CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature survey is one of the foundation steps for the research activity. Basically it is nothing but the mining of data for concerned field of study. It provides wide range of knowledge and information about particular study and to know about the work which has already been done in a particular field. It also gives the information to researcher with a necessary sequence of knowledge in the concerned field. It would help the researcher to have clear and comprehensive thoughts of the research studies which is already conducted in similar area so that the researcher can change the path in different direction in his study. It also gives insight to the facts about the study which has remained untouched, unexpected and unexplored in the previous researches. A literature study acts as a guide and also enables the researcher to perceive the gaps, limitations and further ways to continue the research.

Review of literature is one of the most important steps in a research process. A literature review is designed to identify related research, to set the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. When looked at the way, almost no topic is no new or unique that the researcher can’t locate relevant and informative related research, therefore researcher may find that other similar studies routinely look at an outcome that researcher might not have included. It provides researcher to find and select appropriate measuring instruments, know the depth for exploration which is essential, information on the related work which is already available.
It will help the researcher to anticipate common problems in the research context and can use the prior experiences of others to avoid common traps and pitfalls. Therefore, the study of related literature can never be ignored in any type of research. **Good and Hatt** (1952) state that “without a critical study of the related literature the investigator will be groping in the dark and perhaps avoid duplication and overlapping”. The related review can stimulate and encourage the investigator to go deep into the intricacies of the problems and also enable to derive respective conclusions.

2.2 INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT:

**Johnstone et al., (1976)** studied the socio-demographic details of the journalists. The study found that nearly 4 out of 5 journalists were directly engaged in reporting, newsgathering and news writing while 7 out of 10 edited or processed other people’s work and 4 out of 10 had managerial and supervisor duties. The proportions that do news reporting regularly tend to decrease with several years of experience in the media.

**Marzolf, Marion (1977)** the study highlights the experiences and thoughts of many women in various journalistic jobs and stages of professional development. The study focused on the history of women journalists in the United States in newspapers, radio, and television from the early seventeenth century to the present. It also included women's pages in newspapers, the history of the feminist press, women journalism educators, and women journalists in Western Europe.
Gitlin (1983), in relation to television examined the process of television production through personal observations and interviews with more than 200 television producers, network executives, writers, actors and agents in the 1980s. He discussed how television shows were affected by interpersonal, economic, political, and other considerations.

A study done in Malaysia (Hamdan 1987), was found that of an estimated 2000 mass communicators, 316 were women. They were employed in 51 newspapers, magazines, Radio-TV, Malaysia National film Unit, Government Information Department and public relations organisations. Women were given access to writing editorials, reporting matters concerning politics, economy, sports, public affairs, etc., but were still denied top level decision-making opportunities. A noteworthy conclusion of the survey was that women journalists and other women professionals have common problems. On the whole, the study concluded that there is a commonality between the problems of women journalists and of women in other professions”.

Kate Holman, Brussels (1991) in most countries the highest number of women journalists work in newspapers reflecting a general situation that the number of journalists working for newspapers is still higher than for any other media. There are exceptions to this rule: For instance, in the United States more women work in magazines (37%) than in any other media, only 10% work in newspapers. In Morocco, almost 45% of the female journalists work in broadcasting, closely followed by the newspapers (38%). Also the number of women working as freelancers is in balance with the changing numbers in employment. It is highest in Europe (around 20% in the countries surveyed) and lowest in Asia (2% in the countries surveyed).
This is below the overall trend, which is growing. Few unions had statistics on the number of women working in on-line media. These answers provide show that the percentage of women in new media ranges from 13% in Austria to below one per cent in most countries of Asia and Africa. Overall, only around 1% women work in on-line media but the trend in Europe shows that their numbers are growing.

The International Federation of Journalists (1993) carried out a survey on Status of Women Journalists in 39 countries. It pointed out that less than 50 years ago, journalism was an almost exclusively male profession. Female journalists were the exception and women were discouraged to enter journalism. Today more and more women are employed as journalists. In some countries, for instance in parts of Central and Eastern Europe, women make up the majority of working journalists. The number of female journalism students worldwide confirms the trend towards more women in journalism. A study carried out in 26 countries in 1993 found that women students in some cases account for up to 70% (USA, Bulgaria, Mexico) of the journalism students. The average percentage of female students of journalism is about 40% (IFJ, 1993).

Creedon, Pamela. J. & Cramer, Judith (1993) provides an insightful examination of women in the journalism and mass communication profession. It also looks at the broadcasting (television and radio) industry and reveals the gender perspectives on the status of women and offer ideas and directions for improving the status of women-and men – working in the field.
**Gallagher report (1995)** in Japan women represented only 8 per cent, in India it was 12 per cent of media jobs, whereas in the present study (2011) women representation has doubled in the media jobs where women constitute 15 per cent in Japan and 25 per cent in India.

**Lumsden (1995)** studied the concept of gender and women journalists in the 1920s and 1930s. The study demonstrated how gender based polarities affected 10 front-page gals “between 1920 and 1940”.

**Smith and Harwood (1996)** study about radio found that women of 28 years age entered radio by “chance” and worked in the medium on an average of 3 to 4 years. Men, on the other hand, trained for the radio profession and worked in the field for 10 to 14 years. More than a fourth of the women and 47 per cent men surveyed cited money and career advancement as reasons for leaving their last positions. Interestingly, only a quarter of the women cited family and personal considerations as reasons for leaving their last positions.

**Walsh-Childers, et al: (1996)** tested the discrimination against women by using a “discrimination index”. For on overall test of the relationship between individual or work environment characteristics and women’s experiences with discrimination, a discrimination index was created by counting across all six of the questions regarding specific types of discrimination. Analysis of variance was used to determine whether scores on this index were correlated with individual and work environment measures. Scores on the index were significantly related to both age and experience as a journalist. As noted earlier, both are and experience may be
related to discrimination primarily because these women have had more occasions to be discriminated against.

Regardless of their age, experience or work environments, however, respondents’ answers to the open-ended questions in their interviews reveal enormous frustration over discrimination. The respondents reported discrimination ranging from being paid less than less talented, less experienced male co-workers to dealing with sources who will return male colleagues’ call but not theirs, to being given authority in name but no upper-level backing when conflicts arise.

**Hossain (1998),** describing the number of women journalists states that “In Bangladesh, women journalists are as few as stars on a cloudy night. They can be head-counted. Among more 470 members of the National Press Club only about 15 are women. If this is not enough to show the disparity then have a glance at the list of members of Reporters Unity, an exclusive club of Dhaka city based reporters. Their recently published members telephone directory reveals only three women among 366 reporters”. Almost all the women working in newspapers and news agencies in Dhaka and elsewhere in the country are confined to covering soft issues. The women work mostly as sub-editors at desk or look after the specialized features sections of the newspapers.

Another survey (**Kabir 1998**) showed that 85 per cent of the working women journalists were sub-editors, only 10 per cent were recruited as reporters, and the rest worked in the editorial department.

Women in the Bangladesh media face daunting challenges arising mostly from oppressive social traditions. Even though Bangladesh is one of
the few Islamic countries having a free press, its culture has become oppressive and illiberal towards women’s role at home and in society. They are expected to work in areas considered “suitable” for women.

Reporting is considered “hazardous” for women; a woman on a night shift would not be comfortable; a woman working till early hours of the morning would “require” a male escort to return home even if given official transport. Therefore, often she is seen as a liability by newspaper managements.

A study carried out by International Women’s Media Foundation (March 2000), says that the majority of respondents 84 per cent believe that opportunities for advancement have improved in the last five years. And despite the challenges women journalists around the world face each day, they are optimistic about women’s contributions to the future of the media and the resulting positive changes that women in the media will bring to all of society.

A study carried out in France (2000) by the Association of Women Journalists pointed out that French television devotes five to nine per cent more news coverage to women than do the other media – clearly the result of more women journalists working in television than in the radio and newspaper industries. The same study showed that women journalists select 6 per cent more stories on women than men journalists.

According to the International Women’s Media Foundation (IWMF, 2001) the overall number of women journalists employed in the media around the world has decreased by 2 per cent in the last five years, according to a study by the World Association for Christian
Communication. Today, women are 41 per cent of working journalists; they were 43 per cent in 1995.

The 1995 report by Margaret Gallagher for UNESCO found that women are not a significant part of the media workforce. In Asia, women are 21 per cent of the total media workforce, in Latin America, they are 25 per cent. In Southern Africa, they are 27 per cent. In Western Europe and the United States, they are 35 per cent. Worldwide, women are 79 per cent of all part-time workers in the news media.

According to the Gallagher report, in Japan, women are only 8 per cent of media employees; in India and Malawi, they are 12 per cent; and in Argentina and Mozambique, women are 16 per cent of the media workforce. In Africa, women are 8 per cent of broadcasting and 16 per cent for print.

The Radio – Television News Directors Association in the United States reports that women are 24 per cent of news directors in television and 20 per cent of those in radio. The directors in television and 20 per cent of those in radio. The American Society of Newspaper Editors reports that women are only 34 per cent of newsroom supervisors in the United States. A majority (nearly 60 per cent) of the women journalists from around the world who responded to a 1997 IWMF survey said that not even one out of 10 decision-makers in their companies was a woman. The figure was even higher (79 per cent) for respondents from Asia.

According to the International Federation of Journalists Survey (2001) the number of women journalists is on the rise in most countries surveyed. But the percentage of women in journalism ranges from around 50% in countries, such as Finland, Thailand or Mexico to as low as around 6% in Sri Lanka or Togo. The average percentage of women journalists is
38%. The IFJ survey ten years earlier found an average of 27% women journalists. All unions that replied to both surveys showed an increase in the number of women in the profession.

But the number of women in decision-making positions in the media is still shockingly low. Even though women represent more than a third of working journalists around the world, the percentage of women editors, heads of departments or media owners is only 0.6%. The highest numbers of women in decision-making positions (10% to 20%) are to be found in Cyprus, Costa Rica, Mexico and Sweden.

An article “Women Working in the Media” quotes the International Federation of Journalists study of 2001 that reported that around the world, 38 per cent of all working journalists are women. Studies conducted by Canadian researchers Gertrude Robinson and Armande Saint-Jean have found that 28 per cent of newspaper editors are female. According to San Diego State University communications professor Martha Lauzen, 24 per cent of American television producers, writers and directors are women.

A study by American Press Institute and the Pew Centre for Civic Journalism (2002) documented a brain drain among women who didn’t anticipate moving up in their organisations and thought they might leave journalism. The American Journalists Survey of 2003 by the Indiana University showed that female journalists’ median salary in 2001 was about 81 per cent of men’s salary of 46,758 dollars. (Gutierrez, Miren http://ipsnews.net)

A study of American newsrooms revealed that the percentage of women in newspaper newsrooms decreased slightly from 37.35 per cent to 37 per cent. Minority women at newspapers comprise only 2.99 per cent of
all women. Yet women constitute 60 per cent or more of students in college journalism programmes.

The 2001 Women and Minorities Survey conducted by the Radio-Television News Directors Association and Foundation found that women account for only 24 per cent of television news directors and 20 per cent of radio news directors.

**UNESCO (2003)**, the case studies of women in media in five countries commissioned by UNESCO in Canada, Ecuador, Egypt, India and Nigeria showed that the growth of media organisations has not been accompanied by growth in participation of women. Overall, women remain much a minority presence in what several studies describe as the “man’s world” of the media; technical jobs are almost exclusively the preserve management. Conversely, women are predominant in certain on-screen jobs such as presentation and announcing; and in educational and children’s programmes, sex-stereotyped segregation dominates.

A qualitative study of media in Mozambique (Ayis, 2003) sponsored by UNESCO showed that women journalists are especially under-represented in Mozambique’s print media with some newspapers such as the Sunday newspaper, Domingo, and the independent Zambeze, having no women journalists. Others had only one or two women. Most editors, though not all, agreed there was a problem with having so few women journalists, but there was no agreement as to how to change this situation. Most people in the media conceded that it was a difficult profession for both men and women because of irregular hours and very low salaries. But for women it was harder. Mozambique’s patriarchal society as a whole, though
gradually changing, still does not accept journalism as a profession for a woman.

While some women enter the profession not knowing the difficulties involved and leave in no time, those women journalists who stayed on and were interviewed for the study generally demonstrated a strong passion for their jobs.

Broussard, Jinx Coleman (2003) describes the journalism careers of four black women within the context of the period in which they lived and worked. Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Mary Church Terrell, Alice Dunbar-Nelson and Amy Jacques Garvey were among a group of approximately twenty black women journalists who wrote for newspapers, magazines and other media during the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century.

Rush, R et.al., (2004) The study concentrates on the efforts of women and minority men to gain respect and parity in journalism and mass communication, and focuses on trends over the past three decades. Contributions to the volume provide a history of the equity efforts and offer updates on equity in the academy and in the professions. Theoretical and international perspectives on equity are also included, as are the concerns about equity from the new generations now coming into the profession. This anthology serves as a benchmark of women's current status in journalism and mass communication and provides a call to action for the future. As such, it is required reading for all concerned with establishing equity throughout the discipline.
Chambers D., *et al* (2004) analysis the roles, status and experiences of women Journalists in the United States and Britain. Drawing on a variety of sources, the authors investigate the challenges women have faced in their struggles to become established in the profession from the mid-19th century onward. With a particular focus on news journalism, the study provides an account of the gendered structuring of journalism in print, radio and television and speculates about women's role in the new sector of online journalism. Their accomplishments as war correspondents are tracked to the present, including a study of the role they played post-September 11th. The study identifies a number of key differences and the shared constraints that operate against women's progression in journalism in both countries. The authors argue that a gendered organization of newsroom cultures means that women are marginal in fields of "serious news" reporting. The study examines women's contribution to both mainstream and alternative news media. It examines the strategies women have adopted to gain power in a male-dominated media environment, charting women's independent press, radio, television and Internet initiatives in the United States and Britain: from the suffrage press to *Spare Rib* in the UK, from the abolitionist campaigners to *Off Our Backs* and *Ms Magazine* in the US; and from women's community radio, television news programs to women's Internet newsgroups in both countries. The authors conclude by addressing women's contribution to public discourse and their potential future role in the age of interactive news media and ask whether the concept of the "public sphere" is relevant to women in journalism.

Akhter, Afroza (2004) in the study “Women Media Professionals – A Study with Gender Lens” found that female journalists experienced discrimination in assignments and promotion when compared with their
male colleagues. The majority of the complaints were about the lack of separate toilet and transport facilities. Management is less interested in the appointment of women owing to what is perceived as the extra cost involved in providing facilities.

Discrimination occurs particularly when management must decide between a male and a female candidate for an increment, a bonus or a promotion. The majority of the respondents have reported to have faced no sexual harassment explicitly in the work place. However, they strongly feel that there is psychological harassment and abuse. 24 per cent reported having experienced workplace harassment; the majority of the respondents felt that there is no gender sensitivity among the colleagues felt that there is no gender sensitivity among the colleagues (both male and female) and management.

**Kharel, Beena (2005)** the report “Women and Conflict reporting in Nepal” says women’s participation in media should be viewed from three angles: how media use women in times of conflict; how the media presents women; and what is the level of participation of women in disseminating news and views. A comprehensive and integrated survey of women journalists across the nation is yet to be conducted in Nepal. A handful of surveys done by some media houses are largely confined to the Kathmandu valley. Hence, no authentic data on women-disaggregated in terms of age, caste, group, education and region – is available. Estimation is the tool used in analysing women’s participation in media.

However women’s participation in media is pathetic. Of the 4,000 journalists who have acquired the membership of the federation of Nepalese Journalists in 2004, less than five per cent are women; most of them are stringers. In the three online news services run by the private sector, there is
not a single woman journalist. Women’s participation in major newspapers published from Kathmandu is, on average, 5.8 per cent. In relative terms, their participation in radio, particularly FM stations and commercial TV channels, is distinctly better. The number of women journalists in FM radio stations hovers at 37 per cent.

But only a few are directly associated with the news sections. The overwhelming majority are in the entertainment business.

Handunnetti, Dilrukshi (2005) the paper “Women in the Sri Lankan Media” concludes that the print media continues to be male preserve. In Sri Lanka women were not employed in newspapers for many decades as it was not an industry favoured as a suitable career option for women. A few women dared to enter the field only in the early 1950’s and most of them were English – language journalists. They naturally faced the constraints of having dared to enter a world that was predominantly considered a “male preserve”.

Despite the constraints, women journalists have managed to make their mark, though the number is very small. It was a career traditionally considered unacceptable for women and many senior women journalists during interviews stated that the irregular hours and the pattern of work were simply condemned by their families. Today, the gender biases may have been reduced, but they are nevertheless there. Another serious discriminatory practice that continues to prevail is the lower salaries offered to women employees in comparison to men. Men draw a higher salary in most cases for the same amount of work, quality notwithstanding.

Bulathsinghala, Frances (2005) the paper “The role of Women Journalists in Conflict Reporting in Sri Lanka” says that the representation
of men and women in covering the 20-year-old civil war in Sri Lanka was in the ratio of 10:1. Most of the media coverage was facilitated by the military which afforded a one-sided view of the conflict. The media visits organized by the military during the war and the consequent visits organized by peace-building forces were almost always represented by male journalists. Similarly, almost all individual assignments initiated by newspapers on the related issue were also given to men. Very few women were assigned war-related coverage and even that after putting up a bitter fight.

Nekzad, Farida (2005) in her paper “Women and the Afghan Media” traces the challenges facing women journalists in post-Taliban – ruled Afghanistan. Immediately after the fall of the Taliban, many Afghan women journalists broke the shackles of control and joined the media revolution taking place in the country. The paper concludes that women, like much of Afghan society are shackled by the lack of a nurturing and supportive environment; the lack of education and training; the lack of access to media; and the absence of laws to safeguard women’s rights and ensure protection.

Begum, Shahnaj (2005) the paper “Women in Journalism in Bangladesh” states that women journalists in Bangladesh work mainly as sub-editors in newspapers. There are very few women journalists who are editors, news reporters or managers of a media organization.

Sultana, Munima (2005) the paper “Gender Disparity in Bangladesh: The Challenges Facing Women Journalists” points out women’s presence in the media is a low six per cent. Their representation in other professions is equally low despite Bangladesi women having access to almost all the
socio-economic sectors. Women are found in politics, finance and the judicial system as well as media besides national and international forums and trade bodies.

In spite of the fact that women play a lead role in the politics of the country, with women heading ruling and opposition parties, women do not enjoy equal rights in all spheres of Bangladesh society.

Khan, Shehar Bano (2005) paper “Problems of Women Journalists in Pakistan” says that journalism in Pakistan, like other spheres, is still very much a man’s realm with women almost invisible in various departments in a newspaper. Pakistan figures lowest in the list of women in print journalism in South Asia. The reasons for the small number of women in print journalism are varied, but one of the most defining ones is their hesitation to work in newsrooms and reporting rooms with men who make no effort to create a work-friendly ambience for them. Carefully constructed barriers erected by men to restrict women to “certain spaces” will take some time to crumble. The paper shows women preferred not to do night-time reporting and they were wary of late duty hours because of familial consideration that involved taking care of children and performing household chores.

The study by Gender Links and the South African National Editors Forum (2006) conducted an audit of women and men in South African newsrooms. It found there are roughly equal numbers of women and men in South African newsrooms, but women, and especially black women, are still scarce in senior and top management echelons, as well as in
the hard news beats. On average, women earn 20 per cent less than men in newsrooms; and black women earn 25 per cent less than white men.

USA which ranks 31 in Global Gender Gap, women in media are in a worse position where equality is concerned. “Women have reached the proverbial glass ceiling in the media”, says the International Women’s Media Federation (IWMF) in its 2006-2007 report. Men constitute 64.5 per cent of all supervisors in the newspapers, according to a study by the American Society of Newspaper Editors in 2006 showed that the number of women executives has stagnated in this sector. “The percentage of women in daily newsrooms increased slightly to 37.7 per cent…. 64.5 per cent of all supervisors are men. They are also 58.5 per cent of all copy editors, 60.3 per cent of reporters and 72.6 per cent of photographers”, says the study.

The annual census carried out by the American Society of Newspaper Editors (2007) found that nearly 57,000 full-time journalists work in daily newsrooms in the US of who 7,800 belong to minorities. Although the number of minorities increased by 200, their percentage decreased from 13.87 per cent to 13.68 per cent. Minorities make up 33 per cent of US population

Hillard, Carrie (2007) study gathered information through in-depth interviews with six women who occupy top positions in the print journalism industry. History has shown that women have faced a glass ceiling when moving up the corporate ladder in U.S. newsrooms. Issues that have hindered women in the past from moving up in the industry include: negative or misleading stereotypes, irregular and challenging working conditions, and difficulty with balancing family and career obligations. The
interviews were used to examine the career paths, obstacles and sacrifices of a sample of women working at the nation's top newspapers and magazines.

Contrary to history, women in journalism today are finding ways to achieve success professionally and personally. With the increasing number of women in journalism school and the positive outlook seen from the women interviewed, the reader will come to understand that women can break and are breaking through the glass ceiling that once held them back.

A Study (2007) conducted in Maghreb region by the UNESCO analysed the status and the professional experiences of women journalists of Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia. The study focused on how and to what extent women journalists are impacted by a rapidly changing media environment. The study also sought to identify the various ways and visions through which women journalists perceive themselves in the media industry working along with their male colleagues. The study also evaluated and commented on some discriminatory situations which women encounter because of their gender. The study’s conclusions and recommendations call for more international support from UNESCO in assisting Member States in the elaboration of policies which would allow to expand further the freedom of expression and media pluralism and to provide more capacity-building opportunities for women journalists in the media by offering more training opportunities (http://portal.unesco.org).

Frohlich, Romy and Lafky A. Sue (2008) analyzed the data on the status of women journalists in the Western/industrialized world, focusing on gender and the mass media, and journalists and news work. The contributors deal with their participation and situation in various news...
media as well as their training on the job, in college, and in university programs.

This study suggests that there is a need to internationally compare results, data and statistics about the situation of female journalists all over the world to learn more about the various problems and obstacles. This comparison could lead to a sound knowledge of the various reasons for the problems, which might vary from culture to culture. This wider knowledge could then lead to better problem solving and to workable concepts. This book also provides background for the interpretations of results of women journalists in different countries.

A seven–Asian country study by the **Asian Mass Communication Research and Information Centre (AMCRIC), Singapore (2008)**, found that access to communication-related employment for women is very low. The country researchers cited two factors, socio-cultural and institutional, as being obstacles to the access of women to communication organizations in every country. The socio-cultural climate in many countries in Asia still dictates that a woman’s priority should be the well-being of the family. Little provision has been made to accommodate the added responsibilities of women who are working to supplement the family income or for the realization of their own potential.

Sixty women journalists from 45 countries around the globe attending the International Federation of Journalists’ conference on **“Ethics and Gender: Equality in the Newsroom”**, held in **Brussels, Norway, on May 2009**, adopted a declaration that asserted that it is essential to hold strong to principles of ethical reporting to fight gender stereotypes, to combat aggressive behaviour, harassment, inequality in promotion, training and pay,
and to stand up for dignity in our work as journalists and media professionals.

The Declaration unequivocally condemned all forms of violence, sexual harassment and bullying in the profession and declared its intention to reinforce efforts to eliminate all these threats so that women may work in journalism in equal conditions of safety and security as their male colleagues.

Gutierrez (2008), in an article quotes Jane Ransom; executive director of the Washington-DC based International Women’s Media Foundation (IWMF), attributing the absence of women leaders in media organizations to the male-dominated organizations. Despite a few generations of educated, free women many preceding generations of women were barred from journalism and the control of most of the media, remains with men.

UNESCO report on “Women Make the News 2008” concludes that “Progress of women journalists’ careers is still hampered by lingering stereotypes and subtle discrimination. Women journalists continue to face substantial obstacles to full participation in the newsroom – particularly in terms of management opportunities”. This “patriarchal ideology” seems ubiquitous and culture-blind in the media sectors of many countries. For instance, in South Africa, women’s access to universities and newsrooms is more or less equal, but at some point, their progress stops. Do women “opt out” or are they “pushed out”? According to Ferial Haffajee, the first ever woman editor of South Africa’s Mail and Guardian, “Women are pushed out because of unfriendly, child-unfriendly working hours. Owners haven’t
created crèches or made job arrangements which allow women to thrive and climb.

Journalism is a hard slog. Stories happen at inconvenient times, deadline is way beyond normal societal hours, and maternity leave provisions are poor. The lack of paid maternity leave, and the unsociable hours of journalism really emerged as high push-factors”, she said.

In another article “Women-Media: Conspicuous By Their Absence” Miren Gutierrez (2008) cites several reports that highlight the inferior status of women in media in several countries and the continuing gender imbalance in leadership positions in the media.

Gutierrez (2008) quotes the report “The Gender of Journalism” by Monika Djerf-Pierre which shows that even in a female-friendly nation such as Sweden, journalism has remained male-dominated. (Sweden ranks number one – or the country with the narrowest disparity – in the Global Gender Gap [GGG] published by the World Economic Forum). A period of tokenism was followed by the upsurge of a critical mass of women who entered the newsrooms in the last 25 years. Today, almost half of Swedish journalists are women, according to the study. However three out of four leaders in the media industry are men. Only in two sectors, public broadcasting and magazines, do women fill more than 40 per cent of leadership positions.

According to the International Women’s Media Foundation (IWMF, 2011) the global study looked at women in the workforce, pay differences, terms of employment and pro-equality policies in newsrooms. Women represents only a third (33.3%) of the full time journalism
workforce in the survey. The study found that 73 per cent of the top management jobs are occupied by men compared to 27 per cent occupied by women.

Among the ranks of reporters, women hold only 36 per cent while men hold nearly two-thirds of the jobs. However among senior professionals, women are nearly parity with 41 per cent of the news-gathering, editing and writing jobs. Women have increased their ranks in the top management jobs, compared to a Margaret Gallagher study in 1995 that showed women occupying on average of only 12% of the top management positions in 239 nations. The new global study shows women in 26% of the governing and 27% of the top management jobs.

According to the annual study of the Bangladesh Centre for Development Journalism and Communication (BCDJC), a leading non-government organization working on media research and development, a total of 174 women journalists were in different media institutions including electronic media in the country in 2004. Among them, 58 were in reporting (including part-time contributors) and 107 on the desk. In 2003 this number was 113 and in 2002 it was 75. Despite more than doubling of the number of women in two years, the gender gap remains high because of the high dropout rate of women journalists. Few women are found in the decision-making positions, and not a single woman is to be found in the top three positions in any daily newspaper. The women’s names to be found on newspaper mastheads are those of the publishers, who are invariably wives of editors or owners.

Thakur. K.C (2011) a study carried out in 26 countries in 1993 found that women in some cases account for up to 70% (USA, Bulgaria, Mexico)
of the journalism students. The average percentage of female students of journalism is about 40%. The number of female journalists students worldwide confirms the trend towards more men in journalism.

In spite of great improvements achieved by and for women in journalism, many problems remain that must be addressed by journalists unions at national, regional and global level. Women journalists are aware that because their movement has been successful in many areas there is the danger that journalists unions may feel that enough has been done to ensure equality in media even though inequalities remain.

**Franks, Suzanne (2013)** the study looks at the key issues surrounding female journalists – from on-screen sexism and ageism to the dangers facing female foreign correspondents reporting from was zones. She analyses the way that the changing digital media have presented both challenges and opportunities for women working in journalism and considers this in an international perspective. It provides an overview of the on-going imbalances faced by women in the media and looks at the key issues hindering gender equality in journalism.

### 2.2 NATIONAL LEVEL:

**Eapen (1967)** described the Indian Press as class media rather than mass media as it was owned, read and manned by urban middle class. He found that there was dissatisfaction in the professional areas of use of abilities and training, opportunity and originality and initiative and getting ahead in professional career. Malayalam journalists were professionally ahead of journalists from Bihar, Bombay and Madras. The study found that two-thirds of journalists were from forward caste; half of the reporters were
in 23-24 age groups, 90 per cent of the respondents were Hindus, 40 per cent of the respondents from Bihar, Maharashtra and Kerala were graduates and 31 per cent were postgraduates.

The study also found that 34 per cent entered journalism for prestige, 27 per cent with service motto and 21 per cent for excitement.

**Dasgupta, Shivani (Vidura, February – March, 1976)** in the article “How Newsworthy Are Women?” discussed the content of the Sunday editions of the *Hindustan Times, the Statesman, and The Times of India and the Indian Express* during 1975. She observed that so far as the women affairs were concerned, the majority of the social items fell in to this category and very little appeared on women in the economics. She wrote, most of the news items concern the urban women and particularly, the middle-class women. The urban poor get the least written about them. The author noted in the conclusion that two points need attention – first, the limited range of themes and secondly, the basis towards middle-class women.

An unpublished report, *“Problems and Prospects of Women Journalists in South India”*, commissioned by the Second Press Commission in 1980 gives insight into the situation of women journalists in English and the regional language press and the highly patriarchal, patronising and conservative policies of newspaper managements that had roots in the views and attitudes of the newspaper owners.

**Pathak, Ila (Vidura, August, 1981)** in the study *“Women’s Pages of Gujarati Dailies”*, had chosen two Gujarati dailies from Ahmedabad for determining the content of sections, women readers’ reaction to the articles, editor’s response to reader-queries and demands, and editor’s efforts to
make readers aware of the predicament of women. She concluded that there is no mention of the questions concerning the today’s women, such as the women’s movement, laws, her duties towards the society, her rights, political strategy, government policies.

**Vidura, (November, 1983)** a Journal of the Press Institute of India, published an article which was based on the discussion of Usha Rai, Sunita Kohli and Urvashi Butalia and the then editor of Vidura, Nihal Singh, on the topic of “Women - Does the Press Play Fair?” According to the discussion, participant agreed that there has been a change in the situation today is much better than it was ten or fifteen years ago, but the press has not been fair to women either in terms of the women it employees or in terms of the stories it looks at.

**Bhasin, Kamla and Agarwal, Bina (1984)** The book “Women and Media: Analysis, Alternatives and Action” is divided into two sections – the first comprises an analysis of the ways in which women are portrayed in different media and the second section focuses on the attempts made by various women’s group to both protest against existing negative portrayal and to create alternatives. **Madhok, Sujata’s** article “Struggling for Space”, which had earlier appeared in Seminar (August, 1984) is included in this book. She observed the negative and positive sides of the newspapers concerning the women’s issues. She pointed out that in the past five or six years, in response to women’s campaigns for justice and equality, there have been positive changes.

Sucharita S. Eashwar observed that “Looking at the writing on women and the press coverage of women’s issues, we find a changing picture in the last few years.

However, most of the news still concentrates on rapes, dowry harassment and deaths and other atrocities committed on women”. She also highlighted the contribution of some women journalists to women’s concerns.

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Lent, John (AMIC 1985) annotated bibliography “Women and Mass Media in Asia” comprises 150 items representing literature on women and mass media from 16 countries. According to John Lent, “This bibliography is made with topical categories- women’s media, images of women in the media, women in the media workplace, women as an audience. India is the country most discussed with 43 citations.” Out of these 43 citations, 12 are concerned with women an print women’s
magazines and general magazines Women features Service of New Delhi compiled a review of the literature from the period of 1980 to 1990 on Towards Positive Portrayal of Women in Media. This review of literature was undertaken to deal with women and media.

In this review, only 8 entries are concerned with women and print, women’s magazines and general magazines. WFS (Women Features Service) researcher Manisha Choudhari points out that “Hardly any material was found in the newspapers on the issue of women and media specifically, except for a few features on women journalists, newscasters and film makers.”

**Sahai, S.N.** (1985) “Women in the Changing Society” the bibliographical study devoted two pages and 30 entries to women and media in general and only one article by Diya Raina (12th December 1982, Hindustan Times, Sunday Magazine) was given on “How fair in Print”. From the above bibliographical survey, we can find out the fact that as compared to the women and print media, more research has been focused on women and media, in general.

**Gogate, Sudha** (1988) study on “Status of Women: Reflected in Marathi Media 1930-70” was a part of an ICSSR study (1973-75), reflecting on the women’s problems in the news media of various regional languages. This study is concerned with obtaining an insight into the people’s attitude in Marathi periodicals during the period from 1930 to 1970, through content analysis. **Gogate** had selected Marathi newspapers, namely, Dnyan Prakash, Kesari, Navakal, Loksatta and periodicals such as Stree, Samaj Swasthya, Sadhana and Shramik Mahila for her study. The conclusion of the study indicates that among all issues education and
cultural achievements, legal position, marriage and family, women and employment, participation in political, civic and social life, social and welfare problems, changing image and the status of women.

Education and cultural achievements of women received the greatest attention with 195 entries. The society seems to give priority to women’s education over any other issues concerning them.

Eapen, K.E. (1988) study showed that 13 out of 72 students of journalism/communication working in Delhi were women. More importantly, of these 13 working women alumni, 11 were in the age group below 40 years, reflective of the increasingly larger number of younger women getting into the communication stream as professionals.

Sharma R. K (1990) In his study based on Delhi journalists revealed that over 60 per cent had postgraduate degree, 31 per cent entered journalism incidentally, 20 per cent attracted by the adventure and glamour while 38 per cent had other considerations like prestige, writing aptitude and parental occupation. Only 10 per cent opted for journalism to serve public. Sharma also studied that the extent of professionalism in terms of the observance of professional attributes like general systematic knowledge, norm of altruism, autonomy and monopoly. The researcher defined professionalism as structural characteristics or attributes or characteristics of individuals in the occupation. The researcher states that the journalists have shown a low degree of altruism when the interests of the proprietors are adversely affected. They were ready to sacrifice public interests for self-interest and exploit their status and opportunities for non-journalistic purposes; sometimes they accept certain gratifications and inducement for publications or suppression of news.
Jha (1992) study conducted interviews with nearly 30 women journalists in senior positions in four metropolitan cities – Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Chennai, to know their own perceptions of women’s issues and their views on the adequate/inadequate press coverage of these issues in the print media. Except Mrinal Pande and Anita Pratap, majority of the women journalists expressed various reasons behind the view that the Indian press does not find enough space for women’s issues.

Prasad, Nandini (1992) study on “A Pressing Matter: Women in Press” was concerned with ascertaining the extent and the type of coverage given to women in Delhi-based four leading English newspapers - The Hindu, The Hindustan Times, Indian Express and The Times of India. According to her, the study found that social issues related to women got less than nine per cent in only The Hindu and The Hindustan Times. More than half the items in The Hindu, The Hindustan times and the Indian Express were about atrocities against women. As per this analysis, sensational stories received 58.15%, social issues 3.83%, women and media 5.28%, dowry-related items 5.62%, health and nutrition 46%, public policies 1.32%, legal issues 1.66%, others 19.38%. The author remarked that “Victims are more ‘newsy’ than women’s participation in the developmental process”.

Joseph, Ammu and Sharma, Kalpana (1994) examined five issues - dowry deaths, rape, sex determination tests, Sati and shah Bano controversy, which had brought women’s movement to national attention.
The newspapers like the Hindustan Times in the north, The Hindu in the South, The Times of India in the west were taken for the content analysis.

In addition, the Indian Express, with its greatest spread, qualified as the fifth paper for the study. The study of the print media was designed for the period from 1979 to 1988. The authors observed that the coverage of the dowry issue illustrates well and the anti-rape campaign actively supported by the press and Shah Bano Controversy also got the press responses, but the fact that women’s issues merit front page treatment mainly when it turn ‘political’ only. The major national dailies respond to the Sati controversy and cover the issue on their news pages, editorial pages, features, spot and special reports and Sunday magazines sections. Only the sex determination test received minimal coverage because this problem was seen as a middle-class problem.

Agarwal (1995) examined the professional aspect of journalists in Jaipur to find out who enters journalism, their professional perceptions and the process of socialization. She used structured questionnaire interview and observation to gather data. In this study among the journalists working in Jaipur, men were predominant gender as only one in 8 was female. The study revealed that nearly two thirds of Jaipur journalists were from urban areas and the remaining 10 per cent are from rural areas. A majority of journalists in Jaipur were in the age group of 26-30 years. In Jaipur, over 75 per cent were from open category, half of them were Brahmins, and Shudras (SC) constituted 17 per cent. Another significant aspect of the background was that most of the lower caste journalists were promoted from tele-printer operators and proof-readers or clerks. Agarwal suggested that the reasons for the high representation of journalists from the open category were due to the availability of modern education to that section of the society. One-third
of journalists in Jaipur were postgraduates and 27 per cent had journalism education.

Verma and Narula (1998) in their study found that unlike the 1970s and 1980s, journalism in 1990s has become more of a career choice as salaries have gone up considerably. This is more so particularly after Government of India’s 1991 budget, which gave boost to business journalism.

Bhatla, Sonia (1998) the study on “Women, Democracy and the Media” conducted interviews with 21 leading journalists, of which 12 were women. These journalists had started their career with the coverage of women’s issues, but after long years in the profession and suffering from the “syndrome of marginalization”, shifted their flow. Women’s issues are predominantly event-oriented” in the press coverage. The violence and the crime stories add to social census and help keep women in their subordinate places.

Stuart Allan (1999) revealed that news was being distorted by a ‘male bias.’ However, women went beyond the notions such as ‘male bias’ which prefigured ‘non-bias’ and was synonymous to ‘gender-neutrality’.

Jeffrey (2000) in India estimated that there were 4700 journalists in early 1960’s and around 13,000 in 1990’s. In the year 1900’s India had about 25,000 journalists on wages or retainers, which came up to one journalist for every 35,000 people. This excluded thousands of stringers and contributors. However, very few studies have been conducted to examine the sociological issues involved in the career of journalists in India. The first
available empirical study on journalism education in India was the First Press Commission Report.

According to the survey conducted for the commission in 1950, 201 out of a total 542 journalists i.e., 37 per cent had no university degree, 219 (40.4%) were graduates and 122 (22.5%) had a postgraduate degree. With respect to pre entry or in service training 460 out of the 542 journalists had no such training. Out of 82 journalists who received training, 25 were trained by newspapers themselves; 27 had taken a diploma in journalism and eight of them have a degree; the rest had gone through short courses in India and abroad. In India the journalists were mostly from middle or upper class with urban background. According to Second Press Commission (1984) Indian journalists particularly women came from middle or upper class families and were from urban background.

Joseph Ammu (2000) study was primarily based on the experiences of nearly 200 women journalists in print media across the country, concludes that despite their different and differing perspectives, experiences, socio-economic-cultural milieu of their home and workplace, as also of their employers, the women journalists are bound together by several common experiences. Most of these have origin in the fact that gender continues to be a touchstone of how a woman is perceived and treated by people both within the profession and outside.

The study notes that women journalists have a positive self-image and have not allowed their unpleasant/hostile working place environment affect them. But this does not always lead to their identification with women as a community. Many of them object to being described as “women journalist” as it connotes inferiority. While they agree women have made valuable contribution to the press and that they bring defining characteristics to their
work in the media, there is not much agreement on whether they bring a “women’s perspective” to their work.

Also, there is difference of opinion whether women journalists should specially promote gender-sensitivity in the media. On the other hand, a large number of them are against separating news into “soft” and “hard” categories and the higher value assigned to “hard” news.

Night duties continue to be a major hindrance to the women’s progress in the profession and many among them have anxieties about safety, domestic responsibilities and social disapproval. “Many of them seem to feel that they are damned if they do work at night and damned if they do not”. Women perennially struggle to reconcile the conflicting demands of work and family. Women journalists are being constantly judged in their work in the office; they find it difficult to cultivate male news sources. They face sexual and professional harassment at work and their relationship with male colleagues is problematic.

“Gentlewomen of the Press”, an article by Ammu Joseph published in Vidura (January-March, 2000) was based on the introduction of her book Women in Journalism Making News (Konark, 1999). She pointed out that there is little documentation of the history of women’s involvement in the Indian press. The women also entered the mainstream press in the 1940s and 1950s can be viewed as the first small wave of female journalists in the modern era, the next and the bigger wave occurred in the 9160s and early 1970s. The first major flood of women poured into the press from the mid-1970s.

Inamdar (2003) in her study found that majority of the online journalists were in the age group of 21-30 and most of the female
respondents were between 21-31 years. She found that in Internet newspapers 7.6 per cent of the respondents had journalism education as against 72.3 per cent without journalism education than their male counterparts. Further, she also found that as age increased, the number of male respondents also increased whereas the number of female respondents dropped. She studied growth of online newspapers in India and their implications on print media to find out the working conditions of online journalists and impact of online journalism on print media. With respect to the working conditions of online journalists the study concluded that there is awareness on the part of online journalists about the limitations of online journalism and they are being attracted towards the new media for better salaries and glamour. Inamdar found that there was a significant association between sex of respondents and their emoluments of the respondents also increased. In addition, the association between age and emoluments was significant.

The report “Status of Women Journalists in India” (PHI & NCW, 2003) states that there are very few women journalists in top positions, especially in the regional language journalism in the four southern states of Andhra Pradesh (Telugu Journalism), Karnataka (Kannada), Tamil Nadu (Tamil) and Kerala (Malayalam). Only Kannada has two women journalist-editors who reached the top from the ranks, one each for a daily and a magazine while there is an assistant editor in a daily. In Tamil, a ‘working journalists’ is the editor of a Tamil magazine while there are none in the Telugu and Malayalam press. Although there are women in senior positions (exactly one in Telugu and one in Malayalam) in other languages, there are no women editors.
Reporting remains a male preserve although youngsters are breaching it in all the four languages. Women might be reporting and interviewing people for articles, but it is only occasionally and out of personal interest. They are basically appointed to the desk and are full time sub editors.

While there are no women journalists outside the metropolitan cities or state capitals, in Kannada journalism there are women correspondents at district level. In Telugu, although there are newspapers that publish editions from the district headquarters, women are absent in editorial areas.

**Balasubramanya (2005)** in a comprehensive study across the country studied 835 journalists spread across 14 different states and working in newspapers and magazines of 11 languages. Only 20.12 per cent of them were women journalists and among them 38.68 per cent in the age group of 20-30 years, 35.57 per cent in 31-40 age group, 17.37 per cent in 41-50, 6.71 per cent in 51-60, 1.68 per cent in 61-70 years group. A significant majority of 75 per cent was between 20-40 years. Regarding the marital status, 69.46 per cent were married, 29.2 per cent were unmarried, and 1.08 per cent divorced, 0.25 per cent widowed. Out of the total of 835, 41.7 per cent were postgraduates, 34.6 per cent were graduates, 7.43 per cent journalism graduates, 18.2 per cent postgraduates in journalism, and 9.3 per cent have diploma or certificate courses in the journalism. Interestingly, the study noted that half of the journalists had freedom in the selection of a story while 2.5 per cent did not have freedom to select a story. As the age is increasing, one reaches the position of formulating policies of the newspaper or at least close to the policy-maker. By virtue of their position they get more freedom in their day-to-day operations.
The study has also noted that formal education in journalism is not compulsory to get into the profession. This is one of the reasons why journalism has not achieved the status of profession.

Whereas the dynamic angle of the journalism education has been that more number of journalists has postgraduate qualification in journalism than the graduate degree in journalism which could be due to the fact that post graduation in journalism is opened for all students from various disciplines without prior degree in journalism. According to him, majority of them have noble cause to join the profession like contribution something significant to the society as extremely important. The chance to help people was found as one important aspect of journalism and 53 per cent of the respondents subscribed to this view.

Reddy, Sathi (2005) study found out that the median age of journalists in Andhra Pradesh is 33 years. The study also found out that satisfaction levels are related to professional issues like working/ editing matters of significance and chance to be creative. However, the study also found out 4 per cent of the respondents expressed job satisfaction in relation to study. Further, the study examined the major source of complaint.

A national workshop on women in journalism held in New Delhi in January 2002 also expressed that though the number of women in the media increased, their working conditions especially in the small towns and in the regional language press have actually deteriorated (Bhavani, and Vijaya Lakshmi, (2005). The workshop demanded for protection for all employments rights and benefits of women journalists and to implement rights and benefits of women journalists and to implement Supreme Court directive on sexual harassment by media organizations. At the same time,
women who are confident, hardworking, willing to take up challenges reached top positions despite several hurdles in the profession.

They have moved from coverage of soft news like fashions, art, beauty contests etc., to hard news such as politics, sports and were reporting. Although the proportion of women students in journalism education has increased, the number of students getting into media is not encouraging. The committee on the status of women in Indian journalism highlighted the low status of women in various spheres of women development (Press Institute of India Report, 2004).

**Bhavani and Vijaya Lakshmi (2005)** study revealed that majority of women journalists (77%) confined to desk were designated as chief sub-editors, desk in-charges, senior sub editors, edition in-charge and sub-editors. It is interesting to note that 4.1 per cent of women in Telugu and 4 per cent in English press reached higher position and working as editors of the newspapers. The study found that only 18.9 per cent of respondents are working as reporters in Telugu papers and only 8 per cent are working in English newspapers.

**Poornima** (2005), in her paper “Women in India’s Vernacular Press” traces the history of women in Indian regional language press. Even as journalism blossomed in supportive role to the nationalist political thinking and social reform and became an important political, social and cultural vehicle to reach the people, women came out of their homes. The Independence Movement enabled them to identify themselves with the nationalist ideology and they turned nationalists, revolutionaries, political activists and social workers. Education made them teachers, writers, artists and above all, journalists.
Jena, Mona Lisa (2006) describes the entry of women into Journalism, their struggles to gain equality and their determined efforts to ensure that their voice too was heard.

And also it reveals that more or less women journalists all over the world face the same kind of problem initially – the resistance to their entry by their male colleagues. The study considers the extent to which the professional culture has changed women’s working practices and conversely whether women have changed the newsroom or the news agenda..... It outlines the struggles that women journalists have endured to break ‘the glass ceiling’ in journalism. It outlines the problems and issues raised about the career progression of women journalists all over the world and how, in some cases, they were ‘wiped off many newspaper pages’ and marginalised. It also highlights the moral and professional dilemmas that women journalists and some of their male colleagues too, now face more or less routinely in the news media industry.

Media Study Group (2006) a pioneering survey of the social background of 315 key decision-makers from 37 ‘national’ media organizations based in Delhi was carried out by volunteers. Doubly disadvantaged sections of the population, such as women of other Backward Classes or backward caste Muslims and Christians, are nearly absent among the key decision-makers. The survey found that there was not a single OBC woman among the 315 journalists enumerated. For this survey 40 ‘national’ media organizations located in Delhi were identified including all the major newspapers, news magazine, radio channels, television channel and news agencies that could be said to have a national spread. The survey concluded that India’s ‘national’ media is characterized by the following:
India’s ‘national’ media lacks social diversity; it does not reflect the country’s social profile.

Hindu upper caste men dominate the media. They comprise about eight per cent of India’s population but among the key decision-makers of the national media, their share is as high as 71 per cent.

Gender bias rules: only 17 per cent of the key decision-makers are women. Their representation is better in the English electronic media (32 per cent).

The media’s caste profile is equally unrepresentative. ‘Twice born’ Hindus (dwijas comprising Brahmins, Kayasthas, Rajputs, Vaishyas and Khatris) comprise about 16 per cent of India’s population but they are about 86 per cent of the key media decision-makers in this survey. Brahmins (including Bhumihars and Tyagis) alone constitute 49 per cent of the key media personnel.

Dalits and Adivasis are conspicuous by their absence among the decision-makers. Not even one of the 315 key decision-makers belonged to the Scheduled Castes or the Scheduled Tribes.

The proportion of OBCs is abysmally low among the key decision-makers in the national media: they are only four per cent compared to their population of around 40 per cent in the country.

Muslims are severely under-represented in the national media: they are only three per cent among the key decision-makers compared to 13.4 per cent of the country’s population.

Christians are proportionately represented in the media (mainly in the English media): their share is about four per cent compared to their population share of 2.3 per cent.

Social groups that suffer ‘double disadvantage’ are also nearly absent among the key decision-makers: there are no women among the few
OBC decision-makers and negligible backwards among the Muslims and Christians.

For each of these organizations, they sought information on nth top 10 ‘key decision-makers’ who matter in deciding the news and editorial policy of the organization. For each of these persons thus identified, information was collected on their social profile in terms of their gender, age, religion, caste/community, mother tongue and state of domicile. Information was available on 315 key decision-makers. This was gathered by a group of volunteers of the Media Study Group. The information was not gathered by face to face interviews but by speaking to colleagues and other informants. *(Akhileshwari 2014)*

**Akhileshwari (2007)** a paper “Social Plurality Missing in Telugu Media” states the reasons for not getting into the media: caste discrimination; media does not offer job security that a government job does for a Dalit/OBC; and finding employment in private sector requires a social network of connections and recommendations which a Dalit lacks.

The paper “*Dalits and Diversity in Indian Media: Indian media lacks social diversity*” *(2007)* portrays the media as one of the most conservative institutions in the country in terms of its ownership and the social profile of the journalists it employs. The media is dominated by men belonging to upper castes and upper class. There is with poor representation of OBCs, women and Muslims among journalists. On the other hand, Dalits and Adivasis are almost non-existent in the media. Thus, almost three-fourths of the country’s people are invisible in the media, with no say in their own affairs. When they are invisible, their voice too goes unheard.
Whether it was the Green Revolution of the 1970s or the Newspaper Revolution of the 1990s, the Television and Radio Revolutions of the present day in India, they have all bypassed the Dalits and the suppressed people of India.

The media is merely a mirror reflection of the society faithfully reflecting all its age-old biases and prejudices that have afflicted Indian society. It ignores, plays down and even suppresses issues of the downtrodden or ridicules when it cannot ignore them, like the Anti-Reservation agitation. The major reason for this state of affairs is that the media, with very few exceptions, are owned by upper caste industrialists. The OBC/Dalit people have not yet gained enough financial muscle or developed enough vested interests to own a media. The basic criterion of starting and sustaining a media is financial strength which traditionally has vested with the upper castes and continues to be so. Two exceptions to this rule is the Deccan Herald Group of Karnataka and the Surya Telugu daily from Hyderabad.

If getting entry into the media organization is difficult with the owner-editors being upper caste, surviving in the editorial rooms of the newspapers/TV channels is a challenge since almost all decision-makers are also upper caste individuals.

Pawar, Nisha (2009) study focused on the theoretical and historical account of the women and Indian print media. It also focused on the inspiring account of the role of the press in the development of status of Indian women since its beginning but also their participation therein. The role of UN and UNESCO on the women and media in general and review of literature on women and Indian Print media in particular has been studied.
2.3 STATE LEVEL:

Taj, Nazin (1990) A case study examined the role and status of women in media in Bangalore city covering 40 out of 50 women journalists in the city. Issues such as their hierarchical status, involvement in decision-making, levels of job satisfaction, training and recruitment for jobs, areas of discrimination in work place, their self-perception as professionals, and attitudes to portrayal in media, were studied. The 40 respondents included 21 sub-editors, one senior sub editor, eight reporters, one feature writer, two correspondents, two producers (radio) one programme executive (radio), one assistant editor (radio news) and three producers (television). A majority of the respondents were young, less than 35 years old. Most of them were Hindus (83 per cent). Almost 80 per cent of them had salaries of Rs. 4000. Education-wise, 75 per cent had studied Arts and in English-medium Christian missionary-run convent schools. As many as 98 per cent of them were proficient in two to five languages. However, a majority of them used English language in their profession.

In terms of equal status with men, 27.5 per cent women said it was in salary; 22.5 per cent said it was in salary, leave, allotment of work, bonus and night shift; 20 per cent said it was in salary, leave, allotment of work, and bonus; 17.5 per cent said they had equal status in salary, leave and bonus. Only one respondent said there was no equality in any of the five areas. A general finding across the world has been that the assignment of work in the media was highly biased, with men given all important assignments like covering political and crime beats, and women relegated to the relatively less important cultural affairs. The study found that for a majority of respondents the assignment of work was not a bone of contention as they were sub-editors. Those who did reporting frequently covered entertainment, health, social welfare and education. Although one
or two of them were sometimes allotted the crime beat, they were generally not given “hard news” beats like politics, legal and economic affairs. The respondents’ personal view on whether women should cover hard news was positive. An overwhelming majority of them felt that women should cover such news. Those who covered hard news believed they did a better job than their male colleagues. There was solitary voice of dissent: “Women, particularly in Indian context, might be unequal to the demands made by such jobs because of in-built lack of aggressiveness, push and the capacity to fight one’s way through”. More than half of the respondents did not perceive any conflict between their roles as career women and housewives. The others reported numerous problems and most of the mothers felt guilty of being away at work when the children were ill.

In terms of job satisfaction, the majority (62.5 per cent) were satisfied with the nature of work and so on but the level of satisfaction was low with regard to future prospects and the present position. It was found that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction between the younger age group (23-30 years constituting 67.5 per cent of the respondents) and the rest. Similarly, there was no significant difference between marital status and job satisfaction. The working hours for women in general were fairly convenient and did not clash overtly with their household duties and activities. This situation changed dramatically by the turn of the century.

**Murthy & Anita G. (2009)** the study has attempted to study the sociological issues of media women who include print journalists, television anchors, script writers and radio announcers. The study found that majority of the respondents is in the age group of 21-30.

Marriage and children affect the professional life of the respondents and the job also influences the bearing of children. Job and lack of proper
childcare arrangements influence the working media women to plan their family life. The study also found that 46.5 per cent of the respondents were either on contract or appointed temporarily. It is notable in the study that women come forward to work in the night shift. The study found that major complaint was with the job is lack of time to search for a good job, salary and working hours.

Akhileshwari R. (2014) the study observed that the visibility of women journalists has increased tremendously than ever before in both print and electronic media.
**Conclusion:**

Though several studies have been conducted across the globe with diverse samples and population there is a paucity of studies on issues and concerns of women journalists in the Indian context and hardly focusing on Bangalore City. The present study is warranted as there is a dearth of empirical research on the subject in Bangalore City. The sociological study of changing status of women in journalism has received less attention as compared to research on status of women, content, impact of audience, and inferred effects of mass communication. However in the recent past, interest on examining the sociological aspects of mass communicators has grown, and various studies related to status and role, occupational problems, analyses of complex organizations and so on have been taken up in different settings.

The present study deals with journalists’ background, working conditions, job satisfaction, nature of job and others with particular reference to women have been presented.

The study will call attention to the myriad problems faced by journalists and add to the existing body of literature on women journalists. From a sociological perspective, the study would give an insight into the labour dynamics of women journalists, the operational constraints, etc. Also, the study would help women journalists to evolve strategies in breaking the glass ceiling and making headway in their careers.