PRESS transmits social, economic, political, and cultural values from one generation to another; promotes peace; maintains social order; brings harmony; defends rights and freedom; fights for justice and equality; makes the people politically conscious, develops social awareness in them and helps them in acquiring orientations; airs their grievances and tries to redress them; highlights their sorrows and miseries, pains and anguish; supports their genuine demands; helps them to understand their problems in right perspectives; informs them, educates them, entertains them and enlightens them; promotes their political efficacy; reflects their mind, expresses their opinion, presents their views; moulds their outlook, influences their way of life and shapes their perceptions; reveals their past, discusses their present and shapes their future. It motivates them to fight against racialism, communalism, casteism, chauvinism; helps them to lead a happy, peaceful and harmonious life in the society.

The press, an important political communicator, is an agent of political socialization. It called the Fourth Estate of the realm. It is a chief instrument whereby contemporary society orders and changes its ways in the direction of clearly visioned goals of human welfare. It is a private industry and a public service. People, without a reliable press, are without a basis of freedom.
The press is an agency of mass communication and the communication is a necessary tool of learning. It reports facts, comments on political questions, interprets politics, discusses issues, brings to limelight the hidden facts, puts forth new proposals, conducts campaigns, carries on propaganda and organizes extramural activities. It influences and educates voters, canalizes public opinion, aids and effects reforms, provides solutions to the problems and influences the course of public events. It helps the people to play an effective role in the decision making process.

A free and healthy press is highly essential and very much indispensable to the functioning of democracy. Democracy is a Government of the people, for the people and by the people. It can be effective and successful only when people voluntarily participate in the affairs of State and Government. And, by all means, their participation depends on and influenced by the information that they have about different aspects of human life as well as the state. The press provides them comprehensive and objective information on current affairs and broad issues. It keeps them well-informed.

The press is an instrument of social change. It feels the pulse of the people; understands the popular feeling; gives expression to it; it arouses certain sentiments among the people; and whenever necessary it exposes and points out popular defects. The press should present the news without any bias, prejudice, fear or favour. The presentation of news should be truthful, objective and comprehensive. News should not be distorted, suppressed, vulgar and unnecessarily
sensational. The press should have certain commitments, convictions, ideals and principles.

Despite this, the Journalists’ autonomy has also been highly restrained by the newspaper owners. After independence, the press developed as an industry as large investments were required so the proprietorship of the large newspapers shifted in the hands of business houses. Today journalists are working as their employees and, therefore, follow their dictates. In such a situation the question arises that the freedom of the press is for whom? It is for the journalists or for the proprietor of the newspaper. Who has the final say in framing the editorial policies? Another related controversy is whether the free-lance journalists enjoy more autonomy than the employed journalists?

Moreover on various occasions journalists have been blamed for betraying this autonomy and pursuing yellow journalism, distorting and manipulating the facts. Therefore, how much autonomy they should be given? Further, the Press Council has been severely criticized for its ineffectiveness as a self-regulatory body. It is said that the Press Council is a ‘Paper Tiger’ with ‘Rubber Teeth’. The significance of the present study, therefore, lies in seeking answer to these controversial issues in the field of sociology of professions with particular reference to journalism.

1.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In the view of the above discussion we have proposed the following objectives for our study:
1.2 UNIVERSE AND SAMPLE

Indian journalism is mostly centered on the political activities. Delhi, being the capital of the country is the centre of national and international activities. Most of the reputed news agencies have their headquarters in Delhi. Further, the head offices of IFWJ and the Press Council are also situated in Delhi. In view of these facts the present study focused to Delhi as the field of study. The universe of the present study consists of all the employed and freelance journalists associated with the three newspaper organizations, each having two largely circulated newspapers both in English and in Hindi.

Present study is a humble attempt to draw the attention on various aspects of journalistic professions, their freedom, their autonomy and various controls and regulatory provisions on journalism as employed journalists, freelance journalist as
well as office bearers of Indian federation of Working Journalist (IFWJ) and Press Council of India. Various demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the sample are as follows:

(1) Almost one-third respondents are from the age group of 36 to 45 years. A well representation of youngsters is also evident as almost one-fourth respondents are from the age up to 25 years. Remaining respondents are equally distributed in the age group of 26 to 35 years and above 45 years.

(2) More than three-fourth respondents among the sample are male. The remaining respondents are female.

(3) More than two-third respondents are married; three out of every ten are unmarried whereas little remaining are divorcee.

(4) A little more than four out of every ten respondents are from lower castes, further almost one-third are from the higher castes, whereas remaining one-fourth are from medium castes category.

(5) Majority of the respondents (84.1 Percent) are from Hindu religion and the remaining are from Non-Hindus.

(6) Six out of every ten respondents are from urban background, two out of every ten are from semi-urban background, whereas remaining two out of every ten are comes from rural background.

(7) More than six out of every ten respondents belongs to nuclear families, whereas the remaining respondents are from joint families.

(8) One-seventh respondents are from large-sized families i.e. having 8 or above members. Four out of every ten
respondents are from medium-sized families i.e. having 5 to 7 members,. The remaining less than half respondents are from small-sized families with the majority of employed journalists.

(9) A little less than four out of every ten respondents are from the monthly income range up to Rs. 10,000.00, further a little less respondents are from the monthly income range Rs. 10,001 to Rs. 20,000.00, whereas the remaining respondents are distributed in to the monthly income range of Rs. 20,001.00 to Rs. 30,000.00 and above Rs. 30,000.00

(10) Three out of every ten respondents are from the families with monthly income range up to Rs. 10,000.00, more than half respondents are from the families with monthly income range Rs. 10,001 to Rs. 20,000.00, whereas the remaining respondents are distributed in to the families with monthly income range of Rs. 20,001.00 to Rs. 30,000.00, Rs. 30,001.00 to Rs. 50,000.00 and above Rs. 50,000.00

(11) As concerned with education, nearly seven out of every ten respondents are educated up to Graduation or above; nearly one-fourth respondents are educated up to Intermediate level, whereas remaining respondents are educated up to High School level.

(12) As concerned with the Professional Qualification in Journalism, eight out of every ten respondents have no any professional qualification in journalism. Only one-eighth are educated up to Diploma in Journalism, one out of every twenty respondents are educated up to
Graduation in Journalism, whereas remaining very little segment (2.4 Percent) is P.G. or above in journalism.

(13) As concerned with father’s education, father’s of almost half of the respondents are educated with graduation or above, more than one-fourth are educated up to Intermediate level, a little less than one-fifth are educated up to High School level, whereas remaining are Illiterate.

(14) As concerned with father’s occupation, fathers of a little more than one-fourth respondents’ are engaged in Govt. job, nearly one-tenth engaged in Agriculture, nearly two out of every ten are in private job, less than one-tenth are in journalism, a very little share as daily wages labourers, whereas remaining are in other businesses.

(15) The living standard of more than six out of every ten respondents is average; living standard of one-fifth respondents is high, whereas living standard of remaining respondents is poor.

(16) Four out of every ten respondents have the experience of journalism from 5 to 10 years, two out of every ten have the experience from 10 to 20 years, one-third are distributed in the experience below 3 years and from 3 to 5 years, whereas a very few have the experience as journalist for more than 20 years.

(17) More than two-third ten respondents have no any family member in the same profession, a little more than one-fifth have at least one family member in the same profession, whereas a very few have two or more than two family members in the same profession of journalist.
(18) A little less than half of the respondents joined the career as journalist as their own interest, almost one-fourth taken the journalism as just occupation. Only one-sixth respondents admit that they joined the journalism as social service whereas remaining respondents joined the journalism just for livelihood.

(19) More than seven out of every ten respondents are inspired by their own interest to join the career as journalist, further more than one-sixth respondents are inspired by their family members, relatives or friends whereas remaining respondents not felt inspired by anything but joined the journalism just for livelihood.

1.3 TOOLS, DATA COLLECTION AND DATA PROCESSING

The primary data about the objectives of the study have been collected from the Employed and Freelance Journalists as well as office bearers of Press Council and IWFJ with the help of an interview schedule. Secondary data are collected from various Govt./non-government agencies. The primary data have been processed through computer. Secondary data are handled manually.

1.4 MAJOR FINDINGS AND INFERENCES

Every researcher attempts at making certain generalizations regarding the phenomenon under study on the basis of his observations. This is done by drawing inferences from the major findings and unveiling the implications. This is what we aim to do now. The major findings and inferences of this study are being presented in the following parts-
1.4.1 PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY IN JOURNALISM

The major findings about the Professional Autonomy in Journalism are as under-

1. Almost six out of every ten respondents accept that there is a code of ethics declared by their newspaper group. A small segment denied on it whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

2. One out of every ten respondents opines that there should be a right to declare code of ethics to newspaper management. Four out of every ten respondents are in the view that Journalists’ organisations or Press Council should have the right for that. This view is further divided by two-third and one-third between Journalists’ Organisations and Press Council. A little more than one-fourth thinks that all of the above should declare code of ethics whereas remaining respondents opines that none of these should have the right on this issue.

3. More than two-third of the respondents admits that they follow the professional ethics of journalism whereas remaining one-third of the respondents are either silent or find impossible to follow the professional ethics in the current scenario. Majority of
the followers of professional ethics are from freelancers, on the other hand employed journalists are in majority who find difficult to follow the professional ethics.

(4) One-fourth of the respondents feel that the censorship is must in public interest. A little less than half of the respondents find it as a tool to curtail freedom of journalists or feel the censor as dictatorship. The remaining respondents are still undecided on this matter.

(5) More than three-fourth of the respondents opine that there is a work freedom to exercise the duties as journalist, among them a little less than half agreed fully whereas remaining find work freedom up to some extent. Remaining respondents either disagrees with the above views are still not able to decide their views and almost equally divided on this opinion.

(6) A little less than two-third of the respondents having the views that in the current scenario the role of newspaper management group is getting the professional touch. Three out of every twenty finds the role of management as social service whereas one out of every twenty find the management group politically influenced. Remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(7) Four out of every ten respondents are not in favour to hide the facts of public interest over management’s interests. Almost same respondents are opine that this is due to professional approach of management
whereas among remaining some thinks that this is not their jurisdiction and other not bothered about that issue.

(8) Six out of every ten respondents finds management’s interference as a major hindrance in journalists’ autonomy, majority of them are employed journalists. One-fourth of the respondents opine that the governmental or political interference is a major hindrance in journalists’ autonomy, whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue. The respondents feeling political interference are freelancers in majority whereas respondents feeling governmental interference are again from employed journalists in majority.

(9) Three out of every ten respondents find the wrong practice to create un-necessary sensation to the news of public interest. A little less than the above feels that publishing sensational news improves business of the news paper. Almost one-third opine that creating sensation is not a mal-practice until it not tarnishes the image of somebody. Rest respondents are reluctant on this issue.

(10) Two-third of the respondents admits this fact that journalist are reluctant to public interests over their own interests. One-fourth of the respondents denied on this whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(11) Almost three-fourth of the respondents agreed that unnecessary communal shade should not be given to the
news of two different religions whereas some of them finds it proper to improve the business of the newspaper. Three out of every twenty find it beyond their jurisdiction whereas remaining respondents are reluctant on this issue.

(12) More than half of the respondents opine that there should be an immediate publication of the corrigendum as soon as it reveals for the false or non-confirm news. Two out of every ten respondents wants to leave it on editor’s choice. A little less than two out of every ten respondents agreed on it but they find it necessary if somebody objects on it. The remaining respondents are reluctance on this issue.

(13) Almost two-third of the respondents find it wrong to publish the news frame advertisement in the newspapers whereas one-sixth of the respondents believe that it improves the business. One out of every ten respondents finds it beyond their jurisdiction whereas remaining respondents are reluctant on this issue.

(14) More than half of the respondents from freelancer journalists are engaged in another profession simultaneously with the working as journalist, rest are not engaged with any other profession.

(15) More than eight out of every ten respondents are satisfied with their profession. Rest of the respondents either not satisfied with their profession or they are in dilemma. The respondents who are satisfied with their job much more are freelancers and secondly the employed journalists.
(16) Three out of every ten respondents opine that there is no any higher educational qualification required for the career as journalist; even some of them also have the views that only experience is sufficient for this career. The remaining respondents think that there must be a graduation or even higher qualification for the career as a journalist.

(17) More than three-fourth of the respondents opine that the professional qualification in journalism is most helpful to improve working efficiency, among these six out of every ten find it must to improve professional efficiency. One out of every ten feels that there is no need of any professional education to improve working efficiency, remaining respondents are undecided.

On the basis of above findings, it may be concluded that majority of the respondents accepts that there is a code of ethics declared by their newspaper group. Most of the respondents are in the view that Journalists’ organisation or Press Council should have the right to declare code of ethics. Majority of the respondents admits that they follow the professional ethics of journalism; most of the respondents find the Press Censorship as a tool to curtail freedom of journalists or feel the censor as dictatorship.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents opine that there is a work freedom to exercise the duties as journalist, most of the respondents having the views that in the current scenario the role of newspaper management group is getting the professional touch, most of them are not in favour to hide the facts of public interest over management’s interests, but
some of them opine that this is due to professional approach of management. Majority of the respondents finds management’s interference as a major hindrance in journalists’ autonomy and most of among them are employed journalists.

Most of the journalists opine that creating sensation in news is not a mal-practice until it not tarnishes the image of somebody. Majority of the respondents admits this fact that journalist are reluctant to public interests over their own interests. A handsome majority agreed that un-necessary communal shade should not be given to the news of two different religions. Most of the respondents opine that there should be an immediate publication of the corrigendum as soon as it reveals for the false or non-confirm news. Majority of the respondents find it wrong to publish the news frame advertisement in the news papers.

Majority of the respondents from freelancer journalists are engaged in another profession simultaneously with the working as journalist, an overwhelming majority of the respondents are satisfied with their profession. Most of them think that there must be a graduation or even higher qualification for the career as a journalist and a handsome majority of the respondents opine that like as other professional career such as doctors and lawyers, the professional qualification in journalism is most helpful to improve working efficiency.

1.4.2 ROLE OF IFWJ AS A PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION
The major findings about the Role of IFWJ as a Professional Association are as under-

(1) One out of every ten respondents is having membership of IFWJ; seven out of every ten respondents are members of other journalists’ Organisations whereas remaining respondents not a member of any journalists’ organisation.

(2) Four out of every ten respondents are taking active participation in IFWJ, whereas two out of every ten respondents participates often, remaining either not joined any organisation or have not active participation in organisation.

(3) More than half of the respondents agreed that IFWJ playing an effective role to defend the interests of working journalists. One-sixth of the respondents are dis-agreeing on this point whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(4) Nearly six out of every ten respondents think that IFWJ plays an effective role in the direction of amendment in Press Law for the interest of working journalists, whereas remaining respondents either disagree or silent on this issue.

(5) A little less than half of the respondents are aware about the code of ethics of IFWJ, whereas the remaining respondents are either accepts the unawareness or silent on this issue.

(6) A little more than three out of every ten respondents are aware about the code of ethics of National Union of
Journalist (NUJ), whereas the remaining respondents are either un-aware or silent on this issue.

(7) More than two-third of the respondents opines that Journalist’ Organisations should declare the code of ethics for their member journalists whereas the remaining respondents are either disagree or silent on this issue.

(8) More than half of the respondents follow the code of ethics declared by their own news paper group. One-seventh respondents are follower of the code of ethics declared by IFWJ or Press Council. Almost one-fourth are self bound or following their own ethics whereas remaining respondents accepts that they are not following any code of ethics.

On the basis of above findings we may conclude that an overwhelming majority of respondents are members of journalists’ Organisations such as IFWJ and taking active participation in joined organisation, majority of the respondents agreed that IFWJ playing an effective role to defend the interests of working journalists and in the direction of amendment in Press Law for the interest of working journalists, most of them are aware about the code of ethics of IFWJ, only some of the respondents are aware about the code of ethics of NUJ, a clear majority of the respondents opines that Journalist’ Organisations should declare the code of ethics for their member journalists and most of them following the code of ethics declared by their own news paper group.
1.4.3 ROLE OF PRESS COUNCIL AS A SELF-REGULATORY BODY

The major findings about role of Press Council as a Self-regulatory body are as under-

(1) More than two-third of the respondents agreed that Press Council playing an effective role to defend the interests of journalists. One-sixth of the respondents are dis-agreeing on this point whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(2) Two out of every ten respondents accepts that there is an effective control of Press Council on Journalists, other two out of every ten also agreed on this but they thinks that approachable journalists are still out of reach from control. Four out of every ten respondents think that there is no any effective control of Press Council on Journalist whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(3) Nearly half of the respondents opine that there should be a representation of Journalists and Intellectuals in the Press Council, among this one-fourth are in favour for the representation of journalists only. A very little share of respondents wants the representation of Journalists and Administration in the Press Council whereas remaining almost half of the respondents wants the representation of all of these categories in the Press Council.

(4) Nearly two-third of the respondents either opines that the code of conduct of Press Council is fully effective or
sufficiently effective to control the journalists. One-sixth of the respondents accept that nobody is caring about that whereas remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

(5) Nearly two-third of the respondents accepts that Press Council becomes successful in the direction of implementation of professional ethics. Less then one-fifth of the respondents disagreeing on this, whereas remaining respondents are again silent on this issue.

(6) More than three-fourth of the respondents are aware about the code of conduct of Press Council, whereas remaining respondents are silent due to un-awareness.

(7) More than three-fourth of the respondents are opines regarding the effective changes in the code of conduct of Press Council, whereas remaining respondents either not want any change on it or they are silent on this issue.

(8) More than half of the respondents are fully aware about the functioning and complaint procedure of the Press Council, another one-fourth of the respondents are aware up to some extent, whereas remaining respondents are in dilemma on this point of discussion.

(9) Three-fourth of the respondents are ever in contact with Press Council, whereas remaining respondents are never contacted to the Press Council.

(10) One out of every ten respondents is in touch with Press Council being its office bearer or member, a few were ever summoned by the Press Council, where remaining
respondents are being in touch with Press Council either due to another reasons or they never being in touch with Press Council.

(11) Nearly two-third of the respondents opines that the Press Council still not have effective powers to exercise, one-eighth respondents are denied with that, whereas remaining respondents are in dilemma on this issue.

(12) Nearly three-fourth of the respondents agreed upon that the decisions of the Press Council must be binding, whereas remaining of the respondents either disagreeing or silent on this issue.

(13) Almost half of the respondents admit that journalists are accepting enticement for the publication of some news of someone’s interests. Almost one-third respondents denied journalists’ enticement for such things whereas remaining respondents are in dilemma on this matter.

(14) Two out of every ten respondents accepts that journalists are being induced or involve in blackmailing for the matters being tarnish someone’s public image, if published. One-forth of the respondents are fully agree with it, whereas remaining respondents either denied on this matter or silent on this issue.

On the basis of above findings we may infer that a clear majority agreed that Press Council playing an effective role to defend the interests of journalists but there is no any effective control of Press Council on Journalist. Majority of the
respondents opine that there should be a representation of Journalists and Intellectuals in the Press Council; they find that code of conduct of Press Council is fully effective and successful in the direction of implementation of professional ethics and they are aware about the code of conduct but opines regarding the effective changes in the code of conduct of the Press Council.

Majority of the respondents are fully aware about the functioning and complaint procedure of the Press Council and are ever in contact with Press Council, either due to different reasons. A handsome majority opines that the Press Council still not have effective powers to exercise, they agreed upon that the decisions of the Press Council must be binding. Majority of the respondents admit that journalists are accepting enticement for the publication of some news of someone’s interests, and being induced or involve in blackmailing for the matters being tarnish someone’s public image, if published.

1.4.4 ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The major findings about role of Role of Professional Education and Training are as under-

1. Seven out of every ten respondents find professional education of journalism necessary to become a reporter or journalist. One out of every ten respondent not agreed on this view whereas remaining respondents are undecided on this issue.
Almost two-third of the respondents are satisfied with the level of professional education in journalism in current scenario. Two out of every ten respondents are not satisfied with this, whereas remaining respondents does not show any interest to opine on that issue.

In the opinion of one-third of the respondents there should be a minimum tenure of six months to one year for the formal professional education in the field of journalism. A little more than one-fourth finds the two year period as sufficient for that, whereas almost for out of every ten respondents opine that there should be a tenure of three years or more for the formal education in the field of journalism to become a journalist. Little remaining respondents are silent on this issue.

On the basis of above findings we may infer that an overwhelming majority of respondents find professional education of journalism necessary to become a reporter or journalist, most of them satisfied with the level of professional education in journalism in current scenario and opine that there should be a tenure of three years or more for the formal education in the field of journalism.

What emerges from this study is the fact that most of the Journalists accept the professionalism of management and find management’s interference as major hindrance in journalists’ autonomy; most of among them are employed journalists. Majority of them agreed that un-necessary communal shade should not be given to the news of two
different religions, but agreed to create sensation in news until not tarnishes the personal image of somebody.

Majority of the freelancer journalists are engaged in another profession simultaneously with the working as journalist. Most of them think that there must be a graduation or even higher qualification for the career as a journalist and opine that like as other professional career such as doctors and lawyers, the professional qualification in journalism is must to improve working efficiency and find three years or more tenure of professional education in journalism necessary to become a reporter or journalist.

Most of the journalists joined journalists’ Organisations and taking active participation. Majority of them agreed on effective role of IFWJ to defend the interests of journalists, and are aware about the code of ethics of IFWJ, but most of them following the code of ethics declared by their own news paper group. There is no effective control of Press Council, and the Press Council still not have effective powers. The Yellow Journalism spreading wings, journalists are accepting enticement for the publication of news in someone’s interests, and being induced or involve in blackmailing for the matters being tarnish someone’s public image, if published.

1.5 MAJOR OBSERVATIONS

The major observations based on the results and inferences of this study are as follows-
(1) The publication group may declare and implement their professional code of ethics in consultation with journalists.

(2) Sensational and communal news must be handled carefully with close monitoring of editor and management group.

(3) A close watch on Yellow Journalism to eradicate the corruption in the field of journalism is needed.

(4) The professional qualification in the field of journalism may be essential at different levels to join as journalist like other professional fields.

(5) The Press Council and Journalists’ Organisations must seriously watch the public interests.

These observations, from this empirical exercise and ground reality, may be utilised to improve the autonomy of journalist and safeguarding public interest. There is a need for the close monitoring on public interests, if journalists desire and demand for greater autonomy. Emerging corruption in the field of journalism will definitely lead to deprofessionalization in journalism, resulting in reduced or curtailed autonomy. Journalists’ autonomy depends on the extent of their professional competence and orientation to safeguard and serves the interests of the public.

* * *

(23)
1. Introduction

Any social phenomenon can be understood properly only when examined in its historical context. Journalism emerged in India when James Augustus Hicky started the ‘Bengal Gazette’ on 29th January, 1780, with the aim of exposing the malpractices of British rulers. Indian owned journalism came later in 1816 when Gangadhar Bhattacharjee started ‘Bengal Gazette’. The aim of the paper was the promotion of social reforms related to various evils of orthodox Hinduism. With the birth of Indian National Congress, journalism gradually developed into a mission for independence of the country. In 1947 India secured its much awaited independence. As the capital investment in the press increased after independence, proprietorship shifted into the hands of the industrialists and journalists became their employees. On the demand of the Indian Federation of Working Journalists (IFWJ), the first Press Commission was established in 1951 to evaluate the press laws, working conditions and wages for journalists. On the basis of the recommendations of the Commission, the Press Council was constituted on 4th July, 1966 with the aim of developing self-regulation in journalism. As suggested by the Press Council, Wage Committee was formed in 1956. The recommendations of this committee were adopted by the Government in the Working Journalists ‘Act in 1958. In this Act
journalists were classified in a category which was also a major breakthrough towards the professionalization of journalism. Subsequently, in 1978 the Press Council was given the authority and responsibility to protect the journalists’ interests. With these developments journalism is now aspiring for the privileged status of a profession.

2. Review of Literature

The literature on professions will be reviewed under three sub-heads: the approaches to the study of professions, studies on professions, and studies on journalism.

2.1 Approaches to the study of professions

A holistic look at the studies on professions reveals three major theoretical formulations which conceptualize profession and professionalization differently. In view of the historicity of their origin these approaches have been stated as attributional approach, processual approach and power approach.

Attributional approach puts professions and non-professions on the horns of a dilemma. The propounders of this approach tend to project a dichotomy of professions and non-professions and thus visualize the two as exclusive categories (Barber, 1963; Millerson, 1964). It is contended that the profession possesses certain attributes which are absent in the occupations or are found in them to a negligible extent. Millerson (1964) has listed twenty three attributes after analyzing the definitions of profession given by a number of scholars. The most notable attributes are: general systematic knowledge which is transmitted through training institutions, service orientation or norm of altruism, autonomy and self
control through professional association, and authority over clients. These are the distinguishing and core attributes of a profession.

The propounders of processual approach lay their emphasis on the continuum of occupations with professions and non-professions as its polar ends (Hughes, 1963; Wilensky, 1964; Caplow, 1970). The position of an occupation on this continuum depends upon two factors: the acquisition of the number of attributes and the extent of acquisition of each of them. While defining the profession the attributes which help in the attainment of power i.e. authority and autonomy, are given primary importance over other attributes.

For advocates of power approach the professions aim at acquiring a monopoly in their area of technical competence. To achieve this end the entry into the profession is restricted. On the basis of this monopoly the demand is made for high professional authority and autonomy. Thus profession is a label for high power position. During the process of professionalization, an occupation pretends to have acquired the core attributes of a profession e.g. specialized knowledge and norm of altruism, and claims for more power justifying it as a necessary requirement for its successful functioning (Beckar, 1971; Johnson, 1972; Larson, 1977). Thus, the power theorists bring in sharp focus the process through which an occupation justifies its claims for privileged status of profession in various ways.

The above discussed three approaches differ from each other on various issues. However, some common ideas may be delineated which include the attributes of systematic
knowledge, altruism, authority, autonomy and the role of professional associations etc.

2.2 Studies on Profession

In India, the studies on professions started during the sixties. At the initial stage studies were preoccupied with the legal, medical and teaching professions. This may be due to the reason that these are the established professions with a long history of their origin. The growth pattern of these professions was the major issue which attracted the scholars (Misra, 1961; Dubey, 1975). Later on scholars analyzed the socio-economic background of professionals (Sharma, 1972; Jayaram, 1977)

Most of the serious work has been done on the value orientation or role perception of the professionals (Pathak, 1970; Rao, 1974; Srivastava, 1978) and their role performance (Sharma, 1979). Besides these two major issues, few scholars have addressed themselves to the role of professionals in social change and modernization (Damle, 1970; Verma, 1970). Some observations have as well been made on the professional-client relationship patterns (Srivastava, 1975; Gandhi, 1978)

The nature of autonomy of professionals in an organization is another area which has received the attention of scholars (Oommen, 1978; Sharma, 1984). These studies have analyzed the constraints professionals experience upon their autonomy due to their dual membership, first of the profession and second of the employing organization. Professional autonomy is one of the core attributes which
support the arguments on the nature of relationship between the profession and the bureaucratic organization. These arguments may be classified into two streams of thought, one accepts a possibility of professional autonomy in bureaucratic organization and the other visualizes conflict situations. For the former, professionalization is positively associated with bureaucratization (Ritzer, 1972, Montagna, 1977), while for the later the two processes retard each other (Freidson and Rhea, 1972; Larson, 1977). However, the nature of autonomy of the employed professionals remains an unresolved controversial issue.

From the organizational perspective the growth of studies has been one sided. The role of educational and training institutions in the enhancement of professional status has received enormous attention (Kakkar 1976; Rudrabasavraj, 1978) while the role of professional associations has been neglected. Some studies of teacher's association is the only research material available on this issue (Altbach, 1979; Heredia, 1979). At the initial stage of professionalization, associations play the key role by organizing the efforts of the occupation (Carr-Saunders and Wilon, 1933; Montagna, 1977). These associations are instrumental in achieving the monopoly over the services by way of restricting the entry to the profession (Larson, 1977; Wilding, 1982). Caplow (1970) regards the formation of professional association as the first step towards professionalization. These associations perform multiple functions including establishment of control over the profession (Greenwood, 1957; Millerson, 1964). However, the role of professional associations in the professionalization of occupations is a viable area for research.
2.3 Studies on Journalism

The research on journalism has been done either by the journalists or the scholars in the same field. Only one or two systematic attempts have been made to study journalism from a sociological perspective. This has been confirmed by two trend reports in the sociology of professions (Sharma, 1980; Dubey, 1982). Eapen (1969) analyzed the professional orientation of the journalists. Sharma (1990) is the only exception who studied journalism from the perspective of profession. He examined the professional status of journalism on the continuum of four key attributes i.e. systematic knowledge, norm of altruism, autonomy and monopoly. However, more research work is required to be done in this potential area of research.

Some serious work by journalists, as well, has focussed either on the history of journalism (Natarajan, J., 1955; Natarajan, S., 1962) or the freedom of the press (Purohit, 1973; Sen, 1973; Sarkar, 1991; Andreu, 1993; Rayudu and Rao, 1995; Ghali, 1995; Bhattacharjee, 1999; Kothari, 1999; Pandey, 1999). One of the crucial aspects of the journalist's autonomy is the delineation and implementation of a code of ethic. This has been a widely debated issue in journalists' writings (Sahy, 1990; Upadhyay, 1993; Mukherjee, 1994; Sahai, 1995; Schwarz, 1996; Vaidik, 1999; ). On the organizational aspects some scholars have examined the performance of journalism training (Thakur, 1979; Diwakar, 1972) and Press Council (Mathew, 1999). Besides this, journalists have also written on the various roles which press can play in a democratic society (Mazumdar, 1993; Sawant, 1999; Bhargawa, 1999; Sahai, 1999).
3. Professional Autonomy in Journalism

3.1 Autonomy in Journalism

Autonomy in journalism signifies two elements firstly, freedom of expression, i.e. the freedom to hold opinions and their circulation through printed words. Secondly, the evaluation and regulation of journalists' performances can be done only by professional colleagues. Thus in the present study journalists' autonomy will be examined in two broad areas; firstly, absence of control by outside agencies such as constitutional and legislative control and secondly, within the newspaper organization, absence of control exercise by the proprietor or management. Journalists' autonomy at the workplace signifies the control over the professional conduct by the fellow journalists. For this the code of conduct and editorial policies limiting their autonomy are to be stated by the journalists themselves. Journalists' autonomy, therefore, includes control over the conduct, code of ethic and editorial policies.

Journalists in India can be divided into two broad categories, i.e. firstly employed journalists and secondly freelance journalists. This classification has important implications on journalists' autonomy. As we have noted earlier in the review of literature, the nature of professional autonomy will be different for both the categories of journalists. Therefore, in the present endeavour the autonomy of both the categories of journalists will be examined separately. Further, a comparative analysis will be conducted to find out the differences, if any, in the nature of professional autonomy of both employed and freelance journalists.
3.2 Autonomy of Journalists in Indian Constitution and Law

History of journalism in India reveals that the autonomy of journalists has always been curtailed through legislative measures. During the British rule journalism was pursued as a mission for national independence. The tone of journalism was violent and journalists were fired by the high ideal of national independence. The British Government promulgated a number of repressive measures to curb the freedom of the press viz. The Press and Registration of Books Act 1867, the Vernacular Press Act 1978, Press Emergency Powers Act 1931, Special Powers Ordinance 1932 etc.

In 1947 India achieved much awaited independence. In the Constitution of India no special mention has been made of the freedom of the Press. It is indirectly guaranteed under Article 19(a) of the constitution stating fundamental rights: All citizens shall have the right of freedom of speech and expression. Thus along with the general public, journalists also have the right of freedom of expression and, therefore, no extra privileges are given to the press. When the constitution was declared, journalists made strong demands for a separate mention of the press freedom. However, this demand was turned down. It was held by the Privy Council that the freedom of the journalists was part and parcel of every citizen's freedom, and their privilege was no other and no higher. In the constitution, freedom of expression is not absolute and, therefore, can be restricted by enacting a law. Article 19(2) of the Constitution states that a law may be enacted, restricting the right of freedom of expression in the interest of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the state,
friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence or violence.

Emergency was declared on 26 June, 1975 and heavy censorship was imposed on the press which was later on lifted on 20 March 1977. This period is remembered as the 'Dark Age' in the history of press. It is evident from the above that the journalists' professional autonomy has always been constrained through legislative measures. Therefore, journalists' autonomy in the constitution and law is an important issue which requires a detailed probing.

3.3 Role of Professional Associations

Propounders of the three approaches have accepted the role of professional associations in the professionalization of every occupation. At the initial stage of professionalization, associations play a key role by organizing the efforts of the occupation.

Indian Federation of Working Journalists (IFWJ) was formed in 1950 to safeguard the interest of Indian Journalism. The Federation, in its stated objectives, strives for the freedom of the press. To achieve this objective, the Federation made frequent agitations and protests whenever and wherever the freedom of journalists was curtailed by legal pronouncement. The Federation was the first organisation to demand withdrawal of Press Censorship in June, 1975. In view of this, the role of IFWJ in the attainment of journalists' autonomy will be the focus of attention in this study.
3.4 Role of the Press Council as a Self-regulatory Body

The Press Council was established on 4 July, 1966 with the first objective of preserving the freedom of the press and maintaining and improving the standards of newspapers in India. The Council functioned till 1st January 1976 when it was demolished by the Press Council Repeal Act. It must be noted here that during this period India was under emergency and the Council was dissolved to impose heavy censorship on the press. In March 1977, emergency was lifted and the Council was reinstated by the Press Council Act (1978). Since then the council is functioning as a self regulatory body of the press and hence the affectivity of its role will be assessed.

3.5 The Historical Context

E.H.Carr (1961) submits that if sociology is to become a fruitful field of study, it must not be a study of society at rest but of social change. The history of the freedom of the press in India will therefore, enable us to understand the professional autonomy in journalism in India through a wide passage of time.

4. Objectives of the Study

In view of the above discussion the objectives for the present study are as follows:

(1) To glance briefly at the history of professional autonomy in Indian Journalism.

(2) To analyse the extent of professional autonomy in journalism in India.
(3) To make a comparative assessment of the professional autonomy of employed and freelance journalists.

(4) To examine the journalists autonomy in the Constitution and Laws of India.

(5) To evaluate the role of IFWJ in attaining the professional autonomy in journalism.

(6) To explore the role of the Press Council as a Self-regulatory body.

5. Method and Techniques of Study

In view of the above objectives the present endeavour will be an empirical study of Indian journalists. Historical and comparative methodology will be adopted to glance briefly at the history of professional autonomy in journalism and compare the professional autonomy of employed and freelance journalists. The empirical data will be statistically analysed with the help of appropriate tests.

The data will also be collected from the secondary sources to analyse the history of journalism in India, professional autonomy of journalists in the constitution and laws of India and the role of IFWJ, the Press Council.

The empirical data will be collected with the help of an interview schedule. The researcher himself will conduct and record all the interviews with the respondents.

6. Universe and Sample

Indian journalism is mostly centred on the political activities. Delhi, being the capital of the country is the centre
of national and international activities. Most of the reputed news agencies have their headquarters in Delhi. Further, the head offices of IFWJ and the Press Council are also situated in Delhi. In view of these facts the present study will take up Delhi as the field of study.

The Wages Committee for the working Journalists (1956) has classified the group of working journalists employed in the newspaper establishment, into three categories. The first category consists of Editor, Assistant Editor, Leader Writer, News Editors and Special Correspondent. The second category consists of Chief Editor, Chief Reporter, and Principal Correspondent in metro political centre, Correspondent accredited to the central Government. The third category includes Sub-Editor, Reporter, Correspondent and all other working journalists other than those mentioned under any of the above group.

The universe of the present study will consist of all the employed and freelance journalists associated with the following three newspaper organizations, each having two largely circulated newspapers both in Hindi and English.

**Newspaper groups and their publications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspaper Group</th>
<th>Publications and Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindustan Times</td>
<td>The Hindustan Times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hindi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hindustan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Since the present study intends to analyse the role of the Press Council and IFWJ, the office bearers of these organizations will also constitute the universe of the study. In view of this, the universe and sample of the proposed study will be as below:

### Universe and Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspaper Group</th>
<th>Universe Size (no. of Journalists)</th>
<th>Sample Size (50% of the universe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindustan Times</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benett Coleman</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Express</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freelance journalists</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office Bearers of IFWJ</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office Bearers of Press Council</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>339</strong></td>
<td><strong>170</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above mentioned size of the universe was obtained from the offices of the respective organizations. All the freelance journalists have been included in one category because many of them contribute to more than one newspaper organization. The sample, which is about fifty percent of the universe size, will be selected randomly.

7. Significance of the Study

India is the largest democracy in the world. Journalism performs very essential functions in the life of democratic countries. The press has often been called 'the watch dog' and 'the fourth state' in a democratic setup, the legislative, executive and judiciary being the remaining three. While speaking in the parliament Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India said, "Though it is not of the Government, it is a part of Parliament, if I may say so.... To my mind, the freedom of the press is not just a slogan from the larger point of view but it is an essential attribute of the democratic process. I have no doubt that even if the Government dislikes the liberties taken by the press and considers them dangerous, it is wrong to interfere with the freedom of the press. By imposing restriction you do not change anything, you merely suppress the public manifestation of certain things, thereby causing the idea and thought underlying them to spread further. Therefore I would rather have a completely free press with all the dangers involved in the wrong use of that freedom than a suppressed or regulated press." (Nehru, 1983). There is no parallel example in the democracies of the world where the press has been given such a high place of honour.
Inspite of this in the constitution of India no extra privileges are given to the press. The autonomy of the journalists has always been subject to repression by the Government. During the emergency of 1975 the press censorship was at its maximum.

Besides this, the journalists' autonomy has also been highly restrained by the newspaper owners. After independence the press developed as an industry as large investments were required. With this the proprietorship of the large size newspapers shifted in the hands of business houses. Today journalists are working as their employees and, therefore, follow their dictates. In such situation the question arises that the freedom of the press in for whom? It is for the journalists or for the proprietor of the newspaper. This is very controversial. This question is also related to the editorial policies of the newspapers. Who has the final say in framing the editorial policies? Another related controversy is whether the free-lance journalists enjoy more autonomy than the employed journalists?

Moreover on various occasions journalists have been blamed for betraying this autonomy and pursuing yellow journalism, distorting and manipulating the facts. Therefore, how much autonomy they should be given? Further, the Press Council has been severely criticized for its ineffectiveness as a self-regulatory body. It is said that the Press Council is a 'Paper Tiger' with 'Rubber Teeth.'

The significance of the present study, therefore, lines in seeking answer of these controversial issues in the field of sociology of professions with particular reference of journalism.
8. **Tentative Chapter Scheme**

(15) Introduction: Journalism in India

(16) The Problem and its Context

(17) History of Journalists’ Autonomy in India

(18) Journalists’ Autonomy in the Constitution and Laws of India

(19) Professional Autonomy in Journalism, the Current State of Affairs

(20) Role of IFWJ as a Professional Association

(21) Role of the Press Council as a Self-regulatory Body

(22) Summary and Conclusions

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