CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 GENERAL

Education is the most important instrument for human resource development. Educating women, therefore, occupies top priority among various measures taken to improve the status of women in India. In recent years, the focus of planning has shifted from equipping women for their traditional roles of housewives and mothers in recognizing their worth as producers, making a major contribution to family and national income. Efforts have been made over the past three decades of planned development to enroll more girls in schools encouraging them to continue their education as long as possible, and to provide non-formal educational opportunities for women.

1.2 HISTORY OF WOMEN’S EDUCATION IN INDIA

Historically women have taken part in all spheres of life with courage and gusto. Indian higher education system is no exception. Indian mythology is rich with stories of highly educated and evolved women. We embrace womanhood that our deity of education is a woman. One can trace the historical evidence of ancient Indian education to the 3rd century B.C. when education was imparted orally and many women scholars were part in it. When Buddhism spread to India, some world famous educational institutions such as Nalanda, Vikramshila and Takshila were established. Research shows that a number of women were enrolled in these temples of learning. These universities flourished from about 5th century to 13th century. In the 11th century the Muslim rulers established universities in Delhi, Lucknow and Allahabad. Women had taken part
in all fields of knowledge such as theology, religion, philosophy, fine arts, and astronomy. But still education has been found to be restricted to a certain strata of the society. It was not available to everyone.

Later when the British arrived in India, English education came into being. European missionaries came and established many schools. These missionaries promoted schooling for girls from the early part of 19th century. Mostly girls from poor families attended these schools. By the end of the 19th century, women were graduating from colleges and universities in a sizeable number. (In 1882, there were 2,700 schools and colleges for girls with 127,000 students.) The social reform movement of the 19th century (that originated within the Indian intelligentsia and later spread to sections of the middle classes) had a major role in this upsurge of education among women, but this movement was largely an urban phenomenon. This period coincided with several other reforms such as child marriage, Sati Pratha, and Purdah system.

In 1857, three universities were established in three presidencies – Bombay (now renamed Mumbai), Calcutta (Kolkata) and Madras (Chennai). Acquiring higher education presented a personal challenge to middle class girls, but the participation of Christian and Parsi women was much higher than that of Hindu women, and it was the lowest among Muslims. Around the beginning of the 20th century the new emphasis on education for women was not just to make them better housewives and mothers but also to help them educate their children and so contribute to nation building. In 1906, Sarojini Naidu said, in a speech to the Indian Social Conference in Calcutta, “Therefore, I charge you, restore to your women their ancient rights, for, as I have said, it is we, and not you, who are the real nation builders, and without our active cooperation at all points of progress all your congresses and conferences are in vain. Educate your women
and the nation will take care of itself, for it is as true today as it was yesterday and will be to the end of human life that the hand that rocks the cradle rules the world"

At this time only 2% of Indian women had any education, so one can imagine the meager number of women who got ‘higher’ education. But education was increasingly being viewed as a means to enhance the social presence of Indian women and enable them to adapt to a changing external situation.

The Indian National Congress played a major role in emancipating women. Within a year of its formation in 1885, a Ladies’ Association was formed. By the 1890s more and more highly educated women were visible in the public sphere. Later, prominent Indian women like Ramabai Ranade, Sarojini Naidu, Annie Besant, Rameshwari Nehru, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Aruna Asif Ali, Sucheta Kriplani, Usha Mehta and Vilasini Devi Shenai played an important political and social role. By the 1920s different rationales were being presented to provide quality higher education to women. According to one view, women should be highly educated because of their useful role as a mother. According to the other group, women having the same needs, desires and capacities as men should be given the same opportunities for higher studies. This period also saw a shift in consciousness of and about working class women. Once women were recognized as an integral part of the workforce, higher education became a necessary stepping-stone.

But the development of educational opportunities for girls was held back because of child marriage and purdah. Not only that, but women's education was not smooth as several traditional and orthodox forces came in the way. For instance, Sardar Dayal Singh, speaking on behalf of the Indian Association of Punjab, stated "the object of female education in this country is not to make sound scholars but to make better mothers, sisters and wives". “Girls should be
taught suitable subjects and not be made to swallow history and geography indiscriminately,” opined Lahore Arya Samaj. Many universities were established during this period. Benaras Hindu University in 1916, Aligarh Muslim University in 1920, and Delhi University in 1922 became new hubs of women’s liberation. At this stage, many enlightened national leaders took much interest in this area and strove hard to bring about a change in the mindset of the people.

1.2.1 Women’s Education after Independence

After the Independence, women’s education, especially higher education, took off. Education started playing a great role in the emancipation of women from traditional dependencies. Women became more vocal, articulate and assertive. The Indian Constitution granted equal rights to women and later included the right to education. Jawaharlal Nehru said, “You can tell the condition of a nation by looking at the status of its women.” He understood that higher education for women was the need of the hour. In 1950-51 there were nine women per hundred men pursuing higher education. In 1984-85 the situation improved to 28 women per hundred men.

The National Policy on Education of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of education in post-Independence India. It aimed to promote national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture, and to strengthen national integration. It was acknowledged that the growth of our population needed to be brought down significantly over the coming decades. The largest single factor that could help achieve this was the spread of literacy and education among women. This policy laid special emphasis on the removal of disparities and to equalize educational opportunity for men and women.
Education was to be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. To neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past, there was a well-conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education System played (and continues to play) a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It fostered the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision-makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. This was to be an act of faith and social engineering. Women’s studies were promoted and educational institutions were encouraged to take up active programmes to further women’s development. The system worked vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional programmes and to promote women’s participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emergent technologies.

The Constitutional Amendment of 1976, which includes Education in the Concurrent List, was a far-reaching step. The National Policy on Education of 1986 and the Revised Education Policy of 1992 also laid adequate emphasis on women’s higher education. Ironically, much of the essential work of promoting education rested in women’s hands, and no education policy could be effective without the active support of the society. Older women were not ready to let their progeny join institutes of higher learning. Only ‘advanced’ and ‘modern’ girls pursued such ambitions that were unthinkable for a ‘nice’ ‘homely’ ‘traditional’ girl, from a ‘respectable’ family. The matrimonial advertisements emphasized this brazenly. This was an unquestioned reality in most homes. ‘Steeped in ignorance’ might be a cliché, but it was the truth.

The poorer classes were, of course, completely unaware of the need for education, but the upper classes – as well as the middle class in its unrelenting
desire for respectability – would not encourage it for fear of throwing open the doors to subversion. The scales were heavily weighed against women. Only a few could break free from the mould in which they had been cast from birth.

In most Indian families, a daughter was viewed as a liability, and she was conditioned to believe that she is inferior and subordinate to men. Sons were idolized and celebrated. “May you be the mother of a hundred sons,” was a common Hindu wedding blessing. The origin of the Indian idea of appropriate female behaviour can be traced to the rules laid down by Manu in 200 B.C.: “by a young girl, by a young woman, or even by an aged one, nothing must be done independently, even in her own house”. “In childhood a female must be subject to her father, in youth to her husband, when her lord is dead to her sons; a woman must never be independent.”

Today Indian women’s participation in higher education is quite high and growing. This is due to high job aspirations and parental support. But most women still attend local universities, as their parents want them to stay at home and study. A lot depends on their social class, and parental educational status.

1.2.2 Women and Education – Present Scenario

Today 53.5% of young women below 30 have university degrees. These times in India are the kind of times when everything seems within reach, anything is possible with hard work and determination. The achievements of women during these times are so significant that they have altered the gender landscape of schools, colleges, offices, courts, police stations, hospitals, hotels and business establishments. Women are everywhere making their mark in every field. This revolution has occurred without an organized women’s movement in
the country. Women have begun to think of possibilities for their careers. The faith reposed by parents in their daughters and giving them the freedom is indicative of how the times have changed!

Exposure to and interactions with the outside world are instrumental in determining the possibilities available to women in their daily lives. The situation of women is affected by the degree of their autonomy or capacity to make decisions both inside and outside their own household.

As women receive greater education and training, they will earn more money. As women earn more money, they will spend it in further education and health of their children. As women rise in economic status, they will gain greater social standing in the household, and will have greater voice. As women gain influence, they will make stronger claims to their entitlements – gaining further training, and better access to higher incomes. As women’s economic power grows, it will be easier to overcome the tradition of “son preference” and thus end the evil of dowry. As son preference declines, families will be more likely to educate their daughters, and age of marriage will rise. As women are better nourished and marry later, they will be healthier, more productive, and will give birth to healthier babies.

1.3 HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

The Indian higher education system is one of the largest in the world. It consists of colleges, universities, institutions of national importance (such as Indian Institutes of Technology, Indian Institutes of Management and Indian Institute of Science), and autonomous institutions with the status of deemed universities. As on 31.3.2006, there are 367 University level institutions
including 20 Central Universities, 217 State Universities, 104 Deemed Universities and 5 institutions established under State Legislation, 13 Institutes of National Importance established under Central legislation and 6 Private Universities. There are 18,064 degree and post-graduate colleges (including around 1902 women's colleges), of which 14,400 came under the purview of the University Grant Commission, the rest are professional colleges under the purview of the Central Government or other statutory bodies like the AICTE, ICAR, MCI etc. Of the Colleges under UGC purview 6109 have been recognized by the University Grants Commission (UGC) under Section 2(f) and 5525 under Section 12(B) of the UGC Act, which recognition permits them to receive grants from the UGC. (Government of India 2006-07).

Since 1991, a large number of private colleges are being set up on a self-financing basis and their number has increased rapidly. The private technical education system in India is the largest in the world and the growth of higher education in the last 15 years has been mainly in the private sector (Anandkrishnan 2004). They seem to fulfil the demand for undergraduate professional programmes in engineering/technology, medicine including dental education and health sciences, management, computer and IT education, mass media and communication, teacher education, etc. Most of these are in the southern and southwestern states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Maharashtra. Other provinces are following suit. They are quick to respond to the demand for new programmes though in a limited number of subjects. As a result, their number has increased so much so that they form a majority of the undergraduate colleges in India.
1.3.1 Women in Higher Education

Starting in 1950-51 when the proportion of women was 10.9 percent to 40.04 percent in 2002-03, the increase has been significant. In other words there were, 14 women per 100 men in 1950-51, which increased to 67 in 2002-03 (Shukla 2003). Thus, the proportion of women entering higher education today has increased rapidly from 1,685,926 in 1991-92 to 40% (3,695,964) of all students. There have also been shifts in women's choice of disciplines in higher education. There are also wide disparities in enrolment by region, caste, tribe and by gender. These differences had made an impact on women from the disadvantaged groups.

1.3.2 Socialization of Women’s Education

Education has normally been viewed as an agency helping economic production; it is also said to provide instructions in suitable skills for a general division of labour. Thus one of the aims of higher education is to develop efficiency in production. But a great deal of ambivalence exists as regards women’s education. The ambivalence has increased since women have begun to seek employment. The role of women as wives, mothers and homemakers has increased. Women must now also seek employment to improve their economic conditions and to seek intellectual satisfaction. It is interesting to note that in study conducted by the Carnegie Commission it was found that college educated women tend to spend relatively more time on child care than women with lower levels of education, but about the same amount of time on such activities as meal preparation. Thus the educated women are expected to display efficiency in all her roles. Any error and the blame will go to her education. In fact, it is viewed as wastage of education (Pruthi et al. 2001).
With the enhanced level in the enrolment rate of women students in higher education, it is not surprising that one finds it enterprising to know the pulse of the student community in opting for creative and challenging academic programmes thereby deserting the age-old stereotyped ones meant for them.

1.3.3 Selecting an Academic Field

Selecting an academic programme of study in the Indian context is a particularly significant decision with broader family consequences. Economically, one’s degree profoundly affects access to a “good job” is simply a job with security, preferably a “desk job” not involving manual labour, with on-site decent housing, medical facilities, schools, transportation, and other amenities generally associated with the government sector. For academically elite students like at an Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), a ‘good job’ with ‘scope’ provides not only economic security but intellectual challenge, ‘glamour’, ‘prestige and opportunities for advancement and travel, such as going ‘abroad’ to the United States (Saxena 2002).

1.3.4 Patrifocal Family Obligations and Girls Educational Success

Given the prestige and job opportunities associated with Science and Engineering programmes, one would expect middle class, education-oriented families to encourage both daughters and sons to pursue career in such academic programmes. But studies have revealed that most families view educational achievements, especially in scientific fields, differently for girls than boys and are less inclined to invest family resources in the academic success of daughters than sons (Jaiswal 1988; Rugmini 1986).
Within the Patrifocal family system, a family’s obligation to daughters consists primarily of getting them “well settled” in marriage. This need not preclude and can even be an impetus for educational pursuits. A college degree and increasingly a “professional degree” or a course of study with career options is seen as enhancing a girl’s marriage ability (Saxena 2002). Women’s disciplinary choices in higher education have changed over the years due to various factors.

1.3.5 Women’s Disciplinary Choices

Globalisation has changed the world into a global market and where the jobs generated is not restricted by geographical boundaries. Further, the direct nexus between the industry, corporate world and higher education has brought a transformation in the skills needed for jobs. There has been a corresponding change in the boundaries between arts and science subjects. While the stratification between arts and science has been further reinforced, the sciences are subdivided into applied/emerging versus pure sciences. Natural/pure sciences are relegated to a lower position than are the applied sciences and professional skills. Again, academic programmes related to biosciences such as molecular biology, microbiology, biochemistry, biophysics is preferred to biology, physics and chemistry. In this hierarchy of disciplines, new disciplines such as management, media and mass communication, and fashion technology have also taken their place towards the higher end of the spectrum. The private institutions are very quick to respond to these demands (Chanana 2004).

While women used to enter colleges and universities mainly in general education or in arts subjects till the early nineties, now they are entering the private self-financing institutions for pursuing their studies in both the new and
the traditionally labelled ‘masculine’ disciplines. The gendered impact of the changes requires attention if the goal of social change and gender equity has to be achieved. The study of gender is, in effect, the study of inequality and social differences are critical to the understanding of women’s disciplinary choices (Thomas 1990).

The programmes in higher education are divided into those of general subjects such as arts which include social sciences and humanities; and pure sciences, on the one hand, and the professional academic programmes such as engineering (which includes architecture), medical science, teacher education, agriculture, law, etc, on the other. They are also divided into masculine and feminine disciplines. For example, arts, social sciences, humanities, and teacher education have been viewed as feminine disciplines. On the other hand, commerce, law, and engineering are masculine disciplines. Medical Science has not been a masculine discipline in India unlike in the western countries. In India as in the rest of South Asia, the practice of female seclusion enjoined the treatment of women patients by women doctors. This necessitated training women doctors thereby enabling women to enter the medical profession.

The proportion of women in some of the masculine disciplines was miniscule soon after the Independence and remained so till the 1980s with the exception of commerce.

1.3.6 Shift in Disciplinary Choices

These days young persons both men and women are impatient with just pursuing ‘studies’. They like to earn as soon as they can, even while in school. The revolution in values cuts across strata, i.e. young persons even from the
upper and middle strata want to earn as early as possible. The daughters of city based professional parents, especially if they do not have brothers, have really undergone a sea change in their socialization. The parents are giving the best education to their daughters and expect them to be independent and follow careers. This revolution in values contrasts with those values, which dominated prior to the nineties, i.e. education and its linkage to the job market early on in life was only for those men who needed jobs and was certainly not for women. In this changed situation, the priorities of women have changed. They too want professional education and are, therefore, entering the so-called masculine disciplines like Communication Studies.

1.4 COMMUNICATION STUDIES

‘Communication’ seems to be the ‘buzz’ word of the present era for we live in the age of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Today’s youth is severely caught up with the complete admiration for Communication Studies in which the media studies form a part.

Consequently, this decade (beginning 2000) has witnessed the mushrooming of umpteen number of educational institutions offering programme on the media, thanks to the palatable student community who want them to be in the elite company of people who dare to be different by opting for new academic programmes in the arena such as Journalism, Advertising, Mass Communication, Visual Communication, Electronic Media, Film and Television Studies – that would come under the umbrella term “Media Studies”.
1.4.1 Origin and Growth of Media Studies

Even in the early 18th century, the press was recognized as a powerful entity. Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881) wrote that the British statesman Edmund Burke (1729-97) called the reporters’ gallery in the British Parliament “a Fourth Estate more important by far” than the other three estates of Parliament – the peers, bishops, and commons. A similar statement, however, is attributed to the English historian, Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800-1859) who in his “Essay on Hallam’s Constitutional History” published in Edinburgh Review (September 1828), observed with reference to the press gallery of the House of Commons, “The gallery in which the reporters sit has become a fourth estate of the realm”.

And over time, newspapers, news magazines, radio, television, cable video, videocassettes and movies have been demanding more and more of our attention and leisure time. The mass media now markedly affect our politics, our recreation, our education in general and profoundly our culture, our perception and our understanding of the world around us. But Marshall McLuhan, whose theories on mass communication caused widespread debate, argued that each major period of history is characterized, not by the mass media per se, but by the nature of the medium of communication (print or electronic) used most widely at the time.

Journalism education in the narrow sense prepares students for careers in newspapers, news magazines, broadcast news, and news services. Now it encompasses a much wider area under the broad label “mass communication”. By whatever name it may be called, journalism and mass communication study is not a discipline in the sense that sociology, economics, political science or history is, but a rather loose interdisciplinary field covering a wide range of issues.
somehow related to public concerns. As such, the field reflects, in general, the growth of mass communication itself.

1.4.2 Journalism Education in the USA

A brief account of the development of journalism education in the USA will help understand the current trend in journalism and mass communication education in India. Journalism education, which has a beginning in English Departments in American universities, focused more on techniques, such as, reporting, news writing, editing, design, and photography. Often, former journalists taught them. Willard G. Bleyer, a professor of English in the University of Wisconsin, may be called the father of journalism education. He was instrumental in introducing the first journalism academic programme in the university in 1905 and his scholarly interests later greatly influenced the field.

But the country’s first school of Journalism came into existence in 1908 at the University of Missouri. This was followed by the establishment of the Graduate School of Journalism in 1911 at the Columbia University backed with a $2 million gift from Joseph Pulitzer, publisher of the New York World. Pulitzer is also remembered for the Pulitzer Prizes, also funded by him, and annually awarded for excellence in journalism, letters and music. The school, still rated as one of the best journalism schools in the USA, is the publisher of the scholarly journal Columbia Journalism Review published since 1961. Now there are 427 colleges and universities that offer programmes in journalism and mass communication (Wikipedia 2008).

The focus on newspapers continued to dominate journalism education throughout the 1940s at leading schools of Journalism in the USA. With the
emergence of radio and television as major news and entertainment media, the journalism schools incorporated such topics as radio news, television news and broadcasting production techniques in their programmes. Even the Speech Departments, offshoots of English Departments, became involved in the preparation of students for careers in broadcasting. In some universities, the speech and communication arts departments were merged with the journalism programmes.

Around the same time, more and more journalism schools started offering academic programmes in advertising and public relations, giving rise to the term “mass communication” to describe this amalgam of courses on newspapers, radio, television, news magazines, and an increasing involvement with the study of communication itself. Communication study as an academic discipline has long been a part of social sciences in the American higher education. It involves the study of mass media and other social institutions devoted, among other, to persuasion, communication processes and their effects, audience studies, content analysis, and interpersonal communication.

Wilbur Schramm, a leading scholar of communication studies, who taught at Universities of Iowa, Illinois and Stanford, is credited with popularizing communication studies in journalism departments. Increasingly, graduate programmes became more concerned with communication theory while undergraduate academic programmes stressed pre-professional training for careers in news media, advertising, and public relations. But such emphasis on communication has its share of criticism too. It has been argued that communication and media studies hardly have anything to do with the practice of journalism.
The increased emphasis on communication theory at the expense of basic reporting and writing skill has also led to the scrapping of exclusive journalism academic programmes in some universities. The shifting of focus from conventional journalism to communication is reflected in the rechristening the Schools and Departments of Journalism as School of Journalism and Mass Communication, Department of Communication, or Schools of Communication. Some of the well-known schools, however, did not change their names. At Missouri and at Columbia they continue to be the School of Journalism and the Graduate Department of Journalism, respectively. Before we take a look at the status of journalism education in India we should get to know the overview of media industry in the country.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF MEDIA INDUSTRY IN INDIA

The Indian media industry is among the fastest growing sectors in the country. In 1991 India had only a single state owned television network Doordarshan.

With broadcast media liberalization the number of Indian households with access to television increased exponentially, growing from only a few million in 1984 to 124 million households in 2009, a figure that accounts for approximately 60 percent of the total population. (PricewaterhouseCoopers 2010: 24). Today television is one of the country’s most profitable industries. Generating annual revenues of Rs. 265.5 billion (approximately US $6 billion) in 2009, the television industry comprises almost half (46 percent) of the Indian entertainment and media market, which is the fourth largest in the world (PricewaterhouseCoopers 2010: 8).
Between 2000 and June 2010, a staggering total of 268 ‘news and current affairs’ channels had been officially registered in the country, to broadcast either generic or niche forms of news (e.g. business news, entertainment news) for some or all of a 24-hour period (Table 1). While several among these remained on paper, and still others were shut down, India today has approximately 122 active news channels, the largest number of any country in the world (Kohli-Khandekar 2011).

Table 1.1 Consolidated list of News Channels in India, 2000–10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of news channels</th>
<th>Total no. of channels</th>
<th>% of total channels</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>44</td>
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<td>2004</td>
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<td>79</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2000-2010)</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The remarkable growth of the television news industry is linked to the investment decisions of major global and national corporations, but also those of regional real estate firms, political parties, and (particularly in the local markets) wealthy and socially and politically powerful individuals and families. The latter set of actors is particularly dominant in regional news channels, which make up 50 percent of the total number of news channels in the country.
In sheer revenue size, the Indian media industry in 2003-2004 was worth about US$ 4.5 billion. By 2008 it is expected to more than double at close to US$ 10 billion! The industry employs an estimated 6 million people. And some experts feel that during this decade another million people will get jobs in this sector (Kohli 2005). But the moot question is – are there enough qualified and trained professionals to meet the growing requirements of the Indian television industry? What is the status of communication education in the country?

While India has a rich history of education for the print media and mass communication, institutes for broadcast television have lagged behind. Prior to the satellite television boom in the early 1990s, there was limited demand for trained television professionals. As a result, there were only a handful of education institutes. The most prominent ones were the Film and Television Institute of India (FTII) at Pune in Western India, the Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC) and the Mass Communication Research Centre at the Jamia Millia Islamia.

With the boom in satellite TV channels and the consequent sudden demand for trained professionals, a host of television training institutes mushroomed throughout the last decade. The vast majority of these were often small time operations with inadequate infrastructure, lacking proper technical facilities and above all offering a curriculum that was not in sync with industry requirements. But things have changed over the last few years. Today there are quality media institutes for broadcast television that have consciously invested in creating international standards infrastructure, technical facilities, and above all, industry relevant curriculum.
To meet global standards some of the newer media institutes have also collaborated with international universities and media organizations. Some institutes also tend to integrate real time industry exposure into the curriculum design itself. This ensures better learning for the student and also brings about good performance on the job without a long learning curve. The main factor that has contributed in improving the communication education landscape includes a more demanding industry that does not easily hire people who have not been properly trained.

1.6 MEDIA STUDIES – INDIAN SCENARIO

Mass Communication and Journalism Education at various levels – such as certificate, diploma, degree, masters and Ph.D. – are made available in Indian universities and private coaching institutions in present times. P.P. Singh set up a department of auspices of Punjab University at Lahore in 1941. The department functioned in Delhi for 15 years after the country’s partition in 1947. Later it was shifted to the new campus of Punjab University at Chandigarh in 1962. Presenting a paper on Journalism Education at the Communication/Journalism Teacher’s Seminar at Honolulu, Singh (1971) observed: “Journalism education met with strong opposition from working journalists. Few thought that journalists needed training or that they could be trained”. Media owners also believed that “Communicators are born, not made”. They too did not encourage Mass Communication and Journalism training wholeheartedly because of this wrong notion.

From 1947-1954, five more academic programmes in Journalism were commenced at Madras, Calcutta, Mysore, Nagpur and Osmania Universities. During 1964-1985, 23 universities also launched journalism academic
programmes in the country. They include – Universities of Poona, Guwahati, Shivaji, Jabalpur, Punjab Agricultural, Ravi Shankar, Marathwada, Banares Hindu, Saurashtra, Bangalore, Berhampur, Punjabi, Madurai Kamaraj, Garhwal, Rajasthan, Aligarh Muslim, Calicut, Kerala, Maharshi Dayanand, Dharwar, Sagar, Allahabad and Indore. During 1985-2000 many more Universities such as Mahatma Gandhi, Bharatiar, Mangalore, Central University (Hyderabad), Kuvempu, Women’s (Tirupati), Tejpur, Shimla, Guru Jambeshwar (Hissar), Kurukshetra, Annamalai, Assam, Bharathi Dasan, Bhavanagar, Chowdhary Charan Singh (Meerat), Dr. Hari Singh Ghaur (Sagar), Himachal Pradesh, Nagarjuna, Ranchi, Sri Krishnadeveraya, Bardhwan, Kashmir (Srinagar), Lalitha Narayana Mithila, Manipur, Swamy Ramananda Tirtha Maratwada, Goa, Indira Gandhi National Open University, Anna University, Jawaharlal Nehru University, etc., also started Mass Communication and Journalism degree programmes in tune with the needs of regional media, government and non-governmental institutional needs.

Makhanlal Chaturvedi Rashtriya Patrakarita Vishwavidyalaya, Bhopal, which was set up by Act Number 15 of 1990 of the Legislative Assembly of Madhya Pradesh, is named after Makhanlal Chaturvedi, a renowned Freedom Fighter, Poet and Journalist. It is considered to be one of the first biggest universities in Asia for Journalism. It has six departments of journalism offering eighteen media related academic programmes including four M.B.A programmes in Media Management, Science and Technology Communication, Entertainment Communication and Advertising and Marketing Communication.

The Government of India set up the Indian Institute of Mass Communication in New Delhi in 1965 with responsibilities for consultation, training, research and development, particularly in the use of Mass
Communication for national developmental endeavours. The institute offers three fulltime programmes of one academic year namely – Post-Graduate Diploma in Journalism, Post-Graduate Diploma in Advertising and Public Relations and Diploma in News Agency Journalism. Besides these, orientation programmes and refreshers courses are also arranged from time to time for the benefit of government media functionaries. The Press Institute of India was established in 1963 to provide training facilities for journalists and other media professionals. It organizes seminars, workshops and conferences.

A large number of private institutions also offer academic programmes in Mass Communication and Journalism all over the country. Prominent among them include Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Horniman College of Journalism (Mumbai), St. Xavier’s Institute of Communication (Mumbai), Symbiosis Institute of Mass Communication (Pune), Asian College of Journalism (Chennai), Manipal Institute of Communication (Manipal), Indian Institute of Journalism and New Media (Bangalore), and Sri Sri Centre for Media Studies. In India at present some 60 universities, 25 agricultural universities and 100 private institutions annually train about 2000 students in various aspects of Mass Communication and Journalism including reporting, editing, photography, videography, printing, designing, advertising, public relations and so on. Agricultural universities are imparting training on farm communication, extension education and development communication. Most of the universities and colleges have provided infrastructure and workforce in audio-visual communication field also to some extent.

A study published by the Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC) of India addresses many of these issues, based on a systematic survey of 77 media organizations and 35 communication/journalism training
institutes conducted in 2001. The media in India need multi-skilled people with an understanding of the nature of information and well-versed in the new communication technologies, and society as a whole needs more skilled people in media production as well as critical thinking in relation to new ICTs across the economy. This calls for a curriculum with a mix of practical media production (including Internet publishing), media effects, political economy, cultural studies, and suitable internships.

Given the uneven pattern of economic development in the country, India’s media scenario across traditional and new media can be characterized as “poverty amidst plenty” (AMIC 2001).

Indian dailies enjoy a daily circulation of 13 crore copies, of which a lion’s share is accounted for by 200 big dailies. The 350 main newspapers employ a total of about 5,000 reporters, 2,000 fulltime correspondents, 5,000 stringers and 5,000 editorial staff. All India Radio employs 24,000 people including 4,500 in news production. Doordarshan has 19,000 employees of which about 4,000 are in production and news. All the other private networks (such as Sun, Eenadu, Zee, ATN, Sony, AsiaNet) employ about 1,700 people with only about 500 in direct production and news (outsourcing is a common practice). The advertising industry in India is worth Rs.7,000 crores a year. As much as 55 per cent of India’s ad spend is devoted to the print media. The major ad agencies employ 3,000 professionals in all.

On the technology front, new ICT innovations have transformed industries like newspaper publishing, but many media departments’ curricula are lagging on this front. And those, which do have good media labs, face other challenges in servicing and maintenance facilities. The induction of new
technology like computers and the Internet in the media sector suggests that familiarity and working knowledge of related ICT skills should be part of any curriculum in the training institutions, according to the report.

Indian media education institutes cover a wide range of university and non-university entities, such as Indian Institute of Mass Communication, Indian Institute of Journalism and New Media, Manipal Institute of Communication, Kerala Press Academy, FTII, Ad Club Chennai, Public Relations Society of India, Bangalore University, Sophia Polytechnic, Xavier Institute of Communication, MICA, and Symbiosis Institute of Mass Communication.

The comprehensive surveys indicated that many educators feel their role is not necessarily to meet the workforce needs of the industry, but to meet broader holistic social goals and non-media roles as well. Many industry representatives seem to feel that communication education should not follow guidance from the government, but take inputs from the industry; the programme should be geared towards entry-level jobs in the industry. The survey also revealed a growing importance placed on students’ competency in English, interpersonal skills, and fact checking. The kinds of Internet skills needed include hypertext publishing, graphic design, and cyber laws. Other skill sets covered in the survey include storyboarding, editing, social psychology, rural marketing, crisis communication, and broadcast technologies.

“Despite the IT bubble burst, new media and associated technologies are still relevant and the journalism and mass communications institutions should keep this in mind,” the report recommends. “The nature of the course content should recognize that news is now broken on the Net first and delivered through a variety of media including mobile phones. Convergence of media has happened
and accordingly the orientation of instruction should change,” according to the report.

Much more needs to be done to get alumni more involved in media capacity issues. Curricula need to be updated more frequently. Umbrella organizations like AMIC India and the Media Information and Communication Centre of India (MICCI) can play a greater role via e-forums in exchanging curriculum and other resources between media educational institutes in India. Students need to be imbued with a mix of skills, passion, professionalism and creativity in old and new media, in terms of developing a “news sense”. Emphasis should be laid on connecting communications media with people, and not getting distracted by elitist concerns.

The report also recommends the setting up of National Media Council, which can act as an accreditation agency to ensure standards in media teaching and training.

Other issues which future studies could address include the rapid proliferation of wireless media and their impact on news and community formation, inculcating a sense of social responsibility, mid-career refresher programmes, competing against a preoccupation with entertainment and commercialized media, issues surrounding legal and privacy considerations, partnerships with business schools (on topics like e-commerce), increasing media capacity programmes in Indian languages, status of library facilities, community empowerment, the digital divide, and the FM radio boom.

In an era characterized by the convergence of technologies the need for skilled media professionals who understand the foundation both ethical and
practical from which they have to work becomes even more critical. But without training in new media skills the goal will remain unachievable. This crisis in journalism requires to be addressed in the classroom where young journalists are moulded and sculpted.

The ultimate purpose of Mass Communication training is to build a band of conscious, committed, competitive, courageous and compassionate professionals and nation builders. The educational institutions should contribute champions of professionalism and public interest. The media owners should look forward to recruiting such worthy graduates. But they should not be indifferent to these qualities of graduates. It would simply mar the profession of Mass Communication and Journalism. These aspects need proper introspections by the policy makers in the universities and colleges. These aspects should be adequately covered in the syllabi at various levels of Mass Communication and Journalism training. The great task for Mass Communication educators is to equip their students with a firm sense of professionalism. Mass Communication and Journalism training institutions and programmes should become centres of excellence where these ideals are translated into realities (Veena and Guru 2005).

1.7 WOMEN IN COMMUNICATION EDUCATION

As it is already mentioned, Journalism education at undergraduate level started growing quickly at the beginning of the twentieth century in the United States. Not only did nearly all journalists soon have an undergraduate degree (already by the early 1970s 60% of all American journalists had college degrees), but by the early 1990s, 75 to 80 percentage of newly hired entry-level daily newspaper journalists were graduates of journalism programmes. In contrast, in Britain, a post-graduate diploma in journalism was first offered in 1970 and it
was the 1990s before undergraduate degrees began. The majority of journalists had no university education in any area up to the 1980s: in 1955/6, 25% of British journalists had been educated to university level, although it rose to 69% in 1995. This situation is particularly significant for women in journalism given that the increase in women studying journalism coincides with a rise in the proportion of women in the profession.

1.7.1 Early Responses to Women Journalism Students

The Board of Directors planning Columbia University’s new journalism school opposed the admission of women. But women’s exclusion was overruled and the inaugural class included several women. Nonetheless, the Columbia Graduate School of Journalism maintained a 10 percent quota on women students until 1968. Other schools did not anticipate women applying, and therefore very few of them had policies excluding women. With the benefit of hindsight, and given the relative glamour of journalism, it is no surprise that women did apply to join journalism programmes. Several studies have revealed that a few women go on to work as journalists owing to different reasons the primary one being the wear and tear of the profession.

Women and men students have typically been tracked quite differently, with women encouraged to study (and prepare for) feature writing and writing for and about women like Helen Hostetter’s “Journalism for Women”. There were also journalism programmes run and taught by women for women students. Just as the creation of women’s pages or women’s beats required hiring a certain number of women reporters, so establishing academic programmes for women required hiring a small number of women to teach those academic programmes.
1.7.2 Faculty Women in Journalism Education

The environment in academia has changed radically in recent times in resonance with the changes in other sectors of the society. Principal among the changes is the infusion of disenfranchised groups, such as women, in relatively large numbers into colleges and universities offering journalism programmes across the world. Simply said women are entering the ranks of university students and faculty in great numbers than ever (Vishwanath et al. 1989). Many studies have confirmed that there is a steady increase in the number of women journalism graduates passing out every year.

In general, men dominate the education of journalists. Formal journalism education is not merely the imparting of knowledge and skills to learners. An educator imparts, wittingly or unwittingly, also his or her attitudes, values and prejudices to students who, even in tertiary institutions, consider teachers as role models. The question is, as gatekeepers and agenda-setters for classroom discussions, how much attention are male lecturers giving to issues that concern women and their coverage by the media? Considering the male-centred nature of the Indian society, and the power of the mass media to reflect and reinforce certain characteristic national traits, the issue of the trivialization and stereotyping of women in the mass media could have got its roots in the male-dominated education being given to students in the nation’s centers of journalism education.

1.7.3 Women in Journalism Textbooks

The earliest printed resources for would-be journalists in the United States were manuals written by men and for women. Certainly, only men – and
gentlemen – are mentioned in manuals and booklets such as Benjamin Drew’s 1874 *Pens and Types: Or, Hints and Helps for Those Who Write, Print, or Read*; Thomas Campbell-Copeland’s *The Ladder of Journalism: How to Climb It*. Edwin Shuman, the literary editor of the *Chicago Record-Herald*, wrote a handbook in 1894, which he expanded in *The Art and Practice of Journalism: How to Become a Successful Writer*. In that 1899 textbook, Shuman predicted that the dailies would continue to be dominated by men. Articles from a women’s point of view, he said, are ‘naturally superficial and frothy’. In his view, women who were hired would find the sacrifice not worth the gain: “Women will swiftly lose many of their high ideals and sweet and tender ways, as inevitably as if they had been run through a machine for the purpose. And what is the use?” More generally, Shuman said, newsgathering is ‘too rude and exacting’ for women. Women were clearly being typecast and treated with contempt within practical guides on journalism and by faculty as a whole.

### 1.8 Gender and Media

The issue of gender and the media can broadly be understood at two levels, both implicating and affecting each other:

1. The participation of women in decision-making and expression in the media
2. Representation or portrayal of women and gender relations in the media

#### 1.8.1 Participation and Expression

Less than fifty years ago, media so to say, journalism was an almost exclusively male profession. Female journalists were the exception and women were discouraged to enter the journalism. Today more and more women are
employed as journalists. Since the 1960s, feminists have argued "it matters who makes it." When it comes to the mass media, "who makes it" continues to be men. Women working in the media have made some inroads. 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. And Media Watch points out that though more than half the journalism graduates in Canada are female; studies have shown that women write only 30 per cent of newspaper articles. A study carried out in France in 2000 by the Association of Women Journalists (Association des Femmes Journalists—AFJ) 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 six per cent more stories on women than men journalists. But men continue to occupy approximately 75 per cent of the positions of power in the mass media. And the prospects become much bleaker for women as they climb the corporate ladder. G.J. Robinson (2004) reports that, in the newspaper industry, only 5 per cent of managing editors and editors-in-chief are women.

The 2001 study conducted by the Annenberg Public Policy Center at the University of Pennsylvania is equally damning. The Center reports that only 13 per cent of the top executives of American media, telecommunications and e-companies are female. And that 13 per cent is not concentrated at the top: women constitute only 9 per cent of the boards of directors for these companies, and they hold only 3 per cent of the most powerful positions.
The role of woman journalists in strengthening the democratic processes cannot be underestimated. Firstly, the power of the press is noted to be more penetrating than the sword, and has even been known to make or break governments by swaying public opinion, and secondly, because more and more women are entering the media profession, be it as reporters, editorial staff or in the more visible electronic media sector. Even if they have not broken the glass ceiling, woman journalists still make a difference.

1.8.2 Women’s Participation in the Media - Indian Scenario

Sub continental India clearly presents a far more daunting challenge with the multiplicity of genres and languages adding to the difficulties arising from sheer size and numbers. No major effort seems to have been made at any level so far to estimate the number of journalists in the country, let alone the percentage of women among them. According to Margaret Gallagher’s (1995) report women’s share of media employment in India is only 12 percent during the period 1990-95. But the situation has vastly improved and the number of women entering the media industry is steadily increasing.

The ‘Status of Women Journalists in India’ report, commissioned by the National Commission for Women (NCW) (2004), presents a disturbing picture of women journalists. Prepared by the Press Institute of India (PII), this report is the first such attempt in the country to look at the harsh reality – for women – in this often glamorized profession. PII’s National Study Group (NSG), consisting of media representatives from across the country, approached 3,500 women journalists working for 141 newspapers and publications (including several regional language dailies and magazines) for the preparation of this report. But only 310 women responded.
The report says many women journalists (even from established newspapers) work as daily wage labour, without an appointment letter, signing a muster roll at the end of the month to get Rs 1,500 to Rs. 3000. “In Madhya Pradesh (MP) and Chhattisgarh (where media giants like Dainik Bhaskar and Nai Duniya flourish), there is no woman journalist who has a permanent job. The ‘lucky’ ones are those on contract for two to three years,” says Sushmita Malaviya, who is part of the NSG. “If a journalist has to be axed, it is most often a woman,” she says. In fact, Malaviya noticed a pattern in Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Bihar and Jharkhand: 30+ women were the first to lose their jobs. Tactics for sacking women ranged from “can you justify what you have been doing for the last six months?” to “the edition is not doing well and we need to downsize”.

In the conflict-ridden northeastern part of the country, only 35 women work as print journalists in the seven states. Only 35 per cent of these are full-time employees; 40 per cent say they have never been promoted. The 'secret' contract system, in which none of the journalists know what the others are getting, is often used to play one journalist against the other (Kaul 2004).

### 1.8.3 Women at Decision-Making Levels

Although women are increasingly entering media, top management is still largely male dominated and the culture of patriarchy is perpetuated through this disparity. There is a gender division of labour that is evident through the way that stories are assigned. ‘Soft’ issues like fashion, culture, arts and lifestyle are often consigned to women media practitioners, whereas ‘hard’ and what is considered ‘serious’ issues like finance, economics and politics are often within the purview of their male counterparts. The criteria of newsworthiness are
similarly and consequently understood through this gendered lens. Headline materials often constitute of ‘hard issues’ while ‘soft issues’ are shunted to ‘special’ and supplementary segments of the media. Gender stereotyped views and attitudes, such as the attachment of productive incapacity and women’s reproductive roles, can hinder women’s opportunities to assume decision-making positions. Further, sexual harassment has been particularly cited as one of the methods to control and exclude women from these positions in Asia Pacific.

However, according to the recently released ‘Global Report on the status of Women in the News Media’ (2010), there seems to be an improvement with regard to the presence of women, at the decision-making levels with women occupying 26% of the governing and 27% of the top management jobs.

Will having more women change the news media? Simply having more women, even achieving a critical mass in the newsroom, is not enough to guarantee gender sensitive reporting, unless they reach the top editorial and management positions. A survey presented to the International Federation of Journalists in Seoul revealed that though women comprise at least 38 per cent of the workforce in journalism, women hold less than one per cent of media executive posts. Only 0.6 per cent of women get into decision-making posts in the media. Even where women represent around 40% of working journalists, they only make up 3% to 5% of editors, heads of departments or directors.

Studies show that a difference can be made when women hold positions of power. In 2000, women editors and journalists took over the newsroom for one day at a newspaper in Wichita Falls, Texas. For the day’s top story a choice had to be made between a crime-stopper’s story about a peeping tom and an item about local women fighting for equal rights. When the women opted for the latter
story, a heated argument erupted. One of the male journalists at the Newspaper, commented “the women finally won, but only because they held the key positions on that day. All other times the peeping tom and stories like it would have prevailed”. The huge success of this experiment has prompted UNESCO to perpetuate this on every woman's day from the year 2000.

However, another study by Linda Christmas (1977) on British women decision-makers found that some women downplayed gender differences while others claimed that, as women, they were able to attract a female readership, a central objective of the newspaper industry. Her study suggests that women give prominence to news topics traditionally consigned to the women’s pages (on women’s health, children and childcare, family issues, education and health).

Likewise, Karen Ross (2002) found that while a quarter of women said that the sex of the person in a story made no difference to the way they covered the story, the majority of the sample claimed a general empathy with women’s causes. Many women said that they react differently from male colleagues to stories about women because they have more sympathy for women interviewees. In particular, some said they tried to emphasize the more personal and emotional side of stories. And 40% of her sample agreed strongly “more women in journalism would make media output more woman-friendly”.

1.9 MEDIA IMAGES OF WOMEN

The images of women in the media always have contradictory tendencies. Women activists in the country believe that the issue of violence against women has become a part of public debate due to the media’s coverage. But a critical analysis of women issues gives a gloomy picture. The patriarchal
tendencies often are reflected in the way the mainstream media covered the women’s issues (Vijayalakshmi 2002). The silence of media on women’s movement means that patriarchal structure and basic values of the society are questioned by women, are not acceptable to the media. Feminists also question the power relationships in the private sphere like division of labour, control and freedom of sexuality and fertility, etc., which are not considered as socio-cultural reality in India. The media is male dominated with a few women in decision-making positions naturally work within the boundaries of the society.

Today majority of the newspapers carry women’s issues, special columns and supplements for women. In addition, exclusive magazines for women are being published in almost in all Indian Languages. But these women magazines do not differ from routine coverage in a substantially positive way. The emphasis remains on the so-called feminine subjects like fashions, glamorous gossips, cooking, healthcare and home management skills. The media is now depicting women with new images besides glorifying the traditional images of women. We find Indian women as confident, self-supportive, choosing the career of her choice but acts within the construct of Indian womanhood. Features in magazines revolve around rich and sophisticated entrepreneurs, which have no relevance to the majority of women folk in this country (Vijayalaksmi 2002).

But there is a brighter side also in the last few decades. Due to the efforts put in by various women groups, the policy and lawmakers and importantly media, women issues have acquired the significance. Special campaigns on girl child and representation of women in Parliament have become issues of concern for public and officials due to the wider coverage given to them by the media.
With this background information this study tries to examine the relationship between these media programmes and the media industry, which are still considered ‘masculine’ by the Indian society at large with special reference to women.

1.10 THEORITICAL BACKGROUND

Since the present study revolves around various areas of study such as journalism education, media content production, problems and prospects of journalists, there is no specific theory related to it. This division presents the theories related to the research topic.

The Social Categories Approach to the study of mass media audiences recognizes that the male members of a society make up a social category whose sub-culture has its own norms, values and attitudes. Culture serves as a filter or screen through which ideas, methods, knowledge and skills are introduced into a group or society, and an educator's knowledge and skills undoubtedly reach his or her students through this type of filter. This filtration continues through the processes of gate keeping and agenda setting which characterize all types of communication — interpersonal or mass — and control the information that reaches the audience. The central hypothesis of the agenda theory is that an audience member exposed to a given medium agenda will adjust his or her perception of issues in the direction corresponding with the amount and type of attention devoted to those issues in the medium used. Consequently, any issue, which is under-represented in the medium or source, becomes labeled as unimportant and is accepted as such by the audience.
Other theoretical formulations (Bandura's Social Learning Theory and Gerbner's Cultivation Theory) support the expectation that perceptions of social reality by an audience will correspond closely to the 'realities' portrayed in the medium or source of information, because the images of the world portrayed by the medium/source will be internalized and accepted as accurate representations of reality by the audience. This influence of a source/medium on people's social realities depend on the extent of their dependence on that medium — the influence will be greatest when dependence on the medium is high.

1.11 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The study tries to take stock of the contributions of Communication and Media departments in the study area – Tamil Nadu, a state (province) in south of India, in producing competent and gender sensitive women media professionals. It has tried to find out whether these academic programmes imbibe gender sensitization and prepare the women students to take up media jobs and armor them with the professional skills required to prove their competency and face the hardships await them in the news media by exposing them to the problems and possible solutions in surviving the wear and tear of media jobs. Women journalists need to be doubly competent in their journalistic skills and prepared to work harder than men since they need to convince the media owners that they mean business and they come here as journalists and not as women.

Hence this study tries to understand the industry preparedness provided by these educational institutions in terms of journalistic skills and gender sensitivity by analyzing the curriculum of all institutions offering media programmes and by interacting with Journalism educators with regard to the issues related to the nature of journalism training imparted to women. It has tried
to understand the profile of women journalists with and without journalism education and with reference to the press category they belong to – Regional press and English press. The study also broadly deals with the issues confronted by women journalists in Tamil Nadu and focuses mainly on what exactly the journalism education does to working women journalists with professional qualification in the study area. It also deals with the possible contribution of women journalists towards improving the coverage of women in news media.

Hence the study is titled as “Relationship between Communication Studies and Media Industry with Special Reference to Women”.

1.12 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study tries to establish the relationship between Journalism education and news media by analyzing various components such as nature of journalism education received by women journalists and issues related to women journalists with and without journalism education. Hence the study is titled as “Relationship between Communication Studies and Media Industry with Special Reference to Women”.

1.13 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

The scope of study is to improve the working conditions of women in the media and to promote gender sensitization through journalism education of those who enter the media.

The limitations of the study are: (1) the curricula of media degree programmes were analysed but the teaching-learning process in toto were not taken into consideration; and (2) survey and in-depth interview may not have
yielded representative responses as journalists were generally reticent to meet the researcher.

1.14 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study has the following objectives:

(i) To analyse the industry-preparedness rendered by journalism education for women in Tamil Nadu.

(ii) To understand the profile of women journalists in Tamil Nadu.

(iii) To examine the relationship between journalism education and women journalists in Tamil Nadu.

1.15 OPERATIONALISATION OF KEY TERMS

Communication Studies

The terms ‘Communication Studies’, ‘Media Studies’, 'Media Education' and ‘Journalism Education’ are used in similar meanings which can be defined as any academic programme – diploma, degree, postgraduate degree offered by the universities/colleges/institutions which is designed to impart the skills and techniques in the arena such as Journalism, Mass Communication, Visual Communication, Electronic Media and the like, that are required to work in a variety of media industry.

Media Industry

The term ‘media industry’ is used in the sense of a set-up comprises media organizations – print media comprising newspapers and magazines;
electronic media comprising radio, television, and the Internet; and films. It also
includes the other forms communication such as advertising and public relations.

*News Media*

The term ‘news media’ refers to media organizations, which give
coverage to daily events and issues of public interest. When newspapers,
magazines, radio, television, and the Internet are used to inform people
and disseminate news they are called news media.

*Women Journalist*

The operational definition for a journalist is based on the definition given in
the Working Journalist Act of the Indian Constitution. The term refers to any
woman whose principal avocation is that of a journalist and who is employed either
whole time in one or more news media establishments which or that includes an
editor, a editorial writer, news-editor, sub-editor, feature writer, copy tester,
reporter, correspondent, cartoonist, news photographer, and proofreader.

*Gender*

‘Gender’ refers to the array of socially constructed roles and
relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, and relative
power and influence that society ascribes to the two different sexes on a
differential basis. Gender is an acquired identity that is learned and
changed over time and varies widely within and across cultures.
Gender Sensitivity

Gender sensitivity is the process of understanding and consideration of socio-cultural factors underlying sex-based discrimination. It is the ability to recognize gender issues, especially women’s different perceptions and interests arising from their unique social location and gender roles.

1.16 CHAPTERIZATION

The thesis has been divided into seven chapters and the first chapter broadly introduces the research area and includes the theoretical framework, rationale and the objectives of the study. Chapter 2 presents the detailed review of the available literature related to the research problem. Chapter 3 deals with the methodology and research design adopted by the researcher to carry out the present study. Chapter 4 analyses the status of journalism education in the study area and the industry preparedness rendered by journalism education. It also includes the responses of journalism educators with regard to the impact of journalism education on women students. Chapter 5 presents the profile of women journalists working in Tamil and English press in Tamil Nadu. Chapter 6 analyses relationship between journalism education and women journalists with regard to various aspects, such as, their position in the organization, gender issues at workplace and participation and representation of women in news media. Chapter 7 includes the summary of the study, its significant findings and recommendations based on the findings of the present study.