

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**THE PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF  
JOURNALISTS IN ETHIOPIA: SURVEY OF THEIR  
SELF-PERCEPTION**

**BIRHANU OLANA DIRBABA**

**JULY 2006**

THE PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF  
JOURNALISTS IN ETHIOPIA: SURVEY OF THEIR  
SELF-PERCEPTION

A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE SCHOOL OF  
GRADUATE STUDIES  
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN  
JOURNALISM

BY

BIRHANU OLANA DIRBABA

JULY 2006

Addis Ababa University  
School of Graduate Studies

**The Professional Orientation of Journalists in Ethiopia:  
survey of their self-perception**

**By:**  
**Birhanu Olana**

**Examination Board Members**

\_\_\_\_\_  
Advisor (Name)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Internal Examiner (Name)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
External Examiner (Name)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

# Table of Contents

	Page
<i>Acknowledgments</i> .....	<i>i</i>
List of tables, figures and appendices.....	ii
List of acronyms.....	iv
Abstract .....	v
<b>Chapter One</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1. Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1. Background of the study.....	1
1.2. Statement of the problem.....	4
1.3. Rationale of the study.....	11
1.4. Research questions.....	12
1.5. Objectives of the study.....	13
1.6. Significance of the study.....	14
1.7. Definitions of concepts.....	15
<b>Chapter Two</b> .....	<b>17</b>
<b>2. Review of Related Literature</b> .....	<b>17</b>
2.1. Theoretical roots of communicator research.....	17
2.2. Professionalism.....	18
2.3. Journalism as a profession.....	24
2.4. The perceived role of journalism.....	32
2.4.1. Professional role perception of journalists.....	34
2.4.1.1. Role and role perception.....	34
2.4.1.2. Role orientation of journalists.....	38
2.5. Trends in journalism role perceptions.....	41
2.6. The context of professional journalism in Ethiopia.....	46
2.6.1. Background.....	46
2.6.2. Professional associations of journalists in Ethiopia.....	49
2.6.3. Journalism education in Ethiopia.....	50
2.6.4. Constraints of professional journalism in Ethiopia.....	51
<b>Chapter Three</b> .....	<b>56</b>
<b>3. Research Methodology</b> .....	<b>56</b>
3.1. Population of the study and its setting.....	56
3.2. Sampling.....	57
3.3. Data collection.....	58
3.3.1. Primary data.....	59
3.4. Method of data processing and analysis.....	61
3.5. Scope of the study.....	63
3.6. Limitations of the study.....	65

Chapter Four.....	67
4. Data Presentation and Analysis.....	67
4.1. Quantitative data.....	67
4.1.1. Demographic profile of journalists.....	67
4.1.2. Journalists' educational background.....	69
4.1.3. Belief, attitude, motivation and commitment.....	71
4.1.3.1. Attitude toward journalism education.....	71
4.1.3.2. Motivation.....	73
4.1.3.3. Commitment and mobility.....	77
4.1.3.4. Licensing and accreditation.....	80
4.1.3.5. Perception of the role of mass media.....	80
4.1.3.6. Ethics orientation.....	86
4.1.3.7. Job aspects.....	88
4.1.3.8. Journalists' image of their audience.....	91
4.2. Qualitative data.....	93
4.2.1. Views of informants on professional journalism.....	94
4.2.2. Attitude toward journalism education.....	96
4.2.3. Participation in professional associations.....	98
4.2.4. Journalists' motivation.....	98
4.2.5. Journalists' self-image.....	100
4.2.6. Accreditation and licensing.....	102
Chapter Five.....	103
5. Discussion.....	103
5.1. Background and characteristics of journalists.....	103
5.1.1. Gender.....	103
5.1.2. Age and experience.....	104
5.1.3. Type of mass medium and employer.....	105
5.2. Educational background and journalism education.....	106
5.2.1. Qualification.....	106
5.2.2. Journalism education.....	107
5.3. Career background and motivation.....	108
5.4. Professional association.....	110
5.5. Accreditation and licensing.....	112
5.6. Professional values.....	112
5.7. Professional role perception.....	113
5.8. Ethics orientation.....	117
5.9. Perception of job aspects.....	118
5.10. Journalists' image of their audience.....	119
Chapter Six.....	122
6. Summary and Conclusion.....	122

Bibliography

Appendices

## **Acknowledgments**

This thesis project could not have been completed in this form without the encouragement and support of many persons, including my advisors, family, friends and colleagues.

I especially thank Mr. Franz Krüger, my external advisor, for his diligent follow up and unreserved support in showing the direction, providing valuable feedback on time and for his greater interest he has shown to advise my project.

In spite of his administrative burden at the school I also thank Prof. Abiyi Abraham Ford that his inspiration at the initial stage of the project has pushed me a lot to tackle and shape the proposal.

Most of all, I thank my wife Sr. Jalalti Yohannes and my little Bari Birhanu and all my family members in letting me do the project with greater concentration.

## List of Tables

<b>List of Tables</b>		<b>Page</b>
Table 1	Circulation of press products from July 2004 to July 2005.....	48
Table 2a	Characteristics of respondents by employer, age, sex & marriage .....	68
Table 2b	Characteristics of respondents by medium salary, qualification & experience	69
Table 3	Educational background of journalists.....	70
Table 4	Respondents' attitude toward journalism education.....	71
Table 5	Enrollment of journalists into continuing education.....	72
Table 6	Respondents' field of study in their current enrollment. ....	72
Table 7	Level of journalistic training or education of respondents.....	73
Table 8	Attitude of respondents to ward motivating others to journalism.....	75
Table 9	Pride of respondents in their current career .....	76
Table 10	Respondents' plan to stay in journalism.....	77
Table 11	Participation in professional associations.....	78
Table 12	Group variation in professional participation by gender group.....	79
Table 13	Group variation in professional participation by employer group.....	80
Table 14	Agreement on the licensing and accreditation of journalism.....	80
Table 15	Perceived importance of journalistic roles.....	82
Table 16	Group variation on role perception by gender and employer groups.....	84
Table 17	Justification of respondents of certain ethical issues.....	87
Table 18	Perception of respondents of job aspects.....	89
Table 19	Respondents' image of their audience.....	92

<b>List of Figures</b>		<b>Page</b>
Figure 1	Respondents' reasons to join journalism.....	74
Figure 2	Respondents' level of pride in their current career.....	76
Figure 3	Journalists' self-image .....	77

## **List of appendixes**

Appendix I Questionnaire – English version

Appendix II Questionnaire – Amharic version

Appendix III In-depth interview questions (for some informants)

Appendix IV List of key informants by code, age, sex, experience and employer

Appendix V Descriptive, compare mean by employer, gender, eta of role perception

Appendix VI Descriptive, compare mean by employer, gender, eta of ethics orientation

Appendix VII Descriptive, compare mean by employer, gender, eta of job aspects

Appendix VIII Descriptive, compare mean by employer, gender, eta of audience image

## **List of Acronyms**

**EPRDF – Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front**

**EMWA – Ethiopian Media Women’s Association**

**EJA – Ethiopian Journalist Association**

**ENJU – Ethiopian National Journalist Union**

**EIJU – Ethiopian Independent Journalist Union**

**ESPJA – Ethiopian Sport Professional Journalist Association**

**EFPJA – Ethiopian Free Press Journalist Association**

## ABSTRACT

Scholars addressed the career environment in which journalists worked, delineating how journalists perceived their identities through values, ethics, roles and socialization patterns. The main aim of this study was to survey the socio-demographic background of journalists and the professional orientation of Ethiopian journalists who work in news media of general interest based in Addis Ababa. Data were collected through questionnaires that were designed, translated into Amharic, tested and distributed to 100 journalists working in private as well as government media. In addition, in-depth interviews were conducted with 10 key informants who were purposely selected as representing the population. Analysis of data was made by SPSS using descriptive, mean procedure with eta and eta squared measure of association. The descriptive and mean procedure showed that Ethiopian journalists valued the multi-role of the media, showed respect for ethical values of journalism. Ethiopian journalists more valued the professional aspects of their job than the material aspects and the image toward their audience hung around a favorable image, unlike the assumptions by some scholars that journalists perceived their audience as 'narrow-minded'. The mean procedure depicted, while government journalists gave more value for development role, private journalists gave more value to the adversarial role of the mass media. Unlike their counterparts in the west journalists in Ethiopia gave greater value for journalism education and they had deep interest for the importance of accrediting journalism courses and licensing the career and the professionals. The typical Ethiopian journalist in mid 2006 was male, educated, married and worked for government media.

Based on these findings, the researcher prefers to inspire other studies hoping this document give a benchmark for later studies.

# Chapter One

## 1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the topic of the study. It establishes the background, and states the problem. It also presents the rationale for carrying out the study, the significance of the study and definitions of some important concepts used in the chapters to follow.

### 1.1. Background of the study

The introduction of *Aemiro newspaper*, which was hand written at its commencement, in 1902 heralded the beginning of journalism to Ethiopia. Since then journalism has been expanding in both type of media and technology (Getachew, 2003: 519; Gebremedin, 2006; Mekuria, 2005).

The historical development of the Ethiopian Press is mainly featured by the history of government press (Getachew, 2003; Gebremedhin, 2006). According to Getachew (2003) about four stages characterized the historical development of press in Ethiopia when analyzed in terms of its role and ownership style. The period from 1902 to 1935 is noted for the inception of newspapers in the country. The quantitative and qualitative improvement and modernization of newspapers were seen after the 1920s. However, the mass media at the time were established and run by the then government, and served as mouth pieces of governments. As a result, the public had no alternative sources of information.

The next phase (1936-1941) reflected the period of the Italian occupation. At that time, the Ethiopian newspapers were terminated quickly and gave way to Italian newspapers. However, underground newspapers of Ethiopian patriots' existed, serving as a voice of the people in their struggle against colonialism. The aggressors' newspapers used to publish contents that advance the colonial ambition of Italy (Getachew, 2003).

In the post Italian occupation period (1941-2002), some developments of Ethiopian press, in the three successive governments, have been observed. For instance, during the Imperial reign (1941-1974) broadcast media was started. However, this period was best known by its restrictive nature of controlling the contents of mass media. Freedom of reporting was strictly controlled by censorship to the extent of specifying issues that the mass media were not supposed to cover (Getachew, 2003; Gebremedhin, 2006; Negash, 2006). As Negash (2006: 22-3) explained in his memoirs, the restrictions were directly posed by the order of the then minister of Information's directives, not by proclamation. The restriction includes:

[... ] pronouncements against the imperial government and the constitution; any reference to unemployment, disputes between labor and management, student uprisings, the increase in prostitution, and the number of beggars, any comment on government budget, criticizing the policies of other countries, land tenure, complaints by government employees, tax increases, inflation, comparing Ethiopia's living standard with other countries and reporting on parliamentary debates (Getachew, 2003: 566).

The Military Regime (1974-1991) was also noted for its totalitarian control of the press. With the aim of propagating socialist ideology, several newspapers were launched under the ownership of the government. The media in that period like the media in the imperial period, continued to be the mouth pieces of the government. The government mass media institutions fully participated in propagating mass mobilization against anti-government political movements and 'secessionist' organizations. The mass media contents were strictly censored (Getachew, 2003: 567).

In this regard, the period after the EPRDF, which overthrew the Derge regime in 1991, is exceptionally noted for the proliferation of mass media in Ethiopia, after the provision of the press proclamation in 1992. Consequently, adding to the previously existing mass media organizations, all of which were held by government, a large number of newspapers and other journalistic outputs have been published for national and local circulation.

In this post military period, the private newspapers have shown massive progress at least in number. After the downfall of the military regime, the government media in Ethiopia remained under the control of government, even though, unlike in the earlier governments the private newspapers have grown remarkably. However, it is claimed that despite asserting democratic governance and freedom of speech, the successive governments in Ethiopia have 'muzzled'

the media. The history of mass media in Ethiopia exhibited that the role of journalism has been greatly shaped by the needs and interests of the governments in power, which used the mass media to impose its ideological orientation (Shimelis, 2000; Getachew, 2003).

As members of society and being role takers in discharging informational functions, irrespective of the medium's ownership style, journalists do not escape the influence of the ideologies in the system (Ramaprasad, 2001; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996).

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

The democratic role of journalism in Ethiopia has been challenged in various ways. As indicated, one reason relates to the political and social order of the country, where the major cause directs at the political orientation. The other challenge relates to the professional order.

Complaints about professionalism of the Ethiopian mass media are wide ranging: some complain about their dissatisfaction due to poor journalistic practices, others complain about the poor quality and variety of journalistic outputs, and still others questioned the independence of Ethiopian mass media. More, the argument is extended to say "the media hardly provide a forum for promoting the freedom of expression and the exercise of democratic rights" in Ethiopia (Gebremedhin, 2006).

It is claimed that the mass media industry in Ethiopia lacked professional journalists. In this regard, some Ethiopian journalists themselves questioned the critical role of the Ethiopian press due to the prevalent low standards of professionalism (Tamirat W/Giyorgis, 2005: 16; Getachew, 2003: 567; Gebremedhin, 2006).

The survey conducted on private newspapers, similarly, identified that Ethiopian private newspapers were run by “under-qualified individuals”, which some authors labeled the problem among the obstacles to newspapers development as well as the barrier to freedom of expression in Ethiopia (Shimelis, 2000: 65; Mekuria, 2005).

The prolonged debate on the role of professionals in Ethiopian journalism most often associated with the political influence of those in power, giving little attention to the practice and professional ideology of journalists working in the mass media.

In this regard, mass media theoreticians have tended to establish a point of reference in studying journalism and journalists in relation to their role in society. For instance, White (1950) and Breed (1955) established a body of knowledge that news content is not the reflection of objective reality, but the socially constructed product (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996). According to this

theory, the social creation of news is influenced by the individual's experience and background on the one hand, and by organizational policies on the other hand. This organizational and individual ideological influence theory was further developed by Shoemaker and Reese (1996) who asserted that several factors affect the recreation of news product: societal, organizational, and personal factors – individual, media routine, organizational, extra-media and ideological levels.

Accordingly, journalists discharge their responsibilities under the pressure of the existing press philosophy, ownership structure and role expectations of the particular social setting. Therefore, the individual level influence on the contents of news extends from the individual's personal value to his professionally socialized values (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 263).

Of course, to date no clear agreement has been reached as to whether journalism is an art, a craft or a profession. Some labeled journalism as a semi-profession, partly professionalized. Some others believe that journalism is not a profession at the moment, but a developing profession (Merrill, et al, 1994: 385).

As scholars speculated, journalism lost a sense of professionalism due to lack of autonomy; and journalists lack self-image as “persons of importance” (McLeod & Hawley, 1964). The argument seemed to relate the evaluative dimension of professionalism by referring to the importance of autonomy and prestige to a

certain occupation. Similarly, communications scholars like Wilbur Schramm, as quoted in Menanteau (1967), rationalized that sense of professionalism is lost “because journalists are employees, the final authority rests with their employers”.

The stated arguments appeared to be pessimistic about the role a journalist should play as professionally to select and shape the news report based on his/her own perception. It is also true that the political economy can influence what and how a reporter can address an issue. However, it should also be noted that media professionals can also create their products, and should not be regarded as a cog of iron in the machine. As Sydeny (1963) argued journalists have some freedom to develop the professional point of view, and “[a] journalist is a professional to the extent that he conceives himself as employed by the public to serve the public”.

In general, sociologists discussed attributes of a profession categorizing in three dimensions - cognitive, normative, evaluative dimensions. While some scholars gave emphasis to the cognitive dimension - esoteric knowledge, the need of education and training - of the profession, others as indicated above gave weight to the normative dimension - the public service orientation and owning standards of practice - of understanding of the profession. The evaluative

dimension also relates a certain occupation with other occupation, which reflects the power and prestige (Singer, 2003: online).

Based on these classifications, some scholars tried to give journalism the status of a profession by referring to the sociological definition of professionalism. However, according to Johnson (1972) since the concept of professionalism itself is an ideological construct (Singer, 2003: online journal) as scholars like Hughes (1958) said “it is not important to argue about which occupations qualify as professions; what is important is to ask what it means for an occupation to claim it is a profession” (Soloski, 1997, 139).

From the functionalist points of view, the author of this paper recognizes that journalists are professional service providers. Journalists provide information, which they feel important to the wider public as accurately and objectively as possible. To do so, journalists should possess the techniques, skills and knowledge of good reporting at least better than the laymen can do it. The key role of journalism can be implemented only by people who possess knowledge or education, sense of public service orientation and a quality to sense news and a skill to report by making use of the available technology in time. That is why; journalism education has become a world wide phenomenon that journalists are expected to attend the formal training before joining the occupation. Above all,

some universal standards of journalism practices have been emerging that pushes practitioners to establish a common norm even at a global level.

Though various theories of professions exist, for this thesis, professionalism is defined in the framework of functional theory, which stresses the normative dimension of a certain profession, where service orientation of the occupation, the identification and shared culture of occupants in the profession are significant components; and in part in its cognitive dimension where the need to be educated in journalism is significant.

While journalists should assume some of their professional ideology as a base for their service delivery, in the pre-1991 Ethiopian press history, the role of journalists in conveying the Elitist's ideology was overwhelming. As claimed by some researchers, the professionalism tenet of journalism was severely clouded by the dominant control of the political order to the extent of leaving its legacy to the current situation of the country's mass media system, even when the freedom of expression is legally promulgated and at least partly exercised (Gebremedhin, 2006; Shimelis, 2000).

In the post-1991 the Ethiopian press relatively enjoyed freedom of reporting; and private newspapers were allowed to participate in this process. However, some research attempts indicated that there are significant problems pertaining to the level of professionalism of journalists and journalism (Shimelis, 2000;

Gebremedin, 2006; Mekuria, 2005). The problems in some of government mass media institutions can be observed from the journalist's role aspect and the output.

[... ]the ordinary journalist lacks public spirit; lacks professionalism; is devoid of professional spirit; exhibiting wrong attitude; suffers from the legacy of old order for instance, the journalist is too weak to criticize or expose corrupt officials; incapable of utilizing the provisions of government policies and the press law (Gebremedhin, 2006).

As regards to the output of the mass media such as problems of quality, presentation and formatting:

- the programs are not suited to creating national consensus and fulfilling national mission
- the rural areas do not get their appropriate share of editorial coverage
- it has not given proper attention to the realization of the vision and mission of the nation
- the programs do not provoke discussions to generate ideas that represent the needs of the people
- coverage of current and crucial issues is dull and not professional
- Poor journalistic creativity and innovation, immature, lack novelty (Gebremedhin, 2006).

In terms of the independence of journalists, both government and private journalists have been criticized. While, government employed journalists were claimed to be the instruments of government, the private press in Ethiopia were claimed for being a rebel against government.

[...] the independent press has been as much rebellious, un-investigative, gullible, irresponsible and highly sensational. There is a tendency among most titles to devote a large space to sensitive issues which, though they are extremely consumable items, are at times mere fabrications, or ordered on the grotesque. [...] reporters lack the professional skill, ability or experience to aggressively dig out facts (Shimelis, 2000: 68-9).

Problems identified in both government and private media shows the problem of professional excellence of journalists as was viewed by both the insiders and outsiders to the profession.

In general terms; however, the research attempts so far lacked to observe journalists' self- perception of their journalistic roles, judgment of journalistic standards and their professional service orientation.

As the primary role takers in discharging the responsibilities of mass media organizations, where and what was the position of journalists? And, how do they perceive the role of journalism? These questions should have been addressed in previous studies.

### **1.3. Rationale of the Study**

It is believed that currently, the democratization process in Ethiopia is in transition, where a shaky relationship exists between government and the private press, creating both desirable and undesirable effects. This is an interesting juncture because the country lacked generous effort of researchers to treat the subject – professional role orientation of journalists.

Many researchers have addressed the issue of communicators in journalism thinking that journalists' backgrounds and ideas have some relationship to what is reported and how it is covered, although various organizational and societal

constraints also matter. The student researcher is interested in the case, assuming that practitioner's attitude and perception toward the occupation can have a certain influence on the actual practice and out put.

Accordingly, this research project aims at studying the professional role orientation of Ethiopian journalists in order to find out the basic characteristics of journalists and the status of their professionalization. In addition, it serves to systematically document how they perceive their role in the profession so as to help readers of this research paper understand the current status and profile of Ethiopian journalists with a reference to the views of journalists themselves.

#### **1. 4. BASIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In light with the rationale, this study attempts to find out answers for the following research questions:

1. How do Ethiopian journalists view their role?
2. What are the professional attitudes, beliefs and values of Ethiopian journalists?
3. Are there different perceptions of role between male and female, private and government journalists?
4. How do Ethiopian journalists perceive the needs and the image of their audience?

5. What are the socio-demographics, background and education of Ethiopian journalists?

The research questions are based on the assumptions that professionally oriented journalists

- favor job characteristics that yield professional satisfactions than materialistic satisfaction
- have enthusiastic interest to engage in professional associations in order to develop their professional career
- show commitment, motivation and identify themselves with the profession and consistently serve in the profession
- have common norms of practice
- know what role should they play in providing information to the society
- have some education or training courses in journalism reporting

## **1. 5. Objectives of the Study**

### **General Objectives**

The study will be conducted with the general objectives of:

1. Identifying the socio-demographic background and education of journalists;
2. Discovering the professional role and ethics orientation of journalists reporting in the Ethiopian news media from their points of view; and

3. Identifying some similarities and differences that may give us more accurate picture on the role perceptions between private journalists and government journalists, and male and female journalists.

## **Specific Objectives**

The study attempts to find:

1. the attitude of journalists toward journalism as a profession;
2. the role perception/conception of journalists in Ethiopia;
3. the image of journalists about their audience;
4. the perception of journalists on how to address controversial ethical issues;
5. the demographic profile of Ethiopian journalists;
6. the difference between males and female journalists, on their professional role perceptions; and
7. The difference between government and private journalists on their professional role perceptions.

## **1. 6. Significance of the Study**

This research project attempts to find out the perceptions of Ethiopian journalists on their professional orientation. As a result, it may lay the foundation for other

research attempts in the area of professionalism in journalism and some other related initiative in the future.

More over, the findings may serve as a springboard to study the sociological aspects of journalists in comparative approach, which have never been attempted in Ethiopia so far. It adds data from Ethiopia to various other international studies, and could at some point be useful for comparative purposes.

In addition, it can present the profile of Ethiopian journalists, and in a way it can also serve as the mirror in which journalists can see their status collectively. Besides, it may give a more accurate picture of journalists on what they think about their work, and whether they are professionally sharing some common features with other countries' journalists.

Finally, as there has not been a thorough study in the area, this study might fill the gap and can provide a point of reference for similar interests that may arise in studying communicators of journalistic outlets in Ethiopia in the future.

## **1. 7. Definitions of Concepts**

In order to set a common ground for the discussions of topics, some frequently used concepts are defined as follows:

**Journalism** - is a form of mass communication “that involves the sifting and editing of information, comments and events into a form that is recognizably

different from the pure form in which they first occurred. Journalism is about putting events, ideas, information and controversies into context (Ibbotson and Rudin, 2002: 5).

**Journalists** - are people who are involved in the selection, evaluation and presentation of news information or issues of general interest to the wider audience through print medium or broadcast media. (Ibbotson and Rudin, 2002: 5; Zelizer, 2004: 21-2)

**Mass media** - refers to the mediating agencies that allow the relay of information to take place (Zelizer, 2004: 26).

**Role** - is bundles of expectations associated with different social positions, a pattern of behavior associated with a distinctive social position (Broom and Selznick, 1968: 18).

**Socialization** - the process by which we learn the basic ground rules of a role (Croteau and Hoynes, 2003: 137).

## **Chapter Two**

### **2. Review of Related Literature**

This chapter is dedicated to the presentation of literature survey that relates the concept of professionalism and role perception of journalists. It also attempts to assess the prominent theoretical foundations of professionalism and journalism with particular reference and emphasis to the role perception of journalists. It also highlights the available literature on the issue in relation to Ethiopia. It begins by reflecting the theoretical development of the study of communicators.

#### **2.1. Theoretical Roots of Communicator- centered Research**

Most often the journalist takes the role of communicator in the process of journalistic communication. The empirical research on journalists was addressed based on various theories. Mostly noted are social system theory and organizational theory.

The social system theory places emphasis on the relationship between systems and their environment. The social system theorists argued that the professional role orientation of journalists' basis societal ideology; and what is reported and how it is reported can only be understood in the social system understandings of the profession and the professional. The professional plays the role the society expects him/her to play, which is primarily learned from his/her socialization to the society. The social system theory also explains that the impact of individual

journalist's work can only be understood within the system of the institutions he is working in. Therefore, theory of socialization suggests that journalists learn their role in terms of societal, organizational and professional norms (Williams, 2003; Scholl and Weischenberg, 1999; Weischenberg et al, 1998: 231; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996; Soloski, 1997).

Similarly, although various organizational and societal constraints also matter, the theory of influences on media content (the theory of media organization and work) also says that practitioner's attitude and perception towards the occupation can make a difference on the actual practice and output. And, many researchers addressed the issue of communicators assuming that journalists' backgrounds and experiences have some relationship to what is reported and how it is covered (Weaver, 1998: 2; Shoemaker & Reese, 1996: 6; Williams, 2003). Of course, this theory somewhat reflects the system understanding of the profession in organizational terms, as it also belongs to the social system.

Because the theme of this thesis project relates the professional orientation of journalists, the following section discusses the concept of professionalism in relation to journalism.

## **2.2. Professionalism**

Efforts at defining professions have a long history, and the attempt is still inconclusive due to, for instance, attempting to provide a precise social or

occupational role that varies with the setting in which it is performed, and the absence of a single criteria to define a particular profession per se (Soloski, 1997: 140; Schein, 1972: 8, Schultz, 1998:127).

The notion of professionalism is most often understood from the traditional sociological definitions provided to occupations such as medicine, law and the clergy. The sociological trait theory of profession enumerates attributes of professional qualification that describe such occupations as possessing esoteric knowledge, participation in professional associations, codes of conduct, client-orientation, authority, education and training, licensing and accreditation, and some testing procedures for competence to enter into the occupation. Among the list of attributes given include that the professional should be a full time worker, has a strong motivation and commitment to his job, possesses a specialized body of knowledge and skills achieved in a prolonged period of education and training, makes decisions on behalf of his clients in terms of general principles, theories, or propositions, assumed to have service orientation based on the client's objective needs that demands autonomy of judgment of his own performance; their service is available, but ordinarily are not allowed to advertise or to seek out clients. In addition, professionals form professional associations, which define criteria of admission, educational standards, licensing or other formal entry examinations, career lines within the profession, and area of jurisdiction for the profession. However, Professional's knowledge is assumed

to be specific (Schein, 1972: 8-9; Lambeth, 1986: 82 quoted in Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 92-3; McLeod and Hawley, 1964: 530; Menanteau, 1967: 716; Soloski, 1997: 140).

In this regard, Soloski (1997: 140) conceded that the traditional definitions established on the reference of independent professions, “free professions” - medicine and law - was criticized by the proponents of political economy theorists. The theorists said that the newer, “dependent professions” - accountancy, engineering, journalism - unlike the older professions operate under profit gaining organizations (Soloski 1997: 140).

However, it can also be observed that similar to the “dependent professions”, the traditional professions are also becoming under the influence of political economy, which has business orientation form than service orientation motive. In this regard, Schein (1972: 2) argued that “no longer does the autonomous professional singly provide his service for fee; today most professionals are employed in various kinds of organizations and are paid by various combinations of salary and fees”.

In view of that, the sociology of professions and professionalism developed rapidly in the past decades. The earliest attempt was started by ‘trait theory’ - a ‘static structure’ of a profession that lists attributes of a profession which distinguishes it from non-profession. It was followed by the ‘structural-

functional' approach that put emphasis to the service orientation of professions. The 'monopoly control' and the 'cultural' theories were also used so far in explaining the nature of professions and professionalism (Ginneken, 1998: 73).

In general, sociologists' efforts at defining profession have produced three dimensions of how a particular profession can be viewed – the cognitive, the normative and the evaluative dimensions of professionalism, as was analyzed in Singer's (2003: online) work. While the cognitive dimension refers the intellectual body of the profession that would be mastered through education and training, the normative dimension covers the service orientation of professionals and their distinctive ethics, which justify the privilege of self regulation that society, grants them. Moreover, the evaluative dimension 'implicitly compares professions to other occupations, underscoring the professions' singular characteristics of 'autonomy and prestige' (Larson, 1977: x in Singer, 2003: electronic journal; Larson, 1977 in Soloski, 1997: 141-2; Zelizer, 2004: 58).

As Soloski indicated, for a profession to exist it must have a firm cognitive base,

[... ] that a body of esoteric and fairly stable knowledge about the professional task be mastered by all practitioners, and that the public accepts the professionals as being the only individuals capable of delivering the professional services. By securing control over the cognitive base of the profession, the profession also establishes a monopoly in the professional market place (Soloski, 1997: 141).

Like wise, the cognitive base is controlled by standardizing through accreditation of professional training, where the professionals in training are socialized to their

professions, learning professional norms and procedures (Zelizer, 1997: 402; Soloski, 1997: 141).

On the other hand, the definition of profession has started to progress from the static trait attachment to the on going process of formation of professions, and therefore, "Professionalization refers to change in an occupation over time" (McLeod and Rush, 1969: 584). According to Schein (1972: 8) professions can be defined as, "[...] a set of occupations that have developed a very special set of norms deriving from their special role in society". The argument showed that the special roles have to do with planned change, which shares the aspects of change with the definition by McLeod and Rush.

The earlier definition provided by sociologists seems static. While originally the definition served to qualify the traditional professions like medicine, law and clergy, due to the changing role of professions in the contemporary society, the traditional definition has become obsolete due to the fact that the work setting of professionals has been changing.

[...] as society is becoming more differentiated and complex, the work roles of professionals are becoming more varied and complex. This complexity generates forces toward differentiation of the professions into many more specialties, creates jurisdictional problems among professions and among specialties within professions, forces new definitions of the proper role of the professional and his proper responsibility to clients, and creates the need for more integrators to coordinate the efforts of different specialists (Schein, 1972: 20).

Hence, the work setting of professionals shifts towards employment in large organizations, developing new concepts of responsibility to clients by eroding their professional autonomy. More on that as Schien (1972) argued, those factors such as technological advancement, the bulk of new knowledge, the availability of capital, socioeconomic changes have changed the old ways of conceiving the concept profession. Similarly, Menanteau (1967) reiterated that modernity contains the rise of professionalism as modernity comprises the complex development of social relations and technological advancement.

Above all, the changing social complexities have caused for the emergence of new client systems and have led the novice professionals to call for a rethinking of professional roles, placing emphasis to the service orientation.

[...] working for the poor, the ignorant, and the powerless, even if those groups do not see themselves as clients and can not afford to pay for services. The new values call for the professional to be an advocate, to set about to improve society, not merely to service it, to become more socially conscious, to be more initiator than a responder (Schein, 1972: 3).

Journalism and its role has also be taken as the reflection of modern society because in the sense of contemporary society, a complete black out of mass media out put for a single day means unthinkable. And, there is an assumption that journalism plays a watchdog role, educational and advocacy role in part in the sense of public service responsibility. So, where is the place of journalism in the concept of professionalism and professions? In the following section some of the academic debates and its justification will be discussed in some more detail.

### **2. 3. Journalism as a Profession**

Applying the oldest sociological definition of professions to push journalism to the professional status has been in debate ever since the emergence of sociological study of journalists. Sociological definition of professions partly does not fit to journalism to claim the status of a profession. However, though journalists use the term professionalism to describe their journalistic excellence “because journalists themselves often don’t want to be licensed, certified or classified by any official authority or by any one out side journalism, and in part because there is no specific body of knowledge that journalists must master to practice their craft” (Oledeski, 1998: 278; Weaver, 2005: 44; Weaver and Wilhoit, 1996: 125 in Singer, 2003: electronic journal; Schultz, 1998; Merrill, Lee and Friedlander, 1994: 385), and the absence of entrance test to the occupation, the attempt of grouping journalism to the archetypal professions at least partly was denied.

Scholars argued that nowadays, any profession share two basic characteristics – first, the acknowledgment as an essential function; and secondly, the acquisition of specialized knowledge and skills related to a specific activity within the framework of contemporary society (Mentaneau, 1967: 716). On top of that he distinguished two related aspects of journalism as defined by sociological criteria. First, professionalism of the press must be considered as a social

institution, which due to diversification in technology and the requirements of social structure in which it operates would develop a specific type of professional occupation. Secondly, the individual aspect, where the journalist has a perception of its roles, functions and goals as a professional communicator (Mentaneau, 1967: 716).

In relation to this, other scholars added that the normative dimension of journalism, the journalists' aspiration for practical excellence and its demand for practitioner expertise debatably make journalism a profession (Dennis, 1996 in Singer, 2003: electronic journal).

Still others linked the professionalization of journalists to factors of development such as the level of press freedom and political modernity (Nixon, 1960: 13-28). The process of professionalization as classified by Windahl and Rosengreen (1978: 467) may be individual - a socialization process in which an individual is socialized into the profession by means of formal education, practical experience and influence from his environment - or may be collective, where the whole occupations are moving from craft to profession through a lengthy process of education, organization and relations to clients, employers, which is partly caused by the members of the occupations themselves.

Moreover, another theoretical trend reflected in views of the professional groups themselves in their efforts of developing the power model of professionalism, the

endeavors like, the emergence of a full time occupation, the establishment of a training school; the founding of a professional association; political agitation directed towards the protection of the association by law and the adoption of a formal code. As Tumber and Prentoulis (2005: 60) argued the effort of forming boundaries allowed the professional groups' empowerment - the power model, which led to a further separation with trait theory. It is disputed; however, this approach neglected the prior assumptions about the professions in recognizing them as a social formation tied up with the western experience (Tumber and Prentoulis, 2005: 60).

In a related development, political economy theorists gave emphasis to the dependency of professionals to bureaucratic systems since professionalism assumes the existence of autonomy and control over the cognitive base of the profession, and this will bring the professionals' service orientation motive in to conflict with the profit making motive of the business organization (Soloski, 1997: 140).

Sydney's (1963) influential opinion, however, reflected his progressive and revolutionary belief that "a journalist is a professional insofar as he conceives himself as performing a public service". Even, some scholars suggest that how journalists see themselves, and how they view their roles and why they view that way are more important than compliance with particular sociological criteria

(Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 92-3). And, to classify journalism as a profession depends on which set of criteria are used. That means whether journalism meets the sociological criteria is irrelevant for all practical purposes because “many journalists see themselves as professionals, and they share conceptions of what a professional journalist is supposed to be like” (ibid).

On the other hand, some media researchers questioned whether being a profession is even, a good thing. Some fear that professionalism, especially as it is taught in journalism programs; suppresses the plurality of the press, which is the core strength of a free press, implying homogeneity and standardization rather than healthy differences among journalists (Kovach and Rosenstiel, 2001). In relation to this argument, some scholars raised an issue of Blogger Journalism as a threat to the traditional or as some put it to the Conventional Journalism. The advancement of technology caused the emergence of online journalism on one hand, and initiated the proliferation of bloggers’ society (Singer, 2003: online; Pavlik, 2005).

It is also contended that professionalism can minimize journalistic autonomy because in newsroom situations, it encouraged to pose an efficient and economical method of controlling the behavior of journalists by setting predictive rules and regulations. This strategy is designed because most of the

time, journalists stay out of the newsroom for gathering information, which hinders the controlling attempts of their supervisors (Soloski, 1997; Breed, 1997).

News professionalism controls the behavior of journalists in two related ways: (1) It sets standards and norms of behavior, and (2) it determines the professional reward system – journalists will look to their profession for recognition of professional success” (Soloski, 1997: 142).

It is generally unquestioned in journalistic circles that a central job of the press is to provide information that citizens can use to govern themselves wisely. This ‘journalistic theory of democracy’ holds that more information equals better-equipped citizens, and therefore, better participatory democracy granting the journalist a fundamental social role. When asked what they considered the distinguishing feature of journalism, news workers volunteered this democratic function nearly twice as often as any other response (Kovach and Rosenstiel, 2001). And, a journalist is a professional as far as he/she understands the role the profession plays to the free exercise of political democracy.

[Journalist] should have an understanding of the ethics of journalism, knowledge of the relationship of press freedom to political democracy, and a commitment to the role of journalism in a free society (Lowenstein, 1971: 119).

By way of meeting their perceived democratic obligations, journalists have sought to enumerate norms of conduct, standards of practice and ethical guidelines. Some spell out what journalists should and should not do. Journalists are urged to seek for and report truth fairly and honestly; to minimize harm to sources, subjects and colleagues; to act independently, without obligation to any interest other than the public’s right to know; and to be accountable to audience

members and to each other (SPJ, 1996 in Singer, online; Lowenstein, 1971; Gorden, 1998).

Cultural theorists like James Carey (1978) in Zelizer (2004), however, blame the notion of professionalism in journalism, “because the client-professional relationship it implied left the public no control over information and thus dependent on journalism for knowledge about the real world” (Zelizer, 2004: 33). According to this argument branding journalism as profession is the matter of “safeguarding” the practitioners’ legitimacy in providing neutral, objective and balanced news. However, this argument is no more than a contention to reflect how theorists perceived the process of journalism. Because, the public service orientation of journalism presupposes the existence of self-regulatory means to professionally satisfy the information need of the public at large.

According to Tumber and Prentoulis (2005), journalism and for journalists to achieve professional status, a code of practice would be essential so as to ensure the disciplined and regulated distribution of information.

One of the indicators of professionalism of occupation is the formation of professional associations by members of the profession themselves. Membership to professional union or associations serves the member to learn the standard and values of the profession. According to the traditional definition of professions, professional associations act as a defender of the autonomy of the

profession developing a system of self-government by setting rules or standards to the profession.

Professional associations define criteria of admission, educational standards, licensing or other formal entry examinations, career line within the profession, and areas of jurisdiction for the profession (Schein, 1972: 9).

However, many scholars characterized the evolution of journalism as that it has always been a relatively easily accessed by anybody because there is no licensing and entry tests, and even as contended by Shoemaker and Reese (1996) there is no need for a college degree in journalism. "To be a journalist requires only that some one hires you" (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 93). Many joined the occupation because they can write but then move to something else (ibid).

Though in actual terms, due to legal constraints "the right to seek, impart and hold opinions without any interference", journalists' professional associations can not hold the power of licensing and setting some form of standards in a true sense of power. However, it can defend the profession and the professionals from some external and internal interference by posing collective sanction. In addition, it can create a forum on which journalists discuss about their professional problems, and formulate some common understanding on how to solve practical problems in their day to day activities of providing services to the wider public.

On the other hand, “journalists’ ability to decide what is news has constituted the expertise that distinguishes them from non-reporters” (Zelizer, 1997: 402). Though some argued that journalists are not yet a true professionals (Weaver, 1998: 464), given that journalists provide important functions to the society, and reporting requires a certain method of selecting, gathering, and presenting of news information, which is being acquired formally from educational institutions, and reinforced informally in professional organizations and in the work place, no doubt that journalism is a mastery profession. More over, as Zelizer (1997: 402) contended “seeing journalism as a profession has long helped us understand how it works”.

Mass media research scholars have put indicators for the purpose of creating an understanding of professional journalism. For example, according to Weaver (1998), the role perception of journalists, membership to organizations that encourages professional standards and values, ethical roles of reporting, prioritization of job aspects and the images of audience – how journalists view their audience. Adding to the list, journalists’ attitude, commitment, motivation and interest towards the profession determines their professional excellence in serving the public, and therefore, the indices set by Mentaneau (1967) in this regard, can add more explanation for the purpose of this study. Besides, according to Scholl and Weischenberg (1999) autonomy, expertise, commitment to the job and responsibility are used as the main indicators of professional

orientations. These aspects are taken to be crucial because as argued by scholars, journalism differs from other professions that can fit the sociological trait definitions of professionalism.

The following section briefly discusses the professionalism indicators of journalism with particular emphasis to professional role perception and ethical orientation. It begins by highlighting the literature on perceived role of journalism.

## **2. 4. The Perceived Role of Journalism**

The role definition of journalism varies from place to place, and it is system specific that reflects the type and ideology of a given society. More on that, the actual role of journalism cannot be traced, and journalism scholars discuss the concept and role of journalism from their cognitive understanding of the subject. Because journalism's actual consequence on specific events and processes is not clear, mostly its function is defined by those who struggle to define it from their perceptions, which is a reflection of the type of media system in place (McNair, 2005: 26; Gaunt, 1992: 12).

The pioneers in classifying the normative theories of press Siebert, Peterson and Schramm (1956) categorized the media systems into four theories of the press – *Authoritarian*, *Libertarian*, *Social responsibility* and *Communist* theories of press systems (Gaunt, 1992).

However, in 1981 William Hachten regrouped these earlier theories into *Authoritarian, Communist, Western model*, which is the combinations of *Libertarian* and *Social responsibility* theories, he added two other models, which he called *Revolutionary* (after underground papers of freedom fighters) and the *Developmental* models (Gaunt, 1992).

The other model added to Hachten's classification has been emerging in the Eastern Europe, which Robert Picard offered as *democratic socialist* concept of press system – this model promotes the need for pluralism as well as allows state intervention, if necessary, to protect the interests of the people (ibid).

Another method of press system classification that was developed by Donald Brod, divided all the systems between the *one-step* and *two-step* approach. "The *one-step* approach refers to the Western tradition of simply reporting the news. The *two-step* approach, which involves determining the desired effect of communication, and sending a message to achieve it," (Gaunt, 1992: 13-15) according to his conclusion, though the intent is keeping the tyrannical government in power is not necessarily evil.

Though highly unnatural for understanding the systems independently, Brod's generalized classification is important to the analysis of perceived function of journalism. "Where journalists have the two step attitude, very little outside

control is needed. And where journalists have the one step attitude, relatively little outside control is possible" (Gaunt, 1992: 15-7).

Within these different contexts, then, journalists emerge as key figures responsible for conveying information about the society in which they work to those who live in it. The research attempts on the role of journalists and their journalistic practice have generated various perspectives on the nature of journalists' influence on their news outputs and the effects of political, economic, social and professional influences on journalistic practices.

But journalists are also affected by the tradition of their profession, shaped by progress and revolution, laws, cultural factors and socialization. In this sense, they belong both to the historical fabric of the past and the modern realities of the system in which they function (Gaunt, 1992: 17).

## **2. 4. 1. Professional Role Perception of Journalists**

### **2. 4. 1. 1. Role and Role perception**

Many sociological literatures defined role as a pattern of behavior in a social structure, which shows a unique social position. The role behavior, according to Broom and Selznick (1968, 18-9), can be understood in terms of actual and ideal domains, where the ideal role prescribes what an individual role taker is expected of him/her. However, the actual role behavior is subject to influences from the social setting and individual's personality. Social roles are part of the

socialization process in which the individual is learning the specified and expected behaviors proper to the particular social position (ibid).

Therefore, the notion of role relates society and individuals as well as shows the relationship between forces of structure and agency. "The role concept [...] explains how individual behavior is both patterned by and influenced by broader social forces" (Croteau and Hoynes, 2003: 137). Structure and agency is mostly referred to by sociologists discussing social relations, and structure suggests that the presence of constraints on human action where as agency indicates independent action (Croteau and Hoynes, 2003: 20-1).

Role in professionalism is a learned behavior by the individual, where the professional in the occupation learns what is expected of him/her either in formal schooling or in actual experience on the job. This process of learning social roles is termed as "secondary socialization" in journalism that "journalists belong not only to a culture and a sub culture, they also belong to a profession, where they share certain ways of doing and seeing things" (Ginneken, 1998: 73).

Other than the professional or secondary socializing method, "territory socialization and co-option", which Ginneken (1998: 76) called it organizational socialization is also another means of forming job or role expectations. Socialization has been understood as possessing two meanings - the transmission of culture and the development of personality - that it transforms

an individual into a sense of self identity, capable of disciplined and ordered behavior and endowed with ideals, values and aspirations (Broom and Selznick, 1968: 84). Socialization is the process in which grand rules of role is learnt (Croteau and Hoynes, 2003: 137).

It is believed that both the vertical and horizontal socialization are important factors in the creation and development of new self-image, new values and behavior (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 66-5). Accordingly, the stated thesis suggests that individuals get lessons from their colleagues on how to properly act in their specified role position as Broom and Selznick (1968: 105) called it “anticipatory socialization” – the individual learns his role in relation to other person.

Hence, journalists’ socialization can take place either in formal schooling or in their work place or at both places. Besides, their professional socialization through formal training and membership in professional organizations – journalistic independence and how news should be reported – journalists can also learn roles in the work places (Berkowitz, Limor and Singer, 2004: online).

Because socialization regulates the behavior of the individual, the socialized roles became part of the individual’s self-conception, which urges the individual to see the world from the point of view of that particular role (Broom and Selznick, 1968: 106). In a related concept, Plaisance and Skewes (2003: 833) argued that

while scholars have identified the various roles that the journalists perceive themselves as performing, how journalists perceive different roles is determined by the value system of the individual journalist, where the theoretical base of this theory is rooted to social psychology research.

Like wise, the theory of influences by Shoemaker and Reese (1996: 64-5) presented a hierarchical model of influences on media content at five levels - individual level, media routines level, organizational level, extra-media level and ideological level. At individual level, the communicator's personal backgrounds and experiences shape and direct the communicator's professional roles and ethics. Therefore, personal value of journalists has an influence over the career motivation of journalists as well as the role orientation of journalists. However, journalists' personal attitudes, values and beliefs are primarily shaped by forces outside to the professional setting - such as personal characteristics, backgrounds, and experiences - in contrast to journalists' professional and ethical orientations, which are job-related orientations (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 91).

Therefore, depending on the past history, the traditions, the current political structure and the economics of the press system in which they operate, journalists may be perceived as possessing such distinct roles: "reporters, interpreters, disseminators, artists, thinkers, informers, government employees,

and political workers, and nation builders, defenders of the truth, public watchdogs or the guardians of morality” (Gaunt, 1992: 15-7).

Journalists’ role perception was studied in different socio-politico-economic environment. Thus, different scholars have tended to study and explain journalistic role perception in a form of categorization.

#### **2. 4. 1. 2. Role Orientation of Journalists**

Professional roles determine what the communicator thinks is worth transmitting to the audience and how the story should be developed (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 103). It is believed that journalists are the major role takers in the institutionalized press or mass media system. Because they are part in the mass media institution, the understanding of their basic orientation, inclination or concept about how the mass media should function and what role should it play would give us the general understanding of the people who function in the media system. Accordingly, as McQuail (1984: 101) contended the theory of journalists role orientation is shaped by or constrained by the media institution, where the institution is likely to reflect the elements of one of the normative theories of the press.

To this effect, scholars provided different methods of classification of journalistic role orientations of journalists. For example, Merrill (1971) gave a three part

typology of journalists' basic orientations such as "Neutral or Reflective" what Shoemaker and Reese (1996) described as "Neutral journalist theory", "Ambiguous or Multi-role", and "Leadership or Directive". While the neutral journalist sees himself as an objective reporter, the leadership or directive reporter sees himself as an advocate or participant. The multi-role journalist possesses the features of both. (Merrill, 1971: 103-5).

According to the classification by Johnstone, Slawski, and Bowman (1972) quoted in Shoemaker and Reese (1996) while some journalists consider themselves as "neutrals", seeing their jobs as simple transmission, and others see themselves as "participants", believing that journalists need to sift through information to develop the story. "Neutral" journalists perceive that their job is getting information to their audience quickly, avoiding stories with out verified evidences, concentrating on the widest audience and entertaining the audience. Participant journalists, on the other hand, see their job as investigating government claims, providing analysis to complex problems, discussing national policy and developing intellectual/cultural interests (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 94).

Similarly, Shoemaker and Reese (1996: 94) quoted Weaver and Wilhoit (1991) that they identified three journalistic role conceptions - the interpretive function, the dissemination function, and the adversary function. The interpretive function

included journalistic roles such as investigation of claims, analysis of complex problems and discussion of national policy. The dissemination function, on the other hand, comprises roles such as providing information to the audience quickly, while the adversary function serves as an adversary of officials or of business (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 94).

McQuail (1984) also identified two roles of journalists – the participant role and the neutral role – that stem from sources of social power and the public, who are believed to be the beneficiaries of the media output. Accordingly, the journalist who assumes the participant role plays an active role in social and political life, and where as the neutral journalist takes the informational position (McQuail, 1984: 107). Participant journalists see news as emerging from their efforts to “investigate and analyze” what is happening; while neutral journalists conceive news as emerging naturally from what is going on (Williams, 2003: 107). Williams (2003) explained that the evolution of participant journalism since 1960 has developed into the ‘new’ journalism with its focus on advocacy, which has been incorporated in some countries of Asia and Africa’s value called development journalism. He quoted Chalaby (1996) that the interpretive journalism remained as a value of European countries.

Ramaprasad (2002), however, categorized and listed the roles of journalism in some different form in her study on the profiles of some African and Nepalese

journalists. Accordingly, she listed different categories of role conceptions – the entertainment or cultural function, the democracy building function, development journalism function from the western perspective, and development journalism function from developing world function. Each role is characterized by many functional roles, as for instance, the role of development journalism from the point of view of developing world is characterized by:

- give priority to coverage of development policies and projects
- discuss development issues regularly
- ensure coverage of rural issues
- use the media to advance the social development of the country
- use the media to be spokesperson for the deprived classes of citizens
- carefully examine government national development policy
- objectively report on national development programs and projects
- Critically evaluate development projects and efforts
- Use news as a social good (Ramaprasad, 2002).

## **2. 5. Trends in Journalists' professional Role Orientation**

The attempt of researching journalists on their practical experience presupposes that journalists' backgrounds and ideas has a relationship to determine what is reported and how it is reported (Weaver, 2005: 45; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996). Researchers have established indicators to empirically studying the professionalism of journalists such as the demographic and background profile, professional role and ethical orientation, investigating attitudes of journalists toward job aspects and images of journalists toward their audience. Based on these parameters a number of surveys were conducted in different countries.

One of the most fundamental issues about the backgrounds of journalists as argued by Weaver (2005) is why journalists chose journalism as a career. The survey of journalists in different countries for example in Australia and Britain found that being good at writing, followed by the perceived excitement and interest of the occupation, and an interest in current events. Journalists in Chile and Mexico revealed their interest that they were attracted to journalism because of the possibilities for writing and the non-routine nature of the work, as well as the chance to uncover various abuses. The US journalists were primarily attracted to the job because of love for writing, followed by an enjoyment of reporting, a desire to be involved in current events and history, and an interest in politics (Weaver, 2005: 45).

Another relevant question as regards to professional journalism and the profile of journalists is the importance of journalism education. The ongoing debates whether journalism education has a benefit to journalism or not took an opposite position. In countries like Australia, Finland and Mexico the number of college graduate journalists is lower, while most of journalists in the U.S. hold a four-year college degree (ibid).

In African countries, for instance, 59 percent of Ugandan journalists have acquired university degree majoring in journalism and the majority of respondents thought that journalists should have a university degree (Mwesing,

2004: 5(1)). Similarly, Ramaprasad (2001) found that the majority of Tanzanian journalists completed college education with journalism study. According to Ramaprasad's (2005) survey of Egyptian journalists, 92 percent of her respondents held a bachelor's degree of which 66 percent studied journalism.

As regards the professional role orientation, the perceptions of journalists in different countries vary. The study on U.S. journalists revealed that journalists tended to see two responsibilities as extremely important – getting information to the public quickly and investigating government claims. But, in the later study, the watchdog role took dominant position among the U.S. journalists. However, journalists in democratic countries like Australia, Britain and Finland showed less agreement with the importance of watchdog role of journalism, and similarly journalists from Taiwan, Algeria, and Chile least likely see the watchdog role as very important. But, journalists from China tended to support investigating government claims than in France and Canada, and journalists from Germany than Algeria (Weaver, 2005: 49).

The survey in Tanzania showed that “Tanzanian journalists rated the more western functions of information and analysis as well as entertainment to be higher than the African function of national development and educating the people about how the government functions” (Ramaprasad, 2001: 63 (6) ). The survey of Ugandan journalists indicated that similar to their western

counterparts, “Ugandan journalists tend to support both the *disseminator* and *interpretive* roles of the news media. But the Ugandan journalists also show more support for advocacy role” (Mwesige, 2004: 5(1)). Again unlike journalists of some of the western countries, however, Ugandan journalists were less likely to support the *adversarial* role of the news media.

Another component of professionalism is the analysis of journalists’ attitude toward job aspects. This shows which dimensions of the job journalists give priority. In this regard, scholars attempted to identify professional and non-professional dimensions of journalism occupation. Accordingly, as argued by some scholars “salary, job security, and chance to advance are less professional aspects of an occupation than editorial policies, ability to develop a specialty, autonomy, and helping people” (Weaver, 2005, 53). In this case, the analysis of the survey of Ugandan journalists indicated that majority of them gave more value to professional benefits than material benefit (Mwesige, 2004). Similarly, the survey of Tanzanian journalists show that Tanzanian journalists rated the professional aspects of job related aspects higher than their material or non-professional aspects of their job (Ramaprasad, 2001).

Participation in professional organization is also another possible indicator of professionalism of journalism. It is believed that membership in organization encourages the professional socialization of the members. The survey of

journalists at different countries reported that membership of journalists to their professional association was not consistently patterned. For instance in Hong Kong only 18 percent of the 692 sample journalists belonged to journalism organization. In Uganda 77 percent of 140 sample journalists, in Hungary 83 percent of 8,870 journalists, and in Australia 86 percent of 1,001 sampled journalists claimed membership to professional organizations. (Weaver, 2005; Weaver, 1998; Mwesige, 2004)

How journalists view their audience can also be taken as a point of analysis for professionalism in journalism. It is believed that journalists' knowledge of their audience, and their images of that audience may shape what they write or how they edit news stories. Moreover, there is a notion that professional journalists are more qualified than their audience to determine the audience's interests and needs (Zelizer, 1997: 402 quoted Tuchman, 1978b: 108). Scholl and Weischenberg (1999) categorized images of audience into three dimensions - civic characteristics, ideological aspects and social class related descriptions of audience by journalists. According to Weaver (2005) about one-quarter of journalists from Algeria, Brazil and the U.S. strongly agreed that their audiences were interested in breaking news, while nearly one-half of the East German journalists strongly agreed that their audience was gullible.

In terms of ethical practices, there are considerable differences on the proportions saying that some reporting methods, most of which often taken as unethical might be justified. The reporting methods as for example, on revealing confidential news sources, paying secret sources, using documents without permission, getting employed to gain inside information produced considerable differences among journalists of 13 countries over its justifiability (Weaver, 2005: 52-3).

## **2. 6. The Context of Professional Journalism in Ethiopia**

### **2. 6. 1. Background**

The down fall of the Derg regime in 1991 led the majority of Ethiopian population to a relief from the atrocities of the then dictatorial military government. When the transitional government of Ethiopia, which was dominated by the Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front came to power at least as a principle envisaged the democratic rule in the country by introducing the Transitional Charter of 1991. Of course, democracy as a process is not an absolute ideal, where one can fully achieve it for once and for all. In order to embark on the democratization process, it required the commitments of leaders to respect the values that are essential for democracy such as "free and fair election, multi-party political system, freedom of the press and the right to

association"(Dahl, 1998). In this regard, what has been emerging in Ethiopia is different than it was in the 1970s and 1980s.

The initiation of the democratization process was soon started. The enactment of the transitional charter followed by the promulgation of press law by the Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) - led government conceded the freedom of the press, which characterized the early democratic commitments of the EPRDF. Accordingly, unlike in the foregoing governments, the recognition of press freedom in Ethiopia paved the way for the proliferation of private mass media establishments. "This has led to the quantitative growth of private [press], although the quality and professionalism of some remain questionable" (Getachew, 2003:567). "More than 560 private and politically affiliated newspapers and magazines were registered for publication after the press was liberalized" (Tamirat in Karethi and Karithii, 2005: 16).

The recent report from the Ethiopian Ministry of Information documented that in June 2005 about 180 newspapers and magazines have been registered and circulated for public consumption (Table 1). The nature of the press products vary from issues of general interest to specific issues such as religion, health, sport, love and marriage, social issue, construction, and so on. The ownership of the media establishments ranges "from party/government through public and professional associations to the private sector" (Shimalis, 2000: 10).

With regard to broadcast media, after a tight control for longer time, the Ethiopian government has recently allowed few radio airwaves for a private sector. The broadcast media still has benefiting the government/party, where regional governments started to establish FM stations at local level. And, the single television station in the country remained under the control of the government.

**Table 1 Circulation of press products from 8th July 2004, to 7th July 2005**

No	Content	Newspapers	Magazines
1	Political, Economic & Social Issues (Current Affairs)	63	12
2	Religion	29	11
3	Sport	13	4
4	Love & Gender	4	
5	Culture & Art	6	15
6	Trade and Advertisement	5	1
7	Transport		2
8	Medical Issues	3	1
9	Crime	1	
10	Legal Affairs	2	
11	Youth & Recreation	2	
12	Children & Recreation	2	
13	Miracle Stories	1	
14	Construction	2	
	Personality	1	
	<b>Total</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>46</b>

Source : Ethiopian Ministry of Information, department of Press Licensing (2006).

As the number of mass media institutions increased in number, it is inevitable that be it in government/party holdings or in the private proprietorship, the increase of the number of journalists reporting in these mass media organizations is tantamount.

## **2. 6. 2. Professional Associations of Journalists in Ethiopia**

About four professional associations were established in the name of Ethiopian journalists. Ethiopian Journalists' Association (EJA), Ethiopian Free Press Journalist Association (EFPJA), which later splintered to Ethiopian National Journalist Union (ENJU); the Ethiopian Independent Journalist Association (EIJA), Ethiopian Media Women's Association (EMWA) and Ethiopian Sport Professional Association (ESPJA).

The history of professional association of journalists in Ethiopia dated back to the military government system. Mekuria (2005) documented that the creation of Ethiopian Journalists Association in 1976 heralded the beginning of journalists' professional organization in Ethiopia. However, after its survival for over three decades was banned in 2003. Though a pioneer in the history of professional associations of journalists, it was accused of weaknesses in discharging the duties and responsibilities of standardizing, improving and protecting the profession and the professionals (Mekuria, 2005: 114-5).

Many associations were registered in the country and one of the major issues of discussion among journalists' in Ethiopia was the absence of strong umbrella association. The fragmented formations of many professional associations may imply the dissatisfaction of members in the activities of the earlier and existing organizations because of the unique interest some associations wanted to

promote in part. For instance, the Ethiopian Media Women's Association was established in 1999 with the aim of building the capacity of its members and also aimed at advocating for woman's rights, improving women's image in the media, and encouraging media participation of women. The objectives of EMWA seemed partly irrelevant to the promotion of professionalism of journalism.

The rivalry situation between EIJA and the recently established ENJU (2004) seemed to be quiet after the ministry of justice suspended EIJA and due to the post election crisis in Ethiopia. The polarized and intense conflict existed in the professional associations of journalists has led many journalists to dissociation than to association.

### **2. 6. 3. Journalism Education in Ethiopia**

Only few journalists had gotten journalism training through scholarship abroad ever since the establishment of Ethiopian Mass Media Training Institute in 1996. The institute started to teach journalism courses at diploma level by admitting government employed journalists who had many years of experiences.

The Ethiopian Mass Media Training Institute, which was established under the Ministry of Information, merged with the newly opened graduate School of Journalism and Communications under the Addis Ababa University.

Some private colleges like Unity University College and Rift Valley University College had also started journalism programs, but stopped after the admission of one entry. However, regional government universities have planned to open journalism departments in the near future.

It seems clear that journalism education is a recent phenomenon to Ethiopia. And, as a result it may become premature either to criticize or to praise its achievement at this stage.

#### **2. 6. 4. Constraints of Professional Journalism in Ethiopia**

The growth of private papers in number and the survival of private press institutions in the post 1991 Ethiopia were inconsistent. On the other hand, the roles of the press and the professional performance of Ethiopian journalists were also strongly criticized. More importantly, the government – press relationship has been in thorny conflict, where the private press accused the government for “suppressing press freedom” and the government labeled the private media as “the supporters of opposition parties”, on the one hand, and lacked professional ethics and roles determination, on the other hand (Getachew, 2003: 568; Shimalis, 2000: 68-70). In this regard, the post 2005 election period was a shaky and volatile event especially for private press.

Eight print media are facing prior restraint orders from the government and their editors are being persecuted. More than a dozen of other private media also stopped publishing for unknown reasons without being restrained by the government (<http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php>, retrieved on 5/9/06).

The mutual suspicion between the private media and the government, as some authors like Shimalis (2000) contended, adding to other economic and professional constraints retarded the private/ “independent” press in Ethiopia. Similarly, lack of professionalism and professional competence has also been identified as the characteristic nature of Ethiopian journalism in general. The Internet document of *The Reporter* cited the words of Professor Abiyi Abraham Ford from his presentation on the workshop organized in Ethiopia recently that journalists and newspapers have faced many problems, which are mainly attributable to lack professional competence. On a similar forum, another presenter Professor Andargachew Tirunah argued that

Ethiopian journalists in the private sector have been acting as the fourth estate as they were critical of the government while [...] that they have “exceeded the legitimate bounds of acting as a fourth estate” [by becoming biased in their treatment of issues, and] “their publications have been too partial and sensational so as to lead one to believe that they are not in the business of reporting politics but, rather making it. It is as though they have a mission to accomplish, a mission [that] they pursue with extraordinary zeal and at all costs” (<http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php>, retrieved on 5/9/06).

Likewise, based on the seminar held in May 2004 in the School of Journalism and Communications, Addis Ababa University, the International Press Institute reported that while the private press journalists lack professional competence,

journalists working in government media establishments “did not always practice objective or independent journalism” (<http://www.freemedia.at>, retrieved on 9/05/06).

The media lean towards opinion-based writing rather than employing a discipline of verification to build trust and credibility. Here the cases of talking without listening, reporting without researching, talking one side of the story without seeking for the other explanation, or reporting blatant lies are the few malpractices of professional ethics that can be mentioned (<http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php>, retrieved on 5/9/06).

In general terms, the problem in the relationship between the private press and government in the post-1991 Ethiopia as most often told is “the polarization between political elites and media elites in the country” ( Henok, 2005: <http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php>; Shimalis, 2000). In relation to this element, the dichotomized relationship is also prevailing between journalists in the private and in government media. While a strong professional association is non-existent in Ethiopia, according to Shimalis (2000) those existing associations did not contribute for the stable performance and professional development of journalism. Instead, it contributed to further rivalry among journalists.

A further demonstration is the division between journalists in the government-controlled print medium and those in the private press, a division which has found its concrete expression in the founding of two rival associations (the Ethiopian Journalists’ Association vis-a-vis the Ethiopian Free Press Journalists’ Association) waging a non-conventional war of words. Consequently, a univocal-partisan press has been left to reign at the expense of a pluralistic press representing a wide spectrum of opinions (Shimalis, 2000: 69).

As commented by other observers of the Ethiopian journalism, beyond the problem of professionalism, journalists are challenged by many other problems.

Being a journalist in a transitional society like Ethiopia is not easy. Resources are few, there's not much of a living in it, and you face hostility from the authorities. At the same time, the ethical choices are particularly tough, and the consequences of doing a good, or a bad, job can be far-reaching (Kruger, 2005: <http://www.ethiomeia.com> retrieved on 9/26/05).

Others commented on journalists' lack of clear understanding of what they should do, which of course is a direct reflection of lack of professionalism. As indicated in the "journalistic theory of democracy" the goal of constructing informed citizens on issues of humanity and social justice is left for journalists to carry out. What basic roles the Ethiopian journalists should perform was suggested by different scholars regardless of the ownership style:

- the need to develop the sense of being committed to promoting public interests
- the need to make the programs characteristically Ethiopian by promoting the vested interests of the Ethiopian people in development, peace and democracy
- The need to encourage journalists to learn to work with commitments and respect the ethics of professionalism (Gebremedhin, 2006).

Similarly, Shimalis (2000) believed that the private press as an integral part of the civic society can become a significant force, "a fourth estate geared to empowering the poor, listening to the voices from below, fostering a stable responsive and accountable government and contributing to the vitality of democracy in Ethiopia" (p70). In order to play this public service role, the

improvement of professional standards is a prerequisite. The independent press virtually plays a critical role as a check on government, especially in the absence of strong opposition parties. "And, yet the low professional standards prevalent in the press have compounded the difficulties in carrying out this important role" (Tamirat, 2005: 16).

The existing studies on the Ethiopian journalists clearly indicate that constraints of professional journalism in Ethiopia are multi-faceted. The absence of formal institution that can establish standards of professionalism and ethical values, lack of adequate journalism education and training, lack of journalists' role orientation and lack of mutual trust between government and private journalists are among the challenges of professional journalism in Ethiopia as could be viewed from the point of view of researchers.

But, how do Ethiopian journalists perceive themselves and the role of journalism in Ethiopia, and how do they perceive journalism as an occupation would require an investigation in order to get a full perspective and clear understanding about the practical situation of professional journalism in Ethiopia as viewed by the practitioners themselves.

## **Chapter Three**

### **3. Research Methodology**

A combination of quantitative and qualitative research strategy was used with structured questionnaire composed of close-ended and some open-ended questions together with semi-structured qualitative questions for collecting primary data. The secondary data was surveyed from books, journals, online journals, workshop papers, internet and other electronic media. The semi-structured interview was intended to secure a qualitative data of key informants from both private and government media settings in order to complement the quantitative survey. This method was taken as one of the data gathering instrument to give a qualitative depth to the thesis project.

#### **3. 1. Population of the study and its setting**

This study relied on primary data from the survey of Ethiopian journalists working in government media institutions and some private newspaper media organizations. Because most of the government as well as private media outlets are concentrated in the capital, the survey was made in the capital, Addis Ababa, covering almost all government mass media outlets and private newspapers, which publishes and broadcasts issues of general interests.

Accordingly, journalists reporting in all federal mass media institutions such as Ethiopian Press Agency, Ethiopian Radio and Television Agency and Ethiopian

News Agency; and journalists reporting for Addis Ababa City Administration's Mass Media Agency, which is one of the regional mass media, were included in the total universe. In addition, journalists reporting for private newspapers, which publish issues of general interest, were included for the purpose of this research. Thus, private news papers such as *The Reporter (both Amharic and English editions)*, *Daily Monitor*, *Addis Admas* and *Sendek* were included with no any special interest other than their focus of content - coverage of issues of general interest. It should be noted that currently many private newspapers have closed due to the political situation in Ethiopia, following the May 7, 2005 election. Hence, the numbers of journalists who are currently serving in these mass media institutions are insignificant as compared with the number of journalists working in government mass media institutions.

Because there is no systematic registry of journalists in the country, the researcher collected lists of journalists from every mass media organizations in the list.

### **3. 2. Sampling**

The number of journalists working in the indicated mass media organizations at the time of the project is about 501, and all the lists of journalists were collected from the respective mass media institutions. During the collection of lists of journalists, it was learnt that the total population of private media journalists was

71; and the number of journalists in government media institutions equaled 430. It should be understood that the number for both media type included freelance journalists. Because the study considers some variations of cases and the output of the study is analyzed based on the comparison of the subgroups in the sample, the probability sampling technique was applied to produce a representative sample of about 100 journalists using the proportionate stratified sampling method. This systematic design considered if gender, type of employer organization (male vs. female and private press journalists vs. government media journalists) may turn out to significant differences in the professional role perception of journalists. Accordingly, the representative sample was drawn by taking a 20 percent samples from each stratified groups randomly.

For the purpose of sampling the key informants, the student researcher selected individual journalists from the lists, who lost the chance to fill the questionnaire considering their age, experience and gender to produce a convenience sample of 10 journalists.

### **3. 3. Data collection**

The data were collected in three different methods. As indicated far above, the structured questionnaire with some open ended self-administered questions was distributed mostly in person to 100 journalists representing those working in private mass media and government mass media from May 20, 2006 to May 22,

2006. Of the 100 questionnaires sent out, 95 of them returned by May 24, 2006 making a good response rate of 95 percent. The semi-structured interview was also conducted by the student researcher face to face in late May, 2006.

The methods also included related literature review, which is of course a secondary data tool for this research paper.

### **3. 3. 1. Primary Data**

Because this thesis paper proposes the social system theory of professional model with the frame works of its normative dimension and some aspects of its cognitive dimension, the indicators that have been established to measure professionalism by Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) in Weaver (1998) such as perception of professional roles, ethical judgment, aspects of job, societal image of journalists and their identification to journalistic occupation (Menanteau, 1967) were being modeled for this project with some adaptation to the Ethiopian context.

Besides, the items established by Menanteau (1967) to measure professional orientation of Chilean journalists such as, attitude to journalism education, participation in professional organization, motivation, commitment and identification of oneself with journalism and attitude of motivating ones child to join journalism were included in the questionnaire to see the professional motivation and identification of Ethiopian journalists.

Therefore, this survey was modeled along the national surveys of 22 countries compiled and edited by Weaver (1998) regarding the indicators used to measure professionalism together with some information from Ramaprasad (2002) about the role perceptions of journalists.

Accordingly, the questionnaire was structured under three sections in a form to elicit journalistic commitments, attitudes and professional role perception of journalists in a way to sort out the characteristics and socio-demographic profiles of Ethiopian journalists. The questionnaire on professional role perception was designed in scale form and the major components were borrowed from earlier studies as was stated above. Besides, the semi-structured interview presents an open ended enquiry questions with a follow-up questions in order to gather more qualitative responses from the established key informants. The medium of data administration for both instruments was Amharic.

To secure the clarity of questions for survey questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on 15 sample respondents from all groups under study. The analysis of the pilot study provided constructive feedback to correct and rephrase some of the poorly stated statements, vague and ambiguous expressions in the questionnaire. More than that, this pilot survey helped the researcher to exclude some politically sensitive questions related to journalists' affiliation to political parties and religion, which was intended to enquire the socio - demography of

journalists. In addition, question about family job background was also excluded based on the pilot responses.

### **3. 4. Method of Data Processing and Presentation**

Quantitative data were entered into a data file (SPSS) and analyzed statistically. Apart from generating frequencies for some of the variables, means comparison and eta measure of association was used to examine the group difference/variation in terms of some group variables such as role perception, ethics orientation, perception of job aspects, and journalists' image of the audience.

The means procedure, as recommended by SPSS package, is useful for both the description and analysis of scale variables. It can also precisely define the comparison groups and can also enable to test for differences between group means and eta. Because eta and eta squared in means provides association measures, it is possible to understand the structure and strength of the relationship between the groups and their means.

However, ANOVA is irrelevant for this study because the literature recommends it when group variation analysis is made among more than two group factors. This study compares between two group variation such as between male and female as well as government and private journalists.

Eta is a measure of association that ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating no association between the variables and values close to 1 indicating a high degree of association. And eta squared expresses the amount of variation in the scale variable that is due to the nominal variable (Bryman, 2004). This is a set of statistics which indicates the relative magnitude of the differences between means. In other words, it describes the amount of the total variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from knowledge of the levels of the independent variable (Pallant, 2001). Eta measure of association was selected for this study because it is a very flexible method for exploring the relationship between two variables and it can be employed when one variable is nominal and the other is scale or interval with limited group labels.

While the value of eta ranges from 0 to 1 that 0 indicating no association and 1 indicating strong association, the output of eta squared has small effect when .01, moderate effect at .06, and large effect at .14. The application of ANOVA was neglected because the comparison of differences for this study has only two groups, and ANOVA technique suggests, however, more than two comparable groups.

Group variation was studied based on factors, such as gender and type of employer organization as was stated on the objectives and basic research questions of this study. However, in order to analyze group variation of the

levels of participation of different groups of journalists in professional associations was approached by comparing the frequency of the responses given by group variables. This method was selected because both the dependent and independent variables were strings that can only be processed in this statistical method.

Data analysis was presented by using frequency tables, bar graphs and statistical summary tables. For ease of presentation, some of the statistical outputs generated by SPSS were directly inserted in the body of the text while some others were attached as appendices for referencing; and the most relevant outputs were summarized by drawing summary tables.

Qualitative data from key informants' interviews were transcribed and relevant anecdotes were presented, analyzed and used to validate the findings of the quantitative survey.

### **3. 5. Scope of the study**

As was exhaustively reviewed in the literature survey section, professionalism and the theory of professions addresses all aspects of cognitive, normative and evaluative dimensions at least from the traditional sociological definitions of professions. And, because journalism as a profession at least partially does not fit to the traditional sociological definitions of professions, this study considered the

normative dimension and some aspects of its cognitive dimension as a point of reference in studying the professional role orientation of journalists in Ethiopia.

The study of communicators in journalism is mostly approached in two dimensions- the professional role dimension and the news room communication process dimension. While the editorial dimension gives emphasis to the routines and organizational processes, the professional role dimension mostly relates the individual professionals who are involved in running the organizational routines of the editorial process (Scholl and Weischenberg, 1999). Therefore, the focus of this thesis paper is limited to the professional role approach.

Journalism as a function will cover all areas of purpose playing central roles to meet informational, educational and entertainment objectives. Though this method of categorical placement may provide a basis of understanding, all the stated objectives are overlapping. Therefore, most often journalists in mass media organization intentionally or unintentionally are obliged to cover general issues of interest. Even though, currently in Ethiopia, especially in private newspapers system, newspapers of specific interest like sport, health, trade, investment, religion, social issues dominate over newspapers of general issues, in this research work, the focus was given to journalists working for media organizations covering issues of general interest.

The Ethiopian Press Proclamation (34/92) defines journalists as a professional who belongs to the editorial, the creative, aesthetic elements of the media occupations including those whose work on productions. However, in this paper a journalist is considered as the professional who plays the editorializing role that ranges from news selection to presentation.

As explained earlier, most of the mass media outlets are concentrated in Addis Ababa. This does not mean that regions do not possess mass media outlets. It is understood that today, regional mass media agencies are growing in number and in capacity; and the number of journalists too. However, all mass media institutions emerging in the regions are owned by regional governments and possess similar editorial policy with the federal mass media agencies. Therefore, due to time constraints to access those media institutions the study could cover only journalists working in the center, Addis Ababa.

### **3. 6. Limitations of the Study**

The study of this thesis project was conducted in the presence of the following limitations. Thus, the student researcher's generalization and conclusion can be considered under the following conditions:

1. Lack of systematic records of data, the deficiency of basic statistical data, at present it is not even possible to give the exact number of journalists.
2. Lack of closely related research works that could be helpful to the topic.

3. Lack of interest by some journalists to fill the questionnaire and to be recorded on tape.
4. Reluctance by some authorities in the enterprise to fully cooperate in providing significant documents in the area of concern.
5. The time given to the project was inadequate due to which the researcher could not include and cover regional journalists in his sample.
6. The volatile condition that hindered the operation of some private mass media organizations, which in turn affected in decreasing the number of private journalists to have proportional sample. However, this was not a fatal problem, since there were enough left to talk to, and because no major differences emerged between the two groups.

## **Chapter Four**

### **4. Data Presentation and Analysis**

Based on the objectives set for the study, data were collected using both quantitative and qualitative instruments. In this chapter, the presentation and analysis of data is made with the help of Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS), and the summary of qualitative interview was presented in the form of transcription from the interviewees' response, and very representative anecdotes were cited directly.

#### **4. 1. Quantitative Data**

Among the 95 filled in self-administered questionnaire, 3 of them were incomplete and as a result discarded from the data file.

##### **4. 1. 1. Demographic Profile of Journalists**

As summarized in Table 2a and Table 2b majority of the respondents were male (77.2%), with (79.3 %) are ranged in the age below 40. Regarding marriage, 56.5 percent of the respondents were married while 38 percent were unmarried. In terms of work experience, 41.3 percent of the respondents had 6-10 year's experience in journalism followed by 28.3 percent of those who had less than five years experience in journalism. Concerning journalists' salary, 46.7 percent of the respondents were paid in the range 1001-1500 birr per month. About the medium

type, 35.9 percent were employed in print medium, 32.6 percent in television, 23.9 percent in radio and 7.6 percent of them worked in news agency. As regards the number of population by employer organization, significant difference is existed between government journalists (85.9%) and privately employed journalists (14.1%).

**Table 2a Profile of journalists by employer organization, age, sex, experience, & marital status**

Category	Value Label	Frequency (n=92)	Percent	Cumulative percent
Employer	Government	79	85.9	85.9
	Private	13	14.1	100.0
Sex	Female	21	22.8	22.8
	Male	71	77.2	100.0
Age group	30 or below	23	25.0	25.0
	31-40	50	54.3	79.3
	41-50	16	17.4	96.7
	51 or above	3	3.3	100.0
Marital status	Married	52	56.5	56.5
	Unmarried	35	38.0	94.6
	Divorced/Widowed	5	5.4	100.0

**Table 2b Profile of journalists by media type, salary, qualification and experience**

Category	Value Label	Frequency (n=92)	Percent	cumulative percent
Medium Type	Print	33	35.9	35.9
	Radio	22	23.9	59.8
	Television	30	32.6	92.4
	News Agency	7	7.6	100.0
Salary in birr	501-1000	9	9.8	9.8
	1001-1500	43	46.7	56.5
	1501-2000	26	28.3	84.8
	2001 or above	14	15.2	100.0
Qualification	Certificate	3	3.3	3.3
	College diploma	37	40.2	43.5
	BA/BSC	44	47.8	91.3
	MA/MSC	5	5.4	96.7
	Other	3	3.3	100.0
Experience	5 or below	26	28.3	28.3
	6-10	38	41.3	69.6
	11-15	17	18.5	88.0
	16-20	4	4.3	92.4
	21 or above	7	7.6	100.0

#### 4. 1. 2. Journalists' Educational Background

The majority of respondents (47.8 %) acquired BA/BSC degree from university and another significant number of journalists (40.2 %) in the sample had a college diploma, making a cumulative of 88 percent. Of those who attended and graduated from university or other tertiary institutions, 27 percent of them

majored journalism specializing in print journalism, radio journalism and television journalism. The majority of the respondents (48.9 %), however, graduated with language and literature. The rest joined the career from a variety of field of studies (See Table 3 below) such as Accounting, Agriculture, Business Management; Economics, Geography, History, Sociology, Physics and Mathematics.

**Table 3 Journalists' educational background**

Field of study	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Language Studies & Literature	44	47.8	47.8
Television Journalism	11	12.0	59.8
Radio Journalism	8	8.7	68.5
Print Journalism	6	6.5	75.0
Teaching	5	5.4	80.4
Unspecified	4	4.3	84.8
Agriculture	2	2.2	87.0
Geography	2	2.2	89.1
Theatre	2	2.2	91.3
Accounting	1	1.1	92.4
Business Mgt.	1	1.1	93.5
Economics	1	1.1	94.6
History	1	1.1	95.7
Linguistics	1	1.1	96.7
Mathematics	1	1.1	97.8
Physics	1	1.1	98.9
SoSA	1	1.1	100.0
Total	92	100.0	

### 4. 1. 3. Journalists' belief, attitude, motivation, commitment

#### 4.1.3.1 Attitudes toward Journalism education

In the survey, journalists were provided with some questions to give their opinion on the need of journalism education for the occupation in general. This question was reinforced by the next follow up question to indirectly see the attitude of journalists toward journalism education. Accordingly, the significant number of journalists (87%) responded that learning journalism education is better than doing the career without attaining any relevant journalism courses.

**Table 4**

Which one do you think is better for journalism profession, to be educated in journalism or not?

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 Journalism Education is very Important	80	87.0	87.0
2 It doesn't matter Because journalism can Be done without its Education	12	13.0	100.0
Total	92	100.0	

Journalists were also asked whether they have been enrolled into continuing education program, and 31.5 percent responded that they are attending extension classes. In the next question, they were asked to write the type of field they are studying. Among the enrolled journalists, those who study journalism were insignificant in number.

**Table 5**

Are you currently enrolled into continuing education program?

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Yes	29	31.5	31.5
	2 No	63	68.5	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

As could be understood from the table below, about half of the respondents claimed to be enrolled in journalism education program. Others have chosen other fields of study as indicated in table below.

**Table 6**

What type of field of study are you studying if you are learning currently?

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		63	68.5	68.5
	Accounting	1	1.1	69.6
	Economics	1	1.1	70.7
	Education	1	1.1	71.7
	French Language	1	1.1	72.8
	Language & Literature	6	6.5	79.3
	Law	1	1.1	80.4
	Linguistics	1	1.1	81.5
	Management	1	1.1	82.6
	Mgt Information Systems	1	1.1	83.7
	Philosophy	1	1.1	84.8
	Print Journalism	5	5.4	90.2
	Radio Journalism	3	3.3	93.5
	TV Journalism	6	6.5	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

Journalists were also asked whether they had attended any journalism education or if they had taken any relevant training to their current career. In their response 89.1 percent of them confirmed that they had taken training courses either formally from recognized colleges, or informally from workshops, symposia and short term training programs. Respondents listed the type of training they had as basic journalism, standardization, reporting on HIV/AIDS, investigative journalism, development reporting, election reporting and so on. Those respondents who graduated from formal institution of journalism education specialized in Print, Radio and Television fields of journalism. In addition, some of the respondents who joined journalism study for their first degree said currently, they are studying Journalism and Mass communications. The general response seemed to suggest that except few of the journalists, the majority of the respondents had favorable attitude toward journalism education.

**Table 7**

Have you attended or taken any journalism courses/trainings?

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Yes	82	89.1	89.1
	2 No	10	10.9	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

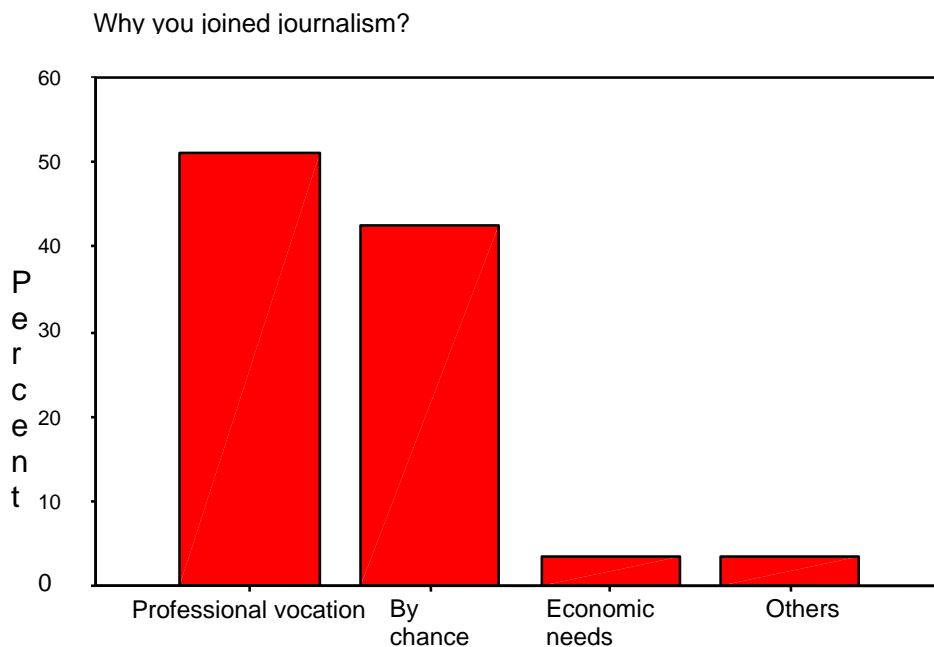
#### **4. 1. 3. 2. Motivation**

To study the motivation of respondents to journalism occupation, certain indicative questions were raised to them. Accordingly, they were asked to tell their reason for why they selected journalism as their current career. As depicted

on the bar graph below (figure 1), the majority of respondents (51.1%) became journalists due to professional vocation, followed by those who joined the career by chance (42.2%).

On the other hand, journalists joined the occupation from various job backgrounds, and only few respondents directly joined the profession after completing their education. And others joined the profession, leaving their former jobs of teaching, management, accountancy, agriculture, theatre, translation, secretary, marketing and the like for different reasons. The finding from this response implies that journalism as an occupation is more generous to invite every corner of field of studies.

**Figure1.**



Another related question was whether respondents motivate or push one of their child or relative to choose journalism as his or her future career. The majority (70.7%) opposed the idea of pushing their children towards the career. In their qualitative response, some of the respondents said that they do not push others because an individual has a self- right to choose his/her own future career. Others noted that they can tell that journalism as a career is a noble profession, but they do not push others to the extent of urging them to join the profession. However, 29.3 percent of the respondents agreed that they motivate their children to choose journalism as their future career.

**Table 8**

**Do you motivate your child to choose journalism as his/her future career?**

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Yes	27	29.3	29.3
2	No	65	70.7	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

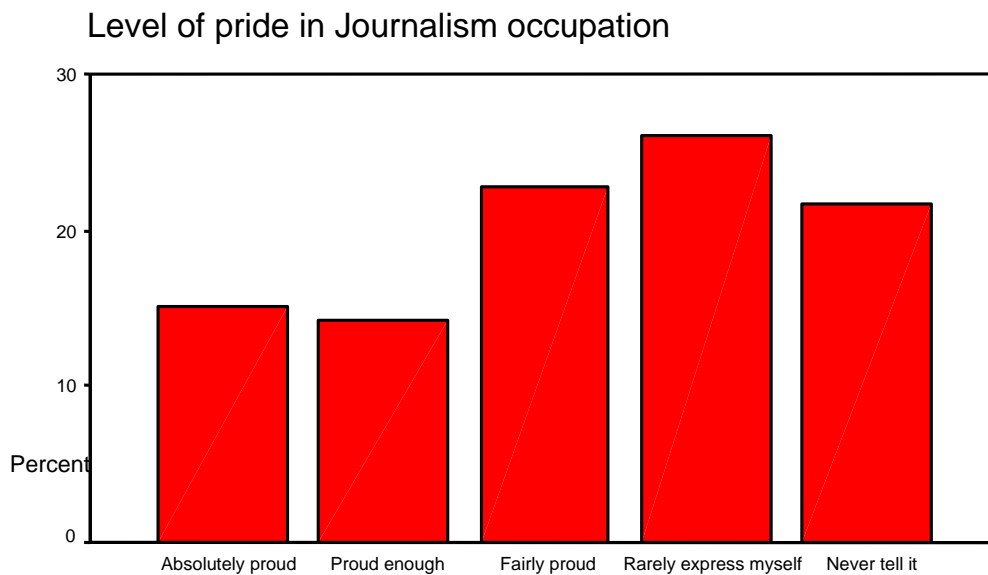
Journalists were also asked to what extent they feel proud of being a journalist. As shown in table 9 and its graph of figure 2, the response tended to be distributed along the scales unevenly. However, the majority responded that they do not feel proud or rarely express themselves as a journalist (47.8%). This finding may suggest that though journalists by and large joined the profession by professional vocation, there should be something wrong with the status of the profession in the society.

**Table 9**

To what extent you feel proud of your current career, for instance to very proudly tell or acquaint your job to others?

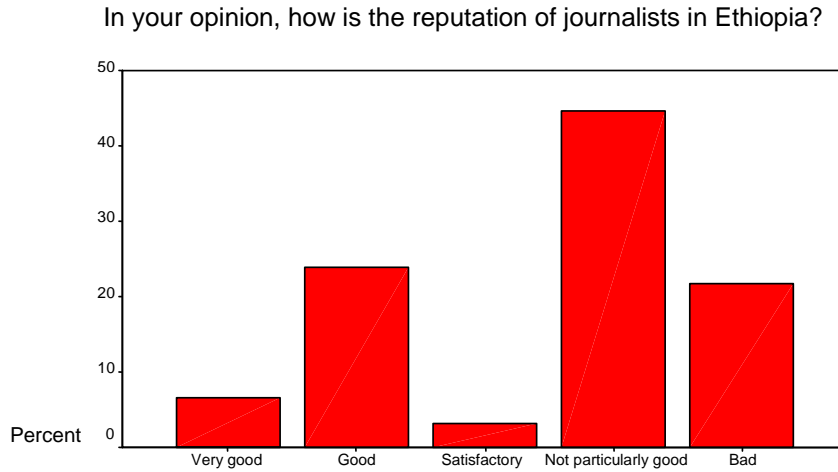
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Absolutely proud	14	15.2	15.2
2	Proud enough	13	14.1	29.3
3	Fairly proud	21	22.8	52.2
4	Rarely express myself	24	26.1	78.3
5	Never tell it	20	21.7	100.0
Tot:		92	100.0	

**Figure 2**



In order to verify, the reason at least from journalists' point of view, another question was provided to journalists in relation to the issue of status of journalism and journalists' reputation in the society. According to respondents' perception, the reputation of journalists is not good, as responded by 44.6 percent, and is bad, as responded by 21.7%, which make up a cumulative of 66.3 percent of the respondents (figure 3).

Figure 3



#### 4. 1. 3. 3. Commitment and Mobility

Journalists were asked if they have a plan to stay in journalism profession. As shown in the frequency table 10 below with 34.8 percent responded *not decided*, the majority 43.5 percent responded positive, which may suggest that whether the occupation has been perceived as a career of lower status, many journalists had a deep-rooted interest and commitment to serve in the profession.

Table10

**Do you have a plan to stay in your current profession?**

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Yes	40	43.5	43.5
2	No	20	21.7	65.2
3	Not decided	32	34.8	100.0
Total		92	100.0	

Another related enquiry was journalists’ participation in professional association. The data clearly indicated that journalists’ participation in professional

association is rarely observed; only a few of them participate in professional associations. The majority 67.4 percent never participate in journalists' professional association.

**Table 11**

**How do you rate your participation in journalists' professional associations?**

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	I always participate	1	1.1	1.1
2	I frequently participate	6	6.5	7.6
3	I sometimes participate	7	7.6	15.2
4	I rarely participate	16	17.4	32.6
5	I never participate	62	67.4	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

Participation in professional association is one of the predictors of professionalism, and for this particular study the levels of participation of some group variables were considered by splitting the data file in to group variables such as gender and type of employer organization to see the group variation in their level of participation. Accordingly, as shown in table 12, it was learnt that the variation of the levels of participation of government journalists (67.1%) and private journalists (69.2%) seemed insignificant.

However, the data indicated that government employed journalists were found to be more participants than private journalists – a difference of 2.1 percent.

**Table 12** Level of participation in professional association by type of employer org. group

Employing organization			Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 Government owned	Valid	5 I never participate	53	67.1	67.1
		4 I rarely participate	13	16.5	83.5
		3 I sometimes participate	7	8.9	92.4
		2 I frequently participate	5	6.3	98.7
		1 I always participate	1	1.3	100.0
		Total	79	100.0	
2 Privately owned	Valid	5 I never participate	9	69.2	69.2
		4 I rarely participate	3	23.1	92.3
		3 I sometimes participate			
		2 I frequently participate	1	7.7	100.0
		1 I always participate			
		Total	13	100.0	

As regards, the gender difference in the level of participation in professional association, as indicated in table 13 below, the level of participation of male journalists (70.4%, never participate) less than the level of participation of female journalists (57.1%, never participate). To clearly show, 42.9 percent of female journalists participate in professional association though the frequency of their participation varies. However, male journalists of 29.6 percent participate in professional association with varied frequency. This analysis seems to suggest that female journalists for some reason were stronger than male journalists in terms of membership and professional identification. The findings may reinforce that the professional association for women journalists played a role to increase females' participation.

**Table 13 Level of participation in professional association by gender group**

Gender				Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	
1	Female	Valid	5	I never participate	12	57.1	57.1
			4	I rarely participate	3	14.3	71.4
			3	I sometimes participate	2	9.5	81.0
			2	I frequently participate	4	19.0	100.0
			1	I always participate	0	0	100
			Total		21	100.0	
2	Male	Valid	5	I never participate	50	70.4	70.4
			4	I rarely participate	13	18.3	88.7
			3	I sometimes participate	5	7.0	95.8
			2	I frequently participate	2	2.8	98.6
			1	I always participate	1	1.4	100.0
			Total		71	100.0	

#### 4. 1. 3. 4. Licensing and Accreditation

As regards the importance to accrediting journalism education, and the need to licensing the professionals, one question was raised to respondents. The response from the majority (70.7%) favored the importance of accreditation to journalism educators and the need to give licenses to professionals before getting into the actual practice of journalism.

**Table 14**

**Do you agree if journalism is accessed by only the licensing & accreditation of its education?**

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Yes	65	70.7	70.7
2	No	27	29.3	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	

#### 4. 1. 3. 5. Perception of the Role of Mass Media

Modeled after Weaver (1998) and Ramaprasad (2002) a comprehensive items of about 18 journalistic functions were provided in the form of scale to be rated by

respondents. The scale ranges from 5 for 'very important', 4 'important', 3 'fairly important', 2 'less important' to 1 for 'not very important'.

The 18 batteries provided on the scale represent the mass media roles or functions such as information dissemination, development function, adversarial function, entertainment and cultural function, and interpretative function. Respondents rated their individual perception of what the mass media should play as a role or what role should they play as journalists. The analysis of the response depicted (table 15) that respondents rated *create national consensus (4.59)*, *get information to the public quickly (4.58)*, *develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public (4.53)*, and *give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs (4.50)* as very important roles.

While the item *endorse government policies without any question* scored less mean value (2.66), the remaining items scored mean values that indicate the importance of each of the journalistic role items listed in the scale. The analysis at this stage seemed to suggest that the perception of Ethiopian journalists as what role the mass media should play in Ethiopian context shows that Ethiopian journalists' oriented towards the Multi - role category.

**Table 15**

How do you perceive the level of importance of the following journalistic roles in Ethiopia?

Perceived importance of media role (n=92)		mean n=92	Level of Importance				
No	Roles		Very important (%)	Important (%)	Fairly Important (%)	Not important (%)	Not very important (%)
1.	Mobilize & politicize masses to enhance economic development	<b>4.09</b>	52.2	21.7	12.0	10.9	3.3
2.	Endorse government policies without any question	<b>2.66</b>	7.6	15.2	28.3	33.7	15.2
3.	Create national consensus	<b>4.59</b>	71.7	17.4	8.7	1.1	2.2
4.	Discuss development issues regularly	<b>4.27</b>	47.8	37.0	10.9	3.3	1.1
5.	Discuss national policy while it is being developed	<b>4.27</b>	45.7	41.3	8.7	3.3	1.1
6.	Criticize official agencies of the government when needed	<b>4.41</b>	58.7	23.9	12.0	4.3	1.1
7.	Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions	<b>4.05</b>	34.8	44.6	14.1	4.3	2.2
8.	Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions	<b>4.05</b>	39.1	33.7	20.7	6.5	-
9.	Get information to the public quickly	<b>4.58</b>	71.7	17.4	8.7	1.1	1.1
10.	Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified	<b>4.29</b>	63.0	16.3	12.0	4.3	4.3
11.	Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need	<b>4.35</b>	58.7	23.9	12.0	4.3	1.1
12.	Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues	<b>4.42</b>	63.0	22.8	8.7	4.3	1.1
13.	Investigate claims and statements made by governments	<b>4.23</b>	43.5	42.4	9.8	2.2	2.2
14.	Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs	<b>4.50</b>	67.4	22.8	4.3	3.3	2.2
15.	Be an advocate of the underdogs	<b>3.98</b>	45.7	21.7	23.9	3.3	5.4
16.	Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience	<b>4.22</b>	53.3	26.1	13.0	4.3	3.3
17.	Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public	<b>4.53</b>	60.9	32.6	5.4	1.1	-
18.	Provide entertainment and relaxation	<b>4.23</b>	43.5	42.4	9.8	3.3	1.1

In addition, to see group variation in terms of their role perception, a further analysis was made using gender group (between male & female), employer group (between government & private) respondents as independent factors. To process this statistical measurement the mean value of every role item was compared for every group of the independent variables. And measure of association (eta & eta squared) techniques of statistical applications were applied to analyze the between groups difference and measure of association and the magnitude of effects of the dependent variables. Table 16 summarizes the mean value comparison and measure of association. The detailed out put generated by SPSS is annexed in the appendix section (Appendix V). Eta ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating no association between the variables and values close to 1 indicating a high degree of association.

Eta squared is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by differences among groups. It is the ratio of the between-groups sum of squares and the total sum of squares. The out put showed that according to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) in Pallant (2001: 181) where eta squared become (.01=small effect, .06=moderate effect, .14=large effect).

Accordingly, the gender variable has no effect on role perception except on role items *be an advocate for the underdogs* and *create national consensus*, which registered a moderate effect **.102** and **.069** respectively.

**Table 16****Variation of role perception with gender and type of employer organization groups**

No.	Roles	Gender				Employer			
		Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>	Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>
		Female (n=21)	Male n=71			Government (n=79)	Private (n=13)		
	<b>Development function</b>								
1.	Mobilize & politicize masses to enhance economic development	3.81	4.17	.129	<b>.017</b>	4.33	2.62	.512	<b>.262</b>
2.	Endorse government policies without any question	2.67	2.66	.002	.000	2.77	2.00	.237	<b>.056</b>
3.	Create national consensus	4.19	4.70	<b>.262</b>	<b>.069</b>	4.58	4.62	.014	.000
4.	Discuss development issues regularly	4.48	4.21	.129	<b>.017</b>	4.29	4.15	.056	.003
5.	Discuss national policy while it is still being developed	4.48	4.21	.133	<b>.018</b>	4.23	4.54	.130	<b>.017</b>
	<b>Adversarial function</b>								
6.	Criticize official agencies of the government when needed	4.43	4.41	.010	.000	4.37	4.69	.138	<b>.019</b>
7.	Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions	4.05	4.06	.004	.000	4.01	4.05	.111	<b>.012</b>
8.	Investigate claims and statements made by governments	4.29	4.21	.036	.001	4.13	4.85	<b>.287</b>	<b>.082</b>
9.	Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions	3.90	4.10	.088	.008	3.92	4.85	<b>.347</b>	<b>.121</b>
	<b>Information dissemination function</b>								
10.	Get information to the public quickly	4.48	4.61	.069	.005	4.59	4.46	.059	.004
11.	Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified	4.43	4.25	.066	.004	4.24	4.62	.118	<b>.014</b>
12.	Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need	4.33	4.35	.009	.000	4.28	4.77	.185	<b>.034</b>
	<b>Interpretative function</b>								
13.	Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues	4.43	4.42	.003	.000	4.47	4.15	.122	<b>.015</b>
	<b>Public advocate</b>								
14.	Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs	4.33	4.55	.102	.010	4.51	4.46	.018	.000
15.	Be an advocate of the underdogs	3.29	4.18	<b>.319</b>	<b>.102</b>	3.91	4.38	.140	<b>.020</b>
16.	Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience	4.19	4.23	.014	.000	4.20	4.31	.035	.001
	<b>Cultural and entertainment function</b>								
17.	Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public	4.52	4.54	.007	.000	4.57	4.31	.140	<b>.020</b>
18.	Provide entertainment and relaxation	4.19	4.24	.025	.001	4.23	4.23	.001	.000

On the other hand, role items such as *discuss national policy while it is still being developed (.018)*, *discuss development issues regularly (.017)*, and *mobilize & politicize masses to enhance economic development (.017)* has small effects. The rest of the items as exhibited on the  $\eta^2$  column of table 16, have no association with gender characteristics of the respondents. Hence, the analyzed data seems to suggest that gender difference had no major impact on the role perception of media functions or the role of journalists.

As regards the type of employer organization group variable, the same procedure was applied to see whether there exist a role perception difference between government-employed journalists and privately employed journalists. As depicted in same table 16, one role function scored a value of large effect on the employer groups. Accordingly, *mobilize & politicize masses to enhance economic development* as a role of mass media is perceived as very important by government-employed journalists than for private journalists in comparison.  $\eta^2$  has a value greater than .14, and according to Cohen's guidelines this value shows a large effect, and the magnitude of the differences in the mean values was very large, which is **.262**. The magnitude of the difference on the other roles such as *be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions (.121)*, *investigate claims and statements made by governments (.082)* brought a little bit more than moderate effect. The remaining role items have less magnitude in terms of their effect size.

The variation analysis result may suggest that government journalists' favor development role than private journalists; and on the other hand, private journalists favor adversarial role than government journalists.

#### **4. 1. 3. 6. Ethics Orientation**

Ethics and the consideration of professional guidelines in practicing journalism are taken as a core element of professional journalism. For the purpose of this study some scale items were provided for respondents, which was modeled after Weaver (1998), to scale the justification of some of the unethical approaches of gathering and presenting journalistic out puts.

As shown in table 17, the mean values of all of the items were greatly inclined to *unjustifiable*, except for issues such as *acting as some body else (1.52)* and *paying for confidential information (1.49)*, which were leaned to a scale value *depends on circumstances*. The out put, therefore, suggests that journalists respect their professional values and they are aware of the universal ethical standards.

With regard to group variation of their perception of ethical practices, the comparison of mean values and the *eta* squared measure of association of all items were considered. The mean table and *eta* measure of association is given in the appendices (Appendix VI). The statistical analysis depicted that the

magnitude of the effects of the gender group was found insignificant for every item in the table.

**Table 17**

It is often very difficult for journalists to obtain important information for their reporting roles. Therefore, journalists apply unusual methods of gathering information. Please, tell me for each of the following methods, your position in justifying it.

No.	Methods of Obtaining Information	Mean (n=92)	Gender				Employer			
			Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>	Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>
			Female (n=21)	Male (n=71)			Government (n=79)	Private (n=13)		
1.	Unauthorized use of confidential government document	1.45	1.38	1.46	.065	.004	1.44	1.46	.012	.000
2.	Getting employed in an organization to gain inside information	1.29	1.43	1.25	.147	.022	1.27	1.46	.136	.019
3.	Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence	1.40	1.57	1.35	.147	.022	1.41	1.38	.011	.000
4.	Paying people for confidential information	1.48	1.52	1.46	.040	.002	1.49	1.38	.062	.004
5.	Claiming/ acting to be somebody else	1.52	1.62	1.49	.076	.006	1.54	1.38	.080	.006
6.	Using hidden microphone or camera	1.47	1.52	1.45	.050	.002	1.48	1.38	.055	.003
7.	Forcing unwilling informants to get information	1.10	1.19	1.07	.170	.029	1.08	1.23	.182	.033
8.	Making use of private documents with out permission	1.21	1.29	1.18	.095	.009	1.16	1.46	.227	.052
9.	Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source	1.12	1.10	1.13	.037	.001	1.08	1.38	.302	.091
10.	Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims	1.27	1.43	1.23	.149	.022	1.27	1.31	.025	.001
11.	Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources	1.10	1.14	1.08	.082	.007	1.08	1.23	.182	.033

High mean value means high score that leans to justifiable: the scale level ranges from 3=justifiable, 2=depends on circumstances, 1=unjustifiable

Similar feature was observed in the analysis of group difference of the type of employer organization. However, one item has brought a moderate effect to the group difference between privately employed and government employed journalists that the responses of government journalists on *Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source* ( $\eta^2=.091$ ) leaned to ward the unjustifiable scale value than the responses given by privately employed journalists. Other wise, there is no significant difference in perceiving ethical issues among different groups.

#### **4. 1. 3. 7. Job Aspects**

Respondents were also provided with scale items of about 10 aspects of their job environment to rate as to which of the aspects are more important for their journalistic service or duty. While some of the aspects reflected the material needs of journalists, the others gave attention to elements that are required to their professional service. This part of the questionnaire was intended to see for which of the aspects journalists give more value. In the following table 18, the mean values of each aspect is presented and then further analysis on same table follows to see whether gender and type of employer organization has an effect on the perception of job aspects by using *eta squared* and comparison of mean values for each independent group of respondents. As indicated in the table below, respondents rated *the amount of autonomy, chance to develop specialty, job*

security and salary as *very important* aspects of their job, when analyzed item by item.

**Table 18**

Which one of the followings of your job aspects do you perceive are most important?

No.	Job Aspects	Mean (n=92)	Gender				Employer			
			Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>	Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>
			Female (n=21)	Male (n=71)			Government (n=79)	Private (n=13)		
	<b>Public service/professional aspects</b>	<b>21.83</b>								
1.	The Amount of Autonomy	4.83	4.90	4.80	.066	.004	4.85	4.69	.083	.007
2.	Chance to help people	4.01	4.10	3.99	.047	.002	3.99	4.15	.059	.003
3.	Editorial Polices of the organization	4.30	4.38	4.28	.040	.002	4.37	3.92	.149	.022
4.	Freedom from supervision	3.92	4.14	3.86	.101	.010	3.94	3.85	.027	.001
5.	Chance to develop Specialty	4.76	4.71	4.77	.040	.002	4.77	4.69	.044	.002
	<b>Material/hygienic aspects</b>	<b>20.57</b>								
6.	Fringe benefits	3.86	3.76	3.89	.042	.002	3.90	3.62	.080	.006
7.	Salary	4.52	4.62	4.49	.083	.007	4.51	4.62	.060	.004
8.	Job security	4.57	4.62	4.55	.036	.001	4.57	4.54	.013	.000
9.	Chance to get a head in the organization	4.24	4.38	4.20	.093	.009	4.30	3.85	.193	.037
10.	Chance to be honored prestige	3.38	3.57	3.32	.087	.008	3.39	3.31	.025	.001

Note: high mean shows greater importance since the scale ranges from 5=very important to 1=not very important

The rest of the items were scored as *important* and *fairly important* scores. Because job aspects scored the mean value nearer to the *very important* scale were belonged to different categories such as to material aspect and to the professional aspects, a further recoding and computation of aspects was necessary to compare

these two major aspects in the journalistic job environment. Hence, the following computation was processed to give a meaningful interpretation. As could be seen in table 16, mean value for the public service (**21.83**) or what most often is called the professional aspect is slightly greater than the mean value of material aspects (**20.57**) of the job. Therefore, this out put may suggest that journalists favor professional aspects of the job than material aspects of the job, though minimum difference existed between the two general aspects of job environment.

In the above same table, mean values of the perception of respondents were computed by taking gender and type of employer organization as factors. The statistical out put generated by SPSS exhibited that the magnitude of the effect on the independent group was insignificant for both gender and type of employer organization groups. For instance, only one aspect of the job, *freedom of supervision*, was rated more by females than male respondents, and still the difference in score is not significant and the effect size on gender difference is very small,  $\eta^2$  (.010) according to the guidelines of Cohen. Similarly, the need of *organization's editorial policy*  $\eta^2$  (.022), and government journalists rated job aspect, *chance to get ahead in the organization*  $\eta^2$  (.037), as more important than private journalists. But the generated difference is still small in its effect. The eta measurement of association for both independent variables could not satisfy the guidelines provided by Cohen. Hence, this would seem to imply that the perception of journalists as to which aspects of their job is more important is

similar among various group variables of gender and the type of employer organization. (See Appendix VII for detail statistics)

#### **4. 1. 3. 8. Journalists' Image of their Audience**

Journalists' image of their audience is one of the predictors of professionalism in journalism (Weaver, 1998). The perception of journalists toward their audiences is believed to influence them on their decision of what to select and what to report together with how to report an issue. More importantly, journalists' image of their audiences may urge journalists to play a particular role in presenting the report. Accordingly, based on their level of perception of their audiences, journalists may play the role of advocacy, or neutrality or multi-role in treating their reports. Based on this assumption, in the survey about 8 items were listed for respondents to rate their level of agreement of which of the items best characterize their audience. The following table (table 19) puts the analysis of the statistical output.

The output in the table 19 displayed that none of the items in the scale gained the score that leans to 'strongly agree'. Only two of the items such as *interested in politics and social problems (3.93)* and *interested in breaking news (3.75)* nearly scored the mean value that leans to 'agree'. The rest of the items were scored the mean values slightly nearer or slightly greater than the 'fairly agree' scale value. Hence, this result seemed to give a hint that the image of respondents towards their

audience is not deviating from favorable attitude. That means the data couldn't satisfy the assumptions of some researchers that journalists look down up on their audience. Rather journalists showed favorable image of their audience.

Regarding, the group variation in terms of the perception of their audience, it could be learnt from measures of association and the mean values that there is no significant difference between all groups in the fixed factors (female vs. male and private vs. government journalists) in how they perceive their audience. (Appendix VIII contains a detailed statistical out put generated by SPSS on the mean values and eta measures of association).

**Table 19**

Which one of the followings best characterize your audience?

No.	Characteristic of the audience	Mean (n=92)	Gender				Employer			
			Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>	Mean		eta	eta <sup>2</sup>
			Femal e n=21	Male n=71			Gover nment n=79	Privat e n=13		
1.	Interested in breaking news	3.75	4.10	3.65	.160	.025	3.73	3.85	.033	.001
2.	Interested in politics and social problems	3.93	4.10	3.89	.087	.007	3.95	3.85	.036	.001
3.	Easily deceived	2.55	2.52	2.56	.015	.000	2.51	2.85	.110	.012
4.	Ignorant	2.21	2.24	2.20	.017	.000	2.23	2.08	.052	.003
5.	Well informed	2.50	2.52	2.49	.012	.000	2.57	2.08	.165	.027
6.	Interested in edutainment	3.58	3.71	3.54	.068	.005	3.59	3.46	.042	.002
7.	Open-minded	3.20	3.10	3.23	.056	.003	3.27	2.77	.176	.031
8.	Critical	2.87	2.71	2.92	.075	.006	2.86	2.92	.019	.000

Note: High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=fairly agree, 2= disagree, 1=strongly disagree

As can be studied from the data, only some of the items in the list such as *interested in breaking news*  $\eta^2 (.025)$  showed small effect on between gender association, and only *well informed*  $\eta^2 (.027)$  and *open minded*  $\eta^2 (.031)$  revealed a small effect on the perception difference between private and government journalists.

In general, within and between group variation and association of scale items of journalists' image of their audience in relation to independent variables, such as gender and employer organization revealed no significant difference of perception.

## **4. 2. Qualitative Data**

The in-depth interview was conducted with 10 informants of different demographic profiles. Journalists were selected as Informants\* to give an in-depth reflection based on their age, gender, employer, education and experiences. Accordingly, some of the informants have long experience in journalism while others not. Some were qualified with journalism education and others with other fields of study. Among the informants, 2 of them are female while the rest are male journalists; and two informants are working in private

\* The profile of informants is attached in the appendix section & the transcription and audio records of their interview is available at the researcher's personal achieve.

mass media organization while the rest are employees at government mass media organizations.

A semi-structured interview questions was used to gather the perception of informants based on the objectives of the study. Interviewees were asked on the areas the researcher believed the survey questionnaire could not address the objective and the basic research questions in - depth.

The qualitative data presentation focused on some questions that require open explanation of the interviewee, and some irrelevant and too much details of information was discarded.

#### **4. 2. 1. Views of Informants on Professional Journalism**

All of the interviewees, except one, believed that like any of the profession, journalism is also a profession. The informant that said journalism is a craft, believed that any talented can do it in a better way. He justified his position as follows.

Journalism is not a profession, and so is the journalist. A journalist follows after event to report what has happened by referring or attributing to some sources. On the other way round, a journalist uses others, and is able to exploit knowledge and experience of others to transmit his report. This is the daily routine that he/she is expected to discharge. This is a very easy task, which any body can perform with out having special knowledge. For instance, my educational background is mathematics and I have worked as a journalist for about 10 years with out any training (Informant VI, 27 May 2006).

To the contrary, others critically argued that journalism is a profession. In contrast to the argument by Informant VI, they said it cannot be exercised by any passer-by. As one of the informants exclaimed, the need of professionalism for a journalist can be proved through experiment.

You can test by comparing one qualified young man with some one whom you think has a talent and quality to do journalism. Then, just you can send them to a certain similar event for reporting. After that, any neutral person can evaluate the out put of both individuals. I believe that only the person with journalism background can meet the requirement to produce an accepted news report. Do not think that journalist as a singer whose vocal aesthetics bestow him for the world of music (Informant I, 23 May 2006).

Other informants took almost similar position, and each of them gave their own explanation as to how and why journalism becomes a profession. As one of the informants said, with some of its problems in the Ethiopian context, the true service of journalism makes it a noble profession. For instance, Informant-II compared journalism with other professions like engineering for the claim that journalism did not possess the status of profession because it does not have any esoteric knowledge and any theoretical knowledge specific to journalism.

I don't accept this way of defining profession. Even, if you take such definition let us compare it with Civil engineering. It is the combination of mathematics, physics, chemistry and others. But, it is a field, which the society need and respect. The same is true for journalism; it is a profession of service to the mass society (Informant II, 24May 2006).

Others argued on the point of client and professional relationship that journalism is purely a profession serving the mass audience, heterogeneous and anonymous in its characteristics.

From the very fact that information is important to the public, the audience relies on the information, which is disseminated by mass media every day, every hour, every minute. I can reflect one recent instance that may convince us that media has a big audience. It is about the avian flue. After the information was released from different media out lets that the disease was seen in Ethiopia, every body refrained from buying eggs and chickens even for the Easter holiday. This incident may show us that mass media, not only possess many clients, but also the impact is big. Therefore, like professions of medicine and law which possess clients that obey the professionals' prescription, journalists also have many anonymous clients that obey the information provided by professional journalists (Informant-V, 25 May 2006).

Informants have also related the professionalism of journalism with their practical excellence, the need of education and its service to the public. Hence, the over all response seemed to suggest that the views of informants favor the point that journalism should be labeled as a profession from its normative and cognitive dimension.

#### **4. 2. 2. Attitude toward Journalism Education**

Except two of the informants, all agreed to the need of formal education at tertiary level for better performance and professional excellence in the career. Interestingly, those who have positive attitude to journalism education attended school of journalism after they had joined the profession and served for some years. One of the informants, for example, said formal education helps all who aspire to be professional journalist including those who joined it geared by their talent. He added:

For instance, a naturally gifted vocalist can develop how to match his voice with the orchestra if he attends the school of musical art, so do the journalist. In our case, we have been doing journalism in traditional way

till recently. Like, the *Warie Negari* (the informal announcer of news). As you know, other professions are changing. The traditional medical service has been changed to modern medicine. But, our journalism is still at its infancy due to lack of formal education. We know that the status and quality of our journalism now a days. The service is poor; it lacks professional treatment in every aspect. I think some of the problems are direct reflection of lack of professional education in journalism (Informant X, 28 May 2006).

Journalism education plays a significant role to enhance the quality service delivery, as Informant II said. He added that given a favorable environment, only the educated journalists can render professional service to the public. But, currently he is enrolled into post graduate program to study history. Why did he do that?

I thought I could exercise journalistic duty freely, whether in government or in private mass media organizations. I studied television journalism at Diploma level and my ambition was to continue journalism education at post graduate level assuming that, I freely exercise my career to the best of the public's and my satisfaction. But, in reality what has been emerging and the experience is different. That is why; I decided to shift my education and the profession itself. However, I believe that keeping other requirements in mind, journalism education is the best lead to the profession (Informant II, 24 May 2006).

Two of the informants, however, believed that attending journalism school is like wasting time, because one can informally learn while doing the job itself.

In general, the response forwarded by informants seems to lead to the consensus that journalism education has no alternative than to obey. They perceived that the sense of modern journalism goes with the notion of journalism education.

### **4. 2. 3. Participation in Journalists' Professional Associations**

Currently, none of the informants were participating in Professional Associations. Among the informants, only two of them used to participate in one of the professional associations. Informants gave various reasons like "I feel that both associations act as political organizations, not professional associations" (Informant I). "Leaders of the associations strived to meet their personal gain and were found advocating their individual motives than to protect the rights of the members and to promote professionalism among the members" (Informant III, 24 May 2006).

While informants believed in the necessity of strong professional association that promote for the development of the profession and protect the rights of the professionals, they were frustrated in the absence of association that could fulfill their interest.

### **4. 2. 4. Journalists' Motivation**

About 3 leading questions were raised to the informants in order to provoke them give explanation on how and why they joined the profession. In addition, they were asked if they had a will to motivate others, including their own children, to choose the profession as their future career.

Surprisingly, except three of the informants all joined the profession by chance, no matter what interest they have at their childhood. From three of the informants two of them were urged to join the profession by government after their graduation from Agricultural College. However, as they said even though they joined it with out having an interest, as they developed the experience, so did their interest. One of the informants, however, joined the profession because he wanted to shift his work place from rural village to the capital city, Addis Ababa.

The rest of the informants put various anecdotes as to how and why they joined the profession. Some of them said, because they love writing, others said due to identification to the older pioneer journalists. Still some others said, because they wanted to expose bureaucratic evils, to educate the poor, to promote development. Some of the informants joined the profession by chance, but they had the innate interest. Others joined the profession after rigorous competition to be employed as a journalist, even from literature and language, teacher and other educational backgrounds.

As regards to motivating others and/or own child to join the profession, informants responded differently. While two of the informants showed their agreement to directly push others to join the profession, the rest put various reasons for not doing this. One of the reasons is the need to give freedom for

their child to choose by own interest. Others said that they will tell that journalism is a worth profession than explicitly push them to choose it.

Only one respondent who opposed the need to motivate others including own child to choose as their future career.

I myself have been searching the way to leave journalism. It is worth the value of a daily laborer. The payment and the status of the job in the society are discouraging. You don't have freedom within your organization and outside the organization to report the truth. As a journalist, you are living being discriminated by government as well by the society. I hate it, and sooner or later I will leave it. I don't motivate others; rather I will tell them that it is worthless (Informant VI, 27 May 2006).

Regarding the level of their pride for being a journalist, only 3 of them showed reluctance while others said that they are proud enough to praise the nobility of the profession wherever they go. One of the informants said even he identifies his profession prior to his name on a first date.

The responses provided by informants seem to imply that the level of motivation of journalists is different due to various reasons.

#### **4. 2. 5. Journalists' Self - Image**

Informants were asked to tell their perception of how the society labels the status of the career and its professionals. In this regard, some of the informants responded by segmenting the society in to two - those who respect and give

similar status with other professions and those who looks down the profession and its professionals.

The rest of the informants told their frustration of how they are labeled by the society.

The society looks down upon the profession because it couldn't render the service that the society expects. I think journalists should not be blamed for this. They are working under pressure. They do not have complete freedom in order to exercise their professional duty (Informant XII, 29 May 2006).

Another informant said that she was denied to get a house to rent because she unveiled her profession.

Due to lack of proper orientation about the role of journalism and journalists some people perceive journalists as *warienga* (*informal announcer, who backbites*). Let me tell you one instance. Once I wanted to rent a house for living, and I approached the woman who lets the house. She asked me of my job and I told her that my profession is journalism. She didn't let me to rent the house. She disregarded me because she hates and undermines the profession (Informant VIII, 27 May 2006).

Similarly, as one of the informants claimed there is a tendency to immediately dichotomize journalists either in to government advocates or sympathizers of opposing political parties. In general, the qualitative data seemed to indicate that the Ethiopian audience has no positive attitude toward the works of Ethiopian journalists from the point view of journalists.

#### **4. 2. 6. Accreditation and Licensing**

Surprisingly, only one informant disagreed with the idea of accrediting and licensing journalism. He gave a reason that this action is meant to deny freedom of speech, which is a universal right.

Others agreed if the accreditation and licensing system of journalism would be legalized. They justified it by claiming that freedom of the press is abused by those 'unprofessional' practitioners in the mass media system. They replied that those who do not know about the ethics and responsibility of journalists have been doing many mistakes. Therefore, as they said certain controlling mechanism should be established like that of accrediting and licensing those who wants to join the profession with required credentials, and the education system.

## **Chapter Five**

### **5. Discussion**

In this chapter, the findings from quantitative and qualitative analysis in the previous chapter are discussed based on the established objectives of this study. Accordingly, the discussion focuses on the demographic profile of journalists, role perception of journalists, journalists' perception of journalism as a profession, journalists' image of their audience, for which aspect of their job they give priority, and the ethical practices of journalists. In addition, this chapter discusses the professional role orientation of male and female, as well as private and government employed journalists. The discussion concentrates on the major components of the findings. The student researcher assumes that the discussion of the findings will lead to the conclusion of the study.

#### **5. 1. Background and Characteristics of Journalists**

##### **5. 1. 1. Gender**

The findings of this study showed that men (77.2%) were more typical than women (22.8%) in Ethiopian mass media organizations. The proportion of female to male journalists is about one – third. Male journalists dominate over female journalists significantly in every type of mass media organization. It seems clear; therefore, that Ethiopian journalism is male dominated.

The current proportion of women journalists in Ethiopia, which is 22.8 percent, is almost equal to the number of women journalists of America in 1971, which was about 20 percent, and increased to 34 percent in 1992, (Weaver and Wilhoit, 1992 quoted in Shoemaker and Reese, 1996: 66). The current number of female journalists in Ethiopia cannot go with the figure of American female journalists, which existed before 15 years. While the number seems discouraging, the reason might be attached to the socio-cultural history of the environment and the level of development of the country in general.

### **5. 1. 2. Age and Experience**

As was analyzed in the last chapter, 79.3 percent of respondents were found in the age range below 40 years, with the majority (54.3%) in the age range 30 – 40 years. Respondents with older age do not exceed 20 percent of all. Therefore, this data may seem to reveal that journalism is a career of youngsters than the elderly. The range of experiences of respondents by and large was less than 10 years; and this may reinforce the argument that journalism in Ethiopia is a place for young practitioners, who later give up it for another alternative job. This may be attributed partly to the sudden increase in media organizations after the proclamation freedom of press in the country.

This finding also seems to suggest that the career is a home for mobile individual personnel. Weaver (2005: 47) argued that in most parts of the world, many young

journalists join the profession to earn some experience before leaving for more well-paid and stable jobs in other fields, like public relations. The mobility of journalists possibly indicates that due to some material or professional reasons, practitioners lost interest and satisfaction from the career. The study conducted on job satisfaction of government journalists in Ethiopia in 2005 revealed that the majority of journalists were not satisfied that led to greater turn over and attrition of journalists (Amanuel, 2005 thesis project). The dissatisfaction of journalists might be associated not only with material benefits, but also with the professional aspects. The low status of the profession together with some external influences is also likely to be a factor driving dissatisfaction.

### **5. 1. 3. Type of Mass Media and Employer**

About 40 percent of Ethiopian journalists worked in print medium, while 56.5 percent were in broadcasting and 7.6 percent in news agency. Despite the increment of the number of private news media organizations, 85.9 percent of the respondents worked for government-owned mass media, only 14.1 percent who worked for private newspapers.

The fact that private media existed in a volatile situation and the institutional weakness in terms of resources, the number of journalists working in private newspapers may have been decreased by significant number. It was claimed that some of the private newspapers in Ethiopia are a one man band due to

resource constraints (Shimalis, 2000). On the other hand, right after the May 2005 election crisis, some of the private print media organizations were faced prior restraint orders from the government and their editors were prosecuted; and a number of other private media also stopped publishing with unknown reason (Henok Semaegzer, 2006: *The Reporter*, online). The conflict existed between government and private organizations of journalism and journalists may reflect the transitional period features, which have a great impact on impairing the sustainable development of freedom of speech and the democratization process in the country. And, it also intensifies the hostility that may eventually shape the views of private journalists.

## **5. 2. Educational Background and Journalism Education**

### **5. 2. 1. Qualification**

The findings on the educational qualification of respondents may tell that mass media organizations were greatly staffed by journalists from language and literature background. The finding may also reveal the status of journalism education organizations in Ethiopia. Tertiary education in journalism has only a decade's history in Ethiopia. Journalism training at diploma level was started in 1998 by the Ethiopian Mass Media Training Institute, and currently it was commenced at graduate level. Therefore, number of qualified journalists became

lesser than those of language and literature due to the absence of educational institutions of journalism.

### **5. 2. 2. Journalism and Education**

From the quantitative data analysis, the majority of respondents (87 %) thought that journalists should have journalism education to better perform in their career. Similarly, informants in the qualitative survey reiterated the need to be qualified in journalism. Only few respondents and informants who said journalism education is not important, saying “it is like a waste of time”. According to one informant in the qualitative survey, “journalism can be done by any one from a non- journalism educational background”. There were also some journalists who favored others fields of study than journalism education in their current attendance of continuing educational program, and this may suggest that those who went to other fields of study either don’t believe in the importance of journalism education or they have a plan to leave the career later after being qualified in the area of their interest.

However, some scholars argued that those who disregard journalism education most often do not have journalism education and they may know little about modern journalism and mass communication (Lowenstein & Merrill, 1990: 110).

However, the survey result revealed that the majority of respondents believed in the importance of journalism education. This appears to suggest that, compared

to their counterparts in the western countries such as Britain; Ethiopian journalists place a lot of importance on journalism education in what ever status may be the educational organizations existing (Weaver, 2005: 47). In other words, though journalism education was a late phenomenon in Ethiopia, unlike in the west, Ethiopian journalists perceived the importance of journalism education. This in turn may suggest another point that Ethiopian journalists assumed the need to be educated to develop professional excellence in journalism.

### **5. 3. Career Background and Motivation**

While a few of them directly joined the occupation after schooling, the majority of respondents stated that they joined the occupation from various other occupations. The list of their former job consisted of teaching, theatre, agriculture, management, secretary, translation, accounting, marketing and nursing in decreasing order of number. These seem to indicate that unlike other professions, journalism is a career where some one easily gets in to. Shoemaker & Reese (1996: 71) quoted Weaver & Wilhoit (1991) that “[b]ecause most people think that they can write (whether they can or not), they often think that they would make journalists. The result is that a lot of people try journalism as a first career and then move on to something else.”

Informants in the qualitative survey also told that some of them joined journalism by vocation and others by chance, they also revealed for what reasons

they joined the profession as love for writing, identifying with pioneer journalists, investigating bureaucratic evils, promoting development, and educating the public.

When journalists were asked whether they would like their sons or daughters or push them or their relatives to become journalists, only 29.3 percent said, yes. The rest of the respondents (70.7%) in the quantitative survey and all informants in the qualitative survey said, no. In this regard, their justifications relate to either the status of the career in the society or the need to give chance to personal decision. Accordingly, they referenced constraints in the profession that lack of freedom and poor status of the job. The other reason attached to give a freedom of self-choice of own career. In a related topic, the majority of respondents were not interested to disclose their career, expressing themselves as journalists in public.

While this finding may point at the need to scrutinize the level of status of the profession empirically, in this regard, majority of respondents perceived that their reputation and the status of journalism in the society are discouraging. Respondents also told why they were disregarded in the society. They reasoned, "Journalism in Ethiopia is not functioning properly", "lack of independence", "political dichotomization" were some of the problems stated by respondents. On the other hand, culturally, the society relates journalists' role to the informal announcer or backbiting. The other problem in relation to low self-image might

be related to the historical role of Ethiopian journalists, which were by and large being the propaganda outlets and information directors of the incumbent governments. In general, the finding appears to suggest that journalists do not have confidence in their career. On the other hand, despite their frustration in terms of their status and reputation in the society, the majority (43.5%) of the respondents had a plan to stay working in journalism. This in turn may show that journalists had a deep-rooted interest to serve in journalism. However, this seems contrary to the discussion that mobility of professionals and turn over of journalists, which showed that the profession is relatively a youngsters' home. But, it should be noted that sometimes perception and reality are incongruent.

#### **5. 4. Professional Association**

Ethiopian journalists rarely participate in professional associations. The majority of respondents in the quantitative survey (67.4%), and all of the informants in the qualitative survey were not members of the Journalists' Associations in Ethiopia. The associations, as was claimed by informants were not functioning properly. Because professional organizations were assumed to play the role of developing professionalism and the role of protecting the profession, the scenario for Ethiopian journalists seemed to miss this opportunity. As a result, it may have affected the process of professionalization of the career and the professionals. Though respondents attributed the failure of organizational duty as their reason for having loose attachment with professional association, another point of

reflection may also need a discussion. This point may relate to the political history of associations in Ethiopia since the Military Government of Ethiopia had legalized the establishment of Socialist/communist system of order in the country. This system favoured the communalism than capitalism, and dictatorial rule than democratic rule in every of its system establishments including in the then 'civic organizations' and 'professional associations'. And, the current attitude of journalists toward professional associations may be related with the hangover of the last system left behind.

The level of participation of journalists in the quantitative survey was analyzed to see the difference among some groups. Though the difference seems too small government journalists' participated more than private journalists; and female journalists were found to be more participants than male journalists. While the group variation between government journalists and private journalists may appear as vague, the group variation by gender has something to do with the professional association patterns. The establishment of gender based professional association by women in Ethiopia may have influenced the number of female membership to increase. It is claimed that Ethiopian Media Women Association is stronger than other associations in terms of providing training and professional career development to its female members. However, it was learnt that this association has a double duty – promoting professionalism on the one hand, and promoting gender equality and rights on the other hand.

## **5. 5. Accreditation and Licensing**

The majority in the study (70.7%) showed greatest interest in the accreditation of journalism educators and the need of a licensing procedure of practitioners. Some argued that the licensing of professionals may lead to the violation of a universal right, like their counterparts in other countries. But, the majority of Ethiopian journalists favoured the licensing and accreditation procedure vehemently. Some of the informants justified this position by pointing at the problem of some practitioners who found to abuse the freedom of the press and speech in their poor performance of journalism. This idea may raise the level of development of journalism in Ethiopia. Even though it is a century old in Ethiopia, journalism is most often claimed as a poorly serving profession. While the reason can be multi-dimensional, the current attitude of journalists toward its formal accessibility may be attached to the level of development of Ethiopian journalism.

## **5. 6. Professional Values**

In the qualitative survey, informants stated that journalism is a profession. They believed that it gives an invaluable service to the public, and as a result journalism is a noble profession. Even though, no one concluded as to what universal meaning journalism has to possess, nor where it lies along the continuum of craft, art and profession, as some scholars argued the normative

dimension of journalism may give it a status of profession (Singer, 2003: online). Moreover, informants said the fact that the service of journalism is institutionally identified and a common standard of practice is established at least the institutionalized service it renders makes journalism a profession.

### **5. 7. Professional Role Perception**

The study of journalistic role perception gives an indication of what the role orientation of journalists on what to report and how to report news and views. The incomprehensive lists of journalistic role items or batteries were provided for respondents to rate as to which of the items were very important for them. The result depicted that journalistic role items such as *create national consensus*, *get information to the public too quickly*, *develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public*, and *give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs* scored a mean value more than 4.5, which are nearer to a scale value 5 (very important). (See table 15).

While *create national consensus*, reflects the development function, *get information to the public too quickly* tells the information dissemination function. The role item *develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public* reveals the cultural role, and *give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs* mirrors the public advocacy role of the mass media. From this particular analysis, it is possible to estimate that unlike their counterparts in the west, Ethiopian journalists gave

priority to the development, information, and cultural functions, which precede the adversarial and interpretative roles of the media. Here, according to role categorization by Lowenstein (1971), Ethiopian journalists can be grouped in to neutral or reflective at one time and play leadership or directive role at another time. In other words, their role orientation was a mixed type that held neutral and advocacy role ambiguously.

Of course, respondents perceived that except the role item *endorse government policies without any question*, all role items were rated as important including the adversarial and interpretative functions due to the fact that all items scored mean values from 3.98 to 4.41, which are more or less near to the scale value 4 (important). (See table 15).

Combining all, the aggregate result would seem to suggest that Ethiopian journalists' journalistic orientation accepted the middle-area or the multi-role concept of journalistic role. According to Lowenstein (1971) this type of orientation is termed as ambiguous role where journalists assume many roles, none of which really dominates. In this regard, Ethiopian journalists seemed unique unlike their counterparts in the west, where the role and purpose of professionalism is strongly linked with information, interpretation and adversarial roles (Schultz, 1998: 127).

This perception of journalists may have emerged from the context that because Ethiopia is a home for many nationalities and from its public service responsibility that the need to promote unity among diversity in order to create national consensus was given priority. In a related topic, because the country is underdeveloped in many aspects, journalists assumed the responsibility of promoting development, which they also think benefit from the achievements.

### **Group Variation on Role Perception**

The variation of role perception between gender groups had no major impact because the differences registered showed moderate effect.

However, from the variation analysis on the type of employer organization such as private and government journalists, one very significant difference was observed in relation to the role perception of the two groups. Accordingly, the mean value of role item *mobilize and politicize masses to enhance economic development* as rated by private journalists scored 2.62, and this same role item was rated by government employed journalists as 4.33. The measure of association  $\eta^2=.262$ , and this shows that 26.2 percent of role perception that the media should play the role of mobilizing and politicizing masses to enhance development can be explained by the employer type group variables, which has greater effect in terms of magnitude. In this specific case it would seem to suggest that government employed journalists have a tendency to perceive the

development function of the media as very important more than privately employed journalists. This in turn can give a clue that the leadership (advocacy) role predominates in government media journalists than in private media journalists. This view of journalists may be developed from organizational policy and norm. Because the government media prioritize the mobilization and sensitization strategy toward the policies and actions of government, many journalists conceive this role item as very important due to organizational socialization effect.

In the other role items such as *be an adversary of public officials by being constantly sceptical of their actions* ( $\eta^2=.121$ ) and *investigate claims and statements made by government* ( $\eta^2=.081$ ) showed more than a moderate effect that 12.1 percent of the role perception that *the media should be an adversary of the public officials by constantly sceptical of their action*, and 8.1 percent of the role perception that *the media should function as an investigator of claims and statements made by government* can be explained by the type of employer group variables. In this regard, the private journalists rated a mean value of 4.85 that the media should play an adversarial role on public officials where the government employed journalists rated mean value of 3.92 for same role item. Similarly, on the role item investigate claims and statements made by government scored 4.85 mean by private journalists where as 4.13 by government journalists. The statistical output depicted that private journalists perceived the greater importance of the

adversarial role of the media than journalists in government media. Therefore, from this it may be safe to conclude that private journalists more leaned toward the western journalists' notion as to what the role of journalists should be than journalists in the government media. But still the value government journalists attached to more oppositional role registered a little bit more than a scale value 4, which is 'important'. This may show that despite being employed by government, they want to do quite a bit of challenging.

## **5. 8. Ethics Orientation**

Given some ethical issues, respondents asked to rate the three point scale items. These ethical issues were used to study the ethics orientation of Ethiopian journalists. The general patterns of the mean values of each items showed that the output leaned towards 'unjustifiable' practices because most of the score are below the scale value 1.5. Only one ethical issue scored 1.52 which is between the 'unjustifiable' and 'depends on the circumstances'. Hence, respondents more or less perceived that the practice of ethical items listed in the scale is unjustifiable, which tells that respondents favoured the conventional provisions of journalistic ethics (See table 17).

### **Group variation on Ethics Orientation**

The statistical output generated insignificant variation between males and females on how they perceive the ethical practices related to the scale items

provided. Similarly, group variation among government- employed journalists and private journalists found to be insignificant in their perception of ethical practices except on one issue such as *denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source*, ( $\eta^2=.091$ ) (See table 17). Because the magnitude of the effect is more than the moderate effect as explained by type of employer, it is worth to consider. This ethical issue as was rated by government media journalists the mean became 1.08 and 1.38 by private media journalists. This mean difference may suggest that government media journalists are more loyal to their promise than their counterparts in the private media.

## **5. 9. Perceptions on Job Aspects**

Two general aspects – one related to the material satisfaction of journalists, and the other one related to their professional satisfaction – with the respective lists for each general aspect was provided. The mean score showed that respondents perceived that the professional aspects of their job (21.83) are more important than the material aspects of their job (20.57). The difference in the mean score observed to be minimal that some of the respondents may perceive that both the material aspects of the job and the professional aspects of the job are equally important. However, in its aggregate result, it may be suggestive that Ethiopian journalists are professionally oriented that they gave emphasis to public service aspects than private aspects.

## **Group Variation on the Perception of Job Aspects**

The output of the means procedure as well as the measure of association among groups registered insignificant difference between group variation in both the gender and type of employer groups. Therefore, this may indicate that the definitive aspects of job have no significant effect on different variables, and respondents' perception on what job aspect is more important is similar. At the introductory chapter of this thesis project, it was established that one of the assumptions on the perception of professional journalism is the need to give emphasis or priority to the public service aspects of journalism. And, in this particular section it may give a base line that Ethiopian journalists are professionally oriented in their perception.

### **5. 10. Journalists' Image of their Audience**

Journalists' image of their audience as explained by scholars was taken as one of the predictors of professionalism in journalism. While in the system-theoretical approach, audience is the focal point of mass communication in general, and journalism in particular; journalists often blamed for looking down on their audience. They were claimed to disregard their audience by labelling it as "narrow-minded" (Weischenberg et al, 1998: 252). In this regard, the Ethiopian journalists' perception was different. The batteries along which journalists' image of audience are measured was provided to respondents. The characteristics of the

audience in the lists show the interests of the audience in relation to news story types and the level of perception power of the audience. In other words, it demonstrates the civic characteristics and ideological dimensions of audience perception.

The mean scores by respondents revealed that respondents agree that their audience *interested in politics and social problems* (3.93), *interested in breaking news* (3.75) and *interested in edutainment* (3.58). It has to be noted that journalists' agreement as to what interests their audience is not strong. The mean scores were less than 4 (agree). It seems to indicate that they do not have strong idea of what the audience thinks. Such finding may initiate a very interesting question for further research.

Regarding the ideological aspects of the audience the mean value for *ignorant* (2.21) leaned to the 'disagree' scale point; items such as *well informed* (2.50), *easily deceived* (2.55), *critical* (2.87), *open-minded* (3.20) leaned to 'fairly agree' level with different point of agreements. Hence, the output pointed to propose that journalists' did not strongly disagree with the negative statements about the audience. And, this may also suggest that journalists have no strong knowledge about their audience. Another possible interpretation of this result may be attached with the level of influence of audience image on journalistic performance is minor relative to other potential influence sources. Ettema et al (1997: 40) quoted the observational study by Gan (1979: 230) that journalists gave

little attention to their audience; instead they wrote and presented for their superiors and for themselves, thinking that what interested them would also interest their audience.

### **Group Variation on Journalists' Image of their Audience**

The mean procedure to study group variation generated insignificant differences among different reference factors on what image journalists' possess of their audience.

## Chapter Six

### 6. Summary and Conclusion

Unlike their western and some of the African nations' counterparts, Ethiopian journalists have rarely been studied. Except some few workshop papers, which have also lacked comprehensive treatment, the professionalism of journalism and journalists' role perception and the professional orientation of journalists was not given due attention from academia.

The purpose of this study was to assess the professional orientation of Ethiopian journalists from their point of view. In order to investigate the problem about five basic research questions were asked. Modeled after Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) in Weaver (1998) and Ramaprasad (2002), a questionnaire was prepared and some of the questions were adapted to the Ethiopian context.

The questionnaire was distributed to 100 sample respondents selected by a sampling procedure called proportionate stratified sampling. This sampling strategy was used to draw representative samples from different group variables such as gender and employer organizations. With the intent of providing the study a qualitative depth, in addition to the self-administered survey, the student researcher conducted an in-depth interview with some purposely selected informants from different groups in the study.

The quantitative data was managed by the application of SPSS for data analysis. And, the output generated combined with informants' qualitative responses gave relevant answers for the basic research questions.

Accordingly, the findings on the socio-demographic profile of Ethiopian journalists showed that the typical Ethiopian journalist in the mid 2006 is male, government employed, married, has educational background of a higher institution, qualified in language and literature, has taken some training in journalism, and is below 40 years old with less than 10 years on journalism job experience, and earns a monthly income that ranges from 1000 to 1500 birr, which is approximately 115.6 to 173.4 US dollars per month.

As regards journalists' belief, attitude and value of journalism, the findings revealed that unlike some journalists in the west, the Ethiopian journalists believed in the importance of journalism education, joined the profession being motivated by professional vocation, perceived journalism as a noble profession, preferred the accreditation of journalism courses and licensing of the professionals, gave little value for the membership in professional association, opposed motivating others including own child to choose the profession as their future career, perceived the societal image toward the profession as discouraging and was unwilling to publicly announce the profession, but still planned to stay in the profession. It seems good news that despite the reputation and the level of

status of the job, journalists showed a commitment to stay and serve the public if they do not later change their mind. However, this is contrary to the finding that Ethiopian journalism is the youngsters' career, with a mobile nature.

In terms of the perception of professional role, *create national consensus, get information to the public quickly, develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public, and give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs* were perceived as very important roles by Ethiopian journalists, which labeled journalists' role partly neutral and partly leadership or advocacy role. While the remaining, 'development', 'adversarial', 'public advocacy', 'cultural and entertainment', 'interpretative' and 'information' function items were perceived as important roles except *endorse government policies with out any question*, the findings on group variation revealed that government journalists gave more importance to the development role of journalists than private journalists, as private journalists preferred to give more importance to adversarial role than government journalists. However, despite employed by government journalists in state media also perceived the importance of adversarial function that shows their interest of doing journalism in a challenging environment.

Considering ethics orientation, Ethiopian journalists perceived that the importance of respecting the standards of ethical practice of reporting with no significant variation in their perception among the groups.

The importance of job aspects as a predictor of professional journalism was rated by journalists and the findings put Ethiopian journalists as having professional orientation due to the fact that they prioritized the professional aspects of the job than the material satisfaction aspects of the job with no significant variation among group variables.

The part that dealt with journalists' image of their audience produced a result that negates the established perception, which was provided by some researchers as regard to the image of audience. While the existing literature showed that journalists disregard their audience by labeling them as 'narrow-minded', the findings from the study of Ethiopian journalists discovered that they do not have strong views of what the audience thinks and they also did not strongly disagree with the negative statements about the audience.

In concluding the thesis, this project could identify some unique features of journalists in Ethiopia from the point of view of journalists themselves. Ethiopian journalists value the importance of journalism education, with a belief that it brings professional excellence. They favor professional job aspects over material job aspects in their work environment. They also value their career by labeling it as a noble profession; however, they have a low-self image. Unlike their counterparts in other countries, they need the licensing of professionals and place importance on accreditation mechanisms blaming the unprofessional

service that has been provided by 'unprofessional persons'. They perceive themselves as neutrals in serving the public and also view themselves as development advocates in their role of reporting events.

However, because the findings show perceptions of journalists, care must be taken to take for granted and to assume that the actual practice of journalists consistently similar, as if it was experimentally tested and comprehensively touched the entire system environment that directly or indirectly have an influence on how the views of journalists may have been shaped and how journalists actually practice their job.

Care must also be taken in generalizing such kinds of perception studies, because it provides only personal views than exactly showing the practical and real situations. The real situation and the full picture may be gained only if the other system components could be addressed in a system orientation. The views of journalists can be shaped by many influencing factors within the social system. Consequently, the actual practice that how journalists report and what to report is influenced by many factors. Theory of influences recognized that an individual level influence is only a jigsaw for other level influences in an organization, for instance. It should be noted that; therefore, the formation of media content is a result of complex process, and though journalists' intention and view can be

taken as one factor, a one shot survey cannot be adequate to represent the gross view and role of journalists, like a longitudinal research can do it.

It is believed; however, that the findings from this study may trigger another comprehensive study of journalists that includes regional journalists and other special interest mass media outlets. It is also important to consider that there are no previous national studies of Ethiopian journalists with which to compare the findings of this research. As a result, this study may put a base line for future studies on journalists so that a meaningful comparison will be made to see the change and progress of journalists through time.

As more research is conducted on the Ethiopian press system, which is on transition, this study may help as a benchmark. In this regard very provocative research question may arise from this study.

- How do Ethiopian journalists assign traits to government media and private media?
- What difference exists between perceived role of journalists and actual role of journalists in Ethiopia?
- How do the role perception of Ethiopian journalists compare with other parts of the world?
- How the profile of Ethiopian journalists changed over time?

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Amanuel Gebru. (2005). Made in Ethiopia: Job satisfaction of the Ethiopian federal state media. Master's thesis research project, Addis Ababa University, Graduate School of Journalism and Communications, Addis Ababa.
- Berkowitz, D., & Yehiel Limor and Jane Singer. (2004). 'A cross cultural look at serving the public interest: American and Israel journalists consider ethical scenarios'. *Journalism online journal*. Vol. 5(2): 159-181. Sage. London. Available from: <http://jou.sagepub.com.cgi>.  
[Accessed on 4/7/2006].
- Breed, W. (1997). 'Social control in the news room: a functional analysis'. In: Berkowitz, Reader. Social meaning of news. California: Sage, 107-122.
- Broom, L. & Philip Selzenick. (1968). Sociology. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bryman, A. (2004). Social science research. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Croteau, D. & William Hoynes. (2003). Media/society: industries, images, and audiences. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. California: Sage.
- Dahl, R. (1998). On democracy. London: Yale University Press.
- Ettema, J. et al. (1997). 'Professional mass communicators'. In: Berkowitz, Reader. Social meanings of news. California: Sage, 31-50.
- Fletcher, K. (2005). The Journalist's Hand Book. London: Macmillan.
- Gaunt, P. (1992). Making the Newsmakers: international handbook on journalism training. Westport: Greenwood Press.

- Gebremedhin Simon. (2006). 'Mass media management in Ethiopia: an enabling environment or a barrier - an overview'. *Mass media for social development training workshop for Senior Program Managers and Practitioners*. Population Media Center – Ethiopia. January 30 – February 6, 2006. Adama.
- Getachew Metafaria. (2003). "The Status of media in Ethiopia". In: Johnson, ed. Encyclopedia of international media and communications. California: Elsevier Science, vol. 1.
- Ginneken, J V. (1998). Understanding global news: a critical introduction. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Gordon, Margaret T. (1998). 'Journalists-Professionals in a Market Culture'. In: Dennis, E. & Robert W. Synder, eds. Media & democracy. New Jersey: Transaction Publishers, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.
- Hallin, D. (2000). "Commercialism and professionalism in the American news media". In: Curran, J., and Gurevitch, M., eds. Mass media and society. London: Arnold, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed.
- Henok Semaegzer. (2006). Society, government and journalists' role in building ethical and responsible media'. The Ethiopian Reporter. Available from: <http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=767>. [Accessed on 5/9/2006]
- Herbert, J. (2000). Journalism in the digital age: theory and practice for broadcast, print and on-Line media. Oxford: Focal Press.
- Hohenberg, J. (1978). The professional journalist. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Emeritus: Columbia

University.

Ibbotson, T. & Richard Rudin. (2002). An introduction to journalism: essential techniques and background knowledge. Oxford: Focal press.

IPI. (2004). 'Report on seminar on the need for future teaching on press freedom'.  
mirrormedia. Ethiopia Available from:  
<http://www.freemedia.at/seminar2005pr.html>. [Accessed on  
5/9/2006].

Janowitz, M. (1975). "Professional models in journalism: the gate keeper and the  
advocate". *Journalism Quarterly*, 52(4), 618-626.

Kamath, M V. (1980). Professional journalism. New Delhi: Vishal Printers.

Kareithi, P. & Nixon Kariithi. (2005). Untold Stories: economics and business  
journalism in Africa. Johannesburg: Wits University Press.

Kovach, B. & Tom Rosenstiel. (2001). The elements of journalism. New York:  
Three Rivers Press.

Kruger, F. (2005). 'Media: a lesson from Addis'. *journalism.co.za*.

Available from: <http://www.ethiomeia.com>. [Accessed on 9/26/05].

Lowenstein, R. L. & John C. Merrill. (1971). Media messages and men. New  
York: David McKay.

\_\_\_\_\_. (1990). Macromedia: mission, message and morality.  
New York: Longman.

McLeod, J. & Ramona R. Rush. (1969). "Professionalization of Latin American and  
US journalists", *Journalism Quarterly*, (autumn): 583 - 590.

McLeod, J. & Searle Hawely JR. (1964). "Professionalism among Newsmen",  
*Journalism Quarterly*, 41 (autumn): 529-539, 577.

- McNair, B. (2005). 'What is journalism?'. In: Burgh, ed. Making journalists. New York: Routledge, 25-43.
- McQuail, D. (1984). Mass Communication Theory. California: SAGE.
- Mekuria Mekasha. (2005). "*Ethiopian Media Landscape*", *Print Media Journal* 4 (November): 117, Addis Ababa, Ethiopian Press Agency.
- Merrill, J., John Lee & Edward J. Friedlander (1994). Modern Mass Media. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Merrill, J. & Ralph L. Lowenstein. (1971). Media Messages and Men. New York: David McKay.
- Menanteau-Horta, D. (1967). "*Professionalism of Journalists in Santiago de Chile*", *Journalism Quarterly*, 44 (winter): 715-724.
- Mwesige, P. (2004). 'Disseminators, advocates and watch dogs: a profile of Ugandan journalists in the new millennium'. *Journalism online*. Vol. 5(1): 69-96. Sage Publications, London. Available from: <http://jou.sagepub.com.cgi>. [Accessed on 4/8/2006].
- Negash G/Mariam. (2006). The development of journalism in Ethiopia: personal memoirs since 1960. Addis Ababa: Forum for Social Studies, United printers.
- Nixon, R. (1960). "*Factors related to freedom in national press systems*" *Journalism Quarterly*, 37: 13-28.
- Oledzki, J. (1998). 'Polish journalists: professional or not?'. In: Weaver, ed. The global journalist: news people around the world. New Jersey: Hampton press, 277-297.

- Pallant, J. (2001). SPSS: Survival manual. Berkshire: Open University Press, McGraw.
- Pavlik, J. (2005). 'Running the technological gauntlet: Journalism and new media'. In: Burgh, ed. Making journalists. New York: Routledge, 245 – 263.
- Plaisance, P. & Elizabeth A. Skewes. (2003). "*Personal and professional dimensions of news work: exploring the link between journalists' values and roles*". *J&MC Quarterly*. Vol. 80(4): 833-848. AEJMC.
- Pridmore, G. (2000). Journalism. London: Hodder Headline Plc.
- Ramaprasad, J. (2001). 'A Profile of Journalists in Post – Independence Tanzania'. *Gazette*. Vol. 63(6): 539 – 555. Sage Publications. London. Available from: <http://jou.sagepub.com.cgi>. [Accessed on 4/7/2006].
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2005). 'Egyptian journalists: Predictors of their job satisfaction'. A paper presented to AUSACE 10<sup>th</sup> International Conference. Kuwait, November, 2005. Kuwait City. Accessed from the author through e-mail at [joytika@siu.edu](mailto:joytika@siu.edu), on 4/3/2006.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2002). "*Reporting the news from the world's rooftop: A survey of Nepalese journalists*". *Gazette*, 65(3): 291-315.
- Randall, D. (2000). The Universal Journalist. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Pluto Press,
- Schein, E. (1972). Professional education. California. Carnegie Foundation.
- Scholl, A. & Siegfried Weischenberg. (1999). "*Autonomy in journalism: how it is related to attitudes and behavior of media professionals*". *WJMCR* Vol. 2(4). Available from: <http://www.scripps.ohiou.edu/wjmcr/vol02/2-4a-B.html>. [Accessed on 1/23/2006].

- Schultz, J. (1998). Reviving the fourth estate: democracy, accountability & the media. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- Shimelis Bensa. (2000). Survey of the Private Press in Ethiopia: 1991-1999. FSS Monograph Series I. Addis Ababa: Forum for Social Studies, Image Printing Press.
- Shoemaker, P. & Stephen D. Reese. (1996). Mediating the Message: Theories of Influences on Mass Media Content. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Longman.
- Singer, J. (2003). 'Who are these Guys? The online challenge to the notion of journalistic professionalism'. *Journalism*. Vol. 4(2): 139-163. Sage. London. Available from: <http://jou.sagepub.com/cgi>. [Accessed on 4/7/2006].
- Soloski, J. (1997). "News Reporting and Professionalism". In: Berkowitz, ed. Social meanings of news. London: Sage.
- Street, J. (2001). Mass Media, Politics and Democracy. New York: PALGRAVE.
- Sydney, W. (1963). "Can a journalist be a 'professional' in a developing country?". *Journalism Quarterly*, 40 (autumn): 594-598. Minneapolis, Association for Education in Journalism.
- Tamirat W/Giyorgis. (2005). 'Responses'. In: Kareithi and Kariithi, eds. Untold Stories: Economics and Business Journalism in Africa. Johannesburg: Wits University Press, 16-20.
- Tesfati, Y. (2004). "Exploring Possible Correlates of Journalists' Perceptions of Audience Trust", *J&MC Quarterly* 81 (summer): 274- 291. Columbia.
- TGE. (1992). Negarit Gazeta. Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing Press, 52<sup>nd</sup> year, No.8.

- The Reporter (Staff reporter). (2006). 'Ethiopian press at the crossroads?'. The Ethiopian Reporter. Available from: <http://www.ethiopianreporter.com/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=4002>. [Accessed on 5/9/2006].
- Tumber, H. & Marina Prentoulis. (2005). 'Journalism and the making of a profession'. In: Burgh, ed. Making journalists. New York: Routledge, 58-74.
- Tunstall, J. (2001). Media Occupations and Professions. Reader. New York: Oxford Press.
- Watson, J. (2003). Media Communication. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.
- Weaver, D. (2005). 'Who are journalists?'. In: Burgh, ed. Making journalists. New York: Routledge, 44-57.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (1998). The Global Journalist. New Jersey: Hampton Press.
- Weischenberg, S. & et al. (1998). 'Journalism in Germany'. In: Weaver, ed. The global journalist: News people around the world. New Jersey: Hampton press, 229-256.
- Williams, K. (2003). Understanding Media Theory. London: Arnold in the Hodder Head line group.
- Windahl, S, & Karl Erick Rosengreen. (1978). "News men's professionalization: some methodological problems". *Journalism Quarterly*, 55: 466-473.
- Zelizer, B. (2004). Taking journalism seriously: News and the academy. California: Sage.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (1997). 'Has communication explained journalism?'. In: Berkwotiz, Reader. Social meanings of news. California: Sage, 23-30.

## **Appendix I**

Addis Ababa University

Graduate School of Journalism and Communications

Dear Journalist,

I am conducting a survey of the Professional Orientation of Journalists in Ethiopia, which targets at journalists working in government and private mass media organizations.

You are among the selected journalists to fill and to scale this questionnaire based on the sampling design procedure. The data you provide is exclusively used for a master thesis. I assure you that your responses will be kept anonymous and only the researcher will have access, which of course later will be presented to thesis advisors as a group score. Therefore, please feel free to provide your genuine response.

Only you are genuine in your responses that can yield a meaningful research out put, which you and other colleagues later use it as a point of departure in the pursuit of your future study in the area.

**Please,**

- 1. Do not write your name**
- 2. Respond to all of the questions**
3. I beg you to return the form by tomorrow

**I appreciate for your kind cooperation**

## SECTION ONE

**Please circle one letter of your choice for the questions provided**

1. Which one do you think is better for journalism profession, to be educated in journalism or not?
  - A. Journalism education is very important for quality service
  - B. It doesn't matter because journalism can be done with out its education
2. How do you rate your participation in journalists' professional association?
  - A. I always participate
  - B. I frequently participate
  - C. I sometimes participate
  - D. I rarely participate
  - E. I never participate
3. Are you currently enrolled in continuing education program?
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
4. If yes, in what field of study\_\_\_\_\_
5. Have you taken/attended any journalism training /courses?
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
6. If your answer for "question no.5" is "yes", what sort of special course or training did you attend \_\_\_\_\_
7. Why did you choose journalism as your current occupation/career?
  - A. Professional vocation
  - B. By chance
  - C. Economic needs
  - D. Prestige
  - E. Others, specify\_\_\_\_\_
8. Do you motivate or push one of your children to choose journalism as his/her future career?
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
9. Please, state your reason for one of your responses for "question number 8"  
\_\_\_\_\_

10. To what extent you feel proud of your current career, for instance to very proudly tell or acquaint your job to others?
- A. Absolutely proud
  - B. Proud enough
  - C. Fairly proud
  - D. Rarely express myself
  - E. Never tell it
11. In your opinion, how is the reputation of journalists in Ethiopia?
- A. Very good
  - B. Good
  - C. Satisfactory
  - D. Not particularly good
  - E. Bad
12. Do you plan to stay in your current profession?
- A. Yes
  - B. No
  - C. Not decided
13. For how many organizations have you been serving so far?
- A. One
  - B. Two
  - C. Three and more
  - D. None
14. What have you been doing before you joined journalism as your current career?  
(Please, indicate your former career before you joined journalism)

---

15. Would you mind, if journalism as a career like medicine and law is accessed only through the licensing and accreditation of its education?  
(In your opinion, is it necessary to give licenses to journalists and to accredit journalism training and education colleges?)

- A. Yes
- B. NO

## SECTION TWO

16. How do you perceive the level of importance of the following journalistic roles in Ethiopia? Please, show your scale for every role listed in the table.

No.	Roles	Scale				
		Very important	Important	Fairly Important	Not important	Not very important
1.	Mobilize & politicize masses to enhance economic development	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Endorse government policies without any question	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Criticize official agencies of the government when needed	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Create national consensus	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Get information to the public quickly	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Provide entertainment and relaxation	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Investigate claims and statements made by governments	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Be an advocate of the underdogs	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience	5	4	3	2	1
15.	Discuss national policy while it is still being developed	5	4	3	2	1
16.	Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions	5	4	3	2	1
18.	Discuss development issues regularly	5	4	3	2	1

17. It is often very difficult for journalists to obtain important information for their reporting roles. Therefore, journalists apply unusual methods of gathering information. Please, tell me for each of the following methods, your position in justifying it.

3. Justifiable  
 2. Depends on circumstances  
 1. Unjustifiable

No.	Methods of Obtaining Information	Scale		
		3	2	1
1.	Unauthorized use of confidential government document	3	2	1
2.	Getting employed in an organization to gain inside information	3	2	1
3.	Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence	3	2	1
4.	Paying people for confidential information	3	2	1
5.	Claiming/ acting to be somebody else	3	2	1
6.	Using hidden microphone or camera	3	2	1
7.	Forcing unwilling informants to get information	3	2	1
8.	Making use of private documents with out permission	3	2	1
9.	Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source	3	2	1
10.	Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims	3	2	1
11.	Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources	3	2	1

18. Which one of the followings of your job aspects do you perceive are most important? Please, show in the scales for each of the job aspects one by one.

No.	Job Aspects	Scale				
		Very Important	Important	Fairly Important	Less Important	Not very Important
1.	The Amount of Autonomy	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Salary	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Freedom from supervision	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Job security	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Fringe benefits	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Chance to develop Specialty	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Chance to help people	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Editorial Polices of the organization	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Chance to get a head in the organization	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Chance to be honored prestige	5	4	3	2	1

19. Which one of the followings best characterize your audience? Please indicate the level of your agreement.

No.	Characteristics of audience	Scales				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Fairly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	Interested in breaking news	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Interested in politics and social problems	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Easily deceived	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Ignorant	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Well informed	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Interested in edutainment	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Open-minded	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Critical	5	4	3	2	1

### SECTION THREE

20. Your employer organization/mass media

- A. Government owned
- B. Privately owned

21. Type of your media organization

- A. Print medium
- B. Radio
- C. Television
- D. News Agency

22. Your age

- A. 30 or below
- B. 31- 40
- C. 41- 50
- D. 51 or more

23. Gender

- A. Female
- B. Male

24. Marital Status

- A. Married
- B. Single
- C. Divorced/Widowed

25. Total year of experience in journalism career

- A. 5 or below
- B. 6 - 10
- C. 11 – 15
- D. 16 – 20
- E. 21 or above

26. How much do you earn monthly in birr?

- A. 500 or below
- B. 501 - 1000
- C. 1001- 1500
- D. 1501- 2000
- E. 2001 or above

27. Please, indicate your highest obtained qualification

- A. Certificate for secondary school leaving
- B. College diploma
- C. BA/BSC
- D. MA/MSC
- E. PhD
- F. Other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

28. What field of study had you pursued? \_\_\_\_\_

(Indicate for example as law, sociology, Journalism, etc.....)

**Thank You**

## Appendix II

›Ç=e ›uv ¿'›y`c=+

¾Ò²?Ö'f" †T>Ä'>ÿ?g="e ÉI[ U[n f/u?f

¨<É Ò²?Ö—'

¶@ ¾₄>=fÄäÄ Ò²?Ö™< eK Ò²?Ö'f S<Á" uS<Á- }dföÁt- -eØ eK>c^^t- ^dt-" ¶'Á?f  
¶'ÁT>SKÿ~f KT"p >"É ¾Çcd Ø"f uT"H@É LÄ ¶Ñ—KG<: Ø"~ ¾T>Ä}ÿ<[< uÓM" uS"ÓYf ¾T>Ç=Á  
}sTf¨<eØ uT>²Óu<" uT>c\ ¾S<Á¨< vKu?„< LÄ¨<:

`e-U ÄI" nK SÖÄp ¶'Ç=VK< ¾)S[Ö<f KØ"~ Y^ u)Ä[Ñ¨< ¾" S<" S[x Ç=³Ä" SW[f u°×¨<:  
unK SÖÄI SW[f ¾T>cÖ<¨" S[Í ¾UÖKS¨< KG<K}— ÉÓ] TTEÁ KT"H@Ä¨< Ø"f w%o ÄJ"M:: eK²=I  
¨<É Ñ>²?-" c¨<}¨< ¾k[u<f" ØÁo-< u>ÖnLÄ ¶'Ç=SKc<M¨ u;ɿwaf ¶ÖÄnKG<:

¾Ø"~¨<Ö?f óÄÇ ¾T>•[¨<`e- ¾T>cÖ<¨" S[Í f;ɿK— ÿJ' w%o¨<: ¾²=I Ø"f eÿ?¶T SJ" `e-  
¾S<Á vMÄ[x<- u²=I Ñ<ÇÄ LÄ K"Äò~ KT>c\f Ø"f S'h ¶'ÁT>J" eKT>ÑSf ¾uÿ<M-" >e}ªe\* ¶'Ç=ÄÄ¨<  
uflf" ¶ÖÄnKG<:

¶ɿ- Áe¶¨<c<:-

G. eU-" SÓKê >eðLÑ> >ÄÄKU::

K. G<K<"U ØÁo-< SSKe ÁeðMÒM ::

N. ÄI" nK SÖÄp ÿVK< u%EL u'Ñ¨< °Kf ¶'Ç=SMc<M¨ ¶KU"¶KG<:

eK SM"U fww`-

UeÒ"Ä ¶Ó ÿö}—¨<:

ɿöM >"É

¶ɿ- Kk[u<f ØÁo-< ÿ}cÖ<f >T^à< SÿÿM SME- ¾J¨<" >"Æ" òÄM uSU[Ø Äjuu<uf::

1. uÒ²?Ö~f S<Á LÃ KScT^f ¾}hK ¾T>J'~ ¾Ò²?Ö~f fUI`f ST` '¬ "Äe œKST`;

G. ¾Ò²?Ö~f" fUI`f ST` ¾}hK '¬

K. ¾Ò²?Ö~f" fUI`f dÃT\U Se^f Ã%LM

2. uÒ²?Ö~f ¾S<Á Tlu^f " <eØ ÁK-f ¾}dfö Á[Í U" ÁIM "'<;

G. G<K<Ñ>²? [d]óKG<

K. uSÖ'<U u=J" >²<f\_ [d]óKG<

N. >Mö >Mö [d]óKG<

S. }dföÂ`p}— "'<

W. >Md}öU

3. >G<" uST` LÃ '-f;

G. >-

K. >ÃÁKU

4. [¾}T\ ÝJ' ¾T>Tf" ¾fUI`f ²`ö/`- Á'f ÃØkc<::

---

5. ¾Ò²?Ö~f fUI`f "ÄU eMÖ" }ÝfK"< Á"<nK<;

G. >- }ÝfÄ>KG<

K. >M}ÝfMÝ<U

6. SMe- #>- }ÝfÄ>KG< ÝJ'\$ U" `Á'f eMÖ" [r'ÁJ' ÃÓKeM"::

---

7. uÒ²?Ö~f S<Á KScT^f ¾ðKÑ<uf U;"Áf U" 'u`;

G. KS<Á"< vÁ[w- öp`

K. u>Ö×T>

N. KÑu=/K>=¢•T>Á© ÖkT@f

S. jw`" "" [Pm'f"/ eKT>ÄeÑ`

W. uK?L U;"Áf ÝJ' ÃØkc<

---

8. ÝMÐ<- >"Æ"/ÇD" "Á Ò²?Ö~f S<Á [r'Ç=Ñv/ÉfÑv ÃÑóóK<;

G. >- [ÑóóKG<

K. >MÑóóU

9. Y^ - /S<Á- / Ò²?Ö~f [r'ÁJ' uSØke uÝ<^f S"ðe KK?KA< c<- uÓMê KS"Ñ` "ÄU KTe}ª"p ÁK-f eT?f U" ÁIM '¬;

G. u×U Ýö}—

K. Yö}—

N. SYÿK—

S. ›Mö ›Mö

W. uöèU ›M"Ñ`U

10. u`e- ÓUf u›=fÄåÁ Tlu[cw " <eØ KÒ²?Ö`f ¾T>cÖ" < jw` U" ÁIM " <;

G. u×U Ø\ " <

K. Ø\ " <

N. ›ØÖu= " <

S. ÅI" ÁIM Ø\ " < ›ÅvMU

W. SØö " <

11. uÒ²?Ö`f S<Á " <eØ KSq¾f öLÖf " ÅU [pÉ ›K-f;

G. ›K`

K. ¾K`U

N. ›M"e"ÿ<U

12. Y²=I uòf e" f ¾SÑ" — w²<H" É`İ, < " ÅU K?KA< É`İ, < " <eØ

c` } < Á" <nK<;

G. ›"É

K. G<Kf

N. YZef uLÅ

S. U"U

13. " Å >G<' < ¾Ò²?Ö`f S<Á YSkLkM- uòf uU" Y^ LÅ }cT` } < P" Å'u[ u=ÑMèM" (lvj- Y²=I kÅU ÅWl  
¾'u[ <" Y^ ÅÓKè)

14 ¾Ò²?Ö`f S<Á P" ÅK?KA< S<Á<- TKfU IjU" P" ÍÓ P" Å SdcK<f ¾S<Á öñÉ P" Ç=cØuf" ufUI`fU  
¾° <p"" ¾SdcK<f ¾lØØ` ÑÅx< P" Ç=×Muf u=Å[Ó ÅeTTK<;

G. ›- ðeTTKG<

K. ›MeTTU

jöM G<Kf

15. eKT>Y)K<f ¾Ö²?Ö" f S<Á© É`h<`e- ¾uKÖ >eðLÑ> " < ¾T>K<f Áf—<" " <; Y)²²f ¾Ö²?Ö" f T>"< Ñ<MI SJ" ¾T>Ñv†"<" Þ'Á¾>eðLÑ>†"< Á[Í SÖ" Þ'Ç=Kÿ<M" u;waf ÞÖÑnKG<::

Mÿ?f 5, ÞÍÖ >eðLÑ>

4, >eðLÑ>

3, uSÖ'< >eðLÑ>

2, >L>eðLÑ>

1, >L"<pU

.l	¾Ö²?Ö" f T>"<	5	4	3	2	1
1.	¾=&•T> MTf" KtdÁÓ w²<H'<" T'ddf					
2.	¾S"ÓYf úK=c=-<" ÁKU"U ØÁo Y^ LÃ Þ'Ç="<M TÉ[Ó					
3.	¾SÑ"— w²<H"" öLÔf dÃJ" Í'uc ¾T>ðMÑ"<" 'Ñ" Tp[w					
4.	>eðLÑ> uJ' Ñ>²? G<K< S'ÓeÞ" É`Í," S)†f					
5.	wH@^© SÓvf" SöÖ`					
6.	S[Í" uøØ'f "Á Í'uc TÉ[e					
7.	"<ewew uJ'< Ñ<ÇÁ" <Óa<LÃ f"Þ@ SeÖf" f ÖT@"<" Tw^^f					
8.	lw]cu<" ²" ¾T>ÁÃ" Ñ< ¾S"— "ÓÍ," Tp[w					
9.	uS"ÓYf ¾T>cÖ< SÓKÿ-<" uØV" SS'S" S²Ñw					
10.	Te[Í ÁM)Ñ-v†"<" ¾²?" Þ]c< YTp[w SÍkw					
11.	Í'v© uJ'< Ñ<ÇÁ< LÃ }^< Í'w >SK"ÿ~" Þ'Ç=ÑMè °ÉM SeÖf					
13.	K'p)—< ¾lw]cw íðM Öun SJ"					
14.	¾>w³—" <" lw]cw öLÔf ¾T>Á"ç'p ²?" Tp[w					
15.	uSk[é LÃ ¾T>Ñ-<f" wH@^© ÞK=c=-< u}YÞÃ Tp[w" T"Á¾f					
16.	¾lw]cu<" vIL" >°UaÁ© "nf ¾T>ÁÇw\ 'ÓÍ," Tp[w					
17.	¾"ÓÉ TÍu]cu<" ÞÁ"Ç"Æ" ¾É" Ñ>f Þ'penc? up`w }ÿÞfKA >Ö^×] uJ'< Ñ<ÇÁ< LÃ Ö""^ Id© 'ÓÍ," Tp[w					
18.	¾MTf Ñ<ÇÁ" uSÁu—'f Sp[w					

16. Ö²?Ö™< ¾S<Á ÓÉÞ†"<" KS"×f c="kdkc< >eðLÑ> ¾J'< S[Í-<" ukØ] ÝU"à< KTÓ-f ¾T>†Ñ\uf G<'@Þ ÄÿcÞM:: eKJ'U w²< Ñ>²? Ö²?Ö™< ÁM)KSÁ"<" ¾S[Í >cvcw ²È" c=ÖKS< Äc}³LM:: Þv- u`e- >SK"ÿf ¾T>Y)K<f ¾²?" >evcw ²È-< U" ÁIM }Ñu=" "†"< ÄLK<;

MÝ?f 3 , }Ñu=" >dT~ " <

2 , >dT~ - Þ'Á ¾G<'@Í' < " <

1 , }Ñu=" >dT~ >ÃÁKU

.l	¾S[Í Tcvcu=Á S"ÑÉ<	3	2	1
1.	T>eÖ=^© ¾S"ÓYf c'Ê<" ÁKðnÉ SÖkU			
2.	¾É'Í~" S[Í KTÓ-f c=vM w%o uÉ'Í~ " <eØ SkÖ`			
3.	¾S[Í U"Û" KSÑóóf c=vM ¾K?L" <" >SK"Ýf ¾ÁÑñ >eSeKA Sp[w			
4.	T>eÖ=^© ¾J' S[Í" c'É KTÓ-f KS[Í' < U"ß Ñ"²w S;ðM			
5.	^e" >de, "Á S[Í U"ß Sp[w (Ö²?Ö— dÃSeK<)			
6.	uÑ<MI ¾TÃÛ Éwp Sp[ç - ÉUê" "T@^ SÖkU			
7.	ðnÁ— ÁMJ' < U"à<" uTeÑÁÉ S[Í" SkuM			
8.	ÓL© c'Ê<" ÁKÓKcu< ðnÉ" °" <p" SÖkU			
9.	¾U"ß" T"f KSÁup nM ÝÑu< u%EL nM" TÖö" ¾U"ß" T"f uÓMê T" <x f			
10.	}ÑÁ' < ¾}Áð\ c-<" T"f SÓKê			
11.	uY^ LÃ "ÁU Ý²Ñv Y^ Ò" u)ÁÁ² Ñ"²wØpT ØpU" SkuM "ÁU KK?KA< ¾ÓM ØpV< SÑ³f			

17. Ý}[?f " <eØ KÒ²?Ö" f Y^ - ¾f— " < ¾uKÖ >eðLÑ> " <;

MÝ?f 5 , ÞÍÓ >eðLÑ>

4 , >eðLÑ>

3 , uSÖ' <U >eðLÑ>

2 , (p)—

1 , >L>eðLÑ>

.l	¾e^ >"vu= G<'@l<	5	4	3	2	1
1.	¾Y^ 'é'f TÓ-f					
2.	ÅV' /iōÁ					
3.	YlØØ" ;ffM 'é u' SMÿ< SY^f					
4.	¾Y^ 'æ'f" TÓ-f					
5.	¾)KÁ; ØpT ØpV<" TÓ-f					
6.	«KAP S<Á" KTdÁÓ" KTUMçÓ °ÉM SÓ-f					
7.	c-<" KS' Çf °ÉM TÓ-f					
8.	¾É'Í- ¾>?Ç=]ÁM þK=c=					
9.	uÉ'Í- ' <eØ °ÉÑf TÓ-f					
10.	uY^< " <eØ "" ;w' TÓ-f					

18. ¾y\_e " <Ø?f }ÖnT>" <" ÅU ¾lÇT>" <" G<'@le l'Èf ÅÑUlk<; lv\_i- ¾lÇT>" <" Å[Í u)cÖ" < ¾Mÿ?f SÖ" UM;f uTÉ[Ó ÅekUÖ<::

Mÿ?f 5, lÍÓ leTTKG<

4, leTTKG<

3, uSÖ' < leTTKG<

2, >MeTTU

1, lÍÓ >MeTTU

.l	¾lÇT>" < öLÔf" G<'@l	5	4	3	2	1
1	¾l' u< öLÔf ucu' ??" < LÃ ÁÁLM					
2.	¾Q' u< öLÔf upK+ " @" Tlu^© <Óa< LÃ ÁÁLM					
3.	l' u<" ukLK< TdS" Å%oLM					
4.	¾l' u< ¾" < kf Å[Í 'p) — "' <					
5.	l' u< uS[Í ¾uKçÑ "' <					
6.	¾lÇT>" < öLÔf K>e)T]" >" " 'Ól, < ÁÁLM					
7.	¾lÇT>" < > °Ua ;øf" >Ñ"³u= "' <					
8.	lÇT>" < uØMkf S)tf ¾T><M "' <					

jöM fef

19. ¾kx] É'Íf- Åµll ¾T" "' <

G. ¾S"ÓYf

K. ¾ÓM

20. ¾T>Wuf ¾w²<H" SÑ" — ˆÁ'f

G. Ò²?x

K. \_ÉÄ

N. ,K?y=»"

S. ¾²?" ›ÑMÓKAf

21. °ÉT@-

G. 30 ˆÄU ulk

K. 31 - 40

N. 41 - 50

S. 51 ˆÄU uLÄ

22. ë

G. c?f

K. "É

23. ¾Òw% G<'@

G. ÁÑv/<

K. ÁLÑv/<

N. uõ< ¾}KÁ¾/<

24. uÒ²?Ö'f S<Á " <eØ ÁK-f ›ÖnLÄ ¾Y^ MUÉ

G. 5 œSf ˆÄU Ÿ²=Á ulk

K. 6 -10 œSf

N. 11- 15 œSf

S. 16 -20 œSf

W. 21 œSf ˆÄU Ÿ²=Á uLÄ

25. ›G<" ¾T>ŸðM-f ¾" ÁS" uw`

G. 500 ˆÄU Ÿ²=Á ulk

K. 501 - 1000

N. 1001 - 1500

S. 1501 - 2000

W. 2001 ˆÄU uLÄ

26. [v;- ›G<" ¾Á[c<uf" ¾fUI`f Á[Í ÄU[Ö<

G. ¾G<K)— Á[í SMkmÁ c` }ðÿ?f

K. ¾K?İ Ç=yKAT

N. u=>? /u= >?e c=

S. >?U >?/ >?U >?e c=

W. ú >?< Ç=

[. K?L ÿJ' ÅØkc< \_\_\_\_\_

27. ¾}Tf ¾fUI`f - Å`f U" İrÅJ' ÅØkc< (KUdK? İÓ' H>dw vKS<Á' Ò??Ö`f . . . ?} )

---

u×U >ScÓ"KG<::

### Appendix III

## Interview Questions for Key Informants

### SECTION ONE

1. Name-----Sex----- Age-----Marital status-----
2. Your employer organization/mass media-----
3. For how many years have you served in journalism?
4. How much do you earn monthly in birr?
5. What is your parents' professional job?
6. What is your highest obtained qualification? What field of study?
7. Are you currently enrolled in continuing education program? What course of study are you attending?

### SECTION TWO

8. How do you rate the importance of professional education for journalism profession?
9. How do you rate your participation in journalists' professional association?
10. Why did you choose journalism as your current occupation/career?
11. Assuming that you have a qualification to join others occupations and if you have given a chance to join, which kind of professional job is your best choice?
12. To what extent are you motivated to journalism occupation for yourself? And, do you motivate your relatives and friends to choose journalism as their future career?
13. To what extent you feel proud of your current career, for instance to very proudly tell or acquaint your job to others? Would you tell me the reason?

14. In your opinion, how do you see the reputation of journalists and journalism in Ethiopia? Why?
15. Do you plan to stay in your current profession? Why?
16. For how many organizations have you been serving so far?
17. Would you mind, if journalism as a career like medicine and law is accessed only through the licensing and accreditation of its education? Why?
18. How do you perceive the legitimacy of stating journalism as a profession?
19. In your opinion, what primary roles should the Ethiopian mass media play?
20. How do you justify the unethical means of gathering and reporting news information in your opinion? For instance, unauthorized use of confidential as well as private information, freebies, using forces, hidden recording technologies, etc
21. What are the most important job aspects in your daily routine in the profession? Why? For instance, The Amount of Autonomy, Salary, Freedom from supervision, Job security, Fringe benefits, Chance to develop Specialty, Chance to help people, Editorial Policies of the organization, Chance to get a head in the organization, Chance to be honored prestige.
22. How do you label the status of your audience?

## **Appendix IV**

Lists of Informants by code, age, experience, gender and employer

No	Informants by code	Sex	Age	Experience in years	employer
1	Informant I	Male	37	12	Private
2	Informant II	Male	33	4	Private
3	Informant III	Female	36	10	Government
4	Informant IV	Male	30	8	Government
5	Informant V	Female	35	9	Government
6	Informant VI	Male	38	10	Government
7	Informant VII	Male	31	5	Government
8	Informant VIII	Male	29	3	Government
9	Informant X	Male	40	12	Government
10	Informant IX	Male	39	9	Government

**Appendix V\***

**APPENDIX V**  
**Descriptive values of journalists' perception of journalistic roles of the mass media**<sup>a</sup>

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Mobilize & Politicize masses to enhance economic development	92	376	4.09	1.173	1.377
Endorse government policies without any question	92	245	2.66	1.141	1.303
Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need	92	400	4.35	.931	.867
Criticize official agencies of the government when needed	92	406	4.41	.827	.685
Create national consensus	92	422	4.59	.827	.685
Get information to the public quickly	92	421	4.58	.788	.621
Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues	92	407	4.42	.905	.818
Provide entertainment and relaxation	92	389	4.23	.840	.706
Investigate claims and statements made by government	92	389	4.23	.878	.772
Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified	92	395	4.29	1.115	1.243
Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions	92	373	4.05	.930	.865
Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs	92	414	4.50	.896	.802
Be an advocate of the underdogs	92	366	3.98	1.186	1.406
Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience	92	388	4.22	1.046	1.095
Discuss national policy while it is still being developed	92	393	4.27	.840	.706
Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public	92	417	4.53	.654	.427
Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions	92	373	4.05	.930	.865
Discuss development issues regularly	92	393	4.27	.866	.750
Valid N (listwise)	92				

<sup>a</sup>. High mean value indicates higher score, because the scale ranges 5= very important, 4= important, 3= fairly important, 2= not important, 1= not very important

\*Appendix V continues to the next 4 pages

Comparison of mean value of journalists' perception of journalistic roles of the mass media between types of employer organization

Employing organization	Mobilize & Politicize masses to enhance economic development	Endorse government policies without any question	Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need	Criticize official agencies of the government when needed	Create national consensus	Get information to the public quickly	Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues	Provide entertainment and relaxation	Investigate claims and statements made by government	Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified	Be an adversary of public officials or by being constantly skeptical of their actions	Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs	Be an advocate of the underdogs	Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience	Discuss national policy while it is still being developed	Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public	Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions	Discuss development issues regularly	
1 Government owned	Mean	4.33	2.77	4.28	4.37	4.58	4.47	4.23	4.13	4.24	3.92	4.51	3.91	4.20	4.23	4.57	4.01	4.29	
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	
	Variance	1.019	1.281	.947	.748	.605	.629	.688	.665	.804	1.313	.866	1.466	1.010	.691	.377	.910	.696	
	% of Total	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%
	Sum	342	219	338	345	362	363	353	334	326	335	310	356	309	332	334	361	317	339
2 Privately owned	Mean	2.62	2.00	4.77	4.69	4.62	4.15	4.23	4.85	4.62	4.85	4.46	4.38	4.31	4.54	4.31	4.31	4.15	
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	
	Variance	1.090	1.000	.192	.231	1.256	.603	1.641	1.026	.141	.756	.141	.603	.923	1.731	.769	.731	.564	1.141
	% of Total	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%
	Sum	34	26	62	61	60	58	54	55	63	60	63	58	57	56	59	56	56	54
Total	Mean	4.09	2.66	4.35	4.41	4.59	4.58	4.42	4.23	4.29	4.05	4.50	3.98	4.22	4.27	4.53	4.05	4.27	
	N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	
	Variance	1.377	1.303	.867	.685	.685	.621	.818	.706	.772	1.243	.865	1.406	1.095	.706	.427	.865	.750	
	% of Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Sum	376	245	400	406	422	421	407	389	389	395	373	414	366	388	393	417	373	393

a. High mean value indicates higher score, because the scale ranges 5= very important, 4= important, 3= fairly important, 2= not important, 1= not very important

**Measures of Association of private and government  
journalists on how they perceive the role of the media**

	Eta	Eta Squared
Mobilize & Politicize masses to enhance economic development * Employing organization	.512	.262
Endorse government policies without any question * Employing organization	.237	.056
Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need * Employing organization	.185	.034
Criticize official agencies of the government when needed * Employing organization	.138	.019
Create national consensus * Employing organization	.014	.000
Get information to the public quickly * Employing organization	.059	.004
Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues * Employing organization	.122	.015
Provide entertainment and relaxation * Employing organization	.001	.000
Investigate claims and statements made by government * Employing organization	.287	.082
Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified * Employing organization	.118	.014
Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions * Employing organization	.347	.121
Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs * Employing organization	.018	.000
Be an advocate of the underdogs * Employing organization	.140	.020
Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience * Employing organization	.035	.001
Discuss national policy while it is still being developed * Employing organization	.130	.017
Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public * Employing organization	.140	.020
Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions * Employing organization	.111	.012
Discuss development issues regularly * Employing organization	.056	.003







**Measures of Association of male and female  
journalists on their role perception**

	Eta	Eta Squared
Mobilize & Politicize masses to enhance economic development * Gender	.129	.017
Endorse government policies without any question * Gender	.002	.000
Give the public what they need, not what the press decides what the public need * Gender	.009	.000
Criticize official agencies of the government when needed * Gender	.010	.000
Create national consensus * Gender	.262	.069
Get information to the public quickly * Gender	.069	.005
Provide analysis and interpretation of complex issues * Gender	.003	.000
Provide entertainment and relaxation * Gender	.025	.001
Investigate claims and statements made by government * Gender	.036	.001
Stay away from stories where factual content can not be verified * Gender	.066	.004
Be an adversary of public officials by being constantly skeptical of their actions * Gender	.088	.008
Give ordinary people a chance to express their view on public affairs * Gender	.102	.010
Be an advocate of the underdogs * Gender	.319	.102
Concentrate on news of interest to the widest possible audience * Gender	.014	.000
Discuss national policy while it is still being developed * Gender	.133	.018
Develop cultural and intellectual interests of the public * Gender	.007	.000
Be an adversary of businesses by being constantly skeptical of their actions * Gender	.004	.000
Discuss development issues regularly * Gender	.129	.017

## Appendix VI\*

### APPENDIX VI Mean values journalists on how they practice ethical issue<sup>a</sup>

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Unauthorized use of confidential government document	92	133	1.45	.542	.294
Getting employed in an organization to gain an inside information	92	119	1.29	.504	.254
Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence	92	129	1.40	.630	.397
Paying people for confidential information	92	136	1.48	.620	.384
Claiming/acting to be somebody else	92	140	1.52	.703	.494
Using hidden microphone or camera	92	135	1.47	.619	.384
Forcing unwilling informants to get information	92	101	1.10	.299	.089
Making use of private documents without permission	92	111	1.21	.458	.210
Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source	92	103	1.12	.358	.128
Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims	92	117	1.27	.576	.332
Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources	92	101	1.10	.299	.089
Valid N (listwise)	92				

<sup>a</sup>. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 3=justifiable, 2=depends on circumstances, 1=unjustifiable

**A**

\*Appendix VI continues to the next 4 pages



Comparison of mean values by employer organization group (government journalists & private journalists) of how they practice ethical issues

Employing organization	ethical issues											
	Unauthorized use of confidential government document	Getting employed in an organization to gain an inside information	Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence	Paying people for confidential information	Claiming/acting to be somebody else	Using hidden microphone or camera	Forcing unwilling informants to get information	Making use of private documents without permission	Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source	Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims	Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources	
1 Government owned	Mean	1.44	1.27	1.41	1.49	1.54	1.48	1.08	1.16	1.08	1.27	1.08
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
	Variance	.276	.223	.372	.407	.482	.381	.071	.139	.071	.300	.071
	% of Total N	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%
	Sum	114	100	111	118	122	117	85	92	85	100	85
2 Privately owned	Mean	1.46	1.46	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.23	1.46	1.38	1.31	1.23
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Variance	.436	.436	.590	.256	.590	.423	.192	.603	.423	.564	.192
	% of Total N	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%
	Sum	19	19	18	18	18	18	16	19	18	17	16
Total	Mean	1.45	1.29	1.40	1.48	1.52	1.47	1.10	1.21	1.12	1.27	1.10
	N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92
	Variance	.294	.254	.397	.384	.494	.384	.089	.210	.128	.332	.089
	% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Sum	133	119	129	136	140	135	101	111	103	117	101

a. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 3=justifiable, 2=depends on circumstances, 1=unjustifiable

**Measures of Association of government and private  
journalists on how they perceive ethical issues**

	Eta	Eta Squared
Unauthorized use of confidential government document * Employing organization	.012	.000
Getting employed in an organization to gain an inside information * Employing organization	.136	.019
Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence * Employing organization	.011	.000
Paying people for confidential information * Employing organization	.062	.004
Claiming/acting to be somebody else * Employing organization	.080	.006
Using hidden microphone or camera * Employing organization	.055	.003
Forcing unwilling informants to get information * Employing organization	.182	.033
Making use of private documents without permission * Employing organization	.227	.052
Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source * Employing organization	.302	.091
Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims * Employing organization	.025	.001
Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources * Employing organization	.182	.033

**Journalists perception on how to practice ethical issues gender group comparison<sup>a</sup>**

Gender	Journalists perception on how to practice ethical issues gender group comparison <sup>a</sup>										
	Unauthorized use of confidential government document	Getting employed in an organization to gain an inside information	Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence	Paying people for confidential information	Claiming/acting to be somebody else	Using hidden microphone or camera	Forcing unwilling informants to get information	Making use of private documents without permission	Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source	Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims	Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources
1 Female	Mean	1.38	1.43	1.57	1.52	1.52	1.19	1.29	1.10	1.43	1.14
	N	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
	Variance	.348	.357	.557	.462	.548	.162	.314	.090	.557	.129
	% of Total N	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%
2 Male	Sum	29	30	33	32	34	25	27	23	30	24
	Mean	1.46	1.25	1.35	1.46	1.49	1.07	1.18	1.13	1.23	1.08
	N	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71
	Variance	.281	.221	.346	.367	.482	.066	.180	.141	.263	.078
Total	% of Total N	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%
	Sum	104	89	96	104	106	76	84	80	87	77
	Mean	1.45	1.29	1.40	1.48	1.52	1.10	1.21	1.12	1.27	1.10
	Variance	.294	.254	.397	.384	.494	.089	.210	.128	.332	.089
Total	% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Sum	133	119	129	136	140	101	111	103	117	101

a. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 3=justifiable, 2=depends on circumstances, 1=unjustifiable

**Measures of Association of perception of  
ethical issues between sex groups**

	Eta	Eta Squared
Unauthorized use of confidential government document * Gender	.065	.004
Getting employed in an organization to gain an inside information * Gender	.147	.022
Pretending another opinion or attitude to inspire an informant's confidence * Gender	.147	.022
Paying people for confidential information * Gender	.040	.002
Claiming/acting to be somebody else * Gender	.076	.006
Using hidden microphone or camera * Gender	.050	.002
Forcing unwilling informants to get information * Gender	.170	.029
Making use of private documents without permission * Gender	.095	.009
Denial of the promise to protect confidentiality of your source * Gender	.037	.001
Publishing/broadcasting names of rape victims * Gender	.149	.022
Accepting rewards, money or other benefits from sources * Gender	.082	.007

## Appendix VII\*

**APPENDIX VII**  
**Descriptive Statistics of journalists perception of their job aspects**

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
The amount of autonomy	92	444	4.83	.656	.431
Salary	92	416	4.52	.637	.406
Freedom from supervision	92	361	3.92	1.188	1.412
Job security	92	420	4.57	.816	.666
Fringe benefits	92	355	3.86	1.245	1.551
Chance to develop speciality	92	438	4.76	.635	.404
Chance to help people	92	369	4.01	.989	.978
Editorial policy of the organization	92	396	4.30	1.046	1.093
Chance to get a head in the organization	92	390	4.24	.830	.689
Chance to be honored prestige	92	311	3.38	1.203	1.447
Valid N (listwise)	92				

**Comparison of mean values by type of employer organization on how journalists perceive aspects of their job**

Employing organization		The amount of autonomy	Salary	Freedom from supervision	Job security	Fringe benefits	Chance to develop speciality	Chance to help people	Editorial policy of the organization	Chance to get a head in the organization	Chance to be honored prestige		
1	Government owned	Mean	4.85	4.51	3.94	4.57	3.90	4.77	3.99	4.37	4.30	3.39	
		N	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
		Variance	.438	.433	1.316	.684	1.374	.383	.987	.979	.445	1.293	
		% of Total N	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%
		Sum	383	356	311	361	308	377	315	345	340	268	
2	Privately owned	Mean	4.69	4.62	3.85	4.54	3.62	4.69	4.15	3.92	3.85	3.31	
		N	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
		Variance	.397	.256	2.141	.603	2.756	.564	.974	1.744	2.141	2.564	
		% of Total N	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%
		Sum	61	60	50	59	47	61	54	51	50	43	
Total		Mean	4.83	4.52	3.92	4.57	3.86	4.76	4.01	4.30	4.24	3.38	
		N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92
		Variance	.431	.406	1.412	.666	1.551	.404	.978	1.093	.689	1.447	
		% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		Sum	444	416	361	420	355	438	369	396	390	311	

a. High mean value means high score, because the scale ranges from 5=most important, 4=important, 3= fairly important, 2= not important, 1= not very important

\*Appendix VII continues to the next page

**Comparison of mean values by sex on how journalists perceive aspects of their job <sup>a</sup>**

Gender			The amount of autonomy	Salary	Freedom from supervision	Job security	Fringe benefits	Chance to develop speciality	Chance to help people	Editorial policy of the organization	Chance to get a head in the organization	Chance to be honored prestige	
1	Female	Mean	4.90	4.62	4.14	4.62	3.76	4.71	4.10	4.38	4.38	3.57	
		N	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	
		Variance	.090	.248	1.229	.448	1.390	.414	.990	.648	.448	1.057	
		% of Total N	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%
		Sum	103	97	87	97	79	99	86	92	92	75	
2	Male	Mean	4.80	4.49	3.86	4.55	3.89	4.77	3.99	4.28	4.20	3.32	
		N	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	
		Variance	.532	.454	1.466	.737	1.616	.406	.986	1.234	.761	1.565	
		% of Total N	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%
		Sum	341	319	274	323	276	339	283	304	298	236	
Total		Mean	4.83	4.52	3.92	4.57	3.86	4.76	4.01	4.30	4.24	3.38	
		N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	
		Variance	.431	.406	1.412	.666	1.551	.404	.978	1.093	.689	1.447	
		% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		Sum	444	416	361	420	355	438	369	396	390	311	

<sup>a</sup> High mean value means high score, because the scale ranges from 5=most important, 4=important, 3= fairly important, 2= not important, 1= not very important

**Measures of Association of journalists of private and government media on how they perceive job aspects**

	Eta	Eta Squared
The amount of autonomy * Employing organization	.083	.007
Salary * Employing organization	.060	.004
Freedom from supervision * Employing organization	.027	.001
Job security * Employing organization	.013	.000
Fringe benefits * Employing organization	.080	.006
Chance to develop speciality * Employing organization	.044	.002
Chance to help people * Employing organization	.059	.003
Editorial policy of the organization * Employing organization	.149	.022
Chance to get a head in the organization * Employing organization	.193	.037
Chance to be honored prestige * Employing organization	.025	.001

**Measures of Association of group variation of journalists by gender group**

	Eta	Eta Squared
The amount of autonomy * Gender	.066	.004
Salary * Gender	.083	.007
Freedom from supervision * Gender	.101	.010
Job security * Gender	.036	.001
Fringe benefits * Gender	.042	.002
Chance to develop speciality * Gender	.040	.002
Chance to help people * Gender	.047	.002
Editorial policy of the organization * Gender	.040	.002
Chance to get a head in the organization * Gender	.093	.009
Chance to be honored prestige * Gender	.087	.008

## Appendix VIII

**APPENDIX VIII**  
**Descriptive values of journalists perception about their audience**

a

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Interested in breaking news	92	345	3.75	1.183	1.398
Interested in politics and social problems	92	362	3.93	1.014	1.029
Easily deceived	92	235	2.55	1.083	1.173
Ignorant	92	203	2.21	1.011	1.023
Well informed	92	230	2.50	1.043	1.088
Interested in edutainment	92	329	3.58	1.112	1.236
Open-minded	92	294	3.20	.986	.972
Critical	92	264	2.87	1.131	1.280
Valid N (listwise)	92				

a. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=Fairly agree, 2= disagree, 1=strongly disagree

**Comparison of the mean values private journalists and government journalists on their perception of the audience**

Employing organization		Interested in breaking news	Interested in politics and social problems	Easily deceived	Ignorant	Well informed	Interested in edutainment	Open-minded	Critical
1 Government owned	Mean	3.73	3.95	2.51	2.23	2.57	3.59	3.27	2.86
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
	Variance	1.428	1.074	1.151	1.076	1.120	1.193	.941	1.173
	% of Total N	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%	85.9%
	Sum	295	312	198	176	203	284	258	226
2 Privately owned	Mean	3.85	3.85	2.85	2.08	2.08	3.46	2.77	2.92
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Variance	1.308	.808	1.308	.744	.744	1.603	1.026	2.077
	% of Total N	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%	14.1%
	Sum	50	50	37	27	27	45	36	38
Total	Mean	3.75	3.93	2.55	2.21	2.50	3.58	3.20	2.87
	N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92
	Variance	1.398	1.029	1.173	1.023	1.088	1.236	.972	1.280
	% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Sum	345	362	235	203	230	329	294	264

a. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=Fairly agree, 2= disagree, 1=strongly disagree

**Measures of Association private and government  
journalists on how they view their audience**

	Eta	Eta Squared
Interested in breaking news * Employing organization	.033	.001
Interested in politics and social problems * Employing organization	.036	.001
Easily deceived * Employing organization	.110	.012
Ignorant * Employing organization	.052	.003
Well informed * Employing organization	.165	.027
Interested in edutainment * Employing organization	.042	.002
Open-minded * Employing organization	.176	.031
Critical * Employing organization	.019	.000

**Comparison of the mean values of each sex group<sup>a</sup> (Female & Male) of their perception of the audience**

Gender			Interested in breaking news	Interested in politics and social problems	Easily deceived	Ignorant	Well informed	Interested in edutainment	Open-minded	Critical
1	Female	Mean	4.10	4.10	2.52	2.24	2.52	3.71	3.10	2.71
		N	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
		Variance	1.190	.790	1.462	.490	1.162	1.314	.790	.914
		% of Total N	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%	22.8%
		Sum	86	86	53	47	53	78	65	57
2	Male	Mean	3.65	3.89	2.56	2.20	2.49	3.54	3.23	2.92
		N	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71
		Variance	1.431	1.101	1.107	1.189	1.082	1.224	1.034	1.393
		% of Total N	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%	77.2%
		Sum	259	276	182	156	177	251	229	207
Total		Mean	3.75	3.93	2.55	2.21	2.50	3.58	3.20	2.87
		N	92	92	92	92	92	92	92	92
		Variance	1.398	1.029	1.173	1.023	1.088	1.236	.972	1.280
		% of Total N	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		Sum	345	362	235	203	230	329	294	264

a. High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=Fairly agree, 2= disagree, 1=strongly disagree

Measures of Association /sex vs. image <sup>a</sup>

	Eta	Eta Squared
Interested in breaking news * Gender	.160	.025
Interested in politics and social problems * Gender	.087	.007
Easily deceived * Gender	.015	.000
Ignorant * Gender	.017	.000
Well informed * Gender	.012	.000
Interested in edutainment * Gender	.068	.005
Open-minded * Gender	.056	.003
Critical * Gender	.075	.006

a.

## Declaration

I hereby declare that the thesis my original work, has not been presented for a degree in only other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

.....

**Birhanu Olana**

.....

**Date**

**Advisor**

I hereby declare that this thesis has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed advisor.

.....

.....

**Date**