discriminatory practices (such as curfews and lack of child care), harassment and overt sexism in hiring practices.

Another dilemma facing women journalists from the start according to Margareta (2004:54) was that “the very notions of objectivity and impartiality were anchored within a partial, male oriented construction of knowledge, reportage and news which produced a patriarchal framework for the professionalization of the occupation. Margareta (2004:54). Swann and Graddol (1988:111) also agreed that “news about women’s issues was ignored or sensationalized and women’s readers were widely regarded as interested in gossip. Certain issues were either rarely aired in the mainstream news media or reported unsympathetically, such as women’s social and economic subordination and the demand for women’s political, educational, employment and domestic rights. Swann and Graddol (1988:111)

2.6 CRITIQUE OF LITERATURE ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE MEDIA.

Many critics emphasized the importance of connecting representation of gender, race, class, sexuality and other subject positions to disclose how the media present socially derogatory representations of subordinate groups. Hooks (1992) have been among the first and foremost prolific African-American feminist scholars to call attention to the interlocking of race, class, gender and additional markers of identity in the constitution of subjectivity. Early in her career she challenged feminists to recognize and confront the ways in which race and class inscribe women and men experiences. In ‘eating the others’ (1992), Hooks (1992) explores cultural constructions of the ‘other’ as an object of desire, tying such positioning to consumerism and commodification as well as to issues of racial domination and subordination. Cautioning against the seductiveness of celebrating ‘otherness’, Hooks (1992) uses various media cultural artifacts—clothing catalogues, films, rap music- to debate issues of cultural appropriation versus cultural appreciation, and to uncover the personal and political crosscurrent at work in mass media representation.

Media representation thus often construct women and their social problems as victims and objects, and mainstream media rarely present positive representations of women's movement or collective forms of struggle, rather focusing on women as individual examples of specific social problems like rape or domestic violence. In arguing for historically and culturally grounded understandings of women's multiple experiences and resistance, Mohanty (2005) presents important theoretical and methodological issues that challenge hegemonies and asymmetries of power in critical studies as well as in mainstream scholarship. Mohanty's work also emphasizes that social and political changes have implications far beyond a single nation's borders.

Recently, television has come under fire for the sexual exploitation of women on screen, particularly when teenagers are involved. In 2013, the parent's television council released a report that found that it was increasingly more likely for a scene to be exploitive when a teenage girl was involved. The report also found that 43 percent of teen girls on television are the targets of sexually exploitive jokes compared to 33 percent of adult women. The researcher from the study claim that "if media images communicate that sexual exploitation is neither serious nor harmful, the environment is being set for sexual exploitation to be viewed as trivial and acceptable. As long as there are media producers who continue to find the derogation of women to be humorous and media outlets that will air the content, the impact and seriousness of sexual exploitation will continue to be understated and not meaningfully addressed in our society."

A study led by sociologist Stacy (2011) found that in both prime-time television and family films, women were highly likely to be depicted as thin and scantily clad. They were also vastly underrepresented in STEM fields when compared to their male counterparts and had less

speaking roles. According to this study, only 28.3 percent of characters in family films, 30.8 percent of characters in children's shows and 38.9 percent on prime television were women.

The prevalent portrayals of women in the mass media observe possible negative consequences for various segments of the population such as:

- Women of average or normal appearance feeling inadequate or less beautiful in comparison to the overwhelming use of extraordinary attractive women.
- Unrealistic expectation by men of how women should look or behave.
- Stereotyping of women who are positively portrayed by or sexualized in the media, such as the theme of a 'dumb blonde' or 'blonde bimbo'. Limiting the societal and career opportunities for people who fit these stereotypes.
- Psychological disorders such as body dimorphic disorder, anorexia, bulimia and so on.
- The excessively coercive nature of appeal to strong sexual instincts to sell products or promote media.
- Increase in the likelihood and acceptance of sexual violence.

Therefore, defenders of the portrayal of women in mass media argue that the nature of the imagery used is a direct response to what the consumers respond positively to. In other words, if for example blonde women are over-represented in film, advertising or as news casters, it is because they appeal the most to the audience. Similarly, if women who are thinner than average appeared more often it is because people prefer to see them, even if they do not directly identify with that physical description.

Gallup and Robinson (2013), an advertising and marketing research firm has reported that in more than 50years of testing advertising effectiveness, it has found the use of the erotic to be a

significantly above average technique in communicating with the marketplace, although one of the more dangerous for the advertiser. This research has led to the popular idea that sex sells. Women have long been thwarted from key editorial leadership roles in news organisations around the world, and this continues today. (Gallagher 1995:63) asserts that Indeed, feminist scholars and some journalists suggest that the most common obstacle to career progress (and therefore attaining leadership positions) reported by women journalists is the problem of male attitudes. (Gallagher 1995:63)

In many countries, the majority of high-profile journalists and editors remain male. Derow (1977:45) notes that “Although there have been considerable changes in the prospects for women working in the media in the past few decades, women are still noticeably in the minority in the top journalistic roles, despite making up the majority of journalism students”. Derow (1977:45). Women substantially outnumber men in journalism training and enter the profession in (slightly) greater numbers, but still today relatively few are rising to senior jobs and the pay gap between male and female journalists remains a stubbornly wide one. Aina (1998:54) also contends that “The same is true across many Western countries. And older women, especially if they have taken a break, find it difficult to retain a place in journalism. The exception to this is in some former Eastern bloc countries where women continue to be well represented amongst the higher echelons of journalism and the media”. Aina (1998:54). The fault line in most Western societies remains the same and this applies across many occupations. These exacting roles – such as news reporting or senior editor – which are dependent upon a news or output agenda are difficult for anyone with other responsibilities. The relatively few women who do get these jobs at a higher level have few outside responsibilities; for example, they are far more likely than men to be childless.

There are still enduring stereotypes; as reported by Lim (1997) women predominate on the lifestyle pages, but do not feature much in crime or sport. They are also far less likely to be seen on the front page, which leads to the tendency that ‘Men’s news is to write on the front page that a fire happened, women’s news is to write inside why the guy lit a fire for the third time’. Lim (1997). Mahtab (2007) also agreed that “A critical mass of women in journalism at all levels is important in ensuring a greater multiplicity of voices. At the moment, there is a disproportionate lack of female sources, female experts, and even women considered as newsworthy subjects (except when they are victims or royal). Mahtab (2007)

The route of women’s entry into the modern workplace altogether has not been a steady and gradual path towards emancipation. There are surprising advances and early examples of success, which were subsequently reversed. Lorraine (2002) commends the history of women’s employment during both world wars demonstrates plenty of cases where what was previously seen as unthinkable suddenly became commonplace – and then once the landscape changed those same opportunities were just as swiftly withdrawn Lorraine (2002). Sometimes it is a case of two steps forward followed by one or more steps back. The history of women’s entry into journalism is full of such examples.

On the possibility of hiring women reporters, Mitchell (1971) noted that women would be ‘unable to work in the cold and wet . . . and (are) not able to make overnight stays on location with a man as wives would not like it. Mitchell (1971). Mitchell (1971) cited in his research that A senior male editor, commenting on the prospect of employing female reporters, said that ‘although he had interviewed many women for reporter jobs he had “never found any woman with the remotest chance of working in that capacity” . . . he believes that women are simply not

able to do hard news stories . . . [but] “see themselves as experts on women’s features””. The same editor agreed that he would have liked to recruit women as that would give a spread of knowledge in the newsroom, noting that:” A huge percentage of the audience is female and journalists of their sex are qualified to identify interesting stories on their behalf. When a woman is married her knowledge of the subjects that interest women is thereby increased but of course marriage makes it more difficult for women to work on shift”. Mitchell (1971)

There has always been ambivalence about the extent to which journalism may be viewed as a profession and much debate about the whole construct of professionalism in this context. Millet (1977: 34) reiterated that “these considerations have been mirrored by the variety of routes into journalism, which have evolved since the early twentieth century. Historically, the pattern of apprenticeship and indentures, usually through the local or regional press, was the commonest way to embark upon the career ladder. For the lucky few this would develop into shifts and eventually maybe a staff posting on a national paper. There was an attitude of ‘school of real life’ as a necessary training for successful journalists and a disdaining of higher education as a useful preparation for the workplace. There are still routes into journalism that bypass much formal training and depend upon a serendipity of connections and networks whereby a bright youngster may end up working for the national media. But increasingly these individuals would also have experienced at least some form of higher education. Millet (1977: 34)

However, the dominant change in recruitment practice has been the growth in academic journalism training, Carter (1998:54) writes “following the US model, where universities offer specific undergraduate and postgraduate courses as a preparation for the industry, it is the ‘academisation’ of the route into journalism which has presented an interesting perspective for women. This is because, ever since these courses originated and started to multiply, they have

been increasingly dominated by female participants, though not by female faculty where women remained in the minority: 'being a journalism academic was seen as the prerogative of older men' (Carter 1998:54). This pattern of gradually increasing numbers of female journalism students occurred in the US where academic journalism training first emerged, but it was then replicated in many other countries, including the UK.

A study by Beasley and Theus 1988, set out to explore 'the ramification of the change from a male majority to a female majority among journalism students nationally', asking whether journalism education was becoming a 'pink collar ghetto' (Beasley & Theus, 1988). Women were plentiful in the student body but the question was raised – what happened next? The evidence revealed that, even though women were taking courses and graduating in significant numbers, they were not as likely to get entry jobs in journalism as male graduates and, even when they did so, this progress was not sustained to take them into the higher ranks. (Beasley & Theus, 1988: 45). Men with a journalism degree were more likely to find a job in the industry. This was particularly true in the areas of newspapers and broadcasting. Women's chances were somewhat better in local weekly papers and in magazines. The research by Beasley and Theus (1988) interviewed graduates from previous years and found the same pattern that recurs in much analysis of gender patterns of journalism employment. The women journalism alumni were on average younger and less likely to have children. There was a noticeable pay gap that increased with the age of the cohort, where the men were earning larger salaries and in higher status jobs. Not for the first time the question was being asked why women were graduating in such high numbers but then unable to capitalise upon this training once they reached the workplace? One answer came from an alumna in the study from the 1978 cohort who observed

that 'journalism school did a good job with skill-preparation mechanics but it taught no workplace-setting skills. It has the "ivory tower" syndrome' (Beasley & Theus, 1988: 127).

More women than ever are working in media. In some countries like Russia and Sweden, they form a majority of the journalism workforce. But they do not play an equal role in the reporting process. According to the Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP), a global survey taken every five years since 1995, by 2005 57% of all television news presenters were women, yet only 29% of news items were written by female reporters. Meanwhile only 32% of "hard" news was written or covered by women. Women are more often found reporting on "soft" subjects, such as social issues, the family, or arts and "living" (up to 40% women).

While statistics show that more and more women are training and entering the field, the number of women producers, executives, chief editors, and publishers remains shockingly low. In 2002 the Canadian Newspaper Association report stated that only 8% of the editors-in-chief and 12% of publishers were women. The Eastern Africa Journalists' Association (EAJA) reported in 2008 that less than 20% of editorial places were filled by women in the region. In some countries, these problems are often compounded by poorer access to training and education, systemic or hidden discriminatory practices (such as curfews and lack of child care), harassment and overt sexism in hiring practices. Significant progress has been made in recent years in women breaking into the war correspondents club, previously the preserve of men. While this is welcome employers must consider the extra risks faced by women in conflict zones. Not only are they subject to the same dangers as their male colleagues, but they also face additional threats of sexual violence, intimidation and gender discrimination even when it comes to risks protection with women forced to use ill-fitting safety equipment designed for male shapes and sizes only. According to the International News Safety Institute (INSI) survey on

Women reporting war in 2005, over 82% of the women surveyed reported physical attack or intimidation whilst covering conflict. It is also now widely recognized that anyone regularly covering traumatic events or working with severely traumatized people is also at risk of suffering long term mental health problems and may need access to professional support.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A study must base its work with theory because scientific work must be accommodated with empirical statement, that is to say the statement must be based on observation, through experience.

A theory according to Forces and Richer (1973) “is a model that has been tested, meaning that its concept has been personalized and the relationship among variable verified. Also theory consists of a set of proposition that is interrelated, a proposition taken to mean a verified statement of relationship between variable”.

Folarin (1986:37) defines theory as a “systematic explanation of the observed facts and laws that relates to a particular aspects of life”, adding that a theory must contain “the element of concepts of variables and statement”.

McQuail (1983) says “theory consist of an idea of varying status and origin which seeks to explain and interpret some phenomenon, while McKean (1997), sees theory as our understanding of the way things work out.

A theory is defined “as a set of interrelated concepts, definition and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomenon by specific relation among variables with the aim or purpose of explaining and predicting that phenomenon” (Kelingner 1973).

Looking at the nature of the study, the researcher adopts **Patriarchal theory** because the theory discussed about a system in which women are subordinate to men in terms of power and status and which is based on the belief that is right for men to command and women to obey. Patriarchy

is also a social system whereby males hold primary power, predominate the roles of political leadership, moral authority, social privilege and control of property.

Patriarchal theory is a form of feminist theory propounded by Aristotle at a specific time in history. Lorraine (2003) notes that patriarchal roots can be found as far back as Aristotle's assertion that women's biological inferiority is akin to her reasoning capabilities, later such systems became perpetuated by 'the Judeo-Christian world as under most other world religions.

The word 'patriarchy' literally means the rule of the father or the 'patriarch' and originally it was used to describe a specific type of male dominating family – the large household of patriarch which included women, junior men, children, slaves and domestic servants all under the rule of this dominant male. Now it is used more generally "to refer to male domination, to the power relationships by which men dominate women and to characterise a system whereby women are kept subordinate in a number of ways" (Bhasin 2006:3). Patriarchy refers to the male domination both in public and private spheres. Feminists mainly use the term 'patriarchy' to describe the power relationship between men and women. Thus, patriarchy is more than just a term; feminists use it like a concept, and like all other concept, it is a tool to help us understand women's realities

Patriarchy is defined by Walby (1990:20) as a system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women. (Walby 1990:20). The use of the term social structure is important here, since it clearly implies rejection of both biological determinism and the notion that every individual man is in a dominant position and every woman is a subordinate one. Walby 1990:20 also explains patriarchy "as a system because this helps us to reject the notion of biological determinism (which says that men and women are naturally different

because of their biology or bodies and, are therefore assigned different roles) or “the notion that every individual man is always a dominant position and every woman in a subordinate one.” Patriarchy, she added (Walby) is composed of six structures; the patriarchy mode of production, patriarchal relations in paid work, patriarchal relation in the state, male violence, patriarchal relations in sexuality and patriarchal relations in cultural institutions. Patriarchy in its wider definition, means the manifestation institutionalization of male dominance over women in society in general. It implies that “men hold power in all the important institutions of society” and that “women are deprived of access to such power”. However, it does not simply or totally deprived of rights, influence and resources” (Lerner 1989:239). Mitchell (1971:24) a feminist psychologist uses the word patriarchy to refer to “kinship systems in which men exchange women. (Mitchell 1971:24). Hartman (1981) defines patriarchy as a set of relations which has a material base and in which there are hierarchical relations between men and solidarity among them which in turn enable them to dominate women. Hartman (1981). The material base of patriarchy is men’s control over women’s labour power. Patriarchy as cited by Hooks (1990) is the single life threatening social disease assaulting the male body and spirit in our nation. Yet most men do not use the word patriarchy “in everyday life. Most men never think about patriarchy, what it means, how it is created and sustained” Hooks (1990). Men who have heard and know the word usually associate it with women’s liberation and therefore dismiss it as irrelevant to their own experience. Lim (1997:220) defined patriarchy as the system of male domination and female subordination in economy, society and culture that has characterised much of human history to the present day. Patriarchy describes the institutionalized system of male dominance. So we can usefully define patriarchy as a set of social relations between men and women, which have a material base and which have a material base and which though,

hierarchical, establish or create independence and solidarity among men that enable them to dominate women. (Jagger and Rosenberg 1984). Patriarchal ideology exaggerates biological differences between men and women, making certain that men always have the dominant roles and women always have the subordinate or feminine one's. This ideology is so powerful that "men are equally able to secure the apparent consent of the very women they oppress". They do this through institutions such as the academy, the church and the family each of which justifies and reinforces women's subordination to men. (Millet 1977:35)

Patriarchy is a political-social system that insists that males are inherently dominating superior to everything and everyone deemed weak, especially females and endowed with the right to dominate and rule over the weak and to maintain that dominance through various forms of psychological terrorism and violence.

Gerder (2003) asserts the fact that patriarchy was created at a specific time in history out of many complex processes involving demographic, ecological, cultural and historical factors which developed as lifestyles changed and people adapted to new circumstances. These processes were dialectical processes at the end of the Neolithic Era and the beginning of civilization. However, the rise of capitalism surely did lead to the development of a new form of patriarchy. Walby (1990:200) buttress that "it did not lead to an alteration in its basic structures since this historical shift did not have great effects upon gender relations. Men remained the dominant gender; all the six patriarchal structures continued across this period; only a minor shift in the relative significance of public and private sites of patriarchy which can be identified as far back as the seventeenth century accelerated (Walby 1990:200). She also added (Walby) that "without doubt we can still in some ways witness women's subordination in developed societies. However, women are not passive victims of oppressive structures. They have struggled to

change both their immediate circumstances and the wider social structures” (Walby 1990:200). Kramarae (1992) buttress that patriarchy was around before the current resurgence of the women’s movements and women’s studies courses, the concept has been recreated in the past two decades to analyse the origins and conditions of men’s oppression of women (Kramarae 1992) originally patriarchy has been used within post 1960’s feminism as the systematic organization of male supremacy and female subordination. (Kramarae 1992, Stacey 1993, Aina 1998)

In relation to this research, the theory is applicable base on its male oppressive and discriminatory system. As cited by Freud 1977:11, patriarchal theory is oppressive in social, political, economic and cultural environments. (Freud 1977:11). Firestone 1974:34 asserts that it is discriminatory in its control of access to power, management of resources and benefits and manipulation of public and private power structures (Firestone 1974:34). Patriarchy is grounded in the assumption that the individual European male is a universal reference point and the source of defining visions of cosmos, society, citizenship and the individual self within hierarchical concepts of gender, race and class relations.

Although some authors contend that matriarchy preceded patriarchy as it does not replace matriarchy. Brownmiller 1976:88 posit that “the two social systems originated in different parts of the world and they are antithetical systems in that they are based on very different principles. (Brownmiller 1976:88) he also added that in the African conception, a matriarchy is a society in which maternal energy and mother love are socially cohesive forces. Thus, matriarchy is not like patriarchy; a dominating ruling system. It is a social organization focused on the power of women as mothers and on the matrilineal ownership of the home and wealth. However, questioning the patriarchal models whether considered from a sex or gender perspectives in

terms of male control of women's reproduction or from a materialistic perspective where class relations and the sexual division of labour in the market place as economic and social extensions of male and female roles in the family are mutually self-reinforcing, patriarchy always stands for the totality of oppressive and exploitative relations.

In conclusion, so far, our nation's visionary feminist movement is the only struggle for justice that emphasizes the need to end patriarchy. No mass body of women has challenged patriarchy and neither has any group of men come together to lead the struggle. The crisis facing men is not the crisis of masculinity. It is the crisis of patriarchal masculinity until we make this distinction clear, men will continue to fear that any critique of patriarchy represents a threat.

To end patriarchy, we must challenge both its psychological and its concrete manifestations in daily life. There are folks who are able to critique patriarchy but unable to act in an anti-patriarchal manner. To end male pain and to respond to male crisis, we have to name the problem. We have to both acknowledge that the problem is patriarchy and work to end patriarchy. Terrence (2005) offers this valuable insight that the reclamation of wholeness is a process even more fraught for men than it has been for women, more difficult and more profoundly threatening to the culture at large (Terrence 2005). If they are to regain the space of openheartedness and emotional expressiveness that is the foundation of well-being, we must envision alternatives to patriarchal masculinity, we must all change.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The general aim of this research is to examine the Changing Trend of Women Status in Journalism: A Study of Some Selected Broadcast Media Houses in Kano. For social sciences research to be truly scientific, it has to possess qualities such as objectivity, dependability, acceptability etc. the extent to which these qualities can be achieved depend on the method of inquiry adopted. (Wimmer 2003:36, Campbell et al 1982) sees research design as the process of narrowing and focusing perspective for the purpose of a particular study. In his own submission, Babbie (1996) sees research as a set of decision regarding what is to be studied among what population and for what purpose.

In this chapter, methods of gathering, collection, presentation, analyzing and interpretation of data used by the researcher will be discusses under the following headings:

3.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

In undertaking a research work, a methodology is needed to undertake the work in an accurate and acceptable manner. Wimmer and Dominic (1994:85) defined methodology as the way the data will be collected and analysed. This research adopts a qualitative method using in-depth interview in gathering data. According to Araoye (2004), qualitative method is based on measures of quantity or frequency and ensures consistency of administration so that data may be coded and responses compared while qualitative method emphasise the value of prose data rather than categories and codes.

3.2 POPULATION OF STUDY

According to Osuola (2001:119), “the first step in obtaining a sample is to define the population. This means identifying characteristics which members of the universe have in common and which will identify each unit as being a member of a particular group.” Therefore, the population of study for this research are women journalists in broadcast media houses in Kano town. Population as defined by Gunter (2006:52) is the total number of persons or individuals occupying an area and who bear common characteristics and can thus be placed under an inquiry of a given interest, or placed under monitoring observation or measurement of some kind. Records from the broadcast media houses studied revealed that in Radio Kano where Hajiya Sa’adatu Babaji is the managing director, they have 178 staff, having 30 women and 148 males. In express radio where Alhaji Ali Baba Kusa is the Managing Director, they have a total of 62 staff, having 24 women and 38 males. Bashir Sanda Yar’adua is the Managing Director NTA Kano and the media house have the total number of 102 staff, 26 women and 76 males.

3.3 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sampling is defined by Okoye (1996:53) “as a set from the general population that represent the entire population. It is a portion taken from the population under study”. Sampling on the other hand is a process of systematically selecting sample for inclusion in a research work. Sample size is that which is representative of the entire population. A sampling technique is needed in order to take sample from the personnel working with the selected media houses. Purposive sampling method is used in selecting the broadcast media houses and census was applied in selecting the interviewed women journalists in the media houses. According to Mohammed (2006:123) and Wimmer and Dominick (2006), purposive sampling technique is appropriate on the basis of

knowledge of the population, its elements and purposive of the research or where the sample elements possess certain characteristics or qualities. As for the women in broadcast media industries, the population was drawn from NTA, Pyramid Radio, Express Radio, Freedom radio, Abubakar Rimi Television and Radio Kano.

3.4 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING SIZE

A sample size is that which is representative of the entire population. For a study sample, Osuola (2001:121) noted that: “after defining a population by listing units, a sample unit should be selected from the list with care and precision. A good sample must be nearly representative of the population as possible,” The population of this study therefore was categorized as follows:

- Participants in NTA, Pyramid Radio were selected because the media houses are federal owned media organization and they are interviewed based on their proportion.
- Participants in Express radio and Freedom radio Kano were selected, being private owned broadcast media organization and are also interviewed based on their proportion.
- Abubakar Rimi Television and Radio Kano were selected because they are state owned media organisations

Based on their proportion as contained above, NTA have a total number of 102 staff, Pyramid radio have a total number of 69, a total of 62 in express radio, 78 staff in freedom radio and 72 in Abubakar Rimi Television and radio Kano have the total number of 178 staff.

3.5 INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION

The instrument for data collection for this study is in-depth interview with women journalists in the media houses.

In-depth interview is adopted in this research to answer very clearly some questions that cannot provide clear information by questionnaire. In-depth interview is a conversation between people in which one person has the role of the researcher (Gray 2004:213). Ologbonsaye and Abifarin (1983:14) defined in-depth interview as an investigation which use personal contact and interaction to gather necessary information to address the question being studied. Such contact can be face to face or by telephone. Khan (2007:105) stresses that through interview information is likely to be more accurate and relevant because the interviewer can get doubt cleared and cross check the respondents. Arksey and knight (2002:32) cited in Gray (2004:214) commend that interviewing is a powerful way of helping people to make explicit things that have hitherto been implicit to articulate (to articulate their tactics, perception, feelings and understanding). Buttressing or emphasizing this, Grays (2004:214) possess that interviews are also useful where it is likely that people may enjoy talking about their work rather than filling in questionnaire. According to him, in-depth interview allow them an opportunity to reflect on event without having to commit them in writing, because they feel the information may be confidential. In-depth interview involves inviting the respondent to a location or sometimes at the respondent's home or place of work (Wimmer and Dominic 2000:182). It is a conversation carried out with the aim of obtaining certain information (Osuola 1982: 182). Hence the research adopts interview with women journalists in the selected broadcast media organisations.

3.6 PROCEDURES OF IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW

When embarking on the in-depth interview, the problem definition, respondent recruiting as well as the data collection and analysis procedures are similar to those used in personal interviews; The primary differences enunciated in Mukhtar (2008:42) are as follows:

- Co-op payments are usually higher, generally N100-N1000
- The amount of data collected is tremendous. Analysis may take several weeks to several months;
- Interviewers may become extremely scheduled several hours.

According to Briggs (1986), it is good for the researchers to clarify and extend the meanings of the interviewer's statements to avoid misinterpretations on their part.

The in-depth interview is relevant to this work because it was used to get elaborate information from few respondents (Women journalists in NTA Kano, Express Radio Kano, Freedom Radio Kano, ARTV, Pyramid Radio and Radio Kano)

3.7 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

According to Osuola (2001:119), "the first step in obtaining a sample is to define the population. This means identifying characteristics which members of the universe have in common and which will identify each unit as being a member of a particular group". Therefore, the population of this study was identified as women journalists in Kano under some broadcast media organisations.

3.8 METHOD OF DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

As earlier mentioned, the instrument for gathering data for this research is in-depth interview. The data generated through this method were analysed qualitatively using the method of conversational analysis of everyday formal conversations as contained in flick cited in Gray (2004:341). This primarily includes analysis of natural texts (often the result of transcribed tape recording) and specifying the formal principles and mechanisms with which the participants expresses in social interactions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the field. Interview was conducted with women journalists in six broadcast media organisations. This media organisations consists of two federal broadcast media, two state owned media and two private media organisations. Therefore, the results are analysed alongside with the major findings.

4.1 INTERVIEW RESULT

Women have long been thwarted from key leadership positions or roles in media organisations around the world and it continues today. Indeed, feminist scholars and some journalists suggest that the most common obstacle to career progress and therefore attaining leadership positions reported by women journalists is the problem of male attitudes. Even in Nordic countries where gender discrimination is rated high, patriarchal conservatism is noted as a central impediment to women's career advancement in journalism. In the news media, those in editorial leadership positions decide on editorial direction and content and even staffing among other things and therefore determine the newsroom makeup and what the consumer understands as news. Leadership has been understood as within most news media organisations (and other male dominated occupations) as an attribute that naturally belongs to men. The idea that men's 'innate' traits and capabilities make men better equipped for journalism than women is often noted in interviews conducted by feminist researchers as one reason why women succeed less than men in acquiring jobs in positions of authority.

Women are also generally considered as less capable of relaying news and events than their male colleagues which could be seen as backwardness considering the fact that today more females consume news than males. This finding is backed by Armstrong (2014:142), he puts it succinctly that personal views are continually shaped through consumption of mass media which could lead one to assume that society will reinforce a lower public status for women as fewer women journalists.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS IN RELATION TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

R.Q. 1. WHAT WAS THE POSITION OR STATUS OF WOMEN JOURNALIST IN THE BROADCAST MEDIA BEFORE NOW?

Years back, women are left behind both in educational sector and in working class positions. Very few women are educated and only the lucky ones are allowed to work. Afhemike (1998) indicated that women lag behind in education and Madwesi (2005) buttress that women are seen as passive sexual objects, relegated to the background, ignored, dehumanized and generally confined to lower status in the society. In an interview with women journalists, they confirmed that most women are relegated to lower status because of their inability to meet up to the responsibilities expected of them and lack of educational qualification. They find it difficult to further their studies because of the stress they go through. Stromquist (1990:88) puts it succinctly that “the very high illiteracy among women in the developing countries is attributable to the very arduous task which women perform to ensure family sustenance, a situation which places poor rural women in inescapable domestic servitude and allows them little or no time to acquire formal education” he added that the existence of domestic work coupled with conflictual family dynamics renders literacy an unattainable dream for large number of women and even a dream

for some of their children, particularly their daughters who early in life tend to be assigned the same domestic roles their mothers perform”. women journalist often has gender related issues like maternity issue and family responsibilities to meet up to. In addition, Okunna (2005) argues that despite years of attention to improving the status of women in the media, research evidence continues to show that the power to define the media agenda in Nigeria is still mainly a male privilege. Nigerian female journalists, according to Okunna, are still largely “invisible” in the Nigerian press as the overwhelming majority of people who report the news are men. women journalist often has gender related issues like maternity issue and family responsibilities to meet up to. Okunna (2005). This makes them take different leave and excuses as such woman cannot be compared to a man who is always present in the work and always attending to different beats of assignments been it risky or not. The numbers of women in the media profession have increased in recent years but gender imbalances remain acute in the upper echelons of media organisation. While gender equality policies have been adopted by many media houses in several countries in the world, implementation mechanism are often weak or non-existent. While measures to address inequalities such as gender-sensitive recruitment procedures, training and awareness raising-have been put in place in some media systems, gender based differences continue to limit the exercise of women’s full professional potential in many parts of the world.

In the interview conducted, most of the respondents are either reporters I or reporter II, junior translators etc. those that have climbed ladder were in the previous year’s junior or low levelled workers and they spent years serving before attaining managerial position. Women journalists till today are mere advertisers, reporters’ editors or translators. Very few were able to reach managerial position.

Like much of the research on the status of women in the media, GMMP research findings have also consistently shown that African news suffers from various afflictions, including the fact

that women are underrepresented and misrepresented in news media coverage, and the fact that news is gender biased and reinforcing of gender stereotypes (GMMP 2010). GMMP (2010) also indicates that internet news continues the same trends and in some respects can be considered even more culpable than traditional news media in the manner in which women are represented

R.Q.2 WHAT ARE THE EMERGING ROLES OF WOMEN JOURNALISTS IN THE MEDIA INDUSTRIES?

In many countries across Asia and the Pacific region, there has been a progressive positive growth in the number of women in the newsrooms working as freelancers and in the online spaces as bloggers, writers and people of influence but the IFJ is acutely aware that the media is still very male dominated when the top positions are examined and in determination of what and who makes the news. We also know that women continue to be marginalized in the news both in context of the work they do and in the opportunities they have to make their way through the profession and in the unions that represent them. The situation for those women in remote and regional locations or coming from an ethnic or religious minority or disadvantaged caste is even more challenged.

back, women in journalism are mere announcers, broadcasters and advertisers in media and some of them started with a very low qualification. Looking at the easy nature of attaining employment in those days, women get employed with as low as secondary school certificate. But with that, it took them a long period of time before they could reach a managerial position. For instance,

Hajiya Aisha Sule presently head of FM department, Hajiya Amina Yahya Deen, manager translation in Kano State Radio, and Hajiya Ramatu Inuwa Yakasai, deputy director Programs, all started journalism in 1983 (32years back) and they all started with secondary certificate. They were able to move gradually from reporters, broadcasters to senior reporters then editors, senior editors, principal editors' controllers, managers and then to their current positions. These among those interviewed are those who have been in the profession for a very long time and it took them 32years of service before they were able to attain a managerial position. However, those who are able to climb the ladder are lucky to have done so within many years of service which is very unlike men. Hajiya Sa'adatu Babaji is currently the managing director of Radio Kano and Hajiya Sa'adatu Ibrahim is the managing Director Abubakar Rimi Television Kano, Mrs. Tamani Yusuf was the former Managing director Kaduna State Media Corporation and Mrs. Maryam J Bewell was once a General Manager of NTA Kano, but she served for 11months. In their response in the interview, they respond to the above research question that they were able to move gradually to their current posts because of their love and commitment for the job, and that most of the women they started with changed their cadres and join other organisations. Jobs in leadership roles remain elusive (and in some cases off limits) for women worldwide, with men occupying the vast majority of management jobs, although more women are now securing these positions. In 1995 just 3 per cent of media organisations worldwide were headed by women.

R.Q.3 WHAT ARE THE CHALLENGES WOMEN JOURNALISTS FACE BEFORE ATTAINING MANAGERIAL POSITIONS IN BROADCAST MEDIA INDUSTRIES?

Women faces a lot of challenges before attaining managerial positions. Those who started with low qualification were challenged to go back and obtain a higher qualification before attaining promotion, long period of service did not grant them promotion. They lack the skills in

information communication technology, they face resistance and ridicule and harassment which is the main obstacle to the profession. One of the respondents when asked this question in an interview respond that she faces sexual harassment from same sex. They are also seen as amateurs and sex objects so they are not responded to when they are in the field. For instance, when they go for interviews or sourcing for news, people give them less attention or do not respond to their calls. Gender bias issue is present in almost every organizational set up. It is because of the existing social constructs revolving the role, capability and status of women that are often discriminated and sidelined professionally. Gender bias in the media profession too is an outcome of the pre-constructed mindset of the people within the organisations in particular and society at large. A woman in any profession has to manage both personal and professional roles. Data collected from the interviewee indicated that they face difficulties while managing both roles. Some said “one needs to be a good manager for efficiently managing of the roles both at personal and professional level. They also face criticisms in journalism practice. Some of the said it automatically becomes a matter of pride for the family members when a woman works in the media organisation. They opined that the social status of the family enhances with a woman working in the field (journalism). However, many-at-times, women journalists are severely criticized by certain sections of the society when they stand against the wrong doings, mostly because of the fact that they are women who dared to report it. As the profession demands, both men and women are required to stand for objectivity and truth, but women fail to recognize the contribution of women in this profession. At times when women are late at home or have attended late night events as part of their work, people severely criticize them for breaking the norms. However, such criticism is never directed towards men working in the profession, thereby reflecting the orthodox attitude towards women working in the profession.

Also testimonies of women senior managers during the interview shows that some of them have experienced the effects of glass ceilings, of being passed over for promotion, of being patronised and trivialised and being denied interesting assignments because of their sex or their status as working mothers. Structural inequalities still persist and cultural norms continue to exert considerable influence on recruitment and promotion practices in the media sector. Having children at an early career stage or deciding to specialise in particular aspects of the media sector which are less prestigious may affect women's opportunities later and hold up their career at the middle-management level. Other problems women journalists face also is the fact that journalism is changing, and so is the role of women in the work place. But the two are not always evolving in harmony. Women substantially outnumber men in journalism training and enter the profession in (slightly) great numbers, but still only a relative few rise to senior positions. The pay gap between male and female journalists remains stubbornly wide and it's another issue that goes to the heart of why women might choose not to pursue leadership careers in journalism. Accessing reliable salary data have proved difficult in most global studies of news workers, especially as it relates to men and women. Gallagher (1990) found that women journalists in Australia earn an average 74percent of male journalists' average earnings. That data was based on a relatively small sample but does provide a starting point. Many in the interview have argued that women earn less because they take time out of work to raise children (those working in private owned organisations) and then return to work part time or to less senior roles, but these statistics are for women journalists without children, working full time, suggesting this common presumption is mis-guided.

Women in journalism still cluster around particular subject genres. Historically, they were almost totally confined to 'pink ghettos', but as more women entered the industry, there was an

expectation that their opportunities would expand and they would duly embrace areas that had been traditionally male like hard news, crime and politics. Twenty years ago, at the fourth world conference on women held in Beijing in 1995, world leaders agreed that women equal participation in and access to expression and decision making positions in the media should be assured. They also agreed that balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media must be promoted in ending gender-based discrimination. Furthermore, this goes in line with the problems or obstacles faced by women journalists listed in the International Federation of Journalists (2002) were they listed problems of patriarchal society, ownership of media, lack of gender perspectives on issues and gender bias, systemic challenges, threats to media practitioners, lack of effective media policies etc.

In order to overcome problems of gender inequality, women in most cases, female journalists who do realize how much gender stereotypes as well as the job as a whole might affect them give up their media career ambitions. Those of them who strive to overcome gender prejudice usually avoid straightforward strategies that depict their gender as an absolute value. Some female journalists tend to manipulate their gender identity by accepting their subordinate positions in the profession while at the same time employing overly “flexible” or “female” ways to achieve their goals. Others demonstrate their readiness to figuratively give up their gender identity and typically female personal traits while trying to acquire and demonstrate certain “masculine qualities.” Both ways undoubtedly lead to stress, psychological tension, and the choice of manipulative gender strategies. Certainly, the elaboration of efficient strategies that will help eliminate gender misbalance in the profession and cope with its negative economic and psychological consequences is the key task of research in this area.

Local women journalists also face a particular type of violence aimed at violating their private or family life. In some societies, all it takes to disqualify a newspaper's report is to attack the journalist's reputation. We must raise awareness about the dangers to the safety of women reporters, not to cause them further distress but, rather, to understand the specific kind of violence they face. There are differences between men and women even in newsrooms, but they should reflect their natural attributes, not some extraordinary impediment or professional inherent weakness. The situation of women in the media has changed from what it was 30 years ago, even if the progress achieved by women in the profession is not generally reflected in decision making positions. Women should talk about what happens in newsrooms and beyond. They cannot continue to suffer violence in silence.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the research summarises the whole work that has been done so far on the topic “Changing Trend of Women Status in Journalism: A Study of Some Selected Broadcast Media Organisations in Kano”. It also concludes base on the findings and recommendations were given to the women journalists and media houses on how to help make women excel in the profession.

5.1 SUMMARY

The research examined the changing trend of women’s status in journalism: a study of some selected broadcast media organisations in Kano. The researcher was able to investigate the reasons and steps on how women are lacking behind in journalism.

The work is categorized based on chapters. Chapter one consist of the background of the study, the importance or significance of the study, statement of the problem, scope and limitations of the study. Also aim and objectives were also highlighted. All these are the keys that guide the researcher in conducting the research.

Chapter two consist of the review of related literatures by different scholars and authors, journals, textbooks, online pages etc. and criticisms by some authors. A theory “patriarchal theory” was used to examine the study. The chapter starts by highlighting the background of women education tracing the origin of communication or traditional communication even before the coming of the Europeans where children learned interpersonal communication in their villages. Methods of agriculture were taught in the farms, market, other methods of

communication were learned within age grade set. In the society, women are expected to maintain their duties at home, work in the farms and teach the female children how to take care of their homes. In those periods, women are less employed; resist debilitating practices such as genital cutting, early marriage and domestic abuse by male partners. by male partners.

Women participation, influence and portrayal of women in the media was also discussed highlighting that cultural impediments affect women's portrayal in Africa, hence not all women working in the media have gender awareness and prone to cover women's needs and perspectives. Having women as half of the world's population, majority are afflicted with poverty, illiteracy and discrimination. Again, factors that causes mainstreamed media and experiences women journalist have in common were discussed. Hence, gradual change started occurring in women's life especially in journalism profession where they started occupying decision making positions and management boards. Women journalist started facing some problems as listed by some sets of female journalist from Africa, Asia, America, Europe etc. which include patriarchal societies, been bias in gender issues, gender discrimination etc.

The study adopted Patriarchal theory to explain this research further. The theory was propounded by Aristotle. Patriarchal theory means the rule of father or the patriarch which was originally used to describe a specific type of dominating family. Patriarchy refer to the male domination both in public and private spheres. The theory is applicable to this research due to its male oppressive and discriminatory system. As cited by Freud 1977:11, patriarchal theory is oppressive in social, political, economic and cultural environment. Another author also contends that it is discriminatory in its control of access to power, management of resources and benefits and manipulation of public and private structure.

Despite its oppressiveness, patriarchy or male domination has never been challenged by anybody or association of women and neither has any group of men come together to lead the struggle. In order to end patriarchy, both male and female bodies must challenge its psychological and its concrete manifestation in our daily life. And to end male pain and to respond to male crisis, we have to name the problem.

Chapter three discussed about the methodology used in gathering the data for the research. The research adopts qualitative method using in-depth interview as the method for data collection. The interviews were planned to be conducted with women journalists in the selected media houses, including both senior and junior staff. The data gathered from the field through the in-depth interview was analysed and interpreted in chapter four. Finally, chapter five consists of the summary of the whole research work, conclusion based on the findings of the research and recommendations given by the researcher to enable a change of women's status in the field of journalism.

5.2 CONCLUSION

After much study and research, it can be asserted that, only few women journalists were able to climb the ladder in the profession as a result of their dedication, hard work and good educational qualification. They love to work in media houses like their male colleagues, they are ready to take the bait and face the challenges no matter what, and they don't expect to be treated differently from their male counterparts, they face harassment in the field, and they spent years of service before they were able to reach the decision making positions. Example of women that have excel in broadcast are Eugenia Abu, Tamani Yusuf, former GM KSMC Kaduna, Hajiya Sa'adatu Ibrahim GM Abubakar Rimi Television, Hajiya Sa'adatu Babaji, GM Radio Kano.

Others include Hajiya Aishatu sule, present head of FM department, Amina Yahaya Deen, Manager Translation, Ramatu Inuwa Yakasai, Deputy Director Programs, Aishatu Ahmad Ismail, editor and news Caster etc. Outside Nigeria, there women like McCarthy: a novelist and critic, Susan Sontag: an essayist, novelist and preeminent intellectual etc. The research also shows the attitude of the media management towards women journalists and how they give them unfair treatment in relation to the male journalist. Women are given soft beats roles and assignments, they do not have equal pay with the men because they are expected to take of their homes and family. But because women strive and work hard, their welfare and qualification were considered, they try to improve their status by working hard, doing the men's job like reporting war, conflicts, sports, script writing, politics reporting, book publishing, investigative reporting etc. also the attitude of religion, culture and tradition towards women is most alarming.

Despite the fact that women have made up nearly half the workforce within the media industry and account for more than half of tertiary-level graduates for media-related careers for many years, the proportion of women involved in top-level decision-making in media organisations remains low. This discrepancy manifests the prevailing gender inequality and shows a waste of much highly qualified and skilled human resources.

Much of the media sector continues to be male-dominated which, bearing in mind the importance of the media as opinion-shapers, inhibits women's efforts to progress their careers, and equally to influence media content. Many women still come up against glass-ceiling barriers and ingrained prejudices that prevent their advancement into higher-ranking jobs and top leadership positions. Women and men are also progressively segregated horizontally into different sectoral areas of the media industry, where men usually occupy better paid jobs of higher prestige and importance.

In the current media scenario, journalism is still by and large a predominantly patriarchal field with male bosses dominating the profession and women practitioners, discriminated in a large number of ways is highlighted in various academic writings. For instance, the paper “women at work”: journalism as en-gendered practice written by Ross (2001) has explored the salience of gender in the working lives of women journalists. The article women as journalists: incompatibility of roles written by Wijngaard 1992) outlines the situation of women journalists in Senegal who had idealistic, ideological and economic motives for their choice of the profession. As soon as they entered the profession, they found that their professional knowledge and journalistic qualities were sufficient.

Thus, to raise women’s position, it is urgent to protect women from patriarchal subordination. It is patriarchal ideology which makes us feminine and masculine, which assigns different roles, rights and responsibilities to women and men. But those so-called “masculine and feminine” qualities are human qualities and not specific to either men or women. Since all works are done by both men and women, there is no reason to differentiate works on the basis of sex. Men made this differentiation of work only for their privilege, for material benefit. Not every child in the family, just a male child is encouraged to grow and flourish. So the culture which has been developed on the basis of gender should be changed. Family can play a great role by bringing a new dimension in reconstructing the on-going socialization. Moreover, if men become more like women, that is look after the children and old people, run homes etc. it will make man more gentle, sensitive and human and will relieve women of some burden of work and if bravery, fearlessness, rationality, efficiency are considered ‘male’, then women should definitely imbibe and practice these traits. Our double standards of morality and our laws, which give more rights to men should also be reformed. All that is needed is the recognition of justice and courage to put

an end to this injustice, male discrimination and double standard. Given the fact that patriarchal oppression of women is rooted in the family sexuality and man-woman relationship, so this patriarchal oppression and exploitation within the family should be protected.

Moreover, due to prevalence of gender dynamics and security issues, women journalists either need to be content with fewer opportunities than their male counterparts in this field or leave the job. Factors such as discrimination in work allotment, poor working environment, inadequate sanitation facilities are some of the difficulties that women have to face in their profession. In addition to these, absence of clear guidelines and in-house policies regarding maternity leave also pose problems for married professionals. In the absence of an appropriate institutional framework, it becomes an arduous task for female journalists to consolidate their position with the organisation and work towards career growth. Compound to these, the lack of family and society's support are another problems women journalists face. Without taking into consideration, the factors and issues that ultimately define women's entry and position in hardcore journalism, it would be insensitive to claim that journalism is a profession where only men can excel and women are not fit for the profession. In order to make journalism arena more women friendly and responsive, it is essential to find out effective measures that could help tackle the issues which women regularly face as hardcore journalists.

Greater media organizational responsibility, proactive initiatives, academic research, policy follow-up and better training in safety and prevention of violence against women could be measures that could help in this regard. Finally, appreciating and acknowledging women journalist who while working in challenging environments and amidst difficulties are constantly trying to meet the highest standards for professionalism could be the best step towards encouraging women to enter into the journalism profession.

However, women participation and portrayal in the broadcast media are the three important dimensions of study for the social science researchers of modern times, especially for the feminist. Because for the empowerment and development of women section, it is very important to give them proper environment where they can raise their voices against the inequalities and the gender gap they are experiencing in our male dominated and patriarchal societies. Improving the status of women in every aspect is regarded as the only way to eradicate this gender gap and achieving a better quality of life for the women. For this communication to be regarded, mass media can play a vital role in shaping social values, attitudes, norms, perceptions and behavior. It has been widely recognized that media can play a substantial role in promoting and disseminating information among the masses and are regarded as the key players in the social, political and economic development of women. Although there is an urgent need to improve the representation of women in the media by increasing their visibility as journalists and people in the news, as well as by eliminating sexism in media content, the problem is more deep-rooted than this. From every indication, the solution to the problem of gender and communication in Nigeria lies with adopting more 'radical' strategies in addition to the provision of quantitative data to show women's unequal representation in the media. Also, the work of NGOs is very crucial. Because there are a number of them, there is a need for them to pull in the same direction – and this is why networking should form an integral part of their activities. There could be the tendency to work at cross purposes in the competition for scarce funding from donor agencies. The Nigerian woman requires all the help she can get to free her from the forces that subjugate her in the wider society and in the media of mass communication, which are powerful instruments for creating and reinforcing images of reality. Any groups or individuals who are

concerned enough to fight for improvement of the lot of women, should themselves be encouraged nationally and internationally.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are put forward in relation to the findings of the research;

- a. Women that have climbed the ladder should be commended and awarded to serve as role models for other women in the profession to emulate
- b. There should be vast encouragement and enlightening of women on the importance of education and how it helps improve and shape their lives.
- c. Women should be employed in the broadcast media industries and be given room to participate in the activities so that they give their contributions in the success of the organization.
- d. The media houses should not categorise jobs as being male or female by designating them, for example 'makeup girl' or 'cameraman'. Encourage both sexes into non-traditional areas. There is also no need for information about age or marital status in job application. This information has often counted against women who are re-entering the media workforce after a break.
- e. It is also important to examine how and why women are employed in the media houses but languish at the bottom of the pay and promotion scale. Redraft any regulations or written material that are out of step with equal opportunities. Make sure that there are women on all interview and recruitment panels and develop guidelines to ensure that women applying for jobs opportunities usually done by men will be fairly assessed.

- f. Sexual harassment is often difficult to raise and to prove. Do not feel guilty, do not ignore the problem and keep records of when, where and how harassment occurs. Try to enlist the help of witnesses, get support from colleagues and friends, who may also have been victims. Speak to your union representative for advice if you need to file a complaint.
- g. Late-night shift assignments should be compensated by late-night transport home for women and men. Such provision should be clearly indicated in media houses policies.
- h. Sexual harassment is often difficult to raise and to prove. Do not feel guilty, do not ignore the problem and keep records of when, where and how harassment occurs. Try to enlist the help of witnesses, get support from colleagues and friends, who may also have been victims. Speak to your union representative for advice if you need to file a complaint.
- i. equal opportunity legislation should ensure that women journalists get the same access to jobs, promotion and training opportunities as men. Check the ratification by your country of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) which ensures that all workers get equal opportunities.
- j. Gender sensitive trainings should be available for women and male reporters, as well as for subeditors, news editors and program makers who should play a greater role in eliminating insensitive language and stereotypes in the news.
- k. It would be very interesting and effective to conduct another study within the same area of research, with the incorporation of more number of case studies of different states will give more integrated result to the topic and better utility to the media persons as well as the working women journalists.

Finally, Further attention should also be paid to the effectiveness of training programs in their effort to politicize gender and news and seek corrective measures. While such training programs are not lacking in the country, it does appear that they are generating minimal effects among their targets. Such training should, therefore, not be done in isolation. Consideration should go into newsroom conditions and routines, and how these may serve to confound any consciousness on the part of journalists to seek to improve female source visibility through their work.

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APPENDIX I
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How did you start practicing journalism?
2. What are the challenges you face before attaining your present position?
3. What do you think are the possible ways women should follow before attaining decision making positions?
4. How did you combine family responsibilities and your job?
5. What differences can you spot out between the organisations that have men holding managerial position and that of women?
6. How would you address the issue of gender discrimination?
7. In your own view, do you think there are wide opportunities for young ladies who wants to join journalism? How would you encourage them?

APPENDIX II

STATION	NO.OF STAFF	PROG	N/CURR. AFF.	ENGRN.	COMMERCIAL	ADMIN	ACCOUNTS	NO OF FEMALE STAFF
RADIO KANO	178	15	10	0	2	3	0	30
NTA KANO	102	11	7	0	4	2	2	26
ARTV	72	12	8	2	3	2	0	22
PYRAMID	69	3	7	2	3	5	2	22
EXPRESS RADIO	62	5	12	0	3	2	1	23
FREEDOM RADIO	78	10	12	2	4	5	2	35

TABLE I

OVERALL POPULATION OF KANO STATE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
	4,947,952	4,453,336	9,401,288

Population based on preliminary 2006 census figures