

Social Science Ethics for Research and Practice

An African Perspective

Edited by:

Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh

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Preface

Social sciences focus on discussing related issues and phenomena with slight differences depending on the nature of the variables being examined in a particular academic discipline. Political Science, Economics, Sociology, Philosophy, Psychology, Media, and Communication Studies are among the academic disciplines domiciled in the social science faculty in many institutions of higher learning. Following the increase in the invention of technology and multimedia systems for research and practice, there has been an upsurge in the manner in which some researchers ignore ethics in preference for other considerations. This book discusses the application of ethics in research and professional practice in the social sciences. Ethics are part of the structure of a good research framework in every discipline. The study of ethics, among other considerations, is to assess the impact of research on the growth and development of society alongside determining ways in which scientists could ensure that the aim of research and professional practice is aligned with the interests and welfare of society. The central objective of ethics is to ensure that society and people benefit from research discoveries and also ensure that researchers do not violate the regulation of the research framework in every discipline. Funding agencies, universities, institutions, and individuals that support large-scale research works are not only interested in the outcome of the research but also in the way and manner in which research works were carried out in the respective disciplines. Before now, it was easier for funding agencies, indexing and abstracting bodies, journals, and book publishers to develop a rule sheet to draw the margin in-between what was ethical and what was not in a given research inquiry.

Following the advent of modern technology for research and professional practice, it is becoming relatively difficult for one to identify an act of misconduct in social science research and practice. Part of the ongoing arguments in the social sciences is on the interplay between what is ethical and what is not in a research work that has the input of AI in it. The question is, to what extent can researchers rely on AI for scientific inquiries, and yet claim that the works are original? Assuming all AI-assisted studies are original, what would be the role of researchers in the studies? These are parts of the

questions expanding the frontiers of ethics across disciplines. Some people seem to be unaware that AI will exist within a phase of human history as with the previous inventions. Scientific models and inventions get slightly outdated on discoveries. This is because people soon discover better ways in which scientists could improve upon the inventions to meet the ever-changing needs of society. Human beings nonetheless, will remain a more efficient entity than items of technology; in that, there will always be a gap between the original purpose of an invention and the role it later plays in society. Much of the ingenuity embedded in technology does not have the kind of discretion inherent in human ability. Governments across the world though are searching for the most efficient ways to maximise profit and reduce the cost of governance but with little attention being given to the impact of scientific discoveries on the living condition of citizens. The gap between what is good for a nation's economy and what is good for the citizens has become a part of the ethical issues in the argument by the organised labour groups on the morality of a government having to rely on AI to reduce the employment of its citizens without considering the impact such measures would have on the people.

Nevertheless, there are different types of ethics in the social sciences. For example, teleological ethics focuses more attention on the result of an action; rather than the processes that resulted in the action. The argument of the value of an action as well as the process culminating in the action has a philosophical background. This is because the motive for an action may be right, but part of the measures for accomplishing it may be unethical. This perhaps explains why the process a researcher uses in a study is as important as the results that emanate from the study. Consequently, the commitment by researchers to uphold integrity in research and professional practice must bring about non-moral values that are beneficial to society. If not, it will be merely aesthetical for the value of a moral action to entirely depend upon its moral value to society (Ozuma, 2001). Ideally, ethics should reflect the quality of research impact as well as its implication for the growth and development of society. So, there is a need for scientists to expand the guidelines on ethics to include a careful examination of the processes involved in a study and the findings that emanate from it. Deontological ethics, on the other hand, focuses on

ensuring that researchers adhere to an approved research framework in every discipline. The invention of Artificial Intelligence (AI) by scientists, unarguably is beneficial to society; its uses and gratifications nonetheless, tended to have undermined certain basic ethical guidelines in research and practice across disciplines. Some organisations and individuals have complained that their patent rights have been undermined through the use of AI as evident in the claim by the *New York Times* which alleged that Microsoft and Open AI have infringed upon the rights of the newspaper by Microsoft granting access to billions of users to the AI generated content of the *New York Times* (Gerken, 2023). The morality is arguable, of an author or inventor, who claims to own the patent of AI-generated content of an existing creative work or invention.

Consequently, this book has carefully examined the application of social science ethics in research and practice. It further explains ways in which scientists, professionals, and researchers can uphold ethics in research despite their commitment to finding solutions to the current problems confronting society. Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh examines the arguments on media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism in chapter one. The author notes that despite much has been written on media trust, fewer objective studies have discussed the views of journalists on media trust using empirical data such as in this book. The next chapter examines the interplay between social media and culture. Jammy Seigha Guanah observes in chapter two that the mainstream media had served as channels for popular culture before the advent of social media. As part of the solutions to neocolonial practices in Africa, the author advises governments and agencies to use social media to promote African culture to avoid it being erased by social media. In chapter three, Mohd Akhter Ali and M. Kamraju review the ethical implications of promoting girl-child education as a means of socio-economic empowerment in a seemingly male-dominated world. On the other hand, Thompson O. Ewata reflects on the ethical landscape of research from a corpus viewpoint in chapter four. The author analyses the convergence between ethical methodologies and the processes involved in the study of corpus linguistics using a practical approach as a road map. Ewomazino Daniel Akpor examines the trends and issues

in media psychology research in chapter five. According to the author, media psychology analyses ways in which the use of technology in media operations exerts pressure on the mental health, emotion, and response of a target audience to media reports.

The construction of femininity underlines the discussions by Ambrose Uchenunu and Faith Godwin Ebinuwele in chapter six. The authors review the character of femininity in the Nollywood film *Anikulapo* 22 and observe that femininity in the particular Nollywood film was constructed along the lines of traditional femininity with an emphasis on the role of empowered and integrated femininity. Kelly Bryan Ovie Ejumudo discusses the ethics of governance and the African leadership paradigm in chapter seven and notes that the non-adherence to democratic principles by African leaders has been the major problem of democracy in the region. Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh in chapter eight discusses social science research framework with an emphasis on design, processes, and ways in which researchers can validate findings in media and communication studies. Daniel Ofomegbe Ekhareifo and Wole Asemolekun examine business ethics, communication and society with a focus on business ethics and communication in chapter nine. Malachy Onyeka Udejinta reviews the ethics of billboard advertisements of beverages and toiletries in chapter ten. The author notes that there has been rarely much effort by regulatory agencies to sanction individuals and organisations that violated the ethics of advertisements in Nigeria.

Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh

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Chapter 1

Media Trust, Regulation and Ethics of Journalism

Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh

Abstract

This chapter assesses the perceptions of journalists of media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism in a democratic society. It reviews relevant literature on media trust and draws upon theories to establish the links between media, regulation, and ethics of journalism. The paper notes that despite much has been written on media trust and regulation, fewer empirical studies have examined ways journalists could enhance public trust in media content. Since journalists are the subjects of public criticism of media trust, it has become necessary to assess the perceptions of journalists on the subject. Findings revealed that journalists generally believe that the public has confidence in media reports, and thereby debunk the assumption that the public does not rely much on the media for important information on public issues. The majority of the journalists interviewed in the study expressed confidence in government regulatory agencies but noted the UN and its stakeholders may need to do more to ensure press freedom in the world.

Keywords: Media Trust, Journalism, Ethics, Regulation, Public Trust and UN

Introduction

Media provide news and information on the relevant issues and events that happened in society, but the way and manner journalists report about issues determine how the public may view the issues. Audience behaviors and attitudes are important to advertisers and governments and constitute the main thrust of the funding available to media organizations. Media usually integrate the audience's interests in the selection,

production, and publication of news (Xu, 2021). Despite the low confidence a section of the public has in media reports, people are however worried about a variety of problems threatening press freedom in the United States and around the world (AP, 2023). A federal Appeal Court ruled in May 2023 that Biden's Administration outstepped the First Amendment on press freedom when the government requested the media to remove certain information from public space which Biden considered as being misleading of the facts on COVID-19 (Myers, 2023). The United States incidentally ranked last on media trust in 2021- at 29%-among 92, 000 respondents surveyed in 46 countries. The US government was ranked behind Poland, Philippines, and Peru; while Finland led by 65% (Edmonds, 2021). It could be recalled that the 1993 Vienna World Conference noted that it was the duty of governments to protect human rights and the fundamental freedoms of journalists (Buba, 2016, 1). The duties and responsibilities of media are contained in the constitutions of modern societies. Consequently, there is a well-defined procedure by which a government holds the media accountable for their actions. One such way is through media reports.

There have been instances where governments sanctioned media organizations for either undermining the ethics of journalism or for reporting too objectively on issues. Established media organisations are being faced with intense pressure from corporate competitors and from audiences whose interests no longer converge on the traditional methods of news-making (Mellado, Georgiou, and Nah, 2020). The rate of abuse of free press has increased across the world. Yet, journalists have continuously drawn public attention to relevant issues in society notwithstanding how governments perceived media reports. Government regulatory agencies are state apparatuses; their role is to provide the framework guiding media operations and not to interfere in media content. The import of governments' regulatory agencies interfering in the activities of journalists implies the quality of news and information available to citizens. Political leaders across the world have an interest in media reports because the majority of the public relies more on media for information than on other news sources. Media reports provide the basis on which the public assesses whether or not a government has

performed well within a given period in office, which explains why governments across the world explore ways in which they could influence media reports in their favor.

Society nonetheless, sometimes ignores that every government has its areas of strengths as well as its areas of weaknesses. For example, the Labour Party in the United Kingdom has a good reputation in the management of the UK National Health Service and education; while the Conservative Party seems to focus more attention on the managing of the UK economy and defence. The media may decide to assess each of these parties by focusing on its areas of weaknesses rather than strengths. (Oboh, 2014). In a contemporary political system, a government is presumed to have done well in office based on its assessment by journalists, rather than the assessment of the government by its citizens. Although society does not expect journalists to side with citizens or the government in a conflict between a government and its citizens, there have been instances where journalists were biased in their reports of conflict situations. This perhaps is why governments generally monitor media reports and editorials on issues to ensure that journalists operate by the legal framework guiding a given media practice. Governments set the standards for media practice which journalists are expected to comply with in the production and publication of news stories; while regulators provide the template by which society evaluates media content and the extent to which such reports align with public interests. Except in rare cases, governments usually do not query the actions and measures taken by regulatory agencies to ensure that journalists comply with the ethics of journalism and check the inflow of fake news in society.

Disinformation and misinformation can create conflicts and distort public view of the realities of events in society. It is a part of the effort by governments to forestall the occurrences of bad journalism that regulators impose restrictions on media houses presumed to have compromised good standards and ethics of journalism. When these sanctions are meted out on a particular media organisation, the regulator concerned comes forward to explain to the public the reason

for its actions. Citizens amid the disagreements between the media and government, struggle to understand the true position of things. Democracy notwithstanding strives on social conflicts and institutional distrust; otherwise, there would have been no need for checks and balances among the three estates of government. In the media industry, public distrust of media reports has attracted a lot of debate. Yet, there have been rarely sufficient empirical studies to substantiate the correlation between media trust and media use.

The definition of trust as an institutional economizer tends to suggest that a trusting audience-if there has been anyone of such-would have been a passive audience unable to interrogate the issues contained in media reports. An active audience should be able to check and verify facts in media reports. An audience can use the errors contained in a media report as the basis for distrust in the particular media. Whereas, the same audience is unaware that the inability of journalists to provide insight and knowledge for informed citizenship on public issues is in itself a deficit of media trust (Jakobsson and Stiernstedt, 2023). Of key importance is the extent to which the members of the public can trust the media. A perfectly informative news media environment is of little importance to society if the citizens of the particular country have no confidence in the media (Tsfati, Boomgaarden, Damstra, Lindgren, Vliegthart, and Lindholm (2020). Knowing what the public feels about journalists is important, even if the media may be unhappy with it. (Perez-Latre, Sadaba-Chalezquer and Bringue 2023). Yet, there is no cause-and-effect relationship between media trust and media use; in that there are tiny elements that could influence public perception of journalists and impair public trust in media reports. A media organisation for example, that has wide publicity and enjoys much support from its target audience may be assumed to be credible media, while a media organisation that has little or no support from its target audience may be mistaken for a less credible media, ignoring the criteria for determining the extent of credibility of corporate organisations such as media. Given that journalists are the subjects of criticism in the debate over misinformation and disinformation, it has become necessary to explore the perceptions of journalists on media trust (Steindle,

Obermaier, Fawzi, and Lauerer, 2023). This study, therefore, reviews journalists' perceptions of media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism. Although there has been international intervention to promote the norms and legal models of America and Europe in other regions, yet deeper analysis of media trust is required to determine the implication of the legal and regulatory mechanisms guiding the media system in Africa (Sampaio-Dais, Mabweazara, Townsend and Osman, 2019). The objectives of the study therefore would be to identify the views of journalists of media trust, regulatory agencies, and the role of the UN in the protection of press freedom in the world.

Media Impact and Theories

Earlier studies of media effects were based on mere assumptions that media reports and editorials have an irresistible impact on their target audience. This was the period when scholars and researchers were more interested in the impact of an advertising campaign on products and services rather than the contributions made by each of the elements in an advertising campaign. It is pertinent to note that the primary aim of an advertisement would be to push the sales of products and services upward in the chain of distribution. It could be recalled that social scientists had previously taken for granted that whatever increase was noticed in the sales of goods and services would have been consequent upon the awareness created by media channels. Media messages were therefore nicknamed and likened to a magic bullet, hypodermic needle, and transmission belt in the late 1930s because media were perceived as being very powerful in determining the choices that people make within a circle of options. Studies later revealed that "while the information value of advertisements may suggest that there is a correlation between advertisement and choice, empirical evidence doubts such relationships. Although advertisements may aid choice, it is less evident which types of advertisements are most beneficial for individuals as they make their choices after a campaign" (Krupnikov, 2012). It is important to document that media messages are not efficient in themselves; they work in concert with several imperceptible socio-cultural variables to ensure

that a given audience receives media messages as intended by news sources. Nabi and Oliver (2010), opine that media impact should not be assessed on how media influence their target audience, but rather on how the members of the target audience perceive such influence, and how such perceptions usually influence audience response or reactions to media messages. This assumption supports the tenets of the Uses and Gratifications Theory.

Moreover, communication studies have shown that attitudes, values, and beliefs are acquired through experience, which justifies the differences in cognitions and perceptions of people and explains why people respond differently to media messages. For example, Cognitive Dissonance Theory is concerned with the processes that people go through to justify or rationalize their actions having made a decision or an irreversible commitment, like the choice of where to live, work, or marry. The theory assumes that the less justification that one has for committing, the more dissonance or regret one is likely to experience having made it. Whereas, the more justification one has for one's action, the less regret one is likely to experience. In this sense, the illusion of justification tends to suggest that given the circumstances and context under which a decision or commitment was made, the result of the decision will remain the same notwithstanding who is or was involved in a similar action or commitment.

Today, those who vape face similar dilemmas as other cigarette smokers. Although e-cigarettes have been marketed as a safer alternative to traditional cigarettes, emerging evidence connects vaping to lung disease, asthma, and other illnesses. One way to avoid the mental anguish of vaping is to trivialize or deny the link between vaping and lung disease, or to assume that the research on it is still sketchy and that society will need more studies to confirm its impact on human health (Festinger,2023).

This perhaps explains why people receive and act upon messages that confirm their predispositions to the objects of the messages. People also tend to respond differently to media messages when they are alone than

when they are within a group. The social relation perspective and social category model affirmed that people of the same social group, religion, profession, class, and among other variables, share some similarities in the manner in which they respond to media messages that cater to the collective interest of the members of the group. Media messages, in a sense, do not have a direct impact on their target audience as some social scientists had earlier assumed. The agenda-setting theory propounded by Maxwell McComb and Donald Shaw in 1972 showed that there is a correlation between media reports and public discussion; in that the issues and events the media prioritized in their reports and editorials later became the major issues being discussed in the public space (McCombs and Shaw, 1972). With the advent of the Internet and social networking sites, news and information now move at the speed of light. Technology determinism has become a form of addiction, whereby the actions and conduct of people are being expressed using technologies. People now express themselves more through the medium of technology, like smartphones, computers, AI, and among others. Consequently, radio and television broadcasts have brought more immediacy to journalism—a new way of telling stories. Journalists are now able to bring audiences to the scene of news through the use of audio, video, and live reports (Adornato, 2022). Nonetheless, the media must preview the implications of their reports for the peace and development of society.

Graham Myton gave examples of good and bad professional conduct. According to the author, the Tanzanian government established a village settlement scheme in 1968 which unfortunately failed. Three journalists were later found discussing ways they could present the report to the public. The first journalist argued that the report of the scheme should be ignored by the press as publishing it would reinforce public resistance and doubts on subsequent government resettlement schemes in Tanzania (unethical). The second journalist argued that it was not the business of the press to protect the government. Since the press reported the scheme when it began, journalists owed it as a duty to the public to report that the scheme had failed (unethical). The third journalist agreed that the press must say something about the scheme since it had earlier reported on it when it began, but cautioned that reporting on

the incident should be done with the utmost care not to hinder public confidence in subsequent government resettlement schemes in Tanzania-good practice (Izobo 1989, p.142). Journalists need to be sensitive to the interests and welfare of society and abide by the laws guiding media practice (Silvia and Anzur (2011). The media should also have independence; sufficient to protect free and open public expression of ideas and information (Maniou, 2023).

Communication and Culture

Media are the offshoots of human development. Despite the ubiquitous nature of the new media and social media networking sites, there was a time when society functioned without the media. Mass communication and media organisations were invented by people to enhance the processes of information delivery systems in society, which explains why media should be deployed toward the promotion and preservation of the cultural heritage of the people that constitute media audiences in every society. Orthodox means and channels of communication were invented to promote the culture of the Global North. Lull (2006) describes the tendencies of Europe and America to extend their cultural values to other regions as a push-and-pull phenomenon. The author used the analogy to explain the precarious balance between the dominant information culture and the contending cultural models of the regions located in the Global South. The relationship between information providers and users in the global space exemplifies the tendency of the Global North to try to synchronize the variants of other cultures.

While most of these new cultural ideas are “bottom up,” emerging from collaborative digital environments, they have been employed strategically by the culture industries to extend their hegemonic positions. While they offer participants the opportunity to stake new social positions and forge new political alliances, they also can reproduce traditional biases and power dynamics, widening, rather than narrowing, the gulf between the haves and have-nots (Sinnreich and Latonero, 2014).

The MacBride Commission had earlier recommended that UNESCO implement a template for a New World Information and Communication Order to counter the negative impact of global culture in the world (Oboh and Hudson, 2022). The colonialist regimes in Africa for example, applied their curricula for education in the region without any reference to African conditions and culture (Roney, 1972). The practice tended to ignore the fact that culture is acquired through learned behavior. It determines the structure and operation of social institutions, which includes the media (Kenix, 2015). In the struggle over hegemony in the modern world system according to Calhoun (2023), there is no one African perspective on issues, and neither is there one global solution to issues. In the effort to find solutions to social conflicts, there is however a link between communication and culture; while society provides the enabling environments for media practice, the media on the other hand reshape society by suggesting better ways and means by which governments could improve upon the act of governance (Senam, 2022). This partly accounts for why governments across the world seem to have a vested interest in the media. Messages are products of communication channels. They are mediated to meet the specific needs of the government and the members of the public (McLuhan, 2023). It is pertinent to recall that African nationalists used the media to facilitate the decolonization process of the African region. Yet, some African countries today have no good reputation for press freedom. "While Africa has few countries rated as having a very serious problem with press freedom, the region has the highest percentage of countries rated as problematic. Europe and Central Asia regions have the best environments for press freedom in the 2023 Press Freedom Index" (Global Investigative Journalism Network, 2023). The European nations and America had since recognised the essence of press freedom, to the extent that the "OSCE and Council of Europe now invest in monitoring and policing breaches of press freedom. The OSCE has a full-time special representative that reports on media freedom" (Tambini, 2021). The respect which civilised societies accord press freedom is a function of the contributions of journalists toward the growth and development of the world. Some African nationalists who later found themselves in governments and parliaments covertly contributed to some of the laws hindering press freedom

in Africa today. Regulatory annexation, according to Obia (2023), “finds its expression in Africa and also in other parts of the world.”

Regulation and Ethics of Journalism

Yet, press freedom has mutual benefits for both governments and citizens. Media organisations have different goals and objectives depending on their editorial missions. Global media conglomerates like CNN, BBC, Aljazeera, CGTV, and others, have the entire world as its target audience. Unlike other streams of the media, international journalism sometimes ignores certain restrictions on press freedom (not ethics) when reporting on issues that cut across states and regional boundaries. This is why “journalists are facing several new threats that limit their ability to fulfill their watchdog role” (Wah-Jorgensen, Williams, Sambrook, Harris, Gacia-Blanco, Dencik, and Cushion, 2016). It is unfortunate that governments circumvent their laws and become hostile to the Freedom of Information Act that protects journalists (Don, 2003). “There are many media organisations that claim to be free, and yet their stories are being censored. Tech giants like Facebook, Google, Twitter, and other blogging sites have changed how people access information and the attention they give to media reports” (Glasberg, 2021). The arguments on free speech have become more contentious since the advent of social media. Former US president, Donald Trump, argued that his freedom of speech has been curtailed by Twitter that suspended his account. The US First Amendment according to (Tambini, 2021), protects Trump against censorship by the government and not censorship by Twitter. The United Nations General Assembly endorsed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 (Pramoda, 2016. 56), and part of its provisions empowers journalists to report objectively on issues. “Freedom of the press is the foundation of government and justice. It gives citizens the facts they need to shape their opinions and speak truth to power” (Guterres, 2023). Government and media yet have different ways they looking at issues on governance (Etieyibo and Oboh 2023).

“Journalism is undergoing profound reconfigurations in a context often deemed hostile, or at least increasingly difficult” (Cancela, Gerber, and

Dubied, 2021). The promotion and preservation of the Universal Declaration of Fundamental Human Rights has entrusted the UN with the duty to protect press freedom and the ethics of journalism. In many African countries, such as Zambia, there are continued state excesses that impede press freedom. The government finds excuses to harass and intimidate journalists on Trump-up allegations of journalists' non-compliance with government regulations on media ethics and practice (Ndawana, Knowle, and Vaughan, 2012). It has been observed that governments do not only regulate communications institutions, but they also use the media to promote their views and ensure that legislative initiatives are properly understood and supported by citizens (Murdock and Golding, 2005). The Indian government has repeatedly defended its commitment to preserving press freedom in Kashmir in the same manner the Chinese government denied any act of infringement on press freedom in Hong Kong. Despite these assurances, journalists in both countries seem to operate under extremely difficult circumstances. The Rivers State government in Nigeria for example, destroyed the African Independent Television (AIT) Mast and buildings in 2023 (The Cable, 2023). The government did not explain to the public the reason it took such an action. The strategic silence being employed by governments having imposed sanctions on journalists could be interpreted as a sign of confidence by the government in its stance against press freedom (Rimkute,2020).

The Nigerian Communications Commission regulates the telecommunication and telephone industry in Nigeria, while the National Broadcasting Commission controls the activities of the broadcasting industry in the country. Whereas, the Nigerian Press Council was established by the government to investigate ethical issues regarding the print media (to ensure that journalists do not infringe upon the rights of citizens and that journalists operate by the ethical framework guiding journalism). There is no doubt that government regulatory agencies must manage public information systems, but how regulators correct journalists is also important. Unlike the public media which assists the government in soliciting public support to implement government's policies, the private media have the responsibility to x-ray government actions and

decisions to ensure that they align with public interest. The Nigerian government, however, expects both the public and the private media to support the federal government in implementing its policies and managing public perception of the government. When journalists become critical of government policies and actions in Nigeria, the federal government usually deploys its regulatory agencies to covertly pressure journalists to desist from criticizing the government. For example, former Minister of Information, Communication and Culture under Buhari's civilian administration, Lai Mohammed, placed a sanction of #5,000,000 (five million naira) as a fine on any media station that disseminates fake news (Oyero, 2023) even when the Nigerian government is yet to clearly define the elements which should constitute fake news in the country (Oboh, 2022).

Method

The chapter adopted a survey design and used a structured questionnaire to elicit the views of journalists on media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism. 87 journalists of the Edo State Council of the Nigerian Union of Journalists formed the study sample with an attrition level of 9% of the journalists selected for the study. The study used t-test statistics to evaluate the perceptions of journalists on media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism. 30 questionnaires were evaluated to determine the reliability result of .764 as presented below. Part of the limitations of the study was the non-scientific technique used in the recruitment of the elements that constituted the study sample. The journalists who served as respondents in the study however share similar experiences and knowledge to comment on media trust, regulation, and ethics of journalism, thereby mitigating the effect of the convenient sampling technique used in the study.

Reliability Result

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	30	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	30	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.764	16

Demographic Data of Respondents

Data showed that out of 80 respondents, 30 (37.5%) were between 18-25 years age bracket, 30 (37.5%) were between 26-35 years age bracket, 5 (6.3%) were between 36-45 years age bracket while 15 (18.8%) fall within 46 years and above. Most of the respondents were between 18-25 and 26-35 age brackets respectively.

Educational Qualification of the Respondents

Table 2 showed that out of 80 respondents, 14 (17.5%) were Diploma holders, 49 (61.3%) were First degree holders, 13 (16.3%) were Masters holders and 4 (5.0%) had Doctorate degrees. Most of the respondents were First degree holders.

Years of Experience of the Respondents

Table 3 showed that out of 80 respondents, 49 (61.3%) had between 1-5 years' experience, 15 (18.8%) had between 6-10 years' experience, 6 (7.5%) had between 11-15 years' experience while 10 (12.5%) had 16 years and above experience. Most of the respondents had between 1-5 years' experience.

Work Place of the Respondents

Table 5 shows that out of 80 respondents, 34 (42.5%) work at the print media, 26 (32.5%) work at the electronic media, 7 (8.8%) work at the news agencies and 13 (16.3%) work at others. Most of the respondents work in the print media.

Data Presentation and Findings

Research Question One

What is the perception of journalists on the role of government regulatory agencies in media content?

S/N	Items	Response	
		Mean	Decision
1.	Regulatory agencies are proactive to respond to media content that deviated from standards.	3.46	Agree
2.	Media contents are in congruent with government regulations.	3.09	Agree
3.	Regulatory agencies intermittently assess media content to ensure quality.	3.41	Agree
4.	Government regulators are satisfied with media contents, such as editorials, news reports, news commentaries, audience-based programs, interviews and others.	2.61	Agree

Table 1 Perception of journalists of government regulatory agencies in determining the program content of the media (N=80)

Criterion mean = 2.50

Aggregate mean = 3.14

Scale

1.00 – 2.49 = Disagree

2.50 – 4.00 = Agree

Data in Table 1 showed that all the items had mean scores above the criterion mean of 2.50 and were accepted concerning the perception of journalists of the role of government regulatory agencies on the program content of the media. In summary, with an aggregate mean value of 3.14, the journalists interviewed in the study had a positive perception of the role of government regulatory agencies toward ensuring that journalists comply with the government's policies for media practice.

Research Question Two

What is the view of journalists of public trust in media content?

S/N	Items	Response	
		Mean	Decision
5.	Journalists do trust government policies to determine media contents.	2.59	Agree
6.	Journalists rely on public interest to determine the programme content of the media.	3.46	Agree
7.	Media should be left alone to determine their reports on issues and events without government interference.	3.13	Agree
8.	Journalists trust self-regulation than external control.	3.30	Agree
9.	Media do enjoy public trust in their programs.	3.25	Agree
10.	Media often do not compromise public trust for whatever reason.	2.01	Disagree
11.	Some journalists are not corrupt.	1.69	Disagree
12.	Journalists believed the public has no reason not trusting media reports.	1.86	Disagree

Table 2 *What is the View of Journalists of Public Trust in Media Content (N=80)*

Criterion Mean = 2.50

Aggregate Mean = 2.66 (Agree)

Data in Table 2 showed that items 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 had mean scores above the criterion mean of 2.50 and were accepted concerning the view of

journalists on public trust in media content, while items 10, 11, and 12 had mean scores below the criterion mean of 2.50 and were rejected. In summary, with an aggregate mean score of 2.66, the journalists had a positive view of public trust in media content. Although the journalists believed that the public had confidence in media reports, it was with a margin of 1.6 aggregate assurance above the minimum criterion of 2.50.

Research Question Three

What is the Perception of Journalists on the Role of the UN and other Global Actors in Press Freedom?

S/N	Items	Response	
		Mean	Decision
13.	The UN and other stakeholders need to do more to protect press freedom.	3.38	Agree
14.	The UN should hold government accountable for the abuse of press freedom.	3.43	Agree
15.	The UN has a duty to protect press freedom in the world.	3.46	Agree
16.	There is press freedom in Nigeria as a democratic nation.	2.54	Agree

Table 3 *What is Perception of Journalists about Global Actors on the Role of the UN on Press Freedom (N=80)*

Criterion mean = 2.50

Aggregate mean = 3.20

Data in Table 3 showed that all the items had mean scores above the criterion mean of 2.50 and were accepted concerning the perception of journalists about the role of the UN and other global actors in the protection of press freedom. In summary, with an aggregate mean score of 3.20, the journalists interviewed in the study had a positive perception of the role of the UN and other global actors in the protection of press freedom. The perception of journalists toward the Nigerian