



**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM AND COMMUNICATION**

**A STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL SELF-IDENTITY IN FANA
BROADCASTING CORPORATE**

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January 2018

**A STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL SELF-IDENTITY IN FANA
BROADCASTING CORPORATE**

BY

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF
JOURNALISM AND COMMUNICATION PRESENTED IN THE PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN JURNALISM AND COMMUNICATION**

Addis Ababa University

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

2018

Addis Ababa University

Graduate School of Journalism and Communication

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Masresha Fikre entitled: A Study of Professional Self-identity in Fana Broadcasting Corporate and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Journalism and Communication complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Signed by examining committee:

Examiner

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Signature

Abstract

The aim of this study was to survey professional self-identity in Fana Broadcasting Corporate. Data were collected through questionnaires that were designed, translated into Amharic, tested and distributed to journalists working in Amharic, Afan Oromiffa, Somali and Afar languages. Analysis of data was made by SPSS using descriptive, mean procedure with eta and eta squared measure of association. The result showed that FBC journalists valued different professional self-identities in terms of cognitive and normative dimensions such as considering journalism as a profession, expressing themselves as a professional journalist, committed to serve the public, exercise professional autonomy partially, introduce themselves and the media when they are gathering information from the sources and respect the right and secrets of confidential sources. They also had more value on the importance of journalism education and those who categorized themselves as a Journalist preferred the profession because of its prestige and had absolute pride in their profession.

Based on the finding the research recommends further studies on FBC journalists' professional self-identities comparison with that of journalists in other parts of Ethiopia and the world and also the social context, both the media house and the society influence on the professional self - identity of FBC journalists should be studied.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty God for his grace and love. Without His support, the task of writing this would not have been possible.

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

It is my great pleasure to express my special thanks to my adviser Dr. Amanuel Gebru for his diligent follow up and unreserved support in showing the directions and providing valuable feedback and for his the greater interest he has shown to advise my project.

I really thank my wife, Dagemawit Tsegaye, without whose close support and encouragement, I would not have come to complete this task.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the topic of the research and states the statement of problem. It also states objectives, significance and scope of the study. Moreover, limitations and organization of the study are included under this chapter.

1.1. Background

This research is conducted on journalists' professional self-identity in Fana Broadcasting Corporate (FBC). According to radio fana magazine, today's Fana Broadcasting Corporate was established by the name voice of Ethiopian people's peace, democracy and liberty organization (EPPDLO), in 1980 by the month of October and started to broadcast a program from Sahel Mountain (2002). The programs were two times per week, in Thursday and Sunday in Tigrigna language. But after one year later, in 1981 the radio station has got support and continued to broadcast the program in Amharic language. Of course the contents of both Amharic and Tigrigna language were the same and focuses on Derg's Regime anti campaign messages and promotes liberty, peace and democracy. As stated in the magazine, the purpose was giving information on Tigray Peoples Liberation Front (TPLF) reason to fight, Derg's brutality and announcing the earlier victories for Ethiopian people (2002).

In 1985 because of the problem within the parties the radio programs were stopped for one year and backed again in 1986 by the financial support of TPLF' followers and started to broadcast one hour per day (half hour in Tigrigna and half in Amhaic languages) from the place of *maymuse* in *welkayit*. The one kilowatt transmission addressed northern Ethiopia and the neighboring country Sudan. At that time, According to testimonies which was written on the magazine, the Derg's campaign against the radio station was very challengeable and after three months the station was forced to change its place to the Mountain of Dashen, *Haye*. This time the broadcast addressed more or less the whole Ethiopia, Kenya, Djibouti, Somalia and the Middle East (Ibid).

In 1990, at *Haye*, following the establishment of EPRDF (Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front) EPPDLO expanded its programs and started to broadcast in a different way by including members of the then Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement (EPDM) (Ibid). By

the same year “voice of tigray revolution” also included Affan Oromifa Language with the program name “the Voice of the Oromo People”.

According to the magazine which was prepared by radio fana, because of the proclamation of Press, In 1995 by November the radio station have got the name Radio Fana and continued as a commercial media under the ownership of endowment institutions (2005). In 2010 Radio fana has changed its structure from Share Company to corporates. Nowa day including FM 98.1 there are 12 FM radio stations in Amhara region ; Gonder (FM 98.1), Dese (FM 96.0) and Debreberhan (FM 94.0), in South Nation and Nationalities; Wolayta (FM 99.9) and Mizan Aman (FM 92.5) , in Oromia region; Shashemene (FM 103.4), Nekemte (FM 96.1), Haromaya (FM 94.8) , Asela (FM 93.0), Jimma (FM 98.1)and in Tigray Region; Mekelle (FM 94.8) (Ibid).

As indicated in its editorial policy, FBC has a vision to be a reliable source of public information by providing quality media service in Ethiopia and East Africa. In addition, FBC also aims to contribute its own share in the national effort to fostering development, promoting peace and building democracy in the country (FBC, 1995).

Besides its commercial targets, FBC has objectives to play a constructive societal role by helping build informed society, participatory citizens and transparent government and serving as a public discussion forum. In addition, its objectives also include exposing evil doings in government offices, tackling corruption, supporting poverty eradication initiatives, encouraging entrepreneurs, safeguarding national interests and continuing to be a pioneer profit making corporation by respecting the country’s free market principles.

FBC’s permanent Editorial Board members comprise the General Manager (who is Chairman of the Editorial Board), the Program Directorate Director (who is Secretary of the Committee) and Editor- In- Chiefs (from News and Current Affairs, News Show, Program , Entertainment as well as from Afan Oromo, Somali and Afar language departments).

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia’s (FDRE) Constitution of 1995, broadcast and press proclamations, national interest and foreign affairs policy, different principles that assure citizens’ participation, policies on culture, language and customs and journalism ethics and principles (all mentioned in the editorial policy) are fundamental laws that govern the operation of FBC.

The editorial policy of FBC has also guidelines that are important for the day to day practices of its journalists. News and Current Affairs, Educational and Entertainment and other departments abide by those guidelines.

ABC of Journalism: *Accuracy, Balance and Clarity* are the basics of the editorial policy. Accordingly, the editorial policy manual prioritizes protection of public interests and secretes of defense and intelligence institutions and issues. In addition, it also gives due attention to tackling corruption and barring the broadcasting of news stories that are contrary to the constitution and nation's sovereignty.

Moreover, the manual puts principles/procedures on how to cover various events such as parliament meetings, public demonstrations, political parties' discussion/dialogue, elections, religious festivals, national and international events as well as issues related to NGO's, civic and civil societies and economic organizations. In addition, according to the policy, special care has to be taken in reporting cases related to police and courts, people under the law, criminals, natural disaster, war, civil conflicts, earthquake and flood and state of emergencies.

Under the news selection section of the policy, significance and impact, timeliness and proximity are pointed as basic criteria. In detail, the manual also has sections that deal with news analysis and preparation, news information gathering, news presence, translation and rehearsal, educational and entertainment programs (FBC, 1995).

There is still an ongoing debate and controversy globally on whether journalism should be seen as a craft or profession and which term describe the profession best. Among these arguments, for example, Smith, sorts journalism as a craft that the profession depends more on perception, skill, empathy and honesty of the practitioner or journalist rather than on the acquisition of technical knowledge and skills (1970). But contrary to Smith, Greer defines journalism from the perspective of the profession (1999). Interestingly, besides the debate, the question of professionalism also has a wide range of issues.

According to the works of Swedish researcher, Thomas Brante, cited in Karin and Gunnar, any profession uses a skill that pass on theoretical knowledge, needs training and has official qualification (2013). This argument is also well stated by Ioana & George "as an occupation,

profession requires intense study and mastery of specialized knowledge” (2013). It is true that a profession can develop its own identity through training and mastery of knowledge.

Any profession has its own identity. For example, a doctor is different from an engineer or a teacher from a psychologist. Not only across professions, but also within the same profession, there are different self-identities. According to Sim (2014) and Douwe & et al (2003) similar characteristics are identified within a group and there is also a possibility to have different identity within the group.

As stated by Tan, professional identity is the self that has been developed with the commitment to perform competently and legitimately in the context of the profession and also formal education or personal experience can be factors for its development (2014). This is to mean someone’s journalism professional identity can be a result of education or emanates from the social environment that he/she works in. Hence, the issue of identity cannot be separated from social and cultural environments (Ibid).

According to Richard and Lynn, identity is one of the central concepts discussed in social psychology research and by recognizing the importance of the self and its relationship to group identity (2010). According to social identity theory, a person’s self-concept is comprised of a personal identity (e.g., body characteristics, psychological behaviors) as well as a social identity (e.g., affiliation with a group) (Richard & Lynn, 2010).

In decades of journalism studies, scholars refer to the journalists’ professionalization process as a distinctly ideological development and served to continuously refine and reproduced a consensus about who was a ‘real’ journalist and what (parts of) news media at any time would be considered examples of a real journalism (Mark, 2005).

In the particular context of journalism as a profession, ideology can be seen as a system of beliefs and characteristics of a particular group (Mark, 2005) and professional identity can be branded from the different perspectives: as a negotiated experience (i.e. Defining ourselves through participation), as community membership (i.e. Defining ourselves through the familiar and unfamiliar) and as a learning trajectory (defining ourselves by where we have been and where we are going) (Ioana & George,2013).

These various perspectives with a system of belief result in the development of various professional self-identities. For instance, journalist in Ethiopian Broadcasting Corporation (EBC) and FBC may not have same identity as a group. This might be due the difference in organization and system of EBC and FBC. While FBC is defined in its editorial policy as a commercial and moderate pro-government media house, EBC is a public owned pro-government media house.

Similarly, the 2008 survey conducted based on the values and opinions of journalism on 442 Russian and Swedish journalism students showed differences and similarities (Karin & Gunnar, 2013). The survey result revealed similarities when it comes to motivation, areas of interest and the basic duties of journalists and differences in the interpretation of these ideals and values, for example, the idea that sees the media as an arena for public discussion, received little support among the Russian students. In the evaluation of the situation for journalism, the differences are very clear – the Russian students feel a twofold pressure from both commercial and political forces and in Sweden, the situation is more stable with only commercial pressure on journalism (Ibid).

As argued by Ioana and George (2013) self-concept, professional organizations, professional certifications, competencies, role perception, professional specialization, professional standards, professional development, career aspirations, job satisfactions and working condition are some of the factors that affect professional self-identity development process.

1.2. Statement of the problem

In today's society, information is a major source of power and knowledge. The collection, compilation and publication of this information are known as the art of journalism. As stated by Greer, journalism is the profession or practice of reporting, photography or editing news stories for one of the mass media (1999). By reporting something, it brings information to light to the people and expands the practice by exchanging good values in the communication era.

Academic debates about the meaning of the term professionalism and whether journalists should be considered professionals are ongoing and this is because the definition varies from being identified through professional doctrines, to particularities of professional knowledge or professional appearance (Splichal & Sparks, 1994). Of course, globally, the social

responsibilities of the news media have been well documented and established as the public service doctrine in contemporary journalism (Mark, 2005). Recent global level studies on the role perceptions and values among journalists reveal many surface similarities, like the watchdog role, communication of political information, reliability, impartiality and current information and these are appealing universally with the difference in the degree of interventionism, connected to cultural and political dimensions (Hanitzsch & et al., 2012).

However, negotiation between different interest groups like commercial driving forces, less distinct demarcation between what journalism is and who journalists are, the development of the new media: internet and less role of professional institutions have influenced the traditional values of journalism and hereby contributed to the development of different journalistic professional self-identities (Karin & Gunnar, 2013).

Consequently, the gap has resulted in African journalism swimming upstream due to excessive centralization, bureaucratization and politicization of state media institutions, and this made state-employed journalists to reconcile the government's expectation with their professed beliefs, or with their expectation of the public (Francis, 2005).

Even the most important principle of journalism – the “truth” concept, is elusive in which independent journalists are branded as unpatriotic and anti-government and this situation are expressed as follows:

“All of us surely know what truth is or what the word aspires to be. Yet it would be unwise to give this most weighty of journalistic principles a simplistic definition. For example, when constructed in the African context, journalists contend with a variety of factors that fail to take into account whether the report is truthful. Many people, especially who serve in our government, often do not care if what we publish is true; when we write about opposition parties, we are viewed as ‘trying to promote the aims of other political parties’, and when we pursue our watchdog role ‘truth’ is characterized as disloyalty if it falls into the category of criticism” (Niemann Report, 2001).

The challenges in Ethiopia regarding journalism as a profession range from professional gap on the side of practitioner to the media institution and government. Among the challenges that

threats or pose a threat to professionalism in Ethiopian mass media include job dissatisfaction by practitioners due to poor journalistic practices, poor quality and less-variety of journalistic outputs. Others also question the independence of Ethiopian mass media (Birhanu, 2006). Moreover, job dissatisfaction is a significant problem and is accompanied by numerous negative consequences; tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, and counter-productive behaviors (Amanuel, 2005).

In Ethiopia, it is common to hear about or witness that many people who write opinion pieces, articles and poems in magazines and newspapers and partner program presenters and producers proudly calling themselves as “journalist” or “professionals”. The age-long trend in other parts of the world shows that anyone can engage and practice journalism. It is also perceived as an occupation where anyone with skill of oratory can claim a stake in. Despite some changes in terms of perception and practice both in state owned and private media institutions, the problems still persist.

The present situation in FM radio stations show that anybody can buy free airtime and broadcast their programs. Most of the practitioners see/perceive themselves as possessing the skills of journalism. Interestingly enough, most of them do not have educational background that is directly related with journalism. Instead, their qualification is in language and literature and they have little chance to pass through related trainings (Birhanu, 2006).

The key professional identity in journalism, especially in providing service, is having knowledge, education or training. Without having this professional identity, journalists may face challenges in fulfilling their role. That is why journalism education has become a worldwide phenomenon that journalists are expected to attend the formal training before prior to practicing the profession. Above all, the profession of journalism is becoming universalized in terms of standardization of professional ethos (Marija, 2012).

In addition, from functionalist point of view, journalist’s professional self-identity is an important area of social identification. Because characteristics of a social group is related to the individual’s self and distinctive group norms and serve as guidelines for his/her own behavior (Ellemers & Haslam, 2004). Marija also argues that professional identities are formed within national contexts, being influenced by local culture and myths, political ideologies and legislations (2012).

As regards to journalists' belief, attitude and value towards journalism, the finding by Birhanu (2006) revealed that unlike some journalists in the West, Ethiopian journalists believed in the importance of education, joined the profession being motivated by professional vocation, perceived journalism as a noble profession and even they perceive the societal image towards the profession as discouraging though journalists still have planned to stay in the profession (2006).

So that the student researcher is interested in the case, assuming that practitioners' perception towards the occupation and their professional self-identities can have a certain influence on the actual journalism practice and the organization output. Hence, studying the various professional self-identities is helpful to understand the working environment of media in relation to the actors, journalists.

Accordingly, this research project aims at studying the professional self-identity of journalists at FBC in order to find out the basic values, characteristics and feature of their professional self-identities.

In addition, this research serves to systematically document how journalists perceive the profession so as to help readers of this research paper to understand the current status of FBC's journalists with a reference to the views of journalists themselves.

1.3. Basic Research questions

The researcher attempted to answer the following question:

1. What is Fana Broadcasting journalists' professional self-identity?
2. Are there different perceptions of the profession between male and female journalists?

1.4. Objectives of the study

This study basically addresses the professional self-identity of journalists by taking the case of regular journalists who are working in FBC Radio station in Addis Ababa. And the research also tried to relate their professional self-identity with the principles of journalism and states how Journalists see themselves within and among the professional group.

1.4.1. General objectives

The study was conducted with the general objectives of

- 1) Examining self-identities of journalists and understand it in the context of professional values
- 2) Identify some similarities and differences that may give us a more accurate picture of professional self- identities between male and female journalists

1.4.2. Specific objectives

The study attempted to find

- ✓ The perception of journalists towards journalism as a profession
- ✓ The different dimensions of professional self-identity of journalists
- ✓ The demographic profile of Fana Broadcasting Corporate journalists
- ✓ The difference and similarities between male and female journalists based on their perception about the profession

1.5. Significance of the study

This research project attempts to find out the different professional self-identities of Fana Broadcasting Corporate Journalists. Of course, the perception towards the profession matters in the practice of journalism and self-identities development. As discussed, there is a gap between ideological part of the journalism profession and its practice. But contextually, according to Halliki and his colleagues' report on the 4th World Journalism Congress Summit, which was held from July 14 - 16 2016, the impact of journalism education on journalism students' professional views and ethical perspectives has traditionally been neglected to a certain extent in the scholarly literature. Until recently, most discussions in the field were based on educator's perspectives, with relatively little reflections about how journalism education was experienced (Halliki & et al., 2016).

The gap between the practice and theoretically accepted professional identity is also visible in Ethiopia. Some practitioners perceive journalism as a profession, but others understand it as a skill. Due to these variances, the demarcation between the profession and the practice becomes

blurred (Afework, 2013).The practices in the profession, even in FBC, also indicate that journalism is a field for anyone who has interest in to join whether he/she studied journalism or not. On the other hand, to be a medical doctor or an accountant, it is mandatory to attend medical school or business faculty respectively.

Researches were conducted at different level on issues of journalists in Ethiopia which include the role of the profession by Birhanu (2006) and job satisfaction of state media journalists by Emmanuel (2005). However, the researcher did not find researches that specifically deal with professional identities of journalists from the self-perspective. This research will have great contribution to identify the gap between the practice on the ground and ideally accepted values of journalism and to answer the questions related to journalism professional self-identities.

Media scholars and other academicians can benefit from this study by using it as a reference in conducting research on the gap between professionalism and self-identity. The research could also be used as an input or indication for policy makers to review the curriculum of journalism education in Ethiopia.

Moreover, it would inspire or encourage other researchers to conduct further investigation and other stakeholders and concerned organizations to make their share of contribution for professional development.

1.6. Scope of the study

This study limited itself to the professional self-identity of journalists who are working with FBC. Now days, there are significant number of radio stations and practitioners in all states of Ethiopia. In the capital Addis Ababa alone, there are 11 government and privately owned FM Radio stations. Because of time and resource, reaching out to all journalists and regional radio stations of FBC and others is difficult. Hence, it was obligatory to stick and conduct the research at the main Addis Ababa station.

Out of the existing media houses of Ethiopia, the research focused on FBC based on the nature of ownership and affiliation to certain groups (as claimed by the station: supporting government's ideology on one side and serving the public on the other side). This might be useful to notice multiple characteristics of professional self-identities.

1.7. Limitation of the study

This study is geographically limited in Addis Ababa's FBC station. The respondents were selected by using probability sampling method and the subjects did not represent all journalists. Because of this reason, the findings cannot be generalized beyond the respondent's reality.

Another important challenge that the student researcher faced was related to reference, as it was difficult to get previous researches specific to the professional self - identity of journalists in Ethiopian context.

1.8. Organization of the study

This study is organized under five chapters. The first chapter states about background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, the research significance, scope and limitation of the study. Chapter two reviews related literature. The third chapter deals with methodology and the findings are entertained under chapter four. The last chapter presents a summary and the possible recommendations.

1.9. Definitions of concepts

Journalism is the organized activity of public collection, processing and distribution of news and current affairs materials (Barbie Zelizer & Stuart Allan, 2010).

Professionalism is a process through which a vocation attains the status of a profession (Karin & Gunnar, 2013)

Self-Identity is the self-concept that someone has beliefs, values about him/herself (Douwe Beijaard et al., 2003)

Professional self-identity is a bond that unites one self's professional practice with his [her] group and is also a method by which a person creates an image representing method of action, value and efficiency (Ioana Bulei & George Dinu, 2013).

Professional journalist is a journalist who prides [himself/ herself] as being objective and neutral in reporting, as well as being insisted on editorial autonomy and freedom in addition to having a sense of immediacy and ethics (Mark, 2005).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses previous literatures related to the study, such as history of journalism practice (around the globe, in Africa and Ethiopia), sociology of journalism profession, professional identity and factors that influence journalism professional identity. Moreover, journalism professional identities and ideological values will be discussed.

2.1. History of Journalism

2.1.1. Worldwide and in Africa

Journalism's history emerged from two sources (Karin & Thomas, 2009). The first was general intellectual interest in the evolution of means of communication. Many scholars trace this interest back to Plato's *Phaedrus*, which discussed cognitive issues related to writing. Enlightenment thinkers in Europe were particularly attentive to how literacy and the printing press occasioned deep structural changes in social, cultural and political life. This outlook gives due emphasis to the key role played by machines in the course of journalism.

As news making/reporting developed and professionalized, it constructed a history for itself by projecting its identity backward into the past. The growth of popular government in many directions is forcing people to take a serious interest in the day's news and then the press come to take its own proper place as a fourth estate (Menon, 1930).

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, a partisan model of news was the order of the day in most western countries, culture became ascendant, which shaped journalism, but later the model was developed and flourished after the French Revolution and initially referred to the journalism of opinion (Karin & Thomas, 2009). In the middle to late 19th century, a mass press appeared in Europe and United States and journalism acquired its modern sense, as a discipline of news reporting, at this time. As a mass audience grew, the popular press fed readers' sensational stories, and acquired the reputation of social marginality (Ibid).

As argued by Karin & Thomas (2009), the beginning of the twentieth 20th century marked with the beginning of a professionalization of journalism in the west with the development of press clubs, associations and schools of journalism and the crafting of codes of ethics.

In Africa, the mass media was a product of colonialism and media is a product of the political developments and histories of the continent (Elizabeth & Guy, 2007). The ownership system, their character, strengths and weakness, their political and social outlook, and above all, their impact and outputs are all the products of the societies that have formed and shaped them (Ibid).

The development of newspaper in Africa had varied origins and traditions, though broadcasting were directly inherited from the colonial authorities and in some places private commercial interests had also taken the initial steps in Radio broadcasting. But in the majority of cases, it was introduced as a direct political and ideological instrument of the colonial state (Ibid). It is because; according to Sharon and James printed publications and broadcasting were developed in the west and imported by European living in Africa (1987). According to Sharon and James, printed publications and broadcasting were developed in the west and then imported by Europeans to Africa (1987).

By the time of independence when the new national governments inherited the system, the rights to broadcasting was put under the government's monopoly everywhere.

As discussed in Elizabeth & Guy, until independence, Africans had control only of newspapers, which was used to effect as the sole mass medium of resistance, agitation, mobilization and organization and eventually helped to attaining independence (2007).

However, Europeans' influence was high, though there were Africans who own newspapers in West Africa, in Nigeria and Gold Coast (today's Ghana), by the mid19th century, which was a little bit different from other parts of Africa (Elizabeth & Guy 2007 and Sharon & James, 1987). In other parts of Africa, the trend was that European settlers or missionaries publish their newspaper or else, government officials own official *gazettes*, so much a part of the European government authority. Europeans trained Africans as printers and so on and Africans published their own publications. But broadcasting was always government controlled, as the ownership was simply transferred from the colonial government to independent government at the time of

independence and this established form of control over the African mass media and journalism training programs (Sharon & James 1987).

Gradually, Africans took over the newspaper and published it for African readers. And thus, in Ghana, Gambia, Liberia, Nigeria or Sierra Leone, there had not been foreign investment in the newspaper until the 1950's (Elizabeth & Guy, 2007).

After independence, there were continuous contact between African journalists and the western media and the journalists went to Europe as students and professionals. And when they returned home they faced a different environment. By the time, the difference between advocacy and objectivity model become visible among journalists who were trained in western countries (Sharon & James,1987).

2.1.2. Journalism practice in Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, the introduction of *Aemiro newspaper*, which was hand written at its commencement in 1902, heralded the beginning of journalism. Since then, journalism has been expanding in both types of media and technology (Getachew 2003 & Gebremedhin, 2006). As stated by Terje (2011), before the establishment of permanent school of journalism, journalism trainings were given during the times of Emperor Haileselesie and the Derg. It was in 1996 that the Ethiopian Mass Media Training Institute (EMMTI) was established to provide training at Diploma level. Later on by 2006, the institute launched a B.A. program and became part of Addis Ababa University's School of Journalism and Communication (Ibid).

But the broadcast media were there prior the establishment of the higher educational institution. Radio in Ethiopia was established in 1935 during the Italian invasion, the broadcast were terminated until the Italians left the country. After the victory over Italians, Radio broadcasting started in 1941 (Getaneh, 2013).

The year 1992 (in Ethiopian calendar) brought a new phenomenon in the history of Ethiopian media as it laid the foundation for the private media to flourish especially after press freedom was guaranteed by law (Afewerk, 2013). Since then, media outlets have been booming on one hand and there has been a claim among professionals regarding their perceptions of the profession. While some perceive Journalism as a profession, others understand it as a skill. Due

to this, the demarcation between the profession and the practice becomes blurred (Afework, 2013).

2.2. Sociology of Journalism Profession

Professionalism is the quality, character, practice or conduct of being professional (Barbie & Stuart, 2010). Of particular relevance to those seeking to standardize the occupational roles involved in journalistic work, professionalism has taken on a particular shape in various locations, and many have used the US model as an example to spread professionalism elsewhere.

In the US, the notion of journalistic professionalism was valuable in the early 1900's to organizing a basically disorganized group of writers who wanted to become a more cohesive and consolidated unit (Ibid).

Meryl and Julian, by recalling Chalaby (1998) and Lee (1976) trace back the emergence of Journalism in UK that it was emerged as a distinct occupation in the latter half the nineteenth century (2003). Journalists in the UK have always been ambivalent about what form of occupational controls to pursue. Despite the resistance to the structures of the conventional profession, they have embraced the idea of professionalism.

The 1970's and 1980's witnessed a stronger influence of Sociology and Anthropology on journalistic research, leading to what might be described as a *sociological turn* in the field (Karin & Thomas, 2009). The focus shifted to a critical engagement with journalism's conventions and routines, professional and occupational ideologies and cultures, interpretive communities, and to concepts related to news texts, such as framing, storytelling and narrative, as well as to the growing importance of the popular in the news.

The most productive era within the subfield of sociology dedicated to professionalization research begins with the widespread abandonment of the "trait approach" of occupational analysis, an approach that dominated the field for decades and whose more extreme normative tendencies define a profession as a model of occupational autonomy and self-regulation and worthy of imitation (Ibid).

No single overview stands as authoritative, but lists generally include the following features: work based on scientific or systematic knowledge, formal education, self-governing associations,

codes of ethics, a relationship of trust between professionals and client (as opposed to a strictly market-based relationship), licensing or other barriers to entry in the field, and widely recognized social status or social esteem.

In the forty years since Hughes' challenge, as argued by Karin & Thomas, in 1960's and 1970's, sociologists abandoned the trait approach and passed from 'false question' to the more fundamental one. The study of the profession as an idealized structural-functionalist category has been replaced in much of sociology by the more Weberian study of professionalization and "professional project" (2009).

Of course, sociological literature scholars have begun to examine professionalism and defined it as occupation with special power and prestige (Singer, 2003). But later on, the following taxonomies were developed based on the structural-functional approach. These are Cognitive dimensions - center of the body of knowledge and techniques that the professionals apply in their work as well as the training that needed to grasp these skills, Normative – covers the service orientation of professionals and their distinctive ethics, which justify the privilege of self-regulation that the society grants them and Evaluative dimension – implicitly compares professionals to other occupations (Ibid). Some scholars gave emphasis to the cognitive dimension – knowledge, techniques and training, and others to normative dimension – ethics and a commitment to public service.

Following these taxonomies journalism as a profession is becoming universalized in terms of standardization of professional ethos as well as the formation of supranational journalistic communities and a predominantly Anglo-American professional value system has been translated into a cross-nationally accepted nodal point of guidance, codex and professional discourse (Marijia, 2012). However, others have argued that professionalism in journalism has been in a process of seemingly irrevocable decline and sought to explain why this is so or there is need for journalism to re-embrace the values that have historically defined its public role (David, 2008).

2.3. Professional identity

Professional identity goes back to the theory of social identity and the related self-categorization theory. According to these theories, identities at individual level are composed of two parts: the personal identities- and social identities – often manifest themselves in professions and occupations (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

As said before, professional identity is the self that has been developed with the commitment to perform competently and legitimately in the context of the profession (Tan, 2014). It is often compared to a brand identity, which is a company's public image. It is a bond that unites the professional practitioner with his group and is also the method by which a person creates an image representing its methods of action, value and efficiency (Ioana & George, 2013).

As recalled by Ian and his colic's, Professional Identity is “a complex structure of meanings in which the individual links his or her motivation and competencies with acceptable career roles” (2013).

Self and identity researchers are long believed that the self is both a product of situations and a shaper of behavior in situations (Daphna & et al., 2012). As stated by Daphna and his colleagues, self and identity are also social products and identities are the traits and characteristics, social relations, roles and social group membership that defines who is a one (2012). This is to mean that, people do not create themselves from nothing and they are likely to define themselves in terms of what is relevant in time and place. Professional identity development continues through the individual's career and identity is not something one has, but something that develops during one's whole life dynamically (Douwe & et al., 2003 and Daphna & et al., 2012). But this formation is a complex construct, an ongoing self-reflective process, involving habits of thinking, feeling and acting (Ian & et al., 2013).

To summarize, professional identity is the lifelong development process through the career, and shapes by the interaction between the personal and professional values and experiences that result in self-image within the group (Douwe & et al., 2003). Moreover, nowadays, it is a much desirable label, offering value and prestige to an organization in which individuals operate and

the expertise value that members bring with them translates into results, objectives and goals achieved (Ioana & George, 2013).

2.4. What is journalism profession?

The debate on professionalization is hardest fought on in the English-speaking world because, it is there that the notion of professions first come into existence and even the founding fathers of sociology (Marx), Weber and Durkheim remain “relatively vague about the role of professions” (Karin & Thomas, 2009). The reason for this is the German terms *Academische Berufe* – meaning jobs that require university study- but not a concept of what the professions are. In other words, there are differing notions of what professionalization means with regard to journalism and literature reflects this diversity. Even various theories exist, though this thesis defines professionalism from the context of functional theory and social identity theory. So that, journalists are professional service providers of information to the public.

Besides the differences, “being a professional means abiding by certain norms and accepting the uniformity of practices” (Karin & Thomas, 2009). With research on journalism, studies of professionalization and editorial practice have sometimes been combined. Journalism identity creates a culture that its members embrace. Within this culture, every day activities in the newsroom influence in turn the professional identity of journalists (Karin & Gunnar, 2013).

In worldwide practices, there are understandings among journalists on the traditional ideology of the journalism profession. Mark cites the research results of Weave and says that even within similarities of journalism professional identity across culture and countries, there is too much disagreement on professional norms and values to claim an emergence of “universal occupational standards” (2005). In journalism, according to Karin and Gunar, the reason for these differences emanates from cultural, social practices and political systems (2013). These factors are highly influential than the journalism education programs and professional norms (Ibid).

2.5. What is journalism professional identity?

The concept of professional identity goes back to the theory of social identity (SIT) (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). As stated by Mark from this powerful, ideal component of journalism, journalists share a sense of ‘doing it for the public’ or working as some kind of representative watchdogs of the status quo in the name of the people, who ‘vote with their wallets’ for their services (2005).

On the path towards becoming journalism professionals, students develop a range of beliefs and attitudes about the profession for which they are preparing themselves. They develop understanding about their profession. It is through the daily performance in ways that are aligned with the values and norms of journalism, such as objectivity that one constructs the journalistic identity (Sim, 2014).

The socialization process in Journalism (as cited in the 4th World Journalism Congress of 2016) happens in two ways: through hands-on training and /or through special education. Journalism students learn the tools, standards and values from their teachers (usually former Journalists) and their peers. But in general professionalism is the process through which a vocation attains the status of a profession (Karin & Gunnar, 2013) and in the other way professional identity is the self that has been developed with the commitment to perform competently and legitimately in the context of the profession, and its development can continue over the course of the individual career (Tan, 2014).

As argued by Karina, Journalism identity is tightly bound to its practice and also this change in practice is reflected in professional identity and the qualities that are valued within the profession (2013). And it seems due to the possibility of entering the profession without training is perceived as a value worth safeguarding (Karin & Gunnar, 2013).

The influence of new media and the potential it offers for diverse career paths disrupt the old pattern of learning about reporting news (Niemann Report, 2001). The convergence of various media and the technologies that support it also influenced changes in curriculum and in many places where journalism is taught, core values as the role of the press in a self-governing society can start to seem disconnected from future endeavors (Ibid).

Journalism research has explored the construction of professional identity with a strong focus on the value system in the development of professionalism and the shared understanding of what it means to be a good journalist (Kaarina, 2013). But commercial driving forces become more powerful and professional ideals are under pressure, it is natural for self-images to change. Professional identity cannot exist as a nation independent of its context (Karin & Gunnar, 2013).

Sim, by referring Mark (2005) relates journalism, self-identity with a group perceiving in providing public service, being objective and neutral in their reporting, at least those in western societies (2014).

With technological development, such as the internet and blogging transformed passive media consumers into active producers and challenged the power of the mainstream media. Thus, researchers have begun to examine the identities of journalists working in alternative media. Some practitioners who are working in the new media (internet) call themselves as journalists (Terje, 2011). But others prefer hybrid identities such as journalist-activist or journalist-educator.

Terje in his study on Ethiopian diaspora news websites found among his interviewees a strong sense of self-identity that is related to being a journalist rather than activist (2011). They subscribe to an international set of professional journalism ethics, ideologies and standards. In addition, practitioners perceive their websites as a form of public service rather than an advocacy outlet for certain political goals. Nevertheless, their self-identity contradicts their journalistic practices in reality, whether their news stories provide an alternative viewpoint to the Ethiopian people by raising awareness of the totalitarian regime in their country (2011).

2.6. Journalism professional ideologies

As argued by most scholars, journalism profession can be seen as an ideology and these concepts, elements and values of journalism profession are categorized under five ideal-typical values. These are, according to Mark, *Public service*, (as “Watch dog”, active collectors and disseminators of information), *Objectivity* (journalists are neutral and thus credibility is there), *Autonomy* (they are free and independent in their work), *Immediacy* (actuality and speed, in the concept of news) and *Ethics* (journalists have a sense of ethics, validity and legitimacy) (2005).

For this research purpose let's limit to public service, objectivity, ethics and autonomy only.

2.6.1. Public service

Around 1997, most influential journalists from 25 nations came together at Harvard University with a shared sense that something was seriously wrong with their profession and in fear of that, they recognized that journalism instead of serving the public, might cause damage, (Niemann Report, 2001). So that they have planned, organized a committee, taken an assignment for two years and conducted the most sustained, systematic and comprehensive examination of a public forum. Finally based on the careful examination of survey, they came across today's most and widely accepted values of Journalism, "Elements of Journalism", or The Nine Principles, which include: journalists obligation is to tell the truth, Journalists are loyal to citizens, journalism is a discipline of verification, maintaining journalists independence from those they cover, serving as an independent monitor of power, Journalism must provide a forum for public criticism and comment, making the significant interesting and relevant, keeping the news in proportion and making it comprehensive and the last, an obligation to personal conscience.

Today all over the world, these principles are used as a guide line among professional journalists (Karin & Gunnar, 2013) and (Debora, 2006). Accordingly, 'The public' is a central component of the operation of media and one of the most prominent ways in which media expresses a relationship with the public is the manner in which they are held to or maintain a responsibility to the public's interest (Michael, 2008).

Public service is an ideal value that can be seen as a powerful component of journalism's ideology. Journalists by reporting news, they assume that they are serving the people, especially those who "vote with their wallets" (by buying a newspaper, watching or listening to a newscast, visiting and returning to the news site) (Debora, 2006).

Deborah potter strengths the "Watchdog" ideal value of journalism as

"In democratic societies around the world, the news media have come to serve an additional function as watchdogs on the activities of the political and judicial branches of government. They have kept democracies viable by giving voice to the voiceless, ensuring that a ruling majority cannot trample the rights of a minority" (2006).

Under a collective work of Nieman Reports in the ‘Elements of Journalism’, Gwen Lister defines the concept of public service, loyalty to citizen, as “A commitment to citizens is more than professional egoism. It is the implied covenant with the public,” (2001). This is to mean those who report the news are not obstructed from digging up and telling the truth, even at the expense of the owner's financial interest, it is a prerequisite of telling the news not only accurately but persuasively. It is the basis of why citizens believe in a news organization.

The notion of public service is one of the criteria to measure journalism profession. This value is particularly important to journalism because journalism lacks esoteric knowledge in which journalists’ claims of autonomy and authority are dependent to a particular great extent on their claim to serve a public interest (Karin & Thomas, 2009).

The obligation of objectivity in the context of public service is important because of the scope it gives to those featuring in investigative news stories, especially to complain about their treatment (Michael, 2008). Besides, it is that in legislative and economic power that can wield the weapon of ‘due objectivity’ against any public service outlet when news coverage becomes commercially or politically inconvenient (Ibid).

The internal goods of journalism in terms of the public service role are defined well in the work of Patrick Lee as follows:

[Journalism] is an essential public service with social benefits that transcend its revenue stream. In its ideal form, journalism creates tremendous positive externalities. It serves as a watchdog over the powerful, covers crucial social issues, and provides a forum for diverse voices, and viewpoints. As such, journalism functions as democracies critical infrastructure (2016).

The watchdog principle, as the public service, is more than simply monitoring the government, but extends to all the powerful institutions in the society. It is more properly means watching over the powerful few in society on behalf of the many to guard against tyranny (Nieman Reports, 2001). As an extension of the information function of political journalism in a democracy, watchdog role is critical scrutiny over the powerful, be they in government, business or other influential spheres of society and in this context, it becomes the Fourth Estate (Karin & Thomas, 2009).

But this watchdog role is being threatened in contemporary journalism by overuse and by a faux watchdogism aimed more at pandering to audience than public service (Nieman Reports, 2001). Perhaps even more serious, the watchdog role is threatened by a new kind of corporate conglomeration, which effectively may destroy the independence required to perform their monitoring role.

Scholars have concern against tackling journalists' claims to serve the public as face value, they do not want to dismiss the claim as "mere ideology" and as argued by Karin and Thomas "The ethic of public service may be particularly important in the case of journalism, compared with other occupations claiming professional status: because Journalism lacks esoteric knowledge, Journalists claim to autonomy and authority is dependent to a particular great extent on their claim to serve the public interest" (2009).

2.6.2. Objectivity

The concept of objectivity in journalism developed almost as a century ago. Long held as a central normative ideal of professionalism, and neutral journalism, particularly in the US, and an ethos of much journalism around the world, the aspiration towards objectivity reflects a set of practices and ideas in relation to news making that is presently undergoing increasing degrees of scrutiny (Barbie & Stuart, 2010).

Objectivity is one of professional organizational identity that stretches across organizations (Zala, 2008). The question of objectivity arose as a reaction to the sensational reporting (Debora, 2006). As argued by scholars, firstly objectivity was related to the journalistic approach or method, but later on it was required from the journalist himself.

In today's journalism, it is strongly believed that it is impossible to apply objectivity absolutely. The argument is that as a human being, journalists cannot be free from their opinion in their reporting and because of this, for example, in 1996 the U.S. Society of professional journalists dropped objectivity from their list of codes of ethics (Ibid).

There are arguments by Debora Potter on the applicability of objectivity. According to her by using objective, scientific method for verifying information, journalists can report stories that do not reflect their own personal views. This is to mean that the story itself should be impartial and

fair. But the point is to what extent does a journalist can be free from his opinion or his/her organization influence? (2006). For example, a journalist whose professional identity resists writing commercial stories may be forced into doing so by their organizational identity (Zala, 2008). Because of all these challenges, as stated by Mark, objectivity has a problematic status in current thinking, like the impossibility of value-neutrality, revisiting the value with synonymous concepts: “fairness” and “impartiality” (2005).

Nevertheless, researchers have shown that most Journalists agree on the importance of reporting objectively, getting information to the public quickly and providing analysis of events and issues. But there are indications that acting as a watchdog on government and providing scope for the public to express them are given less importance (Karin & Gunnar, 2013).

2.6.3. Autonomy

Journalists all over the world voice concerns regarding their freedom to work as they please (Mark, 2005). In the sociology of journalism, news is seen as the product of institution, but on the other hand, journalists tend to explain news as the product of professional judgment (Helle, 2013). This discrepancy invites interrogations into the nature of autonomy as a matter of professional trait.

Editorial autonomy is invoked in the face of any extra journalistic or management-driven force. In an increasing transparent and sometimes even participatory news ecology, ‘autonomy’ as an individual-level concept is quite problematic and working in multimedia news teams, Journalists have to at least learn to share autonomy (Mark, 2005).

The concept of autonomy is commonly associated with the political realm and definitions tend to emphasize autonomy as the right to self-government, where the self-governing state is characterized by independence, sovereignty and jurisdictional reach (Helle, 2013).

2.6.4. Ethics

As argued by scholars, ethics works within the context of journalism culture that assumes a critical public – service function of the work in professional or semi-professional setting distinct from marketing or promotional media content, to make it more clearer, journalism ethics

scholarship draws from moral philosophy in its use of concepts such as autonomy, harm, and justice. It also represents an applied ethics approach, focusing as it often does on case studies and analyses of situation that pose dilemmas involving protection of journalistic credibility or potential harm to story subjects (Partrick, 2016).

Parallel to the history, 20th century professionalization of journalism runs the history of professional codes of ethics especially since the adoption of the Code of Bordeaux by the International Federation of Journalists in 1956 and following this even there is a debate on the importance of ethics in journalism though there are agreements in several countries at least on the key elements: commitment to truth and objectivity (Mark, 2005).

As to the worldwide trend, media organizations code their ethics for journalists. In our case for example, FBC has code of ethics of journalists which includes keeping accuracy, credibility and balance in routine works of journalism, tackling activities that damages ABC's (Accuracy, Balance, Credibility), keeping the secrets of confidential sources, avoiding brown envelop, being free from personal opinions and beliefs, selecting credible sources of information, avoiding one sided story including all possible sources of information and respecting the journalism profession (FBC, 1995).

The basic assumption of social responsibility theory is “the press in any society should be responsible to the society in the performance of its functions. Even though the press is ideally supposed to enjoy immense freedom, it must be seen to be carrying out certain essential functions of mass communication and journalism with the observance of professional ethics. In other words, the freedom the press enjoys comes with concomitant responsibilities” (Fassy, 2016).

2.7. Factors that influence journalists professional identity

In particular to journalism profession, it is better to define the factors based on the professional dimensions: Normative and Cognitive. As discussed far before normative taxonomy of profession centers on the service orientation of professionals and their distinctive ethics. It is assumed that when journalists are serving the public, they are autonomous. Of course, in the sociology of journalism, news is seen as the product of an institution (Helle, 2013). As argued by

Helle news selection is not only determined by journalistic standards, it is also shaped by social factors, such as editorial hierarchy, conflict avoidance and normative behavior as well as institutional practices, socialization processes and professionalization efforts which are all factors that contribute to limiting the autonomy of the reporter and shaping the news (2013). Autonomy, self-regulation is about freedom, protects the right of journalists to be independent and impartial, and to be judged for professional mistakes, not by those in power, but by their colleagues and to maintain this press councils are essentially good for building trust and credibility in the media, for serving as a driver to improve quality standards, for preventing interference from the state and other authorities (UNESCO, 2011). Being autonomous for professional journalists is normative behavior in this way that self-identities can be built up.

Autonomy in the journalistic field can be structured between two poles: on the one end, there is the absolute independence from economic and political interest, usually connected with public funding, and on the other end, the compliance with commercial and political powers, usually connected with private ownership (Kaarina, 2013).

According Helle, editorial hierarchy, conflict avoidance and normative behaviors are social factors that restrict Journalistic autonomy and also institutional practices, socialization processes, professionalization efforts and level of hierarchy (as a general rule higher position in the professional hierarchy render more autonomy than lower positions) contribute a lot in limiting the autonomy the reporter and shaping the news (2013).

Objectivity is also another important point from the normative dimension of the profession. Some scholars like Chalaby (1998) called journalism as a ‘fact based discursive practice’ rather than a literacy, philosophical or political commentary on current affairs and on the other way non-western journalism do not even include adherence to ‘objectivity’ as a major characteristics of news work in Egypt, Tanzania, Nepal and the new notion of “contextual objectivity” has emerged to explain the editorial policies of non-western cable news channels like Aljazeera (Karin & Thomas, 2009).

Different practices show that a journalist’s political view has influence on his/her reporting. For example, an extensive survey conducted in Italy, Germany, Sweden, Britain and American journalists, both print and broadcast, showed that the relationship between objectivity and political view. And US journalists almost uniformly report that their political views have no

relationship to the views of employees and Italian and German journalists at national newspapers say that their political views are close to their paper (Karin & Thomas, 2009).

A variety of factors that influence behaviors of journalists, according to Patrick, are categorized under six levels (2016). These are : *Individual level* – personal opinions, values, and demographic data as well as information on specific roles and occupational characteristics within a news organization, *Media routines level* – include deadlines, production procedures, and standards , *Organizational level*- technological imperatives, advertising or revenue considerations and editorial decision making, *Media structures level* – the economic model of news that entails profitability and resource allocation as realities in the relatively high costs of news production , *The Systematic level*-ideological assumptions and degree of press freedoms and *Reference group level* – spans at professional and personal domains to include competing news organizations, audiences, colleagues, friends and family members.

Based on a review of self-categorization theory, which is part of self-identity, Serena and others (2016) divide those factors of professional self-identity can be categorized into four dimensions: **Personal identity** – which is self-variable and examines to what extent journalists refer themselves and includes first-person reference “I”, **Organizational identity** – the person/Journalist define himself/herself as an extension of the organization, **Journalistic Profession Identification** – promote values, norms and symbols that reflect the ideals of journalism, and the last one dimension, **Human race Identity**- emphasizes people, humans and society in general (e.g. “I am a longtime supporter of causes that promote child and adult literacy (2016). From the normative dimension of factors that influence journalist’s professional self-identity rather than Patrick model, Serena and others model is best fit to this thesis. Of course, out of the four dimensions, though the research is focused on the professional self - identity of journalists in FBC, it is preferable to see only from two perspectives: Self-identity and Journalistic Professional Identification.

As recognized by this research, journalism as a profession has value and a desirable goal to be pursued. To achieve this goal, exclusive knowledge has power and this power is obtained and maintained by control over the recruitment, training and performance of work that involves creating, disseminating and applying knowledge (Singer, 2003).

Generally the broad factors that affect the journalism professional identity, role or process can be listed as education, career aspiration, attitudes, training, work experience, job satisfaction, working conditions, competence, professional certification, professional organization, role perception, professional specialization, professional standard and self-concept (Ioana,2013).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the methodological approaches that are used to collect and analyze data. It also explains and justifies the methods and techniques.

The research employed quantitative methodology with structured questionnaire composed of close-ended and some open-ended questions together were used for collecting primary data. Quantitative research methodologies generate numerical data and mathematical techniques are used to describe, organize as well as explore relationships within the data (Klaus, 1991).

3.2. Study population and its setting

This study relied on the primary data gained from journalists who are working in FBC, FM 98.1. Though FBC has 12 FM radio stations across Ethiopia, the research considered the center as its population. This is because; in terms of number of journalists and experience wise, the center is more convenient for the research than the rest. Additionally, FBC produce programs and news not only in Amharic language, but also in Afan Oromo, Somali, Tigrigna, Wolayta, Sidama and Afar languages. Under the research population at the central office, there are journalists who are working with Amharic, Afan Oromo, Somali and Afar languages are included.

3.2.1. Sampling method

The total number of journalists who were working in FBC's 12 FM radio stations were around 400, and there are 112 journalists at the center, (i.e. Addis Ababa station), according to the Human Resource Department. During the collection of lists, it was learnt that from the total population in the center (including FM 98.1 station), journalists in the Amharic (News, News show, program and entertainment departments), Afan Oromo, Somali and Afar languages are 75, 24, 5 and 8 respectively.

Hence probability sampling method was applied to select a representative sample of about 36 journalists using proportionate stratified sampling method. This systematic design considered if gender and department (Amharic, Afan Oromo, Afar and Somali) may turn out to show significant differences in the professional self-identity of journalists. Thus, the representative sample had drawn by taking 32 percent samples from each stratified group randomly.

3.3. Data collection methods

Combinations of different primary and secondary data collection methods was applied and the methods included were related to the literature review and structured questionnaire with some open-ended self-administered questions were distributed to 36 journalists working in FBC from March 28, 2017 to may April 3, 2017

3.3.1. Primary Data

The research tried to collect primary data by distributing questionnaire with close-ended and some open-ended questions. Thus the structured questionnaire has two sections; The first is general information or demographic information and the other is related to professional values based on normative and cognitive dimensions. The medium of data administration was English and Amharic.

To secure the clarity of questions for survey questionnaire based on purposive sampling method, a pilot study was conducted on 15 sample respondents from all groups under study. The analysis of the pilot study provided a constructive feedback to correct and rephrase some of the poorly stated statements, and vague and ambiguous expressions in the questionnaire. More than that, this pilot survey helped the researcher to exclude and shape any redundant questions related to autonomy (journalistic freedom) and journalistic ethics. In addition, from the pilot study, encouraging results has been found. For instance, a significant number of journalists [respondents] who came across from other fields of study sometimes apply those ideally accepted values of journalism profession (serving the public, objective reporting, exercising journalistic freedom and ethical values).

3.4. Methods of Data processing and presentation

The quantitative data has been entered into a data file (SPSS) and analyzed statistically. Apart from generating frequencies for some of the variables, means comparison and Eta measures of association were used to examine the group difference in terms of some group variables such as journalistic commitment to serve the public, Autonomy, Objective reporting and ethics orientation.

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 (Bryman, 2004). The reason for selecting Eta measure is its flexibility for exploring the relationship between two variables and it can be employed when one variable is nominal and the other is a scale or interval with limited group labels. Group variation has been studied based on factors such as gender in which they work with as stated in the objectives and basic research questions.

The data analysis was also presented by using frequency tables, figure, and statistical summary tables. To make the data presentation easy, statistical outputs were generated by using SPSS and were presented directly in the text. Some are attached under appendix for reference and some important data were summarized in statistical summary tables.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The major objectives of this study are to examine self-identities of journalists in FBC and to identify some similarities and differences between male and female journalists. In addition, the research tried to answer the questions: What is FBC journalist's professional self-identity? And are there different perceptions on the profession between male and female journalists? Therefore, the data were collected based on the objectives through quantitative method. In this chapter, the presentation and analysis of data are made with the help of Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS)

4.1. Data Presentation

Among the 36 self-administered questionnaires filled, two was incomplete and as a result discarded from the data file.

4.1.1. Demographic Profile of Journalists

As summarized in table 1, majority of the respondents (55.9%) are between the ages of 20-30. In terms of work experience, 53% and 29.4 % of the respondents had 3-7 years and 8-12 years journalism work experience respectively.

Concerning the journalist's educational background, while the majority, i.e. 85.3% had acquired B.A., (Bachelor of the Arts) and B.S., (Bachelor of Science) from a university, only 8.8 % of the respondents were graduated with MA (Master's Degree). Hence, 94.1 % of the respondents have either bachelor's degree or MA. Of those who attended and graduated from university or other tertiary educational institutions, only 41.2% of them have majored journalism (see table 2). However, majority of journalists, 44.1%, graduated with Language and Literature. The rest 8.8% are graduated with other social science fields.

According to the survey, 76.5% and 14.7% of respondents were also working in Amharic and Afan Oromo languages departments respectively.

Table 1: Profile of journalists by sex, age, experience, level of education and working language

Variables	Label	Frequency	Table Valid N %	Row Total N %
Sex	Male	25	73.5%	100.0%
	Female	9	26.5%	100.0%
Age	20-30	19	55.9%	100.0%
	31-40	15	44.1%	100.0%
	41-50	0	0.0%	0.0%
	above 50	0	0.0%	0.0%
Work experience	less than 3	5	14.7%	100.0%
	3-7	18	52.9%	100.0%
	8-12	10	29.4%	100.0%
	above 12	1	2.9%	100.0%
Level of education	secondary education	0	0.0%	0.0%
	Certificate	1	2.9%	100.0%
	Diploma	1	2.9%	100.0%
	B.A / BSC	29	85.3%	100.0%
	Masters	3	8.8%	100.0%
Working language	Amharic	26	76.5%	100.0%
	Afan Oromo	5	14.7%	100.0%
	Somali	1	2.9%	100.0%
	Afar	2	5.9%	100.0%

Table 2: Respondents field of study

		Field of study			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1. Journalism and Communication	14	41.2	41.2	41.2
	2. Language and literature	15	44.1	44.1	85.3
	3. Theatrical Art	2	5.9	5.9	91.2
	4. Other Social Sciences	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

4.1.2. Journalists' perception, motivation and commitment

4.1.2.1. Perceptions towards journalism education and the profession

In the survey, journalists were provided with questions to express their perceptions on the importance of journalism education for the occupation in general. Accordingly, majority of the respondents (82.4%), underscored the importance of journalism education for quality service, whereas 17.6% of the respondents deny the essentiality of education and believe that the profession can be practiced without having journalism educational background.

Table 3: Perception of journalism education

		F	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Is journalism education essential?	Yes, it is essential	28	82.4	82.4	82.4
	Not essential	6	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

In the survey, the respondents were also asked whether journalism is a profession or not. While some 94.1 percent said journalism is a profession, the rest 5.9 percent did not see journalism as a profession (see table 4).

Table 4: Journalists' perception of the profession

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Is Journalism A profession?	Yes, it is a profession	32	94.1	94.1
	No, it is not a profession	2	5.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	

As could be understood from table 5, 85.3% of the respondents were not enrolled in education program. Few others (i.e. 14.7%) had continued their education.

Table 5: Respondent’s motivation on their educational enrollment

Are you currently enrolled in education?				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	5	14.7	14.7	14.7
Valid No	29	85.3	85.3	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

The journalists were also asked whether they perceive themselves as professional journalist or not and 70.6 % of the respondents saw themselves as professional journalists, while 17.6 % did not consider themselves to be professional journalists. As cited in table 6, 8.8 % of journalists are confused as to whether to label themselves as professional, nonprofessional or freelancers.

Table 6: Respondents’ perceptions towards their professional identity

Journalists perception about themselves				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Professional journalist	24	70.6	70.6	70.6
Not professional journalist	6	17.6	17.6	88.2
I do not know	3	8.8	8.8	97.1
Like other	1	2.9	2.9	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

In the survey, the respondent journalists were also asked whether they were attending any journalism education [courses] or if they had taken any training relevant for their journalism career. In their responses, 67.6 % of them assured that they had taken training/courses formally or informally. According to their responses, the trainings they had taken include courses on basic journalism, print journalism, health journalism, news production and development Journalism]. Those respondents who graduated from university have specialized in print and broadcast fields of journalism.

Table 7: Have you taken special course/ training in journalism?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	23	67.6	67.6	67.6
No	11	32.4	32.4	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

4.1.2.2. Motivation

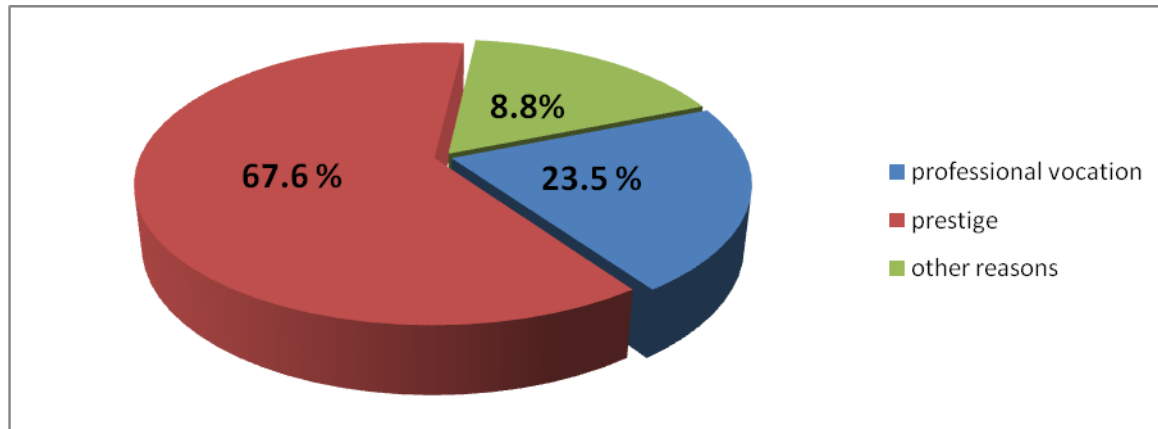
The respondents were asked some direct questions to explore professional self-identities by examining their motivation towards journalism. Therefore, they were asked for their reasons for choosing journalism as their career path. As illustrated in fig. 1 and table 8 below, the majority of the respondents (67.6%) said they became Journalist due to the prestige associated with the field, while 23.5 % said they became journalists because of professional vocation.

Then again, some of the journalists joined the occupation from various educational backgrounds such as language and literature, theatrical art and other social sciences. From these responses, it is possible to understand the liberality of journalism as an occupation to invite [people from] every field of studies.

Table 8: Reason to choice journalism as career path

Respondent's reason to choose journalism as their current career					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Why?	Professional vocation	8	23.5	23.5	23.5
	Prestige	23	67.6	67.6	91.2
	Another reason	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Figure 1 : Why you joined journalism?



Another related question that the journalists were asked was the degree of pride associated with being journalists. Hence, they were asked about the confidence and self-esteem they developed in their career. Thus, the majority (41%) said they were absolutely proud and 35.2 % said they are proud enough. As depicted in table 9, 17.6 % (8.8 % each) have said they are fairly proud and rarely proud respectively.

Table 9: How do you level your pride on your current career, say for instance, do you tell your occupation to others?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Absolutely Proud	14	41.2	41.2	41.2
Proud enough	12	35.3	35.3	76.5
Fairly proud	2	5.9	5.9	82.4
Rarely proud	3	8.8	8.8	91.2
Never at all	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

4.1.2.3. Commitment

In the survey, to measure their commitment to the occupation, the respondents were also asked whether they plan to stay in their current occupation or not. Accordingly, 88.2 % of them were

committed to keep on in the profession. The rest, (11.8%), as presented in table 10 have no plan to stay in their current profession.

Table 10. Do you have a plan to stay in current career?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	30	88.2	88.2	88.2
No	4	11.8	11.8	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

4.1.3. Journalists professional normative values

4.1.3.1. Serving the public, Autonomy, Objective reporting and Ethical values

In the survey, respondents were asked to express themselves in terms of the most widely accepted normative value of journalism profession. According to Mark (2005), journalism professional ideologies (concepts, elements and values) can be categorized into five: serving the public, autonomy, objectivity, immediacy and ethics. Thus, journalists were given with the chance to express their self-identity in terms of these ideological values. Scale ranges 3, 2, and 1 were given for “I apply it fully”, “I apply it partly/sometimes” and “I do not apply at all” respectively. Accordingly, questions from 1 up to 4 represents serving the public value, 5 for Autonomous, 6 up to 11 for Objective reporting and 12 up to 15 for ethical orientations.

Table 11: Respondents journalistic professional Normative value application

Normative values of journalism profession	Mean	Not at all		Partially applied		Fully applied	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Commitment to serve the public	2.76	1	2.9%	6	17.6%	27	79.4%
Telling the news accurately	2.68	1	2.9%	7	20.6%	26	76.5%
Producing the news that encompasses the majority interest	2.48	2	5.9%	15	44.1%	17	50.0%
Getting information quickly	2.60	1	2.9%	11	32.4%	22	64.7%
Deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources	2.44	3	8.8%	17	50.0%	14	41.2%
Using neutral sources	2.20	1	2.9%	23	67.6%	10	29.4%
Original reporting	2.36	3	8.8%	13	38.2%	18	52.9%
Not to include personal opinion	2.08	4	11.8%	23	67.6%	7	20.6%
Not to produce one sided story	2.48	3	8.8%	12	35.3%	19	55.9%
Encompassing different views	2.64	1	2.9%	9	26.5%	24	70.6%
Analysis of event and news	2.60	2	5.9%	10	29.4%	22	64.7%
Using dishonest tactics	2.52	5	14.7%	7	20.6%	22	64.7%
Publicizing mistakes	2.52	3	8.8%	10	29.4%	21	61.8%
Respecting the right of confidential sources	2.84	1	2.9%	3	8.8%	30	88.2%
Introducing self and the media house	2.88	1	2.9%	1	2.9%	32	94.1%

Thus, respondents rated their individual professional identity in terms of journalistic ideological values. The analysis of the responses is depicted in table 11 and respondents rated the mean values for *Introducing self and your media outlet in requesting the information from sources* (**2.88**), *Respect the right of confidential sources/interviewees* (**2.84**), *Commitment to serve the public* (**2.76**) and *Telling the news/Journalistic information/ to the public accurately* (**2.68**) as fully apply..

While the variables *Not to include personal opinion in the news or program* (**2.08**), *Using neutral sources* (**2.20**) and *Based on the editorial policy deciding freely to select story angles, narrative frames, sources to use* scored less mean value (**2.44**). The remaining items are listed in table 11. The analysis at this stage seemed to suggest that in terms of normative values of the journalism profession, FBC journalists' professional self-identity shows that the journalists fully apply those ideological value categories.

In addition, to examine group variation in terms of their normative professional values, a further analysis was made using gender group (between Male & Female). To route this statistical measurement, the mean value of every item (value) was compared for every group of the independent variables (gender). And a measure of association (eta and eta squared) techniques were applied to analyze the between group difference. Table 12 summarizes the mean value comparison and association. 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 the group. It is the ratio of the between-groups sum of squares and the total sum of squares. The output 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 normative values or journalism ideological values with the exception of autonomous and objective reporting which is recorded as large effect (**0.95**) and near to moderate effect (**0.46**) respectively.

Table 12: Variation of normative values within male and female journalists

Normative variables of journalism profession	Gender			A measure of Association	
	Male N= 25	Female N=9	Total		
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Eta	eta ²
Commitment to serve the public	2.76	2.78	2.76	.016	.000
Telling the news accurately	2.68	2.89	2.74	.183	.034
Producing the news that encompasses the majority interest	2.48	2.33	2.44	.107	.011
Getting information quickly	2.60	2.67	2.62	.054	.003
Deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources	2.44	2.00	2.32	.309	.095
Using neutral sources	2.20	2.44	2.26	.214	.046
Original reporting	2.36	2.67	2.44	.208	.043
Not to include personal opinion	2.08	2.11	2.09	.024	.001
Not to produce one sided story	2.48	2.44	2.47	.024	.001
Encompassing different views	2.64	2.78	2.68	.115	.013
Analysis of event and news	2.60	2.56	2.59	.033	.001
using dishonest tactics	2.52	2.44	2.50	.045	.002
Publicizing mistakes	2.52	2.56	2.53	.024	.001
Respecting the right of confidential sources	2.84	2.89	2.85	.050	.003
Introducing self and the media house	2.88	3.00	2.91	.142	.020

As depicted in table 12, the eta square of variables like *not to include personal opinion*, *not to produce one sided story*, *analysis of events and news* and *publicizing mistakes* are the same, which is .001. This means, the analysis at this stage shows that indicated values has a small effect on gender.

In relation to mean value normative professional variables like *introducing self and the media* (2.88), *respecting the right of confidential sources* (2.84) and *commitment to serve the public* (2.76) have high value.

4.2. Discussion

In the previous presentation, the findings from quantitative analysis are discussed based on the established objective of the study. Accordingly, the discussion focuses on the demographic profile of journalists, journalists' perception, motivation and commitment towards the profession and its education. Moreover, under the normative values of professionalization, the values: serving the public, objective reporting, journalistic autonomous and professional ethics are also discussed to examine FBC's journalists' professional self-identity. Lastly, to identify the difference in professional self-identity among male and female journalists, comparisons were made and discussed under this topic. The discussion concentrates on the major components of the findings. As assumed by the student researcher, these discussions will lead to the conclusion of the study.

4.2.1. Journalists background and characteristics

4.2.1.1. Gender

According to the findings of this study, male journalists (73.6%), were more than female (26.4%) in FBC. The proportion of female to male journalists is almost one to four. It is clear that the media house is dominated by male journalists.

4.2.1.2. Age and Experience

As it was analyzed in the previous discussion, majority of the respondents (55.9%) are ranged between the ages of 20-30. Those respondents who are above 31 years of age do not exceed 15 percent. Therefore, this data may seem to divulge that journalism is a career for youngsters. The range of work experiences of respondents by and large was less than 8 years; and this may reinforce the argument that journalism in FBC is mainly practiced by young journalists, yet 88.2 percent of the respondents have plans to keep on practicing journalism in the future. Though Birhanu cites Weaver's notion as "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” (2006).

4.2.2. Educational background and journalism profession

4.2.2.1. Educational qualification

The findings on the educational qualification of the respondents show that journalists who have BA/BSC degree are the majority and the majority of the staff members are graduated with Language and Literature. On the other hand, though there are significant number of journalists from the field of Journalism and Communication, though they are not the majority.

In addition, the number of respondents who have taken special journalism trainings are larger than those who do not. As argued by Singer (2003), exclusive knowledge about the profession has power and this power is obtained and maintained by control over the recruitment, training and performance of work that involves creating, disseminating and applying knowledge.

4.2.2.2. Journalism and Education

In the survey, 82.4% of the respondents agreed on the essentiality of education for practicing journalism. Only few respondents said journalism education is not essential and believe that “it is possible to practice the profession without journalism education.” That is why the educational background of some 44.1% of the respondents is language and literature. As argued by Lowenstein and Merrill 1990, as cited in Birhanu M.A. Project (2006), those who disregard journalism education most often do not have Journalism education and they may know little about modern journalism and mass communication. However, the survey result revealed that the majority of respondents believed in the importance of journalism education. Though, journalism education was a late phenomenon in Ethiopia, unlike in the West, FBC journalists recognize the importance of journalism education.

4.2.3. Career background, motivation and self-image

The majority of respondents stated that they had joined the occupation from other fields of study, mainly from language and literature, political science and theatrical art. These seem to indicate that unlike other professions, journalism is a career where anybody with a different educational

background easily gets into. Shoemaker & Reese quoted Weaver & Wilhoit (1991) that “because most people think that they can write (whether they can or not), they often think that they would think 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” (1996).

On the other hand, the majority of respondents, i.e. 67.6 % choose journalism as a career path because of the prestige associated with it. Professional vocation is the second reason for most to join journalism. These seem that being a journalist or associating oneself with the organization valued more. Of course, as argued by scholars like Ioana & George “nowadays professional identity is a much desirable label, offering value and prestige to an organization in which individuals operate and the value that members bring with them expertise translates into results, objectives and goals achieved” (2013).

Concerning the pride associated with their current career, though few respondents (about 8.8%) said they were not proud about their profession at all, the majority of them are proud enough.

In relation to the respondent’s motivation to continue practicing journalism, while some 88.2% of the respondents have a plan to stay in the profession in the future, only 11.8% have no plan to stay. The result of the survey shows that the majority of them have committed themselves to continue in journalism. Of course, as argued by Tan (2014), professional identity is the self that has been developed with the commitment to perform competently and legitimately in the context of the profession. It is the lifelong development process through the carrier, and shapes by the interaction between the personal and professional values and experiences that result in self-image within the group (Douwe& et al., 2003). Thus, as majority of the respondents have plans to stay in the profession, they may have a chance to develop their professional identity through their career.

In the survey, the responses of the journalists regarding their self-image resemble that of a professional journalist. This means that as argued by Karin & Thomas “being a professional means abiding by certain norms and accepting the uniformity of practices” (2009). Depending on the survey result, it is possible to say that the majority journalists’ Self- identity in FBC can be categorized as professional.

4.2.4. Journalists professional normative values: Serving the public, Autonomous, Objective reporting and Ethics

4.2.4.1. Serving the public

Serving the public is an ideal value that can be seen as a powerful component of journalism's ideology. Under this normative value of Journalism profession, high mean value is recorded for the variable *commitment to serve the public*. But the low mean value was found in other variables like *to encompass the majority's interest*. In other words, the number of journalists who have that commitment to serve the public are higher than those who do not encompass the majority's interest in their reporting. These results may show that majority of the respondents have professional self-identity that is expressed in their commitment to serve the public. As argued by scholars "A commitment to citizen is more than professional egoism. It is the implied covenant with the public" (Niemann Report, 2001).

4.2.4.2. Autonomous

As stated in the data presentation, those journalists who apply partially their professional autonomy are 50 % with a mean value of 2.44. Autonomy and Authority, according to Beaten Josephi as cited in the Nieman Report, are dependent to a particular great extent on journalists claim to serve the public's interest" (2001).

From the survey result, it's possible to conclude that half of the respondents did not exercise journalistic freedom and few (8.8%) of the respondents did not exercise Autonomy at all. The responses of FBC's journalist regarding self-identity may show that they had partial professional autonomy.

4.2.4.3. Objective Reporting

As discussed before, it has become difficult to report objectively in today's Journalism practice, But it is up to the journalist to do so. And most journalists agree on the importance of reporting objectively, getting information to the public quickly and providing analysis of events and issues. Based on the methods like *using neutral sources, original reporting, not to include personal opinion* and others mentioned in the survey, the researcher tried to analyze journalists' professional self-identities. Thus, even if 2.9% do not apply [the above mentioned values] at all,

70% of respondents encompass different views in their reporting fully. And 67.6% use neutral sources partially when they are reporting or producing a radio program.

As argued by scholars like Debora (2006), in today's journalism, it is strongly believed that it is impossible to apply objectivity in reporting absolutely and therefore for example, in 1996 the U.S. Society of professional journalists dropped objectivity from their list of codes of ethics. Hence, depending on the above survey result, it is possible to say that FBC journalist's professional self-identity revealed that they partially apply objectivity in their reporting.

Therefore, FBC journalist's self-identity bears a resemblance to encompass different views fully in their objective reporting with the lack of using neutral information source. Further, according to the journalists' self-identity, they include different views fully in their objective reporting, yet there is gap in using neutral information source.

4.2.4.4. Ethics

Respondents were made to express themselves in terms of ethical values of journalism profession and the result shows that the majority of them, (94.1%) always introduce themselves and their media when they gather information from the sources and 88.2% of the respondents fully respect the right of confidential sources.

Like other media organizations, FBC also has the widely accepted code of ethics of journalists which include keeping the secrets of confidential sources. Hence, in terms of ethics, FBC journalists' professional self-identity revealed that they tend to keep the secrets of confidential sources and introduce themselves and their media to their sources.

Group Variation on Normative professional values

The variation of serving the public between gender groups had no major impact because the survey showed that the difference has a small effect. A little mean value difference was recorded between male and female journalists in terms of values: *commitment to serve the public (male 2.76, female 2.78)*, *telling the news accurately (male 2.68, female 2.89)*, *producing the news that encompasses the majority interest (male 2.48, female 2.33)*, *getting information quickly (male 2.60, female 2.67)*.

The measure of association η^2 of all serving the public values is around .01 and from this result; it is possible to conclude that as one of the normative professional values, serving the public has a small effect between male and female journalists.

In other professional normative value, *Autonomous* $\eta^2=.095$ showed moderate effect. In this regard, male journalists' rated mean value to decide freely to select the story angle frame and sources was 2.44. Female journalists' mean value for the same autonomous item was 2.00.

In terms of objective reporting, the mean value difference between male and female journalists is very little and the group association η^2 is less than .06, which is a small effect.

In regard to ethical orientations, journalist's professional self-identity variation between male and female journalists is also small with the η^2 value of less than .03 and the mean value difference is also with the maximum of 2.5 for Male and 2.44 for Female.

Thus, from the survey result, it is valid to draw statement which claims that Female journalists respect the right of confidential sources (**2.89**) and introduce self and the media house (**3.00**) than a Male journalist with the mean value of **2.84** and **2.88** respectively. Regarding, publicizing mistakes also Male journalists recorded less mean value (**2.52**) than female respondents (**2.56**). These mean differences may suggest that female journalists are more loyal to ethical values than their male counterparts.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to examine self-identities of journalists, understand it in relation to professional values and identify some similarities and differences between male and female journalists regarding self-identities. In order to investigate the problem, three basic research questions were asked. Modeled after Weaver (1998) and Ramaprasad (2002) cited in Birhanu (2006), a questionnaire was prepared by adapting some of the question into Ethiopian and the research context.

The questionnaire was disseminated to 36 sample respondents selected by proportionate stratified sampling method. The quantitative data processing was done and managed by SPSS Application software.

Accordingly, the findings on socio-demographic profile of FBC journalists revealed that the typical FBC journalists in the mid 2017 were male in terms of gender, young in terms of age and work experience. In addition they had higher educational institution with language and literature and took some trainings in journalism.

Concerning journalist's perception and motivation about the journalism profession, the finding showed that FBC journalists believed in the importance of journalism education; they perceived journalism as a profession; they joined the profession because of its prestige, and they are committed to stay in journalism in the future. They also expressed their self-identity as professional journalists and had absolute pride in their current career.

In relation to normative values of journalism profession, FBC Journalists, according to the findings, are committed to serve the public. Yet few journalists did not encompass different interest of people in their reporting, exercise professional autonomy. They also partially applied

objective reporting. Some introduce themselves and the media when they gather information from the sources, respect the right and secrets of confidential sources fully.

Regarding variation between genders in professional normative value application, FBC female journalists were better than their male counterparts in respecting the right of confidential sources, publicizing mistakes if they commit one and introducing themselves and the media house fully to their clients. Whereas male journalists were bold in exercising professional autonomy, analyzing event and news and not using dishonest tactics to get information from sources.

In conclusion, this thesis, tried to examine different professional self-identities based on the professional normative and cognitive values from the journalists themselves. FBC journalists had a good perception towards the importance of journalism education. They also categorized themselves as journalists who opted to join the profession because of its prestige. They have also absolute confidence in the profession with majority of them having enough pride in the profession.

Nevertheless, since the research findings show a perception of journalists, care must be taken to take them to establish assumptions that the actual practice of journalists is unswervingly similar. Care must also be taken in making generalization about such kind of self-identity studies, because it provides only personal views than exactly showing the practical and real situations. This is because the real professional self-identities can be shaped and affected by the social environment. The real situations may be gained by encompassing other components in the system.

On the other hand, self-identities are more complex and they develop through a career with the influence of both the organizational and social environment. Though this M.A project focused on FBC journalists' self-identities depending on professional Normative and Cognitive values, due attention must be taken in making conclusion about the whole picture.

It is believed; however, that the findings from this study may prompt another study of journalists by including other regions and media houses. It is also imperative to consider that there is no other previous research on journalists' professional self-identities with which to equate the findings of this research. Therefore, this study may put a baseline for future studies.

5.2. Recommendations

Following this research challenging research questions may arise and the researcher recommends further studies on

- How does FBC journalists' professional self-identities compare with that of journalists in other parts of Ethiopia and the world?
- What differences exist between perceived and actual self-identities of FBC journalists?
- How the social context, both the media house and the society influenced the professional self - identity of FBC journalists?
- How journalists developed their existing self-identities?

If future studies are conducted on these issues, they would have relevance in giving the broader image about journalists' professional self-identities.

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Appendix 1

Research questionnaire

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM AND COMMUNICATION

Dear journalist/ Editor

I am conducting a survey of professional self-identity of journalists which targets at journalists who are working in Fana Broadcasting Corporate. 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 that your responses will be kept anonymous and only the researcher will have access. Therefore, please feel free to provide your genuine response.

Only you are genuine in your responses that can yield a meaningful research output, 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

*I appreciate your kind cooperation and I thank you individually for
Completing the questionnaire*

Section one

Please circle one letter of your choice for the questions provided

1. What is your perception on Journalism education?
 - A. Journalism education is very important for quality service
 - B. Education does not matter, because journalism can be done without its education
2. Are you currently enrolled in continuing education program?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
3. If yes in what field of study -----
4. Have you taken or attended any journalism course?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
5. If your answer for question number 5 is “Yes” what sort of special course or training did you attend? -----
6. Why did you choose journalism as your current occupation/ career
 - A. Professional vocation
 - B. By chance
 - C. Economic needs
 - D. Prestige
 - E. Other, Specify -----
7. How do you level your proudness of your current career, say for instance do you tell your occupation to others?
 - A. Absolutely Proud
 - B. Proud enough
 - C. Fairly proud

D. Rarely Express myself

E. Never tell it

8. How do you see yourself?

A. Professional Journalist

B. Not professional journalist

C. Freelancer

D. I do not know

E. Like other, Specify -----

9. Do you plan to stay in your current profession?

A. Yes

B. No

10. Is journalism a profession?

A. Yes

B. No

11. Codes of conduct, by which professionals claim authority, can regulate themselves and also one of the main values of journalism profession is serving the public by respecting the traditional values. So how do you apply those widely accepted journalism professional values at your work? Please put ‘√’ sign on your best self-express choice

3 = I apply it fully

2 = I apply it partly/sometimes

1 = I do not apply at all

No.	Journalists professional normative value	Scale		
		3	2	1
	Serving the public			
1.	Commitment to serve the public			
2.	Telling the news/Journalistic information/ to the public accurately			
3.	Producing the news/program that encompasses the majority interest			
4.	Getting information to the public quickly			
	Autonomous			
5	Deciding freely to select story angles, narrative frames, sources to use			

	Objectivity			
6	Using neutral sources in news or programs			
7	Rely on your own original reporting			
8	Adding any information that is not in the story			
9	Producing one sided story			
10	Listening to different view points and incorporating to them into the journalistic work			
11	Analysis of event and news			
	Ethical values			
12	Using dishonest tactics to get stories (like paying money for your source)			
13	Publicizing mistakes (if you have done) without delay			
14	Respect the right of confidential sources/interviewees			
15	Introducing self and your media outlet in requesting the information from sources			

Section two

Please circle one letter of your categorization

1. Your age
 - A. 20 – 30 yrs
 - B. 21 – 40 yrs
 - C. 41 – 50 yrs
 - D. D. > 50 yrs

2. Gender
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
3. Total year of experience in journalism career
 - A. 3 or below
 - B. 4 – 7
 - C. 8 – 11
 - D. 12 – 15
 - E. 16 or above
4. Please indicate your highest obtained qualification
 - A. Certificate for secondary school leaving
 - B. College diploma
 - C. BA/ BSC
 - D. PHD
 - E. Other, Specify -----
5. What field of study had you pursued? -----
(Indicate for example, as Accounting, Geography, Journalism, etc.....)

6. In which language do you work journalism
 - A. Amharic
 - B. Afaan Oromiffa
 - C. Somali
 - D. Afar

Appendix 2

**የሁለተኛ ዲግሪ መመረቂያ ፅሁፍ ማሟያ ጥናት ቃለ መጠይቅ
አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የጋዜጠኝነትና ኮሙኒኬሽን ት/ቤት**

ውድ የቃለ መጠይቁ ተሳታፊ ጋዜጠኞች

በፋና ብሮድካስቲንግ ኮረፖሬት ጋዜጠኞች የሞያ ማንነት ላይ ለሁለተኛ ዲግሪ ማሟያ ጥናት በመስራት እገኛለሁ ። ለዚህም ጥናት ቃለ መጠይቅ እርስዎ ተመርጠዋል በመሆኑም በቃለ መጠይቁ ላይ የሚያሰፍሯቸው ምላሾች በሙሉ ለጥናቱ እና ለጥናቱ አላማ ብቻ እንደሚውል ላረጋግጥልዎት እወዳለሁ

ለጥናቱ ውጤታማነት ብሎም ለወደፊቱ በመስኩ ለሚያጠኑ ሁሉ የእርስዎ ትክክለኛ ምላሽ ወሳኝ መሆኑን ተረድተው ትክክለኛ ምላሽ በነፃ ስሜት እንዲሰጡኝ ስል በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ

ለሁሉም ጥያቄዎች ምላሽ እንዲሰጡኝ እና ስምዎትንም መግለፅ እንደማያስፈልግ በአክብሮት እየገለፅኩ ውድ ጊዜዎትን ሰውተው በጥንቃቄ ቃለ መጠይቁን ሞልተው ስለሚመልሱልኝ ከወዲሁ ምስጋናዬን አቀርባለሁ

ሀ. አዎን ለ. አላስብም/አልቆይም

10. ጋዜጠኝነት ሞያ ነው ይላሉ?

ሀ. አዎን ለ. አይደለም

11. በሰጥን ውስጥ ለሚገኙ ቀጣይ ጥያቄዎች ማለትም ለጋዜጠኝነት ሞያዎ እድገት አስተዋፅኦ አድርገውልኛል የሚሏቸውን ምላሽ የ '√' ምልክት በማድረግ ይመልሱ

12. የጋዜጠኝነት ሞያዎ እሴቶችን ማክበር ህዝብን በታማኝነት እና በቅንነት ለማገልገል መሰረት እንደሆነ በምሁራኑ ዘንድ በፅኑ ይታመናል። በተጨማሪም ለጋዜጠኝነት ሞያዎ ስነምግባሮች መገዛት ለጋዜጠኛው ነፃነትን ከማጎናፀፉም በላይ ራሱን እንዲገዛም ያግዘዋል እናም እርስዎ እነዚህን የጋዜጠኝነት ሞያዎ እሴቶችን እና የስነ ምግባር መመሪያዎችን በቀን ተቀን ስራዎ ላይ እንዴት እንደሚተገብሯቸው ይግለፁ። ምላሽዎን የ '√' ምልክት በማድረግ ይግለፁ።

የሚከተሉትን መለኪያዎች ሲመርጡ ትርጉማቸውን ልብ ይበሉ

3 - በሚገባ እተገብረዋለው 2 - አልፎ አልፎ እተገብረዋለው 1 - ፈፅሞ አልተገብረውም

ተ. ቁ	የጋዜጠኝነት ሞያዎ እሴቶች	መለኪያዎች		
	ህዝብን የማገልገል እሴቶችን በተመለከተ			
1.	ህዝብን የማገልገል ቁርጠኝነት			
2.	መረጃ ለህዝብ ሳይዘባ ማቅረብ			
3.	የብዙሃኑን ፍላጎት ያማከለ ፕሮግራም ወይም ዜና መስራት ፣ ማቅረብ			
4.	መረጃን በወቅቱና በጊዜው ለህዝብ ማቅረብ			
	ሞያዎ ነፃነትን በተመለከተ			

5	ኤዲቶሪያል ፖሊሲውን መሰረት በማድረግ የዜና ወይም ፕሮግራም ታሪኮችን እይታ፣ ዳራ እና የመረጃ ምንጮችን በነፃነት መምረጥ			
ሙያዊ መርህን የተከተለ ዘገባን በተመለከተ				
6.	ገለልተኛ የመረጃ ምንጭ መጠቀም			
7.	የራስን ኦሪጂናል መረጃ መጠቀም			
8.	የራስን ሃስብ አለማከል			
9.	ወደ አንድ ወገን ያደላ ዘገባ ወይም ፕሮግራም መስራት			
10.	በአንድ ጉዳይ ላይ የተለያዩ ሀሳቦችን ማዳመጥና ፣ ሀሳቦቹንም ማካተት			
11.	ጉዳዮችን እና ክስተቶችን በዜና ወይም በፕሮግራም ውስጥ መተንተን			
የስነ ምግባር እሴቶች				
12.	መረጃን በገንዘብ አለማግኘት / አለመግዛት			
13.	በዜና ወይም በፕሮግራም ውስጥ የመረጃ ስህተት ሲገጥም ጊዜ ሳይወስድ እርማት መስጠት			
14.	የታማኝ ምንጮችን የሚስጢር መብት መጠበቅ			
15.	መረጃ ለመጠየቅ ሲሄዱ ራስዎን እና የመጡበትን ሚዲያ ማስተዋወቅ			

ክፍል ሁለት

እባክዎ የእርስዎን ምድብ ከቀረቡት ምርጫ ውስጥ በማክበብ ይግለጹ

1. ፆታ ሀ. ወንድ ለ. ሴት

2. እድሜዎ ከየትኛው ይመደባል

ሀ. ከ 20 እስከ 30 አመት ውስጥ ባለው ለ. ከ 21 እስከ 40 አመት ውስጥ ባለው

ሐ. ከ 41 እስከ 50 አመት ውስጥ ባለው መ. 50 አመት እና ከዚያ በላይ

3. በጋዜጠኝነት ሞያ ውስጥ የሰሩበት አመት

ሀ. ከ 3 አመት በታች ለ. ከ 8 እስከ 11 አመት ሐ. ከ 12 እስከ 15 አመት መ. ከ 16 አመት በላይ

4. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ

ሀ. ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ያጠናቀቀ/ች ለ. ዲፕሎማ ሐ. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ መ. ሁለተኛ ዲግሪ

ሠ. ሰነድ ዲግሪ

5. ያጠኑትን የትምህርት አይነት ይግለጹልኝ -----

6. የጋዜጠኝነትን ሞያ የሚሰሩበት የቋንቋ አይነት

ሀ. አማርኛ ለ. ኦሮምኛ ሐ. ሶማልኛ መ. አፋርኛ

Appendix 3

Measures of mean value by Normative professional values

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
commitment to serve the public * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.002	1	.002	.008	.928
	Within Groups	8.116	32	.254		
	Total	8.118	33			
telling the news accurately * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.289	1	.289	1.109	.300
	Within Groups	8.329	32	.260		
	Total	8.618	33			
producing the news that encompasses the majority interest * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.142	1	.142	.372	.546
	Within Groups	12.240	32	.383		
	Total	12.382	33			
getting information quickly * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.029	1	.029	.094	.761
	Within Groups	10.000	32	.313		
	Total	10.029	33			
deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	1.281	1	1.281	3.372	.076
	Within Groups	12.160	32	.380		
	Total	13.441	33			
using neutral sources * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.395	1	.395	1.539	.224
	Within Groups	8.222	32	.257		
	Total	8.618	33			
original reporting * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.622	1	.622	1.447	.238
	Within Groups	13.760	32	.430		
	Total	14.382	33			
not to include personal opinion * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.006	1	.006	.019	.891
	Within Groups	10.729	32	.335		
	Total	10.735	33			
not to produce one sided story * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.008	1	.008	.019	.893
	Within Groups	14.462	32	.452		
	Total	14.471	33			
encompassing different views * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.126	1	.126	.432	.516
	Within Groups	9.316	32	.291		
	Total	9.441	33			
analysis of event and news * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.013	1	.013	.034	.854
	Within Groups	12.222	32	.382		
	Total	12.235	33			
Using dishonest tactics * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.038	1	.038	.065	.800
	Within Groups	18.462	32	.577		
	Total	18.500	33			
publicizing mistakes * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.008	1	.008	.019	.893
	Within Groups	14.462	32	.452		
	Total	14.471	33			
respecting the right of confidential sources * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.016	1	.016	.081	.778
	Within Groups	6.249	32	.195		
	Total	6.265	33			
introducing self and the media house * Gender	Between Groups (Combined)	.095	1	.095	.657	.424
	Within Groups	4.640	32	.145		
	Total	4.735	33			

Appendix 4

Descriptive Statistics of cognitive professional values

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
perception on journalism education	1.18	.387	34
perception on journalism profession	1.06	.239	34
currently enrolled in education	1.85	.359	34
taken special course/ training on journalism	1.32	.475	34
reason to choice current journalism career	3.38	1.371	34
level of confidence on current journalism career	2.09	1.288	34
perception about themselves	1.56	1.078	34
plan to stay in current career	1.12	.327	34
commitment to serve the public	2.76	.496	34
telling the news accurately	2.74	.511	34
producing the news that encompasses the majority interest	2.44	.613	34
getting information quickly	2.62	.551	34
deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources	2.32	.638	34
using neutral sources	2.26	.511	34
original reporting	2.44	.660	34
not to include personal opinion	2.09	.570	34
not to produce one sided story	2.47	.662	34
encompassing different views	2.68	.535	34
analysis of event and news	2.59	.609	34
using dishonest tactics	2.50	.749	34
publicizing mistakes	2.53	.662	34
respecting the right of confidential sources	2.85	.436	34
introducing self and the media house	2.91	.379	34
Gender	1.26	.448	34
age	1.44	.504	34
work experience	2.21	.729	34
level of education	4.00	.492	34
working language	1.38	.817	34

Appendix 5

Measures of Association of Normative professional values

	Eta	Eta Squared
telling the news accurately * Gender	.183	.034
producing the news that encompasses the majority interest * Gender	.107	.011
getting information quickly * Gender	.054	.003
deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources * Gender	.309	.095
using neutral sources * Gender	.214	.046
original reporting * Gender	.208	.043
not to include personal opinion * Gender	.024	.001
not to produce one sided story * Gender	.024	.001
encompassing different views * Gender	.115	.013
analysis of event and news * Gender	.033	.001
using dishonest tactics * Gender	.045	.002
publicizing mistakes * Gender	.024	.001
respecting the right of confidential sources * Gender	.050	.003
introducing self and the media house * Gender	.142	.020
commitment to serve the public * Gender	.016	.000

Appendix 6

Comparison of mean values by Gender on cognitive values of Journalism Profession

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
perception on journalism education	1.16	25	.374	1.22	9	.441	1.18	34	.387
perception on journalism profession	1.08	25	.277	1.00	9	.000	1.06	34	.239
currently enrolled in education	1.84	25	.374	1.89	9	.333	1.85	34	.359
taken special course/ training on journalism	1.36	25	.490	1.22	9	.441	1.32	34	.475
reason to choice current journalism career	3.24	25	1.451	3.78	9	1.093	3.38	34	1.371
level of confidence on current journalism career	2.28	25	1.400	1.56	9	.726	2.09	34	1.288
perception about themselves	1.60	25	1.118	1.44	9	1.014	1.56	34	1.078
plan to stay in current career	1.08	25	.277	1.22	9	.441	1.12	34	.327

Appendix 7

Comparison of mean values by Gender on normative values of Journalism Profession

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
commitment to serve the public	2.76	25	.523	2.78	9	.441	2.76	34	.496
telling the news accurately	2.68	25	.557	2.89	9	.333	2.74	34	.511
producing the news that encompasses the majority interest	2.48	25	.510	2.33	9	.866	2.44	34	.613
getting information quickly	2.60	25	.577	2.67	9	.500	2.62	34	.551
deciding freely to select the story angle, frame and sources	2.44	25	.583	2.00	9	.707	2.32	34	.638
using neutral sources	2.20	25	.500	2.44	9	.527	2.26	34	.511
original reporting	2.36	25	.700	2.67	9	.500	2.44	34	.660
not to include personal opinion	2.08	25	.572	2.11	9	.601	2.09	34	.570
not to produce one sided story	2.48	25	.653	2.44	9	.726	2.47	34	.662
encompassing different views	2.64	25	.569	2.78	9	.441	2.68	34	.535
analysis of event and news	2.60	25	.577	2.56	9	.726	2.59	34	.609
using dishonest tactics	2.52	25	.714	2.44	9	.882	2.50	34	.749
publicizing mistakes	2.52	25	.653	2.56	9	.726	2.53	34	.662
respecting the right of confidential sources	2.84	25	.473	2.89	9	.333	2.85	34	.436
introducing self and the media house	2.88	25	.440	3.00	9	.000	2.91	34	.379

High mean value means high score because the scale level ranges from 3=fully apply, 2=partially apply and 1=not at all apply

