

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CHILD
RIGHTS COVERAGE IN SELECTED
NIGERIAN AND GHANAIAN
NEWSPAPERS (1999-2003)

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A thesis submitted to the Department of Mass Communication, College of Human Development, Covenant University, in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Mass Communication.

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CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the **Triune God**,
the Creator of heaven and earth,
the Sustainer of the universe,
the Equation of excellence,
the Qualifier of the unqualified,
and the Wisdom of the wise.

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ABSTRACT

Against the backdrop of the task assigned to the media towards the fulfillment of the rights of the child; specifically as contained in article 17 of the Convention of the Rights of the Child and as required by the Oslo Challenge of 1999, this study examined the coverage given to child rights by the Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. Using content analysis research design, both government-owned and privately-owned national newspapers from the two countries were used. The study examined the extent of coverage given to child rights, the specific child rights issues reported, prominence given to the reports, journalistic genres adopted and the performance of government-owned papers in comparison to privately-owned newspapers, among others. A total of 1200 newspaper issues were randomly drawn from the four newspapers over five-year period, from 1999-2003. The study recorded high inter-coder reliability ranging between almost perfect and substantial agreement, thus establishing the appropriateness of coding instructions, category definitions and unit of analysis. The quantitative analysis used percentages and chi-square goodness fit. The qualitative analysis focused on textual abuse of structures that may constitute abuse of children. The results showed that while child rights issues were generally underreported by the four newspapers, Ghanaian newspapers gave greater coverage to child issues with 56.9% than Nigerian newspapers with 43.1% and the difference was very significant. The findings also showed that government-owned newspapers with 60% did better than privately-owned newspapers (40%) in reporting child rights. Furthermore, there was a lack of balance in the genres adopted in reporting child rights and poor public engagement on the issue. Moreover, the dominant voices behind child rights were those of advocates and NGOs, while children voices were hardly heard. The findings also revealed weak newsworthiness of child issues and lack of enough evidence to establish textual abuse of children in all the newspaper issues examined. It was therefore recommended that the newspapers should improve on the coverage given to child rights in all aspects to further stimulate public and policymakers response to the issue. There is also the need to have a policy guide that would ensure greater commitment on the part of the press to child rights. And finally, there is need for continuous existence of government-owned newspapers, in the interest of public service, as they are in a better position to report development issues like child rights, than privately-owned newspapers.

Keywords: Coverage, Child rights, Prominence, Balance, Newsworthiness

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The pertinence of communication to development is an established paradigm in development studies. It is borne out of the realisation that development is human-centred and thus requires communication for its full realisation. FAO (1994:5) points out that "communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together". This corroborates Moemeka's (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. Mass communication has come to gain utmost recognition among the different types of communication. The media of mass communication, both print and electronic, have become indispensable to any development task. Their pervasive nature has underscored their strength to set agenda for development. It is therefore not surprising that the media are expected to set agenda for the rights of the child, as well as other development issues.

Central to sustainable development is the issue of the rights of the child. Sustainable development, as defined in the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED 1987:46), is the "development that satisfies the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs". This definition shows that sustainable development places emphasis on the future, which belongs to children. The import is that part of the goals of sustainable development is to empower future generations to meet their own needs.

Therefore, any development mission that compromises the needs of future generations has automatically failed. UNICEF has also pointed out that the

Millennium Development Goals are about children. Its position is that "six of the eight millennium development goals can best be met as the rights of children health, education, protection and equality" and that "they will only be sustained as the rights of every child are realized" (UNICEF, 2003:2). In pursuance of the child rights agenda, series of international, regional and national conferences have been held, leading to declarations, resolutions and charters on the rights of the child. The first attempt to bring issues affecting children to the fore was the 1924 Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child. This was followed by the 1959 Declaration of the Rights of the Child and the proclamation of 1979 as the International Year of the Child by the United Nations. The 1979 proclamation was meant to increase levels of knowledge concerning children's rights, to present examples where the position of children had been improved, and fix particular attention on the tragic condition of children in developing countries, primarily levels of infant and child mortality in Africa. But the most notable event about children was the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child which was adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by UN General Assembly resolution 44/25 of November 20, 1989. It became effective on September 2, 1990. About 191 countries have since ratified it (UNICEF, 2002). The Convention has produced a profound change with substantive effects on the world's attitude towards children. Ghana and Nigeria ratified the Convention on February 5, 1990 and April 19, 1991 respectively; and thus came under obligation to fulfil the requirements and dictates it contains in respect of the child. Following the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child were other conferences such as the Asia Summit on Child Rights and the Media (1996), the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (1996), the First All African Summit (1997), the Second World Summit on Television for Children (1998), the Oslo Challenge (1999), the West African Regional Summit on Media for Children (2000) etc. Most of these conferences stressed the role of the media in the realisation of the goals set in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child assigned certain responsibilities to the media in the pursuit of the fulfilment of child rights. Article 17 of the Convention states:

States Parties shall recognize the important function performed by the mass media and shall ensure that the child has access to

information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual and moral well-being and physical and mental health. To this end, States Parties shall:

(a) Encourage the mass media to disseminate information and material of social and cultural benefit to the child and in accordance with the spirit of article 29;

(b) Encourage international co-operation in the production, exchange and dissemination of such information and material from a diversity of cultural, national and international sources;

(c) Encourage the production and dissemination of children's books;

(d) Encourage the mass media to have particular regard to the linguistic needs of the child who belongs to a minority group or who is indigenous;

(e) Encourage the development of appropriate guidelines for the protection of the child from information and material injurious to his or her well-being, bearing in mind the provisions of articles 13 and 18 (UNICEF 2002:65-66).

It is against this background that the Asian Summit on Child Rights and the Media (1996) and the Oslo Workshop (1999) were held. The relationship between the rights of the child and the media was established in 1996 at the Asian Summit on Child Rights and the Media held in Manila, the Philippines (HURIGHTS, 1996). The media, according to the summit, should:

- *Adopt policies that are consistent with the principles of non-discrimination and the best interests of all children;*
- *Raise awareness and mobilize all sectors of society to ensure the survival, development, protection and participation of all children;*
- *Address all forms of economic, commercial and sexual exploitation and abuse of children in the region and ensure that such efforts do*

not violate their rights, particularly their rights to privacy;

- *Protect children from material which glorifies violence, sex, horror and conflict; and not perpetuate discrimination and stereotypes.*

The Summit's resolution further states that media content should be of high quality, made specifically for children, and should not exploit them; but support their mental social, moral and spiritual development. When the media enable children to hear, see and express themselves, their culture, their languages and their life experiences, it will affirm their sense of self and community. In much the same way, the media should be made accessible to the children at all times when they need the media and can use the content.

Following this, the Norwegian Government and UNICEF responded to a request from the working group set up by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child and convened a workshop in November, 1999- the 10th anniversary of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. More than 30 media professionals, young people, UN and voluntary sector workers, researchers and creative thinkers gathered in Oslo to brainstorm and contribute to a global process aimed at keeping the relationship between children rights and the media firmly on the agenda. Part of the workshop's resolution- popularly known as the Oslo Challenge- was that "the child/media relationship is an entry point into the wide and multifaceted world of children and their rights to education, freedom of expression, play, identity, health, dignity and self-respect, protection; and that in every aspect of child rights, in any element of the life of a child, the relationship between children and the media plays a role."(Onumah, 2004:65; *The Media Wise Trust*, 2003).

The Challenge is a call to action with the aim to ensure that the overwhelming power of the media for good in the lives of children is identified, encouraged and supported, while the potentially harmful effects are recognised and reduced. The Oslo Challenge also assigns the media practitioners the crucial role of acting as a catalyst for the realisation of children's many unfulfilled dreams. The media should empower children to make informed choices and actively participate in society with a view to helping to realise their rights to life, freedom of expression, education, sound health, and protection from abuse, exploitation and violence.

Eighteen years have elapsed since the world embraced the terms of childhood as laid down in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Since then, vigorous publicity campaigns have been embarked upon by many agencies such as UNICEF, Amnesty International, Child Hope, Save the Children Alliance, etc. Never before have children's rights been so high on the public agenda; never before have children's voices been heard as clearly and as distinctly by the international community. In Nigeria, the year 2003 saw the passage of the Child Rights Act, after many controversies. Ghana, on the other hand, has for a decade seen a remarkable transformation in the legal protection provided for children. The 1993 Constitution of the 4th Republic of Ghana enshrines the fundamental freedoms of women and children. Article 28 mandates that Parliament should enact laws in the best interests of children. In 1998, the Parliament passed the Children's Act, stipulating the rights and protections of children (Lawrance, 2005).

In spite of these efforts, hundreds of millions of children all over the world have not enjoyed the promises made in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. UNICEF (2004) observes that though a childhood of love, care and protection, in a family environment, with ample scope to survive, grow, develop and participate is the right of every child, millions of them do not experience it. When they become parents, their own children also risk having their rights denied as the threats to childhood replicate themselves from generation to generation. This is already evident in the lives of millions of youth, those aged 15 to 24 years, who have grown up since the Convention was adopted and who are still living in penury, conflict, violence, exploitation and disease.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As in many nations, especially developing ones, children in Nigeria and Ghana are still in critical situations. Many are forced to engage in child labour; denied access to education and good health care, and many others suffer from trafficking, economic, physical and sexual exploitation. Though the situation of children in both countries is generally poor, there seems to be a better improvement with children in Ghana than Nigeria. The UNICEF's (2006) report shows that out of

1000 children born in 2005, 194 Nigerian children died before they were five years, while 112 died of Ghanaian children. The under 1 mortality in Nigeria in the same year (2005) was 100 out of 1000 children, while it was 67 out of 1000 in Ghana. While any child born in Nigeria is not expected to live above 44 years, life expectancy in Ghana is 57 years.

Besides, Ghana has been ahead of Nigeria in the formulation of policies and the passage of the Child Rights Act. Since 1997, several important measures, including child rights legislative reform and related policies, have been instituted to bring Ghana into conformity with international human rights standards on children. Legislations passed include the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act 1998, The Children's Act 1998, Child Rights Regulations 2002 and The Juvenile Justice Act 2003. One then wonders if the better performance of Ghanaian government over the Nigerian government on the rights of the child also reflects on the press performance. It is against this background that this study compares how Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers have performed in their coverage of child rights issues.

Saunders and Goddard (2001) have also observed that attitude of caring and concern towards children appear to co-exist comfortably with attitudes of indifference and even disdain towards them despite the Oslo Challenge's charge that the media should avoid perpetuating discrimination and stereotypes against children. They showed that there exists textual abuse of children in the language used by journalists and authors to describe children in the English-speaking world. The pattern of language use, they said, contributes to the denial of children's rights. The extent to which this is true of the Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers will be examined in this study.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study set out to compare the coverage of child rights in Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. The newspapers from Nigeria include *The Guardian* and *Daily Times*; while Ghanaian newspapers are *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide*. The objectives of the study were to:

- i. Compare the extent of the coverage given to child rights by selected

Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers in terms of frequency, level of prominence and types of journalistic genres used in reporting child rights issues.

- ii. Identify the specific child rights issues reported in the newspapers.
- iii. Highlight the direction of coverage of child rights issues.
- iv. Examine the extent to which the selected papers expose child abuse.
- v. Determine which of government-owned newspapers and privately-owned newspapers give greater commitment to child rights issues.
- vi. Identify the categories of people that the newspapers engage on the issue of child rights, and
- vii. Determine the extent (if any) of textual abuse in the language used to report children issues.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study sought to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the extent of the coverage given to reporting child rights issues by the selected Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers in terms of frequency, level of prominence and types of journalistic genres used?
2. Do Nigerian newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than Ghanaian newspapers?
3. Do government-owned newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than privately-owned newspapers?
4. What are the specifics and nature of child right issues covered by the selected newspapers?
5. To what extent do the newspapers expose abuse of children?
6. What are the sources of information, subjects/themes of focus and categories of people the newspapers quoted on child rights issues?
7. Are there instances of textual abuse in the use of language on child rights?

1.5 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses tested included:

1. There is a significant difference in the coverage of child rights between the Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers.

2. The coverage of child rights by the government-owned newspapers is significantly different from that of privately-owned newspapers.
3. There is a significant difference in the coverage of child rights by each of the selected newspapers over the five-year period of study.
4. There is a significant difference in the genres adopted by the newspapers in the coverage of child rights.
5. There is a significant difference in the level of prominence given to child rights by each of the newspapers.
6. There is a significant difference between locally sourced stories on child rights and those obtained through wire service.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

While some studies have been carried out on child rights and the media in some parts of the world, there exists no such study in Nigeria, that is, to the best of this researcher's knowledge. This study will therefore pilot the course of such research and also serve as a path-finding text on this topic. It will also be a contribution to the campaign on the rights of the child and the roles of the media in that domain.

News coverage can have a strong influence on how the public and policy makers interpret and respond to social issues like child rights. As this study make plain the public conversation around child right issues, it will then be a wake-up call for the media to play a more active and significant role in the protection of the child rights and help to sensitise media practitioners to the importance of appropriate language use when reporting on child issues. Also, as this study assesses and helps us to understand the news environment in which child rights is portrayed, it will also be a good treasure to change agents working on child issues in their planning and engagement of the media on child issues as the findings will reveal the extent to which the campaigns about child rights have reached.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study investigated the coverage of child rights from 1999 to 2003 in selected Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. Four newspapers, two from Nigeria (Daily Times and the Guardian) and two from Ghana (Daily Graphic and Daily Guide)

were selected. A total of 1200 issues of the newspapers constituted the sample size.

Two factors informed the choice of the years of investigation-1999 to 2003. One, it was due to landmark events that took place during this period in respect of the child and the media. The Ghanaian Parliament had passed the children's Act as at 1998. At the international plane, the year 1999 saw the formulation of the Oslo Challenge, which tasks the media to play a crucial role in child rights promotion; and the conduct of the International Conference on Education for the Media and the Digital Age, held in Vienna, Austria. In 2000, 'Summit 2000: Children, Youth and the Media-Beyond the Millennium', took place in Toronto, Canada; as well as the African Regional Summit on Media for Children which was held in Abuja, Nigeria.

This was followed by the 3rd World Summit on Media for Children in 2001 which held in Thessaloniki, Greece. In the same year, UNICEF launched the project MAGIC- a compilation of Media Actions and Good Ideas by, with and for Children, a follow-up to the Oslo Challenge. And in 2003, Nigeria's National Assembly passed the Child Rights Act, thus giving legal backing to the rights of Nigerian children.

The second factor that informed the choice of that period is the nature of this study. One of the objectives set out to examine how government-owned newspapers covered child right issues in comparison with privately-owned newspapers. To make for a fair representation of the newspapers in the countries, it was needful to draw from both the government-owned and privately-owned newspapers that were at the same time national newspapers. While this was easy with Ghanaian newspapers, Nigeria had two government-owned national newspapers (*Daily Times* and *New Nigeria*) but it was only the *Daily Times* that was truly national in terms of circulation. However, *Daily Times* became privatized in August 2004. We were thus compelled to stick to that period so as to ensure the use of a government-owned national newspaper from the Nigerian newspapers.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

- **Oslo Challenge:** Refers to the task set for the media in the protection and promotion of child rights at the workshop with young people, media practitioners and UNICEF staff on the 10th Anniversary of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1999.
- **Textual Abuse:** Language that is harmful to and exploitative of children.
- **UN CRC:** United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.
- Child rights and children's rights are synonymous and used interchangeably.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This section reviews relevant literature from various sources in order to establish the study within a theoretical framework. It focuses on three areas:

Conceptual Framework

- The concept of the Child, Childhood and Child rights
- Historical antecedents to child rights
- Declarations, resolutions, charters on children's rights and the media
- The interface between child rights and sustainable development
- Sustainable human development (SHD) and human rights
- Sustainable human development and child rights
- The editorial process
- Impediments to good human rights reporting
- The media role in development process
- Media role in protection and promotion of child rights
- Promoting child rights through advocacy journalism
- The role of advocacy journalism
- Overview of the Convention on the rights of the child

Empirical Studies

- The representation of young people in Irish national newspapers
- Textual abuse of children in the Australian print media
- Language use and attitude in the United Kingdom and Australian newspapers
- How U.S. Newspapers Portray Child Care
- Children's Health in the News
- Newspapers coverage of Child Nutrition Policies

- How the Kenyan Media Covers the Children's Rights Issues: A Content Analysis
- Through Children's Eyes-The Children's Media Mentoring Project

Theoretical Framework

- Development media theory
- Agenda-Setting Theory
- Social Responsibility Theory

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 CHILD, CHILDHOOD AND CHILD RIGHTS CHILD

Gove (2002:388) defines a child as a recently born human being or a young person of either sex between infancy and youth. Wesley (1993:210) made clarification on different categories of a child. A very young child under the age of about 18 months is a baby or (more formally) an infant. A child who has just learned to walk is a toddler. A child up to the age of 9 or 10 is sometimes a little girl or little boy; and a girl or a boy can be used about anyone up to the age of about 20. However, someone aged between 13 and 19 may prefer to be called a teenager or a young woman or young man.

According to Article 2 of Children and Young Persons Act (CYPA), enacted in Eastern, Western and Northern regions of Nigeria, a " 'child' means (a) person under the age of fourteen, while 'young person' means a person who has attained the age of fourteen years and is under the age of seventeen years" (Jacomy and Stevens, 2004:9). In the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, a child is every human being below the age of eighteen years. Similarly, The Nigerian Child Rights Act (2003), passed into law the House of Assembly, defines a child as a person who has not attained the age of eighteen years. The general conception of a child then seems to limit it below 18 years of age.

CHILDHOOD

According to UNICEF (2005:3), childhood means much more than just the space

between birth and the attainment of adulthood; it refers to "the state and condition of a child's life: to the quality of those years". It follows then that a child who has been kidnapped for example, by a paramilitary group and compelled to bear arms or forced into sexual slavery cannot have a childhood, nor can a child put to hard labour in a garment factory in the capital city, far from family and home village. Similarly, children living in abject poverty without adequate food, access to education, safe water, sanitation facilities and shelter are also deprived of childhood.

This definition of childhood is based on human rights and it is reflected in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Children are neither the possession of parents nor of the State, nor are they mere 'people-in-the-making'; they have equal status as members of the human family. In other words, children have needs similar to those of adults and thus have similar rights like any other human being. Children however rely on adults for the nurture and guidance they need to grow towards independence. Such nurture is ideally found in the children's families, but when primary care-givers cannot provide children's needs, society is expected to fill the gap.

CHILD RIGHTS

The debate on 'rights' has a long history in the Western world. Its foundations can be traced back at least as far as discussions of natural law among Greek and Romans stoics (Hill & Tisdall, 1997). These discussions were revived, expanded and modified by such philosophers as Locke and Paine who argued for the links between natural rights, individualism and liberty.

Hill and Tisdall (1997) note that rights are fundamental and universal; and thus override other values because they are based in nature and are of divine creation. However, there are those who believe that rights are socially or legally constructed rather than natural or God-given (Jones, 1994). Some would say that rights are inextricably linked to a particular society, and are thus the idea that rights can be universalised across societies is incorrect. Those who believe that certain rights are universal posit that the concept of human rights has largely replaced that of natural rights, thus avoiding the theological foundation of most natural rights theories.

They rely on a concept of basic human needs to provide the basis for human rights (MacCormick, 1982; Freedon, 1991; Eekelaar, 1992). These needs are said to be irrefutable:

Certain needs are so fundamental, it may be argued, that they should be treated as a social right and society should accept a duty to provide them to all citizens (Charless and Webb, 1986:71).

Many distinctions have been made in relation to rights. A useful distinction is made between legal and moral rights. Legal rights are those set out in law, which are thus enforceable. Moral rights are not established in law, but are put forward as what ought to be. Marshall (1963) also identified three types of rights, namely civil, political and social. Civil rights are defined as those necessary for individual freedom. Political rights involve participation in the exercise of political power. The social rights range from ensuring a 'modicum of economic welfare and security to the right to share to the full in the social heritage' (Marshall, 1963: 74).

The relationship among claims, duties and rights is another consideration:

A right is a legal capacity in one person to control or limit or require an act of another. The right resides with the first person, the duty with the second. Rights are about obligation, an obligation fixed in law or fought for on moral and legal grounds, a duty placed on someone other than the rights-holder. Rights establish and support relationships (McGillvray, 1994: 354).

Whether someone can have a right without someone else having a corresponding duty has been the subject of much debate (Dworkin, 1978; MacCormick, 1982; Olsen, 1992). With some rights, it is relatively easy to identify who is the duty-holder and what the duty is. For instance, a child may have a right to its parent's care and supervision. The child has the right; the parent has the duty; and the duty is for care and supervision. However, with some rights, identifying the duty and duty-holder can be more difficult. A child may have a right to adequate standard of living, but who has the duty to provide the adequate standard.

There are those who believe that children had no right (Hill & Tisdall, 1997). For example, Hobbes posited that children have no natural rights and are under the absolute subjection of their parents. Locke, however opposed that saying that children have natural rights but only adults are fully rational. Thus, parents have authority over children and the corresponding responsibility to educate children into reason. Purdy (19994) believes that children should have no equal rights with adult.

She argued that rationality is important because a society where people behave intelligently and morally clearly works better and is more enjoyable to live in than one where they do not. She believes that societal problems arising from inadequacies of adults are enough to grapple with and the situation would only be compounded if adults' rights are extended to children. Therefore, all children should have welfare rights or protection rights, such as right to survival and adequate standard of living and, in fact, have more welfare rights than adults.

Children's rights are claims that all children have for survival, development, protection and participation. The Child Development Department of the Ministry of Women Affairs and Youth Development, Federal Republic of Nigeria (1995: 5), lists the basic principles of Children's rights:

- Every child has the right to life and be allowed to survive and develop
- Every child is entitled to a name, family and nationality.
- Every child is free to belong to any association or assembly according to the law.
- Every child has the right to express opinions and freely communicate them on any issues subject to restriction under the law.
- Every child is entitled to protection from any act that interferes with his or her privacy, honour, and reputation.
- Every child is entitled to adequate rest, recreation (leisure and play) according to his or her age and culture.
- Every child (male or female) is entitled to receive compulsory basic education and equal opportunity for higher education depending on individual ability.

- Every child is entitled to good health, protection from illness and proper medical attention for survival, personal growth and development.
- Every child must be protected from indecent and inhuman treatment through sexual exploitation, drug abuse, child labour, torture, maltreatment and neglect.
- No child should suffer any discrimination irrespective of ethnic origin, birth, colour, sex, language, religion, political and social beliefs, status or disability.

2.1.2 HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS TO CHILD RIGHTS

In order to understand and appreciate the extent to which child rights have been pursued, it is important to place it in a historical context. It is therefore, necessary to have an appreciation of the overall connection between instruments concerning human rights and international organisations that regulate the special position of children over time. According to Mahkonen (n. d.), the situation, in terms of years, is as follows:

1. = Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1924 GDR)
2. = Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948 UDHR)
3. = Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959 DRC)
4. = Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989 CRC)

Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child 1924

The League of Nations (1919 - 1946) was an international organisation founded by the countries that were victorious in the First World War. Its most fundamental purpose was to guarantee lasting peace, and the organisation's objective was to resolve disputes by peaceful means, by the use of specific sanctions, reducing armaments and disarmament (Mahkonen, n.d.).

An energetic search for instruments concerning human rights was not a central aspect of activities in the League of Nations. Instead, one of the primary targets was to secure the rights of women and the special rights of children who had been orphaned by the hostilities of World War I. After several phases, a declaration of explicit children's rights was published in Geneva, Switzerland on the 26th of

September 1924. Pride of place in this declaration was given to children who did not enjoy the protection of a traditional family. The introduction to the 1924 declaration stated: "*By the present Declaration of the Rights of the Child men and women of all nations, recognizing that mankind owes to the child the best it has to give.*" The declaration contained five articles which were given the title of principles. As their number is quite limited, the full content of the principles are as follows:

Principle 1

The child must be given the means requisite for its normal development, both materially and spiritually.

Principle 2

The child that is hungry must be fed; the child that is sick must be nursed; the child that is backward must be helped; the delinquent child must be reclaimed; and the orphan and the waif must be sheltered and succoured.

Principle 3

The child must be the first to receive relief in times of distress.

Principle 4

The child must be put in a position to earn a livelihood, and must be protected against every form of exploitation.

Principle 5

The child must be brought up in the consciousness that its talents must be devoted to the service of fellow men.

At the time of this declaration, these principles were not only modern, they were wide in scope. From today's perspective, however, a specific reservation in terms of coverage is appropriate. Mahkonen (n.d.) notes that 'Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child (GDRC) places children in a lower category than adults. This can be seen in *Principle 5*. It is also not an accident that while adults are referred to as "he" or "she", children are referred to as "it" '(p.14). It is however appropriate to point out that the GDRC was the first international instrument related to children's' rights. This is its value and significance. Another central point is that the primary position of children was being highlighted already in the 1920s, even though the context for this was exceptional circumstances connected above all with war and its aftermath.

It is difficult to assess the real significance of the GDRC. Information concerning the relationship between the declaration and relevant legislation in member nations is not available, with the exception of how widely its principles were known to the general public in an age when the role of the media as a promoter of children's rights was essentially a marginal one. To subsequent generations, the GDRC has been very significant, both in ideological terms and in other ways. This is revealed above all by the fact that something in every United Nations document concerning children's needs, position and rights is reminiscent of the GDRC's importance as the first codification of children's rights.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948 UDHR)

The Second World War was of crucial importance in connection with human rights declarations, covenants, conventions and other agreements: Enormous tragedies resulted from military activity, both at individual level and in larger systems. The absurdity of war gnawed at the conscience of the democratic civilizations, and achieving a lasting peace was a subject of focus in many ways. The establishment of the United Nations and the conference of San Francisco were important events among many others. The Charter of the UN was authorized on the 26th June 1945 in San Francisco.

It was on December 10, 1948 that the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948 UDHR) was adopted and proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly resolution 217 A/III. The preamble to the 1948 UDHR was wide and comprehensive. One quotation is well worth repeating: "Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women, have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom." The preamble thus placed emphasis on not only the importance of human rights, but also on the rights of adults ("the equal rights of men and women"), not the human rights of children and the significance of their special rights. It was only after the rights of all human beings had been established by this declaration that attention began to be paid to the rights of children.

Declaration of the Rights of the Child 1959

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child (DRC) was proclaimed by Resolution 1386/XIV of the United Nations General Assembly on the 20th November, 1959. As in the 1924 declaration, principles were used instead of articles. The difference was that the number of principles had doubled and that they had been extended, compared to the earlier declaration, by including a wider interpretation of the principle of children's best interests. Another significant difference was that the importance of children's rights (Article 1 in the DRC) was highlighted.

The summary of the ten principles of the Declaration goes thus:

- Principle 1-Equality without any kind of discrimination
- Principle 2-The best interests of the child
- Principle 3-Right to name and nationality
- Principle 4- Benefits of social security
- Principle 5- Disabled children and special care
- Principle 6- Full development of personality, love and understanding.
- Principle 7- Free and compulsory education Principle 8- The child as the first to receive protection.
- Principle 9- Protection against neglect, cruelty, and exploitation.
- Principle 10- Upbringing in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, and peace.

The DRC regulated children's rights in a more extensive fashion than the 1924 declaration. The 1924 declaration did not include issues such as name and nationality, the benefits of social security, the position of children with special needs and the right to receive education. The DRC was a significant extension of the special rights of children. Also new was the fact that the principle of children's best interests permeated the 1959 declaration. This was touched on in Principle 2 and Principle 7. In the 1924 declaration, children were placed in a position different from that of adults, in the 1959 declaration; this was no longer the case. One aspect of the 1959 declaration is however worth mentioning, the fact that boys have primacy - girls and boys were not treated equally.

Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989

The Convention on the Rights of the Child was born out of shortcomings observed in the 1959 declaration. It became evident that the 1959 declaration was not sufficiently-powerful instrument in connection with children's rights. This conclusion can be drawn from the opinions voiced in the middle of the 1970s as plans were being drawn up for the International Year of the Child. It can therefore be presumed that the 1959 declaration did not match the requirements viewed as essential in connection with children's needs, their position, and their rights. A probable biggest shortcoming was the fact that the DRC was a mere declaration of intent. It could not be ratified and included in national legislative systems. The DRC therefore lacked legally-binding status and obligations. In the DRC, if there was a desire to foster children's rights, it was certainly possible. If there was a wish to push human and particularly children's human and special rights aside, this was also possible. These were the starting points for the codification that was framed in the 1970s and eventually adopted by the General Assembly.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by the General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989. It entered into force on 2 September, 1990, in accordance with article 49. It has since then been ratified by 191 countries including Nigeria and Ghana. The Convention incorporates three forms of rights- provision, protection and participation (Ansell, 2005). It acknowledges that every child has certain basic rights, including the rights to life, his or her own name and identity, to be raised by his or her parents within a family or cultural grouping and have a relationship with both parents, even if they are separated.

The Convention obliges states to allow parents to exercise their parental responsibilities. The Convention also acknowledges that children have the right to express their opinions and to have those opinions heard and acted upon when appropriate; to be protected from abuse or exploitation, to have their privacy protected and that their lives should not be subject to excessive interference. The Convention also obliges signatory states to provide separate legal representation for a child in any judicial dispute concerning his/her care and requires that the child's viewpoint be heard in such cases. The Convention forbids capital punishment for

children.

The Convention is child-centric and places the child's needs and rights first ahead of the parents or others. It requires that states act in the best interests of the child. This approach is different from the common law approach found in many countries that had previously treated children and wives as possessions or chattels, ownership of which was often argued over in family disputes. In many jurisdictions, properly implementing the convention requires an overhaul of child custody and guardianship laws, or at the very least, a creative approach within the existing laws.

The Convention also has two optional protocols, adopted by the UN General Assembly in May 2000, which apply only to those states that have signed and ratified them. One is on the involvement of children in armed conflict and the other is on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (Wikipedia, 2006).

Advantages of the UN Convention on the rights of the child

Here, we follow the assessment of Hill & Tisdall (1997) in their discussion on the advantages of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Convention has been described as the most significant recent policy development intended to promote and protect children's rights (Franklin 1995). It places the child in a positive light because children are seen as social actors and human beings with their own rights (Hart, 1991; Achard, 1993; Lansdown, 1994). Reid (1994) described the Convention's enfranchisement:

It is radical because it enfranchises a whole new cohort of population... a cohort which, in its pre-adolescent childhood, is regarded at best with fond patronisation by the general public; in its adolescence and teenage ranks, it is regarded with widespread uneasiness and even fear (p.19)

Article 4 requires the maximum use of available resources for states to implement the Convention, not only on a national but also on international scale. Given such rights in the Convention as adequate standards of living, education and health, such a requirement could have considerable financial and policy implications.

Hill and Tisdall (1997) further note that Cleland (1995) was impressed by the balance struck in the Convention between welfare and participation. The right to be protected and have best interests as a primary concern apply to all children and young people. A child's right to participate is, however, qualified by the child's age and maturity. While a child's view must be taken into consideration, it does not have to be adhered to. Thus, while a child should be involved in decisions, the child is not the final arbiter.

Veerman (1992) identified two other specific advantages of the Convention:

- It brings together under one single, binding international instrument provisions of international law pertaining to children.
- It exceeds the 1959 Declaration on the Rights of the Child. Not only are children's particular needs recognised, separate from those of adults, but also general human rights are reiterated for children.

The Convention also provides alternative binding instrument for states that have so far not signed other human rights conventions, but might be persuaded to commit themselves to instituting such rights for children.

Many practical benefits are to derive from the Convention. Lestor (1995) believed that the Convention has stimulated debates within the developed world on how to interpret and implement the Convention's rights meaningfully. As Veerman wrote, as a single document it is an 'important and easily understood advocacy tool' (1992: 184), and provides a framework for international agencies and impetus for international alliances.

Criticisms of the Convention

The UN Convention is not without its critics, who challenge some of the concepts of childhood and rights underlying it (Hill & Tisdall, 1997). The Convention has been criticised for its definition of a child by age. By using an age criterion, the Convention fails to address the accusations that competence is a better criterion than age to justify distinctions between children and adults. The Convention also fails to grapple with the issue of when childhood starts- and thus the thorny issues

of abortion and treatment of pregnant women. It fudges the issue by stating in the preamble that the child needs special protection 'before as well as after birth' but simply defining the child in Article 12 as 'every human being below the age eighteen years ...' (Hill & Tisdall, 1997).

Feminists critiques raise some other difficulties with the Convention (Oslen, 1992).

- Omissions are noted in the document. For example, the Convention addresses child military service which mostly affects boys, it fails to address the issue of child marriage which affects girls.
- By being gender blind, it can camouflage or even reinforce sex discrimination. For example, the Convention promotes the family as the primary setting for children to be brought up in. Feminist analysis finds that traditional family life is typically patriarchal, and can further socialise girl children into subordinate roles (Datar, 1995).
- The Convention ignores the actual distributions of power, in its naive assumptions about choice and consent. For example, a child's choice to state his or her views is not only subject to the child's age and maturity. But 'real choice' is subject to the power the child has in relation to the law, family, etc.
- Certain writers also worry about the possibility that the UN Convention could serve to control and constrain women. As women still tend to be the primary caretakers of children, articles in the Convention could be used to justify surveillance on them. While obligations are placed equally on fathers in the Convention, the Conventions could be used by fathers to harass women, without fathers fulfilling their responsibilities. Intrusive questioning could be legitimated regarding women's sexual behaviour to meet the right of children to identities, in cases where mothers do not wish the fathers to be involved- such as when rape has occurred.

Olsen criticized that the Convention is both gender-centric and ethnocentric: 'To the extent that the Convention deals with children as unspecified, un-situated people, it tends in fact to deal with white, male, relatively privileged children'

(1992:509). Ennew (1995) stated that the child in the Convention is a Northern child, which has damaging consequences for Southern children who can be excluded (Boyden, 1990; Burman, 1995). Considering the lives of street children, Ennew commented on the Convention's reinforcement of the family, which ignores children's own friendships and social networks on the street (although there is an article on freedom of association) (Scheper-Hughes and Sargent, 1998; Griesel, Swart-Kruger, Chawla, 2002). Statements on universal rights arguably overlook particular social meanings, so that protecting children from child labour is seen as beneficial in UK but may undermine children's position in countries such as India. While the preamble carefully uses the term 'family', which recognises non-nuclear family units in many cultures, the articles themselves often slip into using 'parents' (e.g. Article 9 about separation from parents).

It is further noted that the Convention does not create a definitive hierarchy of children's rights, although a child's best interest is used in practice to qualify a variety of other rights. It does not address potential conflicts between different rights (Hill & Tisdall, 1997: 32). For example, children's freedom of expression is protected by Article 13. Restrictions should only be to respect the rights or reputations of others, or for national security, to protect public order, health and morals. Article 39 requires states to try and ensure children below the age of 15 do not directly take part in hostilities. Olsen (1992) pointed out a potential conflict between these articles: what if children below the age of 15 might be expressing their political views in the only way they feel is effective, by fighting in irregular or guerrilla armies?

Another potential conflict lies between the prioritisation of children's best interests in all actions concerning them, and children's rights to express their views. What if asking a child's view might be deemed against a child's best interests (if a child is unaware of a parent's illness but this information is pertinent to decisions being made about where the child should live)? Marshall (1995) explores the role of discretion within this issue: who should decide what children's best interests are?

Child's best interest is on its own a subject of controversy (Reppucci and Crosby 1993; Eekelaar, 1994; Marshall, 1995b). Are best interests defined with regard to

short or long term? How does one decide between seemingly equal alternatives? On what basis does one make a decision? Does the discretion of Article 3 undermine children's agency rights in general?

Hill & Tisdall (1997) note also that many articles in the convention are similarly vague and qualified. When Article 4 requires states to assist internationally, it is qualified by the extent of 'available resources'. When Article 12 requires children's view to be heard, it is qualified by decisions about their maturity and age. No guidance is given by adequate 'standard of living' (Article 27) or a child's fullest potential (Article 29). A state could evade the requirements of the Convention, even after ratifying the Convention, by simply lowering the age of majority (since Article 1's definition of the child excludes those over this age) (Toope, 1996). Certain articles are weaker in the Convention. For example, Article 18(2) requires the state to provide only 'appropriate' assistance to parents, whereas the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights requires 'the widest possible protection and assistance' to families (Barsh 1989).

The creation of the UN Convention itself had some considerable flaws. Considering Article 12 (due regard to a child's views), it is contradictory that children had very little input into the construction of the Convention itself. The Convention thus remains what adults think children's rights should be, not what children think. The Working Group worked by consensus. While this has some considerable advantages-such as greater likelihood of it being universally adopted by states- it also meant that certain of the articles represent the 'lowest common denominator'. Thus, while many countries supported the ban on military service for all children, the block represented by such countries as United States made this impossible and article 38 only forbids military service for those under fifteen years (Tisdall and Hill, 1997).

In order to prevent some countries from 'back-tracking' on children's rights, there is an inclusion of Article 41 that the Convention shall not 'affect' any provisions that provide a higher standard on children's rights. Yet states can make 'reservations' to the UN Convention, so they make no obligation to abide by certain articles.

Finally, Tisdall and Hill (1997) also observed that one of the greatest weaknesses of the Convention is its lack of enforceability unless it is incorporated into national law. For example, the Convention has no legal force in UK because UK ratification of International Conventions does not automatically incorporate them into the UK legal system. Besides, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights has complaints procedure, both for a state to complain about the non-compliance of another state and for individuals claiming violations (with some qualifications about recognition and admissibility). No such complaints procedure is available for the UN Convention. Reports to the UN Committee are submitted by states, and states are much more likely to emphasize their positive aspects than negative ones. The UN Committee can ask for non-government organisations to provide information, but there is no requirement for an 'independent' report.

2.1.3 DECLARATIONS, RESOLUTIONS, CHARTERS ON CHILDREN'S RIGHTS AND THE MEDIA

Another means to raise media professionals' awareness about children's and young people's relations to the media is seminars and conferences. It must be emphasised that many national, as well as some international and regional events about children, young people and media are long standing and regular. However, as a response to the globalised media flow with satellite television channels spreading rapidly all over the world since the late 1980s, and then the digital media, the international and regional meetings and conferences on children, young people and media have multiplied since the early 1990s (Carlsson 2006).

These conferences have had different contexts and aims. There are, for instance, meetings mainly for professionals working with children's media. The objectives of these gatherings have been to improve the profile of children's programming and other child media contents throughout the world, to prompt initiatives to advance the diversity and quality of children's broadcasting, and to promote research, co-operation, exchange and training for those concerned with children's broadcasting and other media.

Furthermore, there are meetings with children, youth and media on the agenda

arranged by UN agencies or on a regional supranational plane by, for example, the European Union. The objectives of these meetings have been partly to support states in their cultural policies, and partly to give media professionals ideas on how to promote and protect the rights of the child.

Below are listed a few examples of international and regional meetings where delegates to a greater extent have been media professionals and/or policy makers.

The first World Summit on Television and Children, 1995

The first World Summit on Television and Children, held in Melbourne, Australia, in March 1995, was hosted by the Australian Children's Television Foundation (ACTF). The main reason for organising the Summit was that programming for children was changing and under threat in a variety of ways and could no longer remain purely a domestic issue for most nations, if it was to survive with the values and objectives that professionals in the industry believe should apply to children's programmes. At the Summit, a charter on children and television was proposed. Anna Home, Head of Children's Television Programmes, British Broadcasting Corporation. **The Children's Television Charter** was revised and adopted in Munich, Germany, in May 1995.

Violence on the Screen and the Rights of the Child, 1995

The Swedish National Commission for UNESCO, in co-operation with UNESCO and UNICEF, organised the international seminar 'Violence on the Screen and the Rights of the Child' in September 1995 in Lund, Sweden, bringing together participants from all continents representing the media business, universities, government institutions, teachers and parents associations, etc.

A report, comprising the speeches and conclusions with the same title as the seminar, is available in English. As a direct outcome of the seminar, The International Clearinghouse on Children, Youth and Media (formerly The UNESCO International Clearinghouse on Children and Violence on the Screen) was established by Nordicom, Göteborg University, Sweden, in 1997, with support from UNESCO and the Swedish government.

The Southern African Developing Countries' Summit on Children and Broadcasting, 1996

This regional Summit, held in May 1996, by The Children and Broadcasting Foundation (CBF) for Africa in Johannesburg, South Africa, was a direct result of the first World Summit on Children and Television in Australia in 1995. The delegates from Africa were concerned that Africa's voice was not being heard at the World Summit, and felt that an environment must be created in which children's broadcasting issues could be discussed within the region. At this SADC plus Kenya Summit discussions concentrated on, among other things, how to make the Children's Television Charter emanating from the first World Summit more relevant to Africa, and **The SADC Children's Broadcasting Charter** was adopted.

The Asian Summit on Child Rights and the Media, 1996

The Asian Summit on Child Rights and the Media was held in July 1996 in Manila, the Philippines. The major organising members included the Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC), the Philippine Children's Television Foundation, the Asia-Pacific Broadcasting Union, the Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC), Philippines, and UNICEF. Issues examined at the Summit were: child rights and the media; influence of media; access to media; promoting cultural diversity; children's media; media and values; issues of portrayal; and media education. Delegates at the Summit - including ministers and senior officials of Asian governments, journalists, media executives, educators and child rights advocates - adopted the **Asian Declaration on Child Rights and the Media**.

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, 1996

In October 1996, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (the mechanism tasked with monitoring progress in the realisation of children's rights and with advising on implementation of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child) held a theme day on children and the media. The Committee had invited representatives of UN organs, bodies and specialised agencies, other competent bodies, including non-governmental organisations, media representatives, research and academic organisations, and children, to contribute to the discussions and provide expert advice. Three main areas were considered during the debate: child participation in the media; protection of the child against harmful influences through the media;

and respect for the integrity of the child in media reporting. The discussion resulted in twelve recommendations. The Committee also set up a multisectoral working group that met in Paris in April, 1997, to consider constructive ways of ensuring implementation of these recommendations.

The first All African Summit, 1997

The first All African Summit was arranged in Accra, Ghana, in October 1997. The most important thing that occurred at this Summit was the adoption of the **Africa Charter on Children's Broadcasting**. The Charter is an amendment of The SADC Children's Broadcasting Charter on 1996 and is in keeping with the international Children's Television Charter in 1995, but expands on issues relevant to the African continent, and includes radio as well. In particular, greater emphasis is placed on the educational and developmental needs of Africa's children and protection from all forms of commercial exploitation. The Africa Charter on Children's Broadcasting was ratified at the general assembly of URTNA (Union of National Radio and Television Organisations of Africa) in 2000 in Algiers, where all African broadcasters were asked to make necessary amendments. The final Charter was then further adopted by the Commonwealth Broadcasting Association (CBA) in 2000 in Cape Town, South Africa.

The Second World Summit on Television for Children, 1998

The Second World Summit on Television for Children took place in March 1998 in London and was hosted jointly by the BBC, Channel 4, ITV and Nickelodeon UK. A large number of keynote addresses, debates, seminars, and workshops dealt with: the nature of the child audience; different programme genres; production and policy; financing; advertising; new media; globalisation vs. local survival; and co-operative ventures. Master classes and screenings of children's programmes ran parallel. There were also sessions on research.

Journalism 2000: Child Rights and the Media, 1998-2001

In May 1998, the international conference 'Journalism 2000: Child Rights and the Media', arranged by The International Federation of Journalists (IFJ), was held in Recife, Brazil. The conference focused on reporting on children. The meeting resulted in the adoption of the **IFJ Child Rights and the Media: Guidelines for Journalists** as a draft for debate and development among the world's journalists - a

process that was expected to take three years. After regional conferences and workshops the guidelines were finally adopted at the Annual Congress of the IFJ in Seoul in 2001 and presented at the 2nd World Congress against Commercial Exploitation of Children held at Yokohama, Japan, in 2001.

The Oslo Challenge, 1999

In late 1998, the Norwegian Government and UNICEF responded to a request from the working group set up by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child in 1997 to initiate a longer process that would continue this work - meaning, for example, to identify examples of good practice in fulfilling Articles 12, 13 and 17 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC), to forge co-operative links among the many sectors involved in the issue of children and media, and to produce a checklist for the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child to facilitate consideration of submission by State Parties in relation to these articles. In connection with an international working group of media professionals, young people, UN and voluntary sector workers, researchers and creative thinkers from different continents, **The Oslo Challenge** was launched on the 20th of November 1999 - the 10th anniversary of the UN CRC. The Challenge is a call to action with the aim to ensure that the overwhelming power of the media for good in the lives of children is identified, encouraged and supported, while the potential harmful effects are recognised and reduced.

It is a call to action. It goes out to everyone engaged in exploring, developing, monitoring and participating in the complex relationship between children and the media (The Mediawise Trust, 2003). This includes governments, organizations and individuals working for children, media professionals at all levels and in all media, the private sector, including media owners, children and young people, parents, teachers and researchers.

The Challenge to governments is:

- to recognize children as an investment rather than a cost, and as potential rather than a burden, and to strive to integrate this reality into policy, including that related to the media; to meet national obligations set out under the Convention on the Rights of the Child and to report regularly to the Committee on the Rights of the Child on policies and actions aimed at

fulfilling Articles 12, 13 and 17;

- to ensure that resources are provided so that children and young people have access to information;
- to explore ways in which, without compromising professional independence, support can be given to media initiatives aimed at providing greater access to children, serving their needs and promoting their rights; to recognize that an independent media is fundamental to the pursuit of democracy and freedom and that censorship and control are inimical to the best interests of both children and adults, and thus to create an effective and secure environment in which the media can work professionally and independently.

The Challenge to organizations and individuals working for children is:

- to respect the need for independence of the media as a component of democratic society; to work together with media professionals to promote and protect children's rights and to respond to children's needs;
- to provide effective media liaison services to ensure that media have access to reliable sources of information on children's issues;
- to facilitate accurate coverage of child-related issues by developing media liaison policies that discourage misrepresentation in the interests of publicity and fundraising.

The Challenge to media professionals at all levels and in all media is:

- to raise awareness in the media professions about the rights of children and how they can be protected and promoted by good professional practices or harmed through inappropriate policies or actions;
- to work ethically and professionally according to sound media practices and to develop and promote media codes of ethics in order to avoid sensationalism, stereotyping (including by gender) or undervaluing of children and their rights;
- to resist commercial pressures that lead to children's issues and the rights of children to freedom of expression, fair coverage and protection from exploitation, including as consumers, being given low priority;
- to work to enhance the relationship between children and the media so that

both grow and improve in understanding of the positive and negative power and potential of the relationship.

The Challenge to children and young people is:

- to know and understand their rights as laid down in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and to find and develop ways to contribute to the fulfilment of these rights, including the rights of access to information and to diverse points of view, and to find ways to promote their own active participation in the media and in media development.
- to learn as much as they can about the media so that they can make informed choices as media consumers and gain maximum benefit from the diversity the media offer;
- to grasp opportunities to participate in production of media output and to provide feedback to media producers, both positive and negative;
- to share their opinions about the media with those who can help to support a positive relationship between children and the media: parents, teachers and other adults and young people.

The Challenge to the private sector, including media owners is:

- to take into account the rights of children to access, participation, media education and protection from harmful content in the development of new media products and technologies;
- to make the best interests of the child a primary consideration in the pursuit of commercial and financial success, so that today's children become adults in a global society in which all people are protected, respected and free.

The Challenge to parents, teachers and researchers is:

- to acknowledge and support the rights of children to have access to media, participate in it and use it as a tool for their advancement;
- to provide a protective and supportive environment in which children can make choices as media consumers that promote their development to their full potential;
- to be as informed as possible about trends and directions in the media and, where possible, to contribute actively to forming such trends and directions through participation in focus groups, feedback mechanisms and by using

procedures laid down for comment and complaints on media content.

West African Regional Summit on Media for Children, 2000

In May 2000, a West African Regional Summit on Media for Children was held in Abuja, Nigeria. The Summit was co-ordinated by Glorious Diamond Productions and Children and Broadcasting Foundation for Africa (CBF; Nigeria Chapter) in collaboration with UNICEF for the organisers, African Children Broadcasting Network (ACBN). The Summit focused largely on the forthcoming 3rd World Summit on Media for Children in Greece, March 2001.

Asia-Pacific Television Forum on Children and Youth, 2001

An Asia-Pacific Television Forum on Children and Youth was organised by the Korea Educational Broadcast System (EBS), the Asia-Pacific Broadcasting Union (ABU), and UNICEF in Seoul, South Korea, in February 2001. The object was to provide television practitioners from across the region an opportunity to discuss television's critical role and responsibility in promoting the understanding of and helping to protect the rights of the region's children and young people. The **Declaration of the Asia-Pacific Television Forum on Children and Youth** was adopted at the Forum and an action blueprint developed. The action points are practical ideas for TV news and children's programmes recommended as starting points to better serve the interests of children in local and national television markets.

EU Expert Seminar: Children and Young People in the New Media Landscape, 2001

The Swedish Presidency of the European Union, in co-operation with the European Commission, organised an expert seminar in Stockholm in February 2001, under the above heading. The seminar brought together representatives from governments and authorities within the Member States and Candidate countries, EU institutions, media industries and non- governmental organisations. The theme of the seminar was the situation of minors in relation to the media, seen in the light of the rapidly evolving media landscape due to the impact of globalisation, digitalisation, the emergence of new media and the growth of media output. The issues discussed were protection of minors from harmful content on the Internet, in computer and video games and on television, and also television advertising directed at children.

The 3rd World Summit on Media for Children, 2001

The 3rd World Summit on Media for Children took off during March 2001 in Thessaloniki, Greece. It was produced by the European Children's Television Centre (E.C.T.C.) under the auspices of several institutions, supervised by the Hellenic Audiovisual Institute (I.O.M.), and organised by Children's Media Development (CMD). The Summit aimed at enhancing media quality and media awareness worldwide and at demonstrating the emerging relation between television, radio and the new media. The participants were above all media professionals across the world, but also researchers, media educators, politicians, voluntary organisations, and children. There were four main themes with plenary sessions and workshops: 'Going Global', 'Media for All', 'New Technologies', and 'Children Have a Say'. The I.O.M. put forward the draft **Declaration of Thessaloniki: Commitment for the Future** as regards children and media, a declaration which was amended and finally adopted in 2002.

MAGIC - An Oslo Challenge Follow-Up, 2001

In 2001, as a response to the Oslo Challenge, UNICEF with the support of the Government of Norway launched the project MAGIC - a compilation of Media Actions and Good Ideas by, with and for Children. A resource pack of good ideas, which have been tried and tested by media industry players, organisations working for and with children, governments and academic/educational institutions, is continuously being put together in order to be a working tool for a wider circle of people and organisations. The aim of the pack is to encourage and support new initiatives that will contribute to developing the relationship between children and the media. Along with the resource pack, an e-mail network has been expanded and energised so that ideas and information can be shared and more players can be brought into this Oslo Challenge follow-up.

Asian Seminar on Children and the Internet, 2001

In August 2001, academics, media practitioners, new media experts and NGO representatives from six Asian countries met in Bangkok, Thailand, to discuss 'The Impact on Children of New Media and the Internet in Southeast Asia'. The seminar was held under the auspices of AMIC (Asian Media Information and Communication Centre, Singapore) with support from the Netherlands

Government, UNESCO, UNICEF, and Thailand's Public Relations Department. The participants generated a set of recommendations to help protect children in cyberspace. Among them are educational programmes targeted towards children, parents, teachers, educational institutions, media, policy-makers, law enforcers, civil society organisations, unions, Internet service providers and telecom companies. Other recommendations comprise guiding principles for regulatory and self-regulatory environments.

2nd Asian-Pacific Television Forum, 2002

In March 2002, the 2nd Asian-Pacific Television Forum in Bangkok, Thailand, attracted delegates from across the East Asia-Pacific region, representing public and private sectors such as television, advertising, corporate, government and civil society organizations. The theme was 'Children's TV - Partnerships for Quality'. The Forum was organized by UNICEF and the Cable and Satellite Broadcasting Association of Asia (CASBAA), and hosted by the Mass Communication organization of Thailand (MCOT) and Thailand's United Broadcasting Corporation (UBC). Recommendations aimed at building sustained partnerships for quality children's television were adopted at the closing session. The recommendations included:

- Making existing producers of quality productions aware of child rights issues and urging them to incorporate those issues in the programmes they are already producing.
- Encourage and ensure the authentic participation of children and youth in the production of quality children's programming.
- Using integrated media - on-air, off-air, on-line and on-the-ground - to ensure maximum reach and relevance.
- Support for training/production workshops in technical and storytelling techniques, as well as exchange programmes for children's programme producers from developing countries with their counterparts in industrialized countries.

The 4th World Summit on Media for Children and Adolescents, 2004

The 4th World Summit on Media for Children and Adolescents came off in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in April 2004. On the agenda were the rights of children and adolescents to quality media; 'Media from All, Media for All' was the overriding

theme. Attendees were producers, researchers, educators, journalists, publicity and marketing professionals, students, representatives of non- governmental organisations, national and international cooperation organisations, regulatory agencies, and funding institutions. Many persons were also attending the Summit on-line via real time web casts of the principal sessions.

The Radio Manifesto, 2004

Three years of discussions and workshops by children and youths around the world have resulted in an international document, **The Radio Manifesto**, launched at The 4th World Summit on Media for Children and Adolescents in 2004 (see above). The Radio Manifesto - addressed by young people to radio broadcasters - began in 2001 with youth radio broadcasters at Bush Radio in Cape Town, South Africa.

Since then, the World Radio Forum has helped young broadcasters in other countries in Africa and the rest of the world to develop the text of their Radio Manifesto. Youth 8 to 18 years of age contributed from townships, remote villages, and the streets of capital cities, together with the new young citizens of emerging democracies. Their Manifesto proclaims strongly to radio authorities the rights, needs, and hopes of young people.

2.1.3 THE INTERFACE BETWEEN CHILD RIGHTS AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The concept of development has evolved through a series of changes. The first conception (of development) was based on the happenings in the industrial societies of the West. The thrust of the paradigm was that the West possessed a fund of knowledge, productive and entrepreneurial skill, technology, pro-development attitudinal infrastructure and the mass media. It was believed, judging by the successful development experiment exemplified by Europe and North America, that those rich possessions of the West had the potential to replicate development in the emergent nations.

Development then was perceived in purely quantitative terms - Gross National Product (GNP), per capita income, high technology, mass production, urbanization and massive investment in mass media infrastructure, among other factors.

Development, according to this School of thought, was synonymous with modernization or westernisation. The hope was that this concept of development would result in a quantum growth in the volume of goods and services for improved earnings, greater savings and investment, enhanced purchasing power, increased demand for goods and services, higher productivity, rising employment statistics and general improvement in the standard of living of the poor.

Unfortunately, this development conception which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s fell short of the great expectations that popularised it. It was later realized that development was complex, multifaceted and multidisciplinary, and cannot be based on economic terms alone. The idea of alternative development emerged and this was anchored on self-reliance, people's participation and faith in people's ability to learn and change. Instead of conceiving development in purely economic terms, the new model recognized, "people's values, beliefs, attitudes and opinions and their societal needs as components in development" (Lent, 1987:27).

Thus, definitions of development based on this new perspective began to emerge. Inayatullah (cited in Soola 2003:13), for example, says: "Development is change toward patterns of society that allow better realization of human values, that allow a society greater control over its environment and over its political destiny, and that enables its individuals to gain increased control over themselves". This definition shifts the attention and aim of development away from an economic to a more humanizing conceptualised one. In line with this, Oladipo (1996:1) notes that development is:

a process of economic and social advancement which enables people to realize their potentials, build self-confidence and lead lives of dignity and fulfilment. It is a process aimed at freeing people from evils of want, ignorance, social injustice and economic exploitation.

Hence, development became a human centred issue. The nature of human-centred development has been given formal impetus and intellectual motivation with the publication of UNDP's Human Development Reports (HDRs) since 1990. Through the reports, UNDP has been in the forefront of efforts to generate, in contemporary

development discourse, a policy focus on the broader attributes of human well-being. It has defined human development as a process of enlarging people's choices, as well as raising their level of well-being. The HDRs identify three choices as the most critical and socially valuable; they are: the choice to lead a long and healthy life; the choice to acquire knowledge and be educated; and the choice to have access to resources needed for a decent level of living.

Earlier, the concept of sustainable development had begun a rapid spread with the release in 1987 of a United Nations report, titled *Our Common Future*, now generally referred to as the Brundtland Report (World Commission on Environment and Development {WCED} 1987). In the report, sustainable development was defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own need". In another publication, *Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living* (World Conservation Union [IUCN] et al 1991), sustainable development was defined as "improving the quality of human life while living within the carrying capacity of supporting ecosystem".

From the foregoing, emphasis is placed on the quality of human life and sustainability of the same (Chichilnisky, 1997). Thus, we speak of Sustainable Human Development. As argued by Oladipo (1996:3).

Sustainable human development is development that not only generates economic growth but distributes its benefits equitably; that empowers people rather than marginalizing them. It gives priority to the poor, enlarging their choices and opportunities, and provides for their participation in decisions affecting them. It is development that is pro-poor, pro-nature, pro-jobs, pro-women and pro-children.

Oladipo's view expresses the environmental, economic, social, political and intergenerational nature of sustainable Human Development.

The objective of sustainable human development, therefore, is not merely that of the increase of production, but also that which enables human beings to expand the range of their alternatives to do more, live a better and longer life, to avoid curable

diseases, and to hold the keys to the world's stock of knowledge, and so on. Hence, the development process becomes one of developing capacities, and not one of maximizing material benefit or economic well-being as it is commonly believed today. The basis of sustainable human development is not only of material well-being, but also of raising the cultural standard of people, enabling them to live a fuller life, or to practise their talents and improve the level of their capabilities.

In fact, as far as 1995, the International Human Development Reports had identified four elements of Sustainable Human Development.

First: Productivity, or human ability to carry out productive and creative activities.

Second: Equality, or equal opportunities available to each individual in society without any obstacles or discrimination, regardless of creed, sex, origin or level of income.

Third: Sustainability, or not inflicting damage on future generations whether as a result of the depletion of natural resources and polluting the environment or as a result of public debts, the burden of which is borne by future generations, or because of negligence in developing human resources, creating difficult future conditions as a result of present choices.

Fourth: Empowerment. Development is achieved through people, and not just for them. Hence, they should fully participate in decisions and procedures that form their lives. The importance of civil society organizations and the potential for accountability and correcting the trajectory are underscored here. People in development must not be seen simply as passive receivers, but rather as active agents in the process of development.

2.1.4 SUSTAINABLE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT (SHD) AND HUMAN RIGHTS

According to UNDP (1998), human rights are based on respect for the dignity and worth of all human beings and seek to ensure freedom from fear and want. Human

rights are essential to the well-being of every man, woman and child. Premised on fundamental and inviolable standards, they are universal and inalienable.

Sustainable human development seeks to expand choices for all people- women, men and children, current and future generations- while protecting the natural systems on which all life depends. Moving away from a narrow, economy-centred approach to development, sustainable human development places people at the core, and views humans as both a means and an end of development. Thus, sustainable human development aims to eliminate poverty, promote human dignity and rights, and provide equitable opportunities for all through good governance, thereby promoting the realization of all human rights- economic, social, cultural, civil and political.

Development is unsustainable where the rule of law and equity do not exist; where ethnic, religious or sexual discrimination are rampant; where there are restrictions on free speech, free association and the media; or where large numbers of people live in abject and degrading poverty. Similarly, human rights are enhanced when gender equity or poverty reduction programmes empower people to become aware of and claim their rights. Sustainable human development and human rights will be undone in a repressive environment where threat or disease prevails, and both are better able to promote human choices in a peaceful and pluralistic society.

Therefore, the issues of increasing people's choices and provision of opportunities for participation contained in the definition of sustainable human development (SHD) underscore the importance of human rights. Human rights and SHD share the common purpose of securing the well-being, freedom and dignity of all people everywhere. Human rights and SHD are interdependent and mutually reinforcing: SHD is essential for realizing human rights and human rights are essential for the achievement of full SHD (Hasegawa, 2001).

By expanding choice and opportunities for men, women and children, SHD addresses their economic, social, cultural, political and civil rights. SHD requires seven freedoms:

1. Freedom from **discrimination** (on the grounds of gender, race, ethnicity,

- national origin or religion).
2. Freedom from **want** (to enjoy a decent standard of living and well-being).
 3. Freedom to **develop** and **realize** one's human potential.
 4. Freedom from **fear** (of threats to personal security, torture, arbitrary arrest and other violent acts).
 5. Freedom from **injustice** and violations of the rule of law.
 6. Freedom of **thought, opinion and freedom to participate** in decision-making and form associations.
 7. Freedom for decent **work** without exploitation.

2.1.5 SUSTAINABLE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND CHILD RIGHTS

The intergenerational nature of sustainable development makes children's rights central to it. The World Commission on Environment and Development's definition of sustainable development, as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs", makes it clear that the future generation is focal to sustainable development. Hammarberg (1990:105) points out that "our children belong to the future; they are the future...Life's aspirations come in the guise of children".

Since the future generation will naturally comprise the children, empowering them to maximize the future for their own development is very significant (Gathia, 1997). Thus, fulfilment of the rights of children is an issue in sustainable development. Besides, since it was earlier shown that human rights and sustainable development are interdependent and mutually reinforcing, it follows then that children as human beings should have their own rights also guaranteed.

The point is well emphasized by UNICEF (2006), stressing that chapter 25 of Agenda 21 of the 1992 Earth Summit is devoted to children to ensure that the development needs and rights of today's children will be met without compromising those of future generations. UNICEF also notes that central to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in its entirety is the development - as well as the survival - of children. This guarantees them the right to education and leisure and to special protection from abuse, neglect and all forms of exploitation

which interfere with their development.

It is useful to observe that the core of the CRC is encased in Article 3, where the best interests of the child form the basic criteria by which the most critical decisions regarding children should be made. The CRC makes it clear that children are not objects of charity or welfare, but active participants in their own lives. The conclusion drawn is that development cannot be sustainable without fulfilling the needs and rights of children who make up the future generation.

In the same vein, UNICEF emphasized that meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) requires fulfilling the rights of children. It states that six of the eight MDGs can best be met as the rights of children to health, education, protection and equality are protected. They will only be sustained as the rights of every child are realized. In explicit terms, UNICEF outlines how fulfilling children's rights meets the following six of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs):

Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger: This can be met when children are cared for from their earliest years, provided with an expanded set of immunizations and basic health care and a quality primary school education. They also require to be supplied with the knowledge, skill and support they need to fight HIV/AIDS and to be protected from violence, abuse, exploitation and discrimination.

Achieve universal primary education: This will be met when children have the care from their earliest years; a quality primary school education- with a special focus on ensuring girls access and quality, which will in turn ensure the same for boys; and safe water and adequate sanitation in their schools.

Promote gender equality and empower women: Provision of quality primary school education and the knowledge, skill and support they need to fight HIV/AIDS will ensure this.

Reduce child mortality: This can be achieved when every boy and girl receive care from their earliest years, an expanded set of immunizations and basic health care, a quality primary school education and protection against abuse, exploitation

and violence.

Improve maternal health: This will be realized when every girl and boy has an expanded set of immunizations and basic health care, a quality primary school education as well as when their mothers are healthy and well-nourished before, during and after pregnancy.

Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases: To fulfil this, children must have care from their earliest years, an expanded set of immunizations and basic health care, protection against local diseases, i.e. insecticide-treated nets to prevent mosquito-borne malaria; a quality primary school education and the knowledge, skill and support they need to fight HIV/AIDS.

One can observe the recurrence of certain requirements in the goals namely: care for children from their earliest years, quality primary school education, immunization and basic health and knowledge and skill to fight HIV/AIDS. Therefore, if the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are to be met and sustained, we must rapidly move towards fulfilling the rights of children.

Chapter 25 of Agenda 21 of United Nations Conference on Environment and Development has also called attention to the place of Children in sustainable development (United Nations, 1992). It noted that children will not only inherit the responsibility of looking after the Earth, but in many developing countries, they comprise nearly half the population. Furthermore, children in both developing and industrialized countries are highly vulnerable to the effects of environmental degradation. The specific interests of children therefore, need to be taken fully into account in the participatory process on environment and development in order to safeguard the future sustainability of any actions taken to improve the environment.

To this end, governments should take measures to:

- a) Ensure the survival, protection and development of children, in accordance with the goals endorsed by the 1990 World Summit for Children;
- b) Ensure that the interests of children are taken fully into account in the participatory process for sustainable development and environmental

improvement.

For the governments to do these, they should take active steps to:

- a) Implement programmes for children designed to reach the child-related goals of the 1990s in the areas of environment and development, especially health, nutrition, education, literacy and poverty alleviation;
- b) Ratify the Convention on the Rights of the Child (General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989, annex), at the earliest moment and implement it by addressing the basic needs of youths and children;
- c) Promote primary environmental care activities that address the basic needs of communities, improve the environment for children at the household and community level and encourage the participation and empowerment of local populations, including women, youth, children and indigenous people, towards the objective of integrated community management of resources, especially in developing countries;
- d) Expand educational opportunities for children and youths, including education for environmental and developmental responsibility, with overriding attention to the education of the girl child;
- e) Mobilize communities through schools and local health centres so that children and their parents become effective focal points for sensitization of communities to environmental issues;
- f) Establish procedures to incorporate children's concerns into all relevant policies and strategies for environment and development at the local, regional and national levels, including those concerning allocation of and entitlement to natural resources, housing and recreation needs, and control of pollution and toxicity in both rural and urban areas.

2.1.6 THE NATURE OF HUMAN RIGHTS REPORTING

International Council on Human Rights Policy, ICHRP (2002) notes that human rights issues became more prominent in 1990s, both in public policy and public opinion. Several governments officially incorporated human rights principles in their policy frameworks, with legal implications. International organisations such as the United Nations agencies 'mainstreamed' human rights. The media also followed suit, reflecting this upsurge of interest by giving greater coverage to

human rights issues. Today, the mass media make reference to human rights in their coverage more often and more systematically than ever before.

As obtained in other areas of reporting, influence of this process is disproportionately concentrated in Northern countries, where the most powerful governments and the most influential media organisations tend to be located. This has remarkable consequences on perceptions of human rights reporting, on what stories editors and journalists prioritise and how those stories are written. In general, human rights is perceived in Northern countries, and by international media, as a matter not too relevant to them but to countries of the South who are less powerful. On the other hand, for journalists in the South countries, for whom human rights issues are less distant, international reporting of human rights is perceived often to be inadequate, superficial and subject to bias - precisely because Northern countries tend not to apply human rights principles to their own societies.

Though journalists have expanded coverage of human rights into new areas, many human rights issues, including child rights, are underreported by the media (ICHRP, 2002). Much attention is given to reporting human rights stories that focus on violations of rights during conflict while human rights issues that are less visible, or slow processes, are rarely covered. There was also the confusion of mistaking human rights largely for political and civil rights, and the importance of economic, social and cultural rights is largely ignored by the media in their coverage of economic issues, including the international economy, poverty, inequity and social and economic discrimination.

ICHRP (2002) further observes that the media do not explain and contextualise human rights information. Again, though data on human rights violations and on human rights standards are not lacking, the impact of this information on the public, as well as the desired change are not as great as might be expected. The media miss human rights stories because they do not pay attention to the specific legal and policy implications they have. It is unfortunate that that the media do not have adequate knowledge of human rights and its relevance to the material they are covering. The media frequently also miss the context of human rights stories. These inadequacies reduce the professional quality of reporting, and impede the

communication of information that is sometimes essential for understanding. This situation requires that the profession should identify or improve reporting and editorial standards in order to enhance the accuracy and consistency of human rights coverage.

2.1.7 THE EDITORIAL PROCESS

The pattern of reporting, editorial decision-making processes, and the organisation's editorial culture are the factors that determine the agenda in the newsroom; which in turn is influenced by various external and internal factors. The editorial process being itself a form of gate-keeping or filtering which involves identification and selection of what goes into the news content, and what materials are excluded, the question becomes which filters operate.

Reporting is essentially reactive. Journalists have the fundamental challenge of gathering and producing news on a daily (sometimes hourly) basis, and at the same time must think about it. The culture of breaking news undermines editorial and ethical reflection, which is crucial to human rights reporting. The selection of news is event-driven. The duty of journalists is not to redress wrongs but report news: professionally, they feel no duty to pursue an issue in which public interest is waning. More generally, the news-driven information culture focuses on political and military events rather than social and economic processes, and as a result ignores or under-reports many human rights issues (ICHRP, 2002). The media determine what is newsworthy where press freedom exists. It is a fundamental principle of a free society, and the essence of press freedom, that news organisations determine their agenda. Unfortunately, the media news agenda often differ from the priorities of human rights activists.

Another challenge with the editorial process is the barrage of information at the disposal of news producers. News on human rights have to compete for the attention of journalists and editors with vast amounts of other information. In most cases, the human rights angle is only one of several possible angles on a complex story. Journalists do not have a duty to privileged human rights information.

Besides, angling constrains coverage. Editors have to determine from which angle among several others a story should be constructed. So the editor asks three questions: what is the most important feature of the story? What else has been reported recently on the same subject? What is of interest to the organisation's audience? The response to these questions determines usually the choice of angle and it is one reason why human rights angles are rarely the lead. If a story is important enough to get into the news, it is usually (not always) for other reasons (ICHRP, 2002).

One crucial thing again is the relationship between reporter and editor.. Reporters and editors are both involved in the gate-keeping process, i.e. deciding what stories are identified and selected, and how they are covered. For various reasons, the relationship between reporters and editors has been changing. International news organisations now employ more stringers, and fewer foreign correspondents, while editors have more editorial power but also less time to monitor events. On the whole, 'journalists and editors were concerned about some of these trends: at the same time, they said that experienced reporters still influence the selection of stories and the quality of reporting' (ICHRP, 2002).

2.1.8 IMPEDIMENTS TO QUALITATIVE HUMAN RIGHTS REPORTING

Changes in technology and the modern editorial culture are two factors that influence coverage of human rights. Other factors also tend to cause the media to misrepresent or marginalise human rights issues that (by professional criteria) ought to be reported more fully or accurately. International Council on Human Rights Policy, ICHRP (2002) has explained the following factors as impediments to quality human rights reporting:

Bias: Independence is central to the values of journalism. The struggle with bias is unending. Political, organisational, cultural and linguistic biases all have an impact on what is selected for coverage and on how stories are written. Issues of bias also arise in that news organisations reflect the interests and perceptions of their audiences and of the countries in which they are based.

Instrumentalisation: Frequently, human rights are used for manipulation purposes or propaganda. Many governments abuse human rights and seek to hide the fact. Others have integrated human rights in their foreign policies. This is a positive development but as a result it is harder for observers to distinguish principle from national interest. The fact that human rights is both an international code of law, entailing specific legal obligations, and a discourse that appeals powerfully to the emotions, further complicates reporting.

Use of biased language: Precise and careful use of terms is particularly important. Journalists should not adopt language that has a bias. They should be critical of official use of terms ('war against terrorism') and be discriminate in the use of human rights terms that have specific legal significance ('genocide', 'war crime', 'proportionate force'). When the media are accused of being partisan, careless use of language is frequently a factor.

Selectivity: The media must select. A news outlet only has limited pages and limited broadcasting time. Though the media should not be expected to adopt the same news agenda as human rights organisations, they have a duty to report important news from around the world and explain its significance. They are open to the criticism that some news stories are given less time than they deserve or are not explained, while others are over-reported from laziness, habit or because images from Europe or the United States are easier to obtain.

Pollution: Information goes through the process of being reshaped, modified, massaged, received and interpreted many times over before it is delivered. Having a pure news is totally unrealistic. Nevertheless, it is particularly damaging when reports referring to human rights are too cryptic to make sense, are ambiguous, use terms with precise meanings imprecisely, draw false 'human rights' conclusions from the evidence, or introduce inappropriate moral or ethical assumptions. Many stories that refer to human rights are guilty of such distortions, often quite unintentionally.

Reductionism: Human rights coverage tends to be too simple, omitting the variety and complexity of human rights standards, and tend to be confined geographically

to certain areas of the world. The media also tend to report the same stories in a uniform manner which also reduces critical thinking.

Sensationalism and negativity: Human rights stories that make the newsroom cut tend to be grim and graphic. Failure (of states, of individuals, of societies) and despair are emphasised, often out of context or to the exclusion of more positive processes. Legitimate reports of bad news fail to explain causes; reports often stigmatise or stereotype local actors and societies as a result.

Absence of context: Human rights issues are rarely put in proper context. Key historical, social or economic background is often omitted. At a certain point, the failure to explain undermines the ability of reports to communicate information that is essential if audiences are to understand events. This can be particularly important in stories that have a human rights dimension.

2.1.9 MEDIA ROLE IN PROTECTION AND PROMOTION OF CHILD RIGHTS

While communication is central to development, the media of mass communication play active role in that process because of their efficiency in information spread. Melkote and Steeves (2001) noted that mass media play the role of a catalyst to bring about change in development process. Deane et al (2002) stipulate that the mass media are fundamental to development. The mass media enable people to learn about issues as well as make their voices heard. They can exert a powerful influence, for good or for ill. Free, independent press are important to ensure freedom of speech (guaranteed by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights), promote democracy, good governance, peace and human rights, combat poverty and crime, inform people about issues and enable them to participate in public debate.

Okigbo (1991) notes that the print media can contribute to development by disseminating truth and useful information, correlating the parts of society and sensitizing (or conscientizing) the people to the need for planned development and social change. Other important functions of the print media in development process are persuasion, motivation, providing learning materials and appropriate

development information for educated members of the society.

Media also shape public opinion and influence public policy. Graves (2007), citing Jaime Abello Banfi, notes that media are used to give voice to marginalized groups, such as women and ethnic and religious minorities, as well as to promote their rights. In Burundi, for example, the association BonSem produces a weekly radio show and publishes a newsletter designed to encourage discussion about how civil society can work for the political and economic inclusion of the marginalized Twa communities. Similarly, according to Panos London's 2007 report *At the Heart of Change*, information and the media that deliver it are powerful agents of change that can help reduce poverty and the debilitating effects of disease in the developing world. Sustainable development demands that people participate in the debates and decisions that affect their lives. They need to be able to receive information, but also to make their voices heard. The social impact of media includes improving the quality of education, informing the public about health threats and safe practices to avoid them, serving local communities by bringing attention to their needs, and in times of disaster, providing information and sources of assistance to people displaced from their homes (Graves, 2007).

Article 17 of the Convention on the rights of the child specifies the role the media should play in the promotion and protection of children's rights (UNICEF 2002:65-66). The Committee on the Rights of the Child (1996) believes that the media- both written and audio visual- are highly important in efforts to make reality the principles and standards of the Convention. The media can play a pivotal role in monitoring the actual implementation of the rights of the child. The media are powerful because they penetrate every segment of modern-day society and effectively influence how people view themselves, their neighbours, their communities and their world. Media representations are the primary source of information on social problems for many people (Hutson and Liddiard, 1994).

Maley (2000: 37) for instance, notes that: "In social and cultural matters, the various media provide the main platforms of debate, and their choices of subjects, participants and opinions shape the agenda and much of its content." The media play a significant role in forming and influencing people's attitudes and behaviour

(Brawley, 1995).

Goddard and Saunders (2001), draw attention to the essential role of the media in increasing the society's awareness of, and response to, child abuse and neglect. News and features could be used to report child abuse cases, research and intervention strategies. Such media attention to child abuse can positively influence public opinion, professional and political responses to the circumstances in which children and young people find themselves. Ericson, Baranek and Chan (1987:3) observe that journalists play a major role in constructing what is considered "deviant" in our society and, therefore, what is "normal". Journalists do not merely reflect the work of others who define deviance and attempt to control it, but are themselves in some ways agents of social control; they are "a kind of deviance defining elite" who articulates the "proper bounds to behaviour" in our society.

In addition to news stories, feature articles and investigative journalism, sporadic mass media education and prevention campaigns could be launched. These campaigns will broaden community's knowledge of child abuse and neglect, influence people's attitudes towards children and young people and change behaviours that contribute to, or precipitate the problem of child abuse and neglect in our communities.

Though it has been argued that complex attitudinal or behavioural change requires more direct forms of citizen contact and intervention, the media at least are effective in building citizen awareness of an issue (McDevitt, 1996; O'Keefe, and Reed, 1990; Saunders and Goddard, 2002; Reger, Wootan and Booth-Butterfield, 2000; Freimuth, Cole and Kirby 2001). Besides, mass media campaigns and coverage of the rights of children perform a significant role in placing the relevant issues on the public and political agenda. Lindsey (1994:163) also asserts that: "media has a central role in mediating information and forming public opinion. The media casts a n eye on events that few of us directly experience and renders remote happenings observable and meaningful".

Parajuli (2004) also notes that the media can bring forth children's issues by allowing children who have been working (in the worst form) as domestic servants,

on the streets, in factories and mines/quarries as well as those rehabilitated from any organization to participate in their media programme. He adds that children, being the future of a country, must be provided with education, socialized, motivated and equipped with all the basic necessities for their personality development. In this connection, the rights of the children like education, health, communication, participation, physical and moral support are some of the major components for their well-being. So, the media have to raise the awareness of children's situation to the concerned NGOs or government. In other words, mass media education and child rights campaigns present one means of breaking the cycles of suppression and denial.

Public attitudes and perceptions, however ill-informed, may profoundly influence political action (Walby 1996). In their analysis of the social construction of youth homelessness, Hutson and Liddiard (1994) argued that media representations are the prime source of information on social problems for many people. The media have been essential to the growth of societal awareness of child abuse, not so much from specific community education campaigns as through the news and features reporting on specific cases, research and intervention initiatives (Gough 1996). As Goddard notes:

... in Victoria, if not the rest of Australia, the media coverage of child abuse has played a significant part in the development of "solutions" to the problem. A major restructuring of child protection services, together with a large increase in resources, followed one extensive media campaign (Goddard and Carew 1993). Another intensive print media campaign following the death of an abused child referred to the police and protective services, led to the introduction of mandatory reporting in Victoria. Such campaigns lead to "policy development by press release" rather than responses developed through community consultation, research, and reflection (1996b:305).

However, Wilczynski and Sinclair (1996) provide what may be regarded as side effect of media coverage in their study of the portrayal of child maltreatment by the

Australian media. Over 1000 stories on child maltreatment, which appeared in a 'quality' newspaper and a 'tabloid' in New South Wales, were assessed as one method of discerning society's perception of children, child abuse and the child protection system. Important themes emanating from the findings include:

- the over-representation of stories based on individual court cases (in reality, most cases do not involve court action);
- the extensive coverage of child homicides and sexual assaults, while non-fatal physical abuse, emotional abuse or neglect received comparatively little coverage;
- the disproportionate representation of particular types of offenders (e.g. cases involving strangers rather than familial offenders, particularly in the context of sexual assault, abduction or home invasions);
- well-known or 'respectable' perpetrators;
- cases portraying the accused as a 'bad parent', in most cases, a 'bad mother';
- media focus on multiple victim and homicide cases.

Wilczynski and Sinclair (1996) concluded that the general media coverage was superficial and sensational, ignoring the broader social issues underpinning child maltreatment, while drawing on stereotypes of abuse and abusers. They noted that although 'the public is bombarded with articles about child abuse, they generally receive a very distorted and superficial perception of child abuse issues from the media' (Wilczynski & Sinclair 1996:4). This side effect of the media tendency to focus on the sensational aspects of child maltreatment is the influence that the media has on the day-to-day administration of policy (Scott 1995). The politicisation and publicisation of child protection leads to reactive policy responses by governments (Scott 1995). Child deaths or other indications of the failure of the child protection system to adequately protect children, often result in the allocation of more resources to child protection at the expense of primary and secondary prevention services (Scott 1995; Wilczynski, as quoted in Loane 1997). Paradoxically, a response focused on child protection at the expense of prevention may further damage the system's potential to prevent maltreatment and thus lead to more child tragedies (Scott 1995).

In response, Loane (1997) contends that without media attention, governments will not act to improve the protection of children. For example, the New South Wales Government set up a panel to provide specialist advice to child protection workers as a direct consequence of media coverage of the state of the child protection system and, in particular, 19 cases of fatal child abuse which had occurred in the previous two years. Loane (1997) agrees with the criticism of the media's coverage of child maltreatment issues as provided by Wilczynski and Sinclair (1996). Her response is to note that it is only by the production of stories that shock that a response can be gleaned from politicians or the public. She notes that the 'first rule for any journalist who wants to change something ... is to get a politician to react. That is achieved, more often than not, by hitting them between the eyes with a page one scandal (Tomison, n.d.).

The United Kingdom National Commission of Inquiry into the Prevention of Child Abuse (1996) recommended that the media should 'take a more balanced and sympathetic view of children'. In line with a belief in the importance of 'listening to children' the Commission felt that the media should take the views of children into account when presenting an issue in which children have some interest. The Commission recommended that the media should have an obligation to consider a child's best interest in stories in which children feature, and that the failure to do so would constitute grounds for a complaint to a relevant authority.

Hammarberg (1996) outlines the specific functions that the media can perform in realisation of the requirements of the Convention on the rights of the child:

To Monitor Abuses - and Progress

Hammarberg (1996) believes that if the media report violations of children's rights and monitor activities, such scrutiny would probably be more effective than the international procedure prescribed by the convention which requires the government itself to report to the monitoring committee on steps for implementation. However, the media could also draw from the official documentation in their reporting. The convention could be seen as the yardstick against which reality could be measured.

To Respect the Integrity of the Child

One of the important aspects of the Convention on the Rights of the Child is that it presents a truly modern attitude towards children themselves. It recognizes the vulnerability of children in certain circumstances but also their capacity and strength for development. A major emphasis in the convention is that each child is unique. All this can be undermined through negative stereotyping. Likewise, the media should be careful not to violate the integrity of individual children in their reporting on, for instance, crime and sexual abuse. The convention specifically protects the individual child from violations of his or her privacy, honour and reputation.

To Allow Children to Participate in the Media

One of the principles of the convention is that the views of children be heard and given due respect. This is also reflected in articles about freedom of expression, thought, conscience and religion. It is in the spirit of these provisions that children should not only be able to consume information material but also to participate themselves in the media. The idea is that children, in fact, should be able to express themselves and that their views be sought.

To Protect Children against Harmful Influences through the Media

While the convention requests access for children to the media, it also reflects concern about the risk of children being harmed by some reports and information material. The idea is that the integrity of the child should be respected in the reporting. Another article says that the state should encourage guidelines to protect children at large from injurious media output, for instance certain violent and pornographic materials.

2.1.10 PROMOTING CHILD RIGHTS THROUGH ADVOCACY JOURNALISM

The dictionary definition of advocacy journalism is the kind journalism in which the writer or publication expresses a subjective view or promotes a particular cause (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2000). This is the most common understanding of what advocacy journalism entails - the subjective coverage of an

issue. The definition expresses the most extreme view of advocacy journalism and does not acknowledge the more common values of good journalism such as fairness, accuracy, balanced reporting.

Advocacy Institute (2001) sees advocacy as the promotion of a position on an issue or cause in a single-minded manner, or tackling an issue by highlighting reporter's position in relation to it. It is therefore, easy to see how the idea of advocacy journalism as the subjective coverage of an issue came about. Advocacy, although promoting a certain position, does so with the aim of achieving certain goals, usually influencing 'public policy and resource allocation decisions within political, economic, and social systems and institutions - that directly affect people's lives'. In many cases, the aim is to provide a voice for those without one and to highlight certain issues to create social change and bring about improvement to people's lives (Highway Africa, n. d).

Positive advocacy journalism operates by the values of good journalism- fairness, balanced reporting, accuracy, and concerns with the public's interest. All the principles and values believed by society as the ideal for journalism, are in fact the values that drive the practice advocacy journalism. What usually differentiates advocacy journalism from mainstream journalism is the fact that it is undertaken for a cause, often one involved with human rights and social change. 'A journalist applies excellence of craft in fulfilling a societal mandate to tell the community about significant issues so people can make important decisions in their lives - important decisions about their children's schooling, about their personal safety, about the people they choose to hold office, about the choices their government makes, and on and on' (Steele, 1996).

While mainstream journalism and journalists often claim to be unbiased and independent of outside influence, the truth is usually very different. The decision to cover a particular story, the prominence it is given or the choice of an angle automatically results in bias. In this respect, advocacy journalists are unlike traditional journalists in their willingness to declare their position on an issue and pursue it in order to bring about change. By highlighting an issue in a responsible and fair manner, advocacy journalists hope to bring about social change. They are

often explicit in their pursuit of an issue, and use the values of good journalism to explore issues affecting their community or audience.

It is vital for policy and societal change that policy makers and the public understand the issues facing their communities today. This can only be done through quality information made available through the media who play a powerful role in shaping public dialogue. The aim of media advocacy and advocacy journalism is to increase the capacity of groups within society through in-depth and contextualized reporting, and in doing so to bring about social change (Highway Africa, n. d).

2.1.11 THE ROLE OF ADVOCACY JOURNALISM

In fulfilment of its task, Highway Africa (n. d) outlines the following functions that advocacy journalism performs in respect of the rights of children or any other development issue:

Information: Advocacy journalists aim to inform their community or audience about the issues affecting it. This means informing them in such a way that informed debate can be facilitated in order to solve problems. In order to inform community members adequately, advocacy journalists have to understand and communicate the underlying and often invisible systems behind the issue.

Alternative to the mainstream: The mainstream media cannot always be trusted by their audience and the community they serve, often because of their commercial interests. We've all heard stories about newspapers or magazines wanting to run a controversial story but being unable to because of pressure from advertisers, funders or owners. This pressure, along with the mainstream media's claims of objectivity, means that audiences are becoming less trusting of what they read and see. In some countries, journalists have grown so close to their government and corporate sources that their reporting resembles a conversation among powerful 'insiders' more than an effort to watch over government and business on behalf of citizens. This is less true of advocacy media and journalists who openly pursue an issue and who are more honest with their audience, bringing back an element of

trust. In addition, the fact that community members are offered an alternative to mainstream media provides them with more information and a different type of coverage.

Media consumers are often overwhelmed by the amount of information in the mainstream media; information which, in many cases, simply assaults the senses but does little else. Advocacy journalism goes beyond providing a surface layer of information, allowing audiences to debate and address issues being raised.

Focus on audience: Many of the issues and causes pursued by advocacy media are those which affect their audience and immediate community. Advocacy journalists have to have an ear to the ground at all times in order to have a sense of the issues being raised within their community so as to be able to address them. Advocacy journalism does not play to an individual's needs or service one sector of the community; instead it digs deeper into the needs of its audience and the issues affecting the daily lives of its community. Advocacy journalism highlights those issues in order to stimulate debate and ultimately bring about change for the better.

Aim for change: As discussed above, the end-goal of most advocacy journalism is to bring about some kind of change for the better, whether social, policy, economic etc. This is perhaps the most important role of advocacy journalism. By first highlighting the issue at hand, and then creating an awareness of it with major players (community members, policy makers, government members, civil society), the media are able to facilitate dialogue and debate in order to bring about positive change. Journalists should not simply report on the news; advocacy journalists have an obligation towards 'improving the community's capacity to act on the news, of caring for the quality of public dialogue, of helping people engage in a search for solutions, of showing the community how to grapple with - not only read about - its problems'(Lichtenberg, 1999). Change within the mindset of community members is one of the roles of advocacy journalism, as is change in the situation or environment of that community for the better. Another is policy change which positively affects community members.

Celebrate: Not all news is good news, but sometimes good news is good for news.

Advocacy journalists are distinct from the mainstream traditional journalists in their willingness to cover the positive outcomes and changes which have occurred. Community members who have followed a particular issue through a publication or broadcaster will continue to follow its progress in the hope of a positive outcome. They will continue to follow other stories after that knowing that positive news does get reported.

It follows then that advocacy journalism cannot be separated from development journalism. This involves gathering, packaging and disseminating development-oriented news and information (Adebayo, 1990:5). The writing, packaging and disseminating information on child rights is an advocacy duty, as well as development journalism because child rights is a development subject.

2.2 EMPIRICAL STUDIES

This section examines previous studies that are relevant to the current investigation.

2.2.1 The Representation of Young People in Irish National Newspapers

McNamara (n. d.) examined the representation of young people in Irish national dailies, using a non-random sampling of five daily and six weekly national newspapers through visual scanning, to identify story units and photographs dealing with young people.

His findings show that young people were under represented in Irish newspaper coverage. Explanations offered for this include the fact that journalists might consider young people to be unimportant in societal decision making processes, immature, ill-informed or indeed, not interested in current affairs. The findings also show that young people were portrayed negatively or associated with problems or difficulties. They were portrayed as needy, expensive, a burden or as problematic for adults. He also observed that the percentage of questions allegedly received from young people on so-called problems/personal advice pages was disproportionately high.

McNarama also points out that young people regularly appeared in stories as victims of sexual abuse, violence, accidents, diseases, medical negligence, abduction and were occasionally portrayed as freaks. In addition, young people were presented as pretty props for any of the following purposes: to make a photography cute; to create a dramatic or emotional effect in a photography; for political purposes; to show the horror of war; as shields to deflect criticism from celebrity parents seeking to garner public sympathy; to shock adults into behaving responsibly; to garner media coverage for parents who are fading celebrities; and to sell products.

2.2.2 Textual Abuse of Children in the Australian Print Media

Goddard and Saunders (2000) describe research examining the coverage of child abuse cases in three major Australian newspapers together with some analysis of UK newspapers. They cite examples from tabloid and broadsheet newspapers where children described as abused, neglected or at risk may lose their gender as the story unfolds. The child's gender is clearly identified and then lost. The pronoun "it" is substituted and, as a result, the child originally described as a boy or girl becomes an object. They label this phenomenon "gender slippage" and propose that it may be "an emotional, perhaps unconscious response, to unpleasant situations" (2000: 42- 43).

Textual analysis of some child sexual abuse reports led to the discovery that the words used to describe the abuse may seriously reduce the seriousness of the offences. Goddard and Saunders cite a story from the liberal UK broadsheet *The Guardian*: "Man jailed for sex with girl, 10". The headline clearly states the seriousness of the offences, but textual analysis by the researchers revealed that the serious and repeated sexual assault of the young girl has been represented in a way that reduces the impact of the crimes.

The sexual assault is called an "affair", the perpetrator and victim are described as having a "relationship", and the victim and perpetrator are even called "the couple" (Goddard and Saunders 2000: 43). The irony, of course, is that perpetrators of such

serious abuse often use this "lexical redescription" in order to rationalise their violence against, and sexual abuse of, children. Such language in the media reframes serious sexual abuse of a child by an adult male as a "consensual relationship between adults" (Goddard and Saunders 2000: 44).

2.2.3 Language use and attitude in the United Kingdom and Australian Newspapers

Alder and Polk (2001) observed the language used and attitude portrayed in the media coverage of three child murder cases- two in the United Kingdom and one in Australia. In 1968, 11 year old Mary Bell murdered two boys, aged three and four years in the UK. Twenty-five years later, in 1993, two ten year-old boys murdered two year-old Jamie Bulgar in the UK; and in Australia in 1998, a ten-year old boy was charged with drowning a six-year old playmate.

According to Alder and Polk (2001), while media commentary in the Mary Bell case expressed 'concern for the offender' who was perceived by many as the 'surviving child of this tragedy', the latter two cases predominantly yielded media commentary that described the child offenders as 'evil', callous and reckless.

The point in this study is that journalists willing to advocate for children face the challenge of counter balancing negative images or 'demonisation' of children and particularly, of adolescents in print, television and film. Negative images of children and young people in the media may place obstacles in the paths of attempts to prevent their abuse and neglect.

2.2.4 How U.S. Newspapers Portray Child Care

McManus and Dorfman (2002) examined how care for pre-school children (those under six years old) has been reported in a national sample of U.S. newspapers. It studied the entire child care universe, from private homes to child care centres and pre-schools. The study included all types of care providers -parents, relatives, nannies, licensed operators and others. It focused on finding out the frequency of coverage given to child care on business section of the newspapers, important issues covered, how child care issues are framed and people quoted by the press.

Using the Nexis database or the newspaper's own archives, every story about child care published in 1999 and 2000 in 11 newspapers was studied. The study used the nation's four largest papers: *The New York Times*, *USA Today*, the *Wall Street Journal*, the *Los Angeles Times* and seven regional papers.

The findings show that child care is all but invisible on the business pages of the sampled newspapers. An average of two stories per year about child care was reported in business section of the papers despite that child care is a \$5.4 billion-a-year industry in the state. Though child care stories appear with greater frequency elsewhere in the newspapers, they have infinitesimal presence compared with other issues that affect huge number of citizens.

The results further show that more than a third of the time, the topic featured on business pages concerned how child care expands the talent available in a growing economy by permitting both parents to advance their education or work. The second most popular category was advice for parents. In the rest of the paper, the topic was most often on politics or government actions. The second most frequent stories concerned the affordability and the availability of child care. The third was the subject of crime and tragedy associated with child care.

The predominant frame, that is, the key theme in the business section of the papers is that child care provided basic economic benefits to parents and business. It allows parents to work or study and helps business expand the talent available to employers, thus enlarging tax base and raising community wealth. Other business frames described the demand for quality child care outstripping supply; the notion that government ought to help ensure such care; and the idea that some parents will need help paying for child care.

Frames appearing elsewhere in the newspaper focused on a broader and more complex portrait of child care. These include:

- The demand for quality child care is growing much more rapidly than the supply.

- Government ought to play a role in making quality child care available to every parent who wants it.
- Child care benefits everyone: it permits parents to work and thus improve their standard of living.
- The safety of children in nursery schools and child care facilities is problematic.
- Violent and sexual incidents, occurring at centres or by their staff members, or even former staffers received prominent play.
- Quality child care makes a positive difference in children- improving IQ or at least readiness for kindergarten.
- Quality child care helps level the academic playing field for children of low income parents.
- Quality child care is also expensive, beyond the means of many Americans.

Finally, the study revealed that stories on child care are told primarily by parents, government officials, the provider themselves, advocates for child care, researchers/experts and politicians. Surprisingly k-12 teachers were rarely quoted and representatives of taxpayer groups were so sparse in the data. Social workers and clergymen were also infrequent quoted. Health professionals, lawyers, police, judges were somewhat most frequently quoted. Health professionals, young people 12 and under, police, lawyers and judges were somewhat more frequent sources, but still scarce. The law enforcement agents and court officials were typically quoted in crime and tragedy stories located at child care facilities, rather than as advocates or opponents of early childhood education.

2.2.5 Children's Health in the News

Woodruff (1997) conducted a study to identify the way most people define, respond to and understand social and health issues that the news environment portrays. Several articles that could be helpful for this study were thoroughly checked and eventually only 201 pieces (articles) that had comprehensive exploration of major children health issues were selected for analysis. The study covered three months, from January through to March 1997. The newspapers used included *Los Angeles Times*, *San Francisco Chronicle*, *Sacramento Bee*, *New York*

Times, USA Today and National Public Radio.

The analysis revealed that child safety is the most common subject, with 54 articles and 27% sample. Next to safety is the issue of violence (including abuse and neglect), 40 articles and 20% sample. Access to health care services had 26 pieces and 20% sample, basic health and baby care had 15 articles and 7% sample. Prenatal care recorded 6% and various diseases had 5%. All other subjects accounted for less than 5% of the sample.

The ages of the children covered was not specified in about 48% articles, one third of the pieces focused on children between the ages of 12 and below and 6% covered youth ages between ages 13 and above. Only 154 out of the 201 pieces had solutions to the issue, while the rest merely described the problems. The most common solution was that parents should protect their children by keeping them safe at all times, recognize bad habits and talk to them (children) about what is morally right or wrong.

The sources quoted were politicians and government representatives, quoted in nearly half (45%) of the pieces. Advocates spoke in about a third of the pieces, with health practitioners and parents each quoted in about a quarter of the pieces. Children and youths were quoted in 8% of the pieces.

Frames in news are constructed in order to enable the public to make sense out of many-sided and subtly shaded issues. Frames that emerged included children as innocent victims, with 108 pieces and 53% sample, parental responsibility had 74 pieces and 36% of the sample, children as political symbols had 35 pieces and 17% of the sample, power of technology, 34 pieces and 17% of the sample, bungling institutions had 24 pieces with 12% of the sample and finally Public health approach/primary prevention had 22 pieces and 11% of the sample. The percentages will sum up to more than hundred because more than one frame has been used in the same piece.

The debate over health insurance for the children constituted 15% of the sample and the arguments on the issue highlight several of the above frames. Advocates for

expanding health care access cite the "worsening crisis" of uninsured children; they are of the view that leaving children without health insurance is not good for the society. Pro-insurance advocates are of the view that paying for basic healthcare such as prenatal services is far cheaper than paying for emergency medical treatment such as neonatal intensive care services.

The opponents to the health insurance proposal cite a different kind of "bungling institution" in their argument is that most families cannot afford market-rate insurance because the 'big government' of federal regulations and tax laws have inflated health insurance costs, while forcing insurers to play Scrooge. The parental responsibility argument opponents note that "lack of insurance is no indicator of helplessness, since most parents make more than \$30,000 or more; they suggest that parents could afford insurance if they adjusted their priorities. One commentator, after noting that most uninsured children are in California, Texas, Florida and Arizona, concluded that the problem is not a national problem but a border phenomenon. This means that some children are more worthy of insurance than the others.

The news coverage however, was one sided because out of 30 pieces of the topic, only three were predominantly anti-insurance, while others touched on concerns about how to pay for the program but a large number was in favour of insuring children if at all it was possible. The researchers were disappointed that out of 3500 titles, only 201 pieces served as impetus for in-depth analysis. The study also revealed that the radio and newspaper provide the youths fewer opportunities than television does. It is observed that hearing directly from the young people could increase public opinion and serve as an additional fresh source for journalists. The stories also failed to illustrate the wide range of important policy decisions that could potentially help parents do a better job keeping their children healthy and safe.

Recommendations proffered is that the image of children as innocents, needing to be protected is a strong theme in journalism and children's advocates should capitalize on this theme in promoting stories that show what the government and other institutions could do to protect the children.

2.2.6 Newspapers coverage of Child Nutrition Policies

Woodruff (2001) studied how news covered child nutrition policies. They analysed representative sample of newspaper coverage of policy debates around childhood nutrition to determine the dominant subjects, spokespeople and argument being used on the issue. An online database for news coverage, Nexis database was searched. The newspapers used were Fresno Bee, Los Angeles Times, Sacramento Bee, San Diego Union Tribune and San Francisco Chronicle from July 1998 to August 2000. The findings showed that the newspaper with the highest report, sources of the stories, types of story, story placement, subjects of the stories, sources quoted in the stories and the key frames emanating from them.

The *Fresno Bee* had the most pieces on the subject, with 26% of the total. Woodruff also found that one quarter of the pieces in the sample were from wire services or first published in another newspaper. In general, smaller papers are more likely to use wire stories than bigger papers who can afford staff rather than depend on cheaper wire service. The findings also showed that childhood nutrition has strong newsworthiness as nearly one-third of the pieces appeared on the front page of their section and the papers also maintained the typical balance of news to opinion.

Considering the primary subjects represented in the sample, the largest single topic, accounting for 14% of the sample, was advice to parents, including subjects such as what to pick in kids' lunch boxes and how to please finicky eaters. Other subjects included food safety, milk pricing, new research on obesity, school breakfast programme, fast food in schools, etc. The study also revealed that advocates dominated the debate on childhood nutrition. Other dominant voices were those of students, youth and children, while contributions from politicians were relatively low.

The major themes that emerged in the coverage included making appealing, affordable, convenient alternatives available; obesity as public health epidemic, the link between nutrition and learning and investment in children for the future,

among other themes. The study also tried to discover factors responsible for child obesity and other nutritional problems. These included corruption and ineptness in government, culture that encourages media usage instead of outdoor plays, prevalence of fast food outlets and soda availability, poor attention from parents on children's nutrition, food advertising, etc.

These findings suggest some interesting characteristics in the news coverage of childhood nutrition issues. First, while there was not much news on nutrition policies, what existed was substantive and well placed. News coverage included in-depth pieces on fast food in schools, school breakfast programs, objections to pouring contracts, pediatricians' recommendations on children's media usage, and other topics. Many of these pieces were a direct result of public health professionals' efforts to attract news attention to these critical issues.

Second, despite advocates' good work on gaining access to the news for some childhood nutrition stories, an individual responsibility frame dominated. The author expressed surprise to find that advice to parents was the single largest subject in the sample. Finally, it appeared that nutrition advocates were themselves helping to reinforce the individual oriented response to nutrition problems. Many news pieces quoted advocates describing the complex environmental factors that contributed to childhood obesity, such as pervasive marketing of fast foods and lack of availability of healthy options in many neighbourhoods. Yet when it came to describing solutions, it seems that most suggestions are oriented to what individual children and parents could do to be healthier. Policies such as improving school lunch options or simplifying food labelling are rarely discussed, let alone more controversial approaches such as regulating food advertising aimed at children or charging a "fat tax" based on nutrient values of packaged foods.

These findings have significant implications for what advocates and journalists must do to paint the picture of environmental changes that could improve nutrition and health for all children. If reporters are to convey the public health approach to nutrition and public will is to be galvanized to promote such changes, advocates must become better spokespeople for the policies that can make a difference for all

children. It was recommended that advocates should work to pitch local stories to reporters or connect national stories to the local scene. They should also recruit and prepare new spokespeople for the issue. This is because advocates can do more to stimulate politicians' interest in and leadership on policy issues. The journalists also should ask better questions and tell more complete stories about childhood nutrition so as to make policy makers understand the importance of their role, or what they can do to arrest the rise in childhood obesity,

2.2.7 How the Kenyan media cover the children's rights issues: A content analysis

Nwankwo and Okwemba (2002) set out to establish how the media cover children's issues, with a view to knowing whether it helps to expand or constrain the space and understanding of children's rights. This study utilized both the qualitative and quantitative techniques of research. Content analysis was used to examine how the media cover and portray children's issues and how this contributes to the sensitisation of the public on the convention on the rights of the child. Content analysis was applied to all articles that were captured in the *Daily Nation*, *the East African Standard*, and *the Kenya Times*.

The number of editions in the chosen years- June 2000 to June 2002, totalled 840. Being a huge number, random and systematic sampling were used to select the desired sample. The 840 editions were sampled to get the 420 editions. Random sampling was used to choose the first edition, followed by systematic sampling. The desired dates of the editions were recorded, and systematic sampling applied. This method of sampling the dailies yielded the 420 editions. In the study design, the unit of analysis was the article, which included features, news items, analyses and commentaries, letters to the editor, and the editorial. The content of these articles were examined in terms of frequency, origin of the news, space allocated, reference to CRC, pro-active and re-active, and placement of the article.

Children's rights issues receive lukewarm reception in the media as compared to other news. Children's issues are not in most cases as sensational as compared to other political issues, making them to be shunned by the media. Hence, the media tend to report children's issues only when they are sensational. For instance, out of

the 420 articles on various child rights, 157 were on child violence and Abuse. Even when they do this, there is little effort to emphasise and re-emphasize the rights of the child. The poor reportage of children's issues, as manifested in the few cross- referencing to the CRC, indicates the media's failure to educate the public on children's rights and influence policies affecting children negatively.

One of the reasons why the media fail to educate their readers on CRC and other legislations could be that the writers are not themselves sensitised. There is need therefore, for deliberate efforts to find ways of educating the reporters on these provisions and why they should be highlighted in children stories. This is so because if the media are not able or ready to educate and inform the readers on child rights issues, then child abuses and deprivation of their other rights will continue. Also, the findings indicate that children's right to speak for themselves is suppressed by the very instrument expected to give them space. It amounts to double tragedy for them. Media houses should develop with editorial policies that emphasise the need for story to have children voices. They offered the following recommendations:

- The need for the newspapers to establish special columns addressing children's issues from the children's perspective.
- The need to train reporters to be more pro-active than reactive as well as targeting children voices when reporting what affects them.
- Poor reporting on children's issues needs to be changed through allowing specialisation of those reporting on children's issues. Above all, there is need to change the attitude of the media towards children, if the above recommendations are to be implemented fully.
- Newspapers can set aside even an eighth of a page everyday to run at least one article of the CRC or other legislations as captured in the Children Act. These would enlighten the public, which do not have access to such information. Media houses in collaboration with child rights organisations need to sensitize reporter on existing child rights legislations and declarations, and how to report them.

2.2.8 Through children's eyes- the children's media mentoring project

Ridgard (n.d.) reported the Children's Media Mentoring Project (CMMP), an ongoing project which started in South Africa in 2003. It was implemented by Media Monitoring Project (MMP), on behalf of Save the Children Sweden (SCS), and in partnership with the Institute for the Advancement of Journalism (IAJ). The broad aims of the project were to raise awareness on children's issues and improve reporting on children in the South African media. It was a unique project in that, in addition to children's participation being central, a group of journalists, who remained in the newsroom throughout the process, were selected as media mentors with the view to help them become 'child friendly' journalists. Through a number of training sessions and interactions with a group of schoolchildren, they were provided with specialist knowledge, skills and experience on children's issues and children's participation in the news media. In 2006, the CMMP selected and worked with a group of nine journalists. In addition, they trained 60 schoolchildren from different schools in and around Johannesburg as child monitors, in order to build their critical thinking and reading skills and have them contribute to discussions around children's representation and participation in the media. The recommendations of the study include:

- The need for journalists to include voices and opinions of children to make stories stronger, believable and authentic, since stories about children are considerably weaker when they do not include the voices of children;
- Names should always be changed and identities unrevealed to protect vulnerable children;
- Sometimes it is clear to audiences that children have not been asked permission for their photographs to be taken or published. Children should always be consulted about if, and how, they would like to be portrayed;
- Gender sensitivity needs to be incorporated into reporting on children. The 'girls as victims' / 'boys as heroes' stereotype should be avoided;
- Just because children are often vulnerable does not mean that they are always helpless victims. They are also strong and resilient. A balance needs to be struck between reporting their vulnerability and not stereotyping them in the 'victim' role;
- Photographs that are aesthetic and ethical can be shot - the one does not preclude the other. In fact, it seems that the challenge to take images

sensitively enhances the creativity of the shot;

- Generic photographs from the archive should be avoided. They raise ethical issues around informed consent for the particular story they accompany;
- A good and ethical story or photograph should always be child-centred and in the best interests of the child;
- In order to develop a child-friendly approach, journalists should familiarise themselves with the law, ethics and rights around reporting on children.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for this study is based on Development Media, Social Responsibility and the Agenda Setting theories.

2.3.1 DEVELOPMENT MEDIA THEORY

Development media theory advocates media support for an existing political regime and its efforts to bring about national economic development (Baran and Davis 2003:117). It believes that by supporting government's development efforts, media aid society at large. This theory argues that until a nation is well established and its economic development well-underway, media must be supportive rather than critical of government.

Folarin (2002), citing McQuail, lists the tenets of development media theory:

- Media must accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with nationally established policy.
- Freedom of the media should be open to economic priorities and development needs of the society.
- Media should give priority in their content to the national culture and language(s).
- Media should give priority in news and information to links with other developing countries, which are close geographically, culturally or politically.
- Journalists and other media workers have responsibilities as well as freedoms in their information gathering and dissemination tasks.
- In the interest of development ends the state has the right to intervene in, or

restrict, media operation; and devices of censorship, subsidy and direct control can be justified.

The relevance of this theory to the current study lies in its tenets requiring media to accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with nationally established policy. The theory underscores the role that the media can play in development and thus requires them to be active in the process. As many nations are signatory to the convention on the Rights of the Child, it is expected, by the principles of this theory, that the media should support the nations in fulfilling their obligations as required by Convention.

2.3.2 SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY THEORY

The idea that emerged from the Hutchins Commission report of 1947 formed what is known today as the Social Responsibility theory of the press (Nerone, 2002). The hub of the Social Responsibility theory is that the media should be used for the public good. It emphasized the need for an independent press that scrutinizes other social institutions and provides objective, accurate news reports. Though it canvasses for the freedom of the press, such freedom, places obligation on the press; it should be responsible to society for carrying out certain essential functions of mass communication in contemporary society (McQuail, 1987).

It calls on the media to be responsible for fostering productive and creative "Great Communities" (Baran and Davis, 2003:109), and suggests that media should do this by prioritizing cultural pluralism- by becoming the voice of all the people - not just elite groups or groups that had dominated national, regional or local culture in the past. It also points out that the media, in carrying out their obligations, must adhere to the highest ethical standards.

McQuail (1987: 16) summarized the basic principles of Social Responsibility Theory as follows:

- To serve the political system by making information, discussion and consideration of public affairs generally accessible.
- To inform the public to enable it to take self-determined action.

- To protect the rights of the individual by acting as a watchdog over the government.
- To serve the economic system; for instance by bringing together buyers and sellers through the medium of advertising.
- To provide "good" entertainment, whatever "good" may mean in the culture at any point in time.
- To preserve financial autonomy in order not to become dependent on special interests and influences.

2.3.3 AGENDA-SETTING THEORY

Agenda setting refers to the operation of the media which results in prioritisation of the issues that arise and engage the attention of the society. Thereby the issues focused upon by the media become the issues that the public accepts as important for attention and discussion (McQuail, 2005:512). In other words, it is the process whereby the news media lead the public in assigning relative importance to various public issues (Zhu and Blood, 1997). The media agenda influences public agenda not by saying 'this issue is important' in an overt way but by giving more space and time to that issue and by giving it more prominent space and time.

Cohen's (1963:13) study of foreign policy has been a stimulant of the agenda setting research. Cohen notes that the press:

may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about. And it follows from this that the world looks different to different people, depending not only on their personal interests, but also on the map that is drawn for them by the writers, editors and publishers of the papers they read.

McCombs and Shaw's (1972) investigation lends great credence to the agenda setting hypothesis. They did a content analysis of newspapers and television coverage of the 1968 American presidential election. The analysis considered the time and space accorded to various issues and served as a representative of media agenda. McCombs and Shaw then interviewed 100 undecided voters in the Chapel

Hill, North Carolina area and asked them what issues they believed were most important. This public opinion polling served as representation of the public agenda. In looking at the relationships between the two variables (that is, media agenda and public agenda), McCombs and Shaw found an incredible correlation. The public agenda was a virtual reflection of the media agenda.

Severin and Tankard (1997) define this agenda setting process as the media's capability, through repeated news coverage, of raising the importance of an issue in the public's mind. It is a causal hypothesis suggesting that media content has an influence on the public perception of the importance of issues. They argue that the media can be used to influence policies and the way people think. Moreover, since the treatment of the children's rights by individuals hinges heavily on their attitudes and behaviour, the media, through the agenda setting process, can immensely change them into positive attributes towards the children's rights.

As contained in Folarin (2005), the elements involved in agenda setting include:

- The quantity or frequency of reporting by the media.
- Prominence given to the reporting.
- The degree of the conflict generated in the reports.
- Cumulative media-specific effects over time.

Lang and Lang (1983) expanded further on agenda setting by introducing agenda building which they break into six steps:

1. The press highlights some events or activities and makes them stand out.
2. Different kinds of issues require different kinds and amounts of news coverage to gain attention.
3. The events and activities in the focus of attention must be 'framed', or given a field of meanings within which they can be understood.
4. The language used by the media can affect perception of the importance of an issue.

5. The media link the activities or events that have become the focus of attention to secondary symbols whose location on the political landscape is easily recognised.
6. Agenda building is accelerated when well-known and credible individuals begin to speak out on an issue.

The concept of agenda building introduced here suggests that the process of putting an issue on the public's agenda takes time and goes through several stages. It suggests that the media frame an issue and the code word they use to describe it can have an impact; and that the role of well-known individuals commenting on the issue can be an important one. Agenda setting concept thus raises important questions of responsibility for the journalists. The labels that journalists apply to events can have an important influence on whether the public pays attention to the issues connected with the event (Severin and Tankard, 1997).

The agenda setting theory thus provides the basis for examining how the press has been able to set agenda for the rights of children by assigning relative importance to them through frequency of reporting, the prominence given to such reports and the conflict generated in them. The theory thus seemed to explain this study better than the previous two. This is because the media would require setting agenda for specific issues before they can be development-oriented and socially responsible. Besides, the execution of this study is in line with the principles contained in agenda-setting theory as explained above. This study examined the frequency of reports on child rights, the prominence, people engaged or quoted and specific themes reported among other variables usually considered when studying media agenda-setting process.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHOD OF RESEARCH

This chapter explains the procedure for collection and analysis of data that provided answers to the research questions raised in the study.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The method adopted in this study is content analysis research design. Content analysis, according to Kerlinger (1986), is a method of studying and analysing communication in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003:141). It is a quantitative research method that integrates both data collection method and analytical technique to measure the occurrence of some identifiable element in a complete text or set of messages (Keyton, 2001; Carney, 1972; Thomas, 1994; Adams and Shriebman, 1978; Krippendorff, 1980; Carley, 1990; Budd, Thorp and Donohew, 1967; Berelson, 1971).

Content analysis offers several advantages (Colorado State University, CSU, 1993). In particular, content analysis:

- looks directly at communication via texts or transcripts, and hence gets at the central aspect of social interaction
- can allow for both quantitative and qualitative operations
- can provide valuable historical/cultural insights over time through analysis of texts.
- allows a closeness to text which can alternate between specific categories and relationships and also statistically analyzes the coded form of the text
- can be used to interpret texts for purposes such as the development of expert systems (since knowledge and rules can both be coded in terms of

explicit statements about the relationships among concepts)

- is an unobtrusive means of analyzing interactions
- provides insight into complex models of human thought and language use.

Through content analysis, we examined the extent to which the selected newspapers give attention to child issues and the nature of such coverage.

3.2 STUDY POPULATION

The population for this study comprised all newspapers published in Nigeria and Ghana between 1999 and 2003. With the use of stratification, the newspapers were separated along the lines of ownership- those owned by the government and those that are privately-owned. Furthermore, between these two categories, only the national newspapers were considered appropriate for selection because this is a comparative study of two nations. Consequently, from the Nigerian national dailies, *Daily Times* was the only government newspaper during the period under study; it thus constituted the selected sample. *The Guardian* was randomly selected (through a simple random technique) from the list of the privately-owned national newspapers. Ghana is said to have 11 national newspapers, but only *Daily Graphic*- a government-owned newspaper is truly national (Kafewo, 2006), and thus constituted the sample. *Daily Guide* is included in the sample because it is a leading privately-owned newspaper and the only national daily paper giving the *Graphic* some form of competition. Therefore, *Daily Times* and *The Guardian* were selected from the Nigerian newspapers while *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide* were taken from Ghanaian newspapers.

As earlier mentioned, two factors informed the choice of the years of investigation- - 1999 to 2003. One, it was due to landmark events that took place during this period in respect of the child and the media. The Ghanaian Parliament had passed the children's Act as at 1998. At the international plane, the year 1999 saw the formation of the Oslo Challenge, which tasks the media to play a crucial role in child rights promotion; and the conduct of the international conference on Education for the Media and the Digital Age, held in Vienna, Austria. In 2000, 'Summit 2000: Children, Youth and the Media-Beyond the Millennium', took place

in Toronto, Canada; as well as the African Regional Summit on Media for Children which was held in Abuja, Nigeria. This was followed by the 3rd World Summit on Media for Children in 2001 which took place in Thessaloniki, Greece. In the same 2001, UNICEF launched the project MAGIC- a compilation of Media Actions and Good Ideas by, with and for Children, a follow-up to the Oslo Challenge. And in 2003, Nigeria's National Assembly passed the Child Rights Act, thus giving legal backing to the rights of Nigerian children.

The second factor that informed the choice of that period is the nature of this study. One of the objectives we set out to achieve in this study was to examine how government-owned newspapers covered child rights issues in comparison with privately-owned newspapers. To make for a fair representation of the newspapers in the countries, it was needful to draw from both government-owned and privately owned newspapers. While this was easy with Ghanaian newspapers, Nigeria had a government-owned national newspaper only till August 2004 when *Daily Times*, the only government-owned national newspaper was privatised. We were thus compelled to stick to that period so as to ensure the use of a government-owned national newspaper from the Nigerian newspapers.

3.3 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

A total of 1200 issues of the newspapers constituted the sample size. Through the use of simple random sampling, 5 issues were selected in every month for the five year period. Thus, 300 issues per newspaper yielded 1200 for the four selected newspapers.

3.4 INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION

Coding sheets developed for the study constituted the instrument for data collection.

The coding sheets were used to organise the data from the sample of the newspapers selected. Copies of the newspapers were obtained from the libraries of the various newspaper organisations. This required a journey to Ghana to use the selected Ghanaian newspapers' libraries.

3.5 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

Two categories of unit of analysis were employed in this study. The first was made up of articles or stories on child issues in the form of news, features, opinions, editorials, pictures or letters to the editor. The second unit of analysis included specific words, phrases and sentences in the stories which were analysed for textual abuse.

36 CONTENT CATEGORIES

The units of analysis were examined under the following categories: *Freedom of expression*: Right of the child to voice his/her opinion publicly without fear of censorship or punishment.

Child Abduction: Kidnapping of a child by an older person.

Child armed conflict: the use of children in war.

Natural disaster: an event that has an effect on children resulting from the natural process in the environment.

Child education: formal education in school situation.

Epidemic: an outbreak of a disease in a locale.

Child health: physical, mental and social well being of the child.

Trafficking: includes recruiting, harbouring, obtaining, and transporting persons by use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjecting them to involuntary acts, such as commercial sexual exploitation.

Child labour: is the term for the employment of children with little or no compensation or consideration for their personal development, safety, health, and future prospects.

Child neglect: failure to provide for the child's basic needs, be they physical, educational or emotional.

Physical Abuse: The inflicting of physical injury upon a child.

Child abuse: assault of a minor.

The newspapers were examined for:

- Frequency of coverage: Number of occurrences of child issues
- Types of editorial matter (genres): Be it news, features, opinions or editorials
- Prominence - using the front-page items as most prominent, back page as

prominent and inside pages items as least prominent.

- Source of report- whether it is locally sourced or from wire services.
- Child abuse exposure- frequency of reports on child abuse cases.
- Specific child rights issue - This refers to the issues reported, be they of child health, education, trafficking, abduction, sexual exploitation, epidemic and natural disaster affecting the child, armed conflict, child labour, freedom of expression, access to information and political participation
- Direction of Coverage- these are broadly categorised into two:
 1. Others to Child: - these are stories that report events about children and acts done to children. They were grouped as favourable, unfavourable or neutral.
 - Favourable stories are events or actions that are pro-children or beneficial to children.
 - Unfavourable stories comprise child abuse stories and other stories which may not constitute child abuse but are not in favour of children; like stories on epidemic and natural disasters that affected children.
 - Neutral stories are those that are neither favourable nor unfavourable to children.
 2. Child to Others: -these are stories or articles that report the action of children themselves. They were examined and categorized as positive, negative or neutral.
- Primary subjects: included the issues or themes that the stories focused on.
- People quoted: individuals that were contacted as news sources in the reports.

3.7 INTERCODER RELIABILITY

Intercoder reliability refers to levels of agreement among independent coders who code the same content using the same coding instrument (Wimmer and Dominick 2003). High agreement among coders establishes the appropriateness of coding instructions, category definitions and unit of analysis.

The guidelines provided by Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2005) were

followed in arriving at the intercoder level of agreement in this study. Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2005) suggested a minimum of 10% to be used for Intercoder reliability. We used a large subset of the full sample (25%) to determine the intercoder agreement in this study. Two coders, including the researcher, were involved.

Though there are several methods available for calculating intercoder reliability, Cohen's Kappa reliability (*k*) test method was adopted. The choice of Cohen's Kappa was informed by its appropriateness to the current study. It is the only method available on SPSS (the only software that the researcher has access to) for calculating intercoder reliability for content analysis. Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2005) strictly warn against the use of other methods available on SPSS like percentage agreement, Cronbach's alpha, Pearson's and other correlation-based indices that standardize coder values because they only measure covariation and are not appropriate for reliability in content analysis. Thus, while these indices may be used as a measure of reliability in other contexts, reliability in content analysis requires an assessment of intercoder agreement rather than covariation.

Eight major variables were examined for intercoder reliability; they included child right issues, genres, prominence, source of report, exposure of abuse, nature of reports, primary subjects and people quoted in the reports. The values of Intercoder agreement were interpreted using Landis and Koch (1977) interpretation guidance. Each variable was calculated and interpreted appropriately for clarity following Landis and Koch (1977) interpretation guidance presented below:

Interpretation Guidance for Strength of Agreement (Landis and Koch, 1977)

<i>K</i>	Interpretation
Kappa Co-efficient	Strength of Agreement
0<	No agreement
0.0 - 0.19	Poor agreement
0.20 - 0.39	Fair agreement
0.40 - 0.59	Moderate agreement
0.60 - 0.79	Substantial agreement
0.80 - 1.00	Almost perfect agreement

The values and interpretation of the eight variables examined are presented as follows:

- Child rights issues- 0.80, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.
- Genres- 0.83, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.
- Prominence- 0.91, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.
- Source- 0.90, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.
- Exposure of abuse- 0.90, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.
- Direction of coverage- 0.84, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.
- Primary Subjects- 0.82, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.
- People quoted- 0.73, indicating that there is substantial agreement between the two ratings.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analysed using quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis. The quantitative analysis used percentages, chi square goodness fit and log-linear analysis. Percentaging helps to reveal the presence of association among variables. Chi square was employed because the data gathered are nominal ones; it is thus appropriate to determine if differences among categories identified are statistically significant (Alarape, 2005). Log-linear analysis is an extension of chi square. It is a technique for modelling relationships between several categorical variables (Fielding and Gilbert, 2000). In other words, log-linear analysis is a more sophisticated statistical instrument for simultaneously testing three or more nominal level variables (kerlinger, 1986). The primary data were presented in tables. The qualitative analysis was used to analyse the texts in order to find out if there is evidence of textual abuse in the language of the newspapers.

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CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In this section, the tables for the data collected were first presented followed by the analysis. The discussion of the findings, based on the inferences drawn from the analysis, form the second part of this section. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for the analysis of the data. The quantitative analysis used percentages and chi square goodness fit. Chi square was employed to determine if significant differences exist among variables. The qualitative analysis examined textual abuse in the language of the newspapers.

4.1 DATA ANALYSIS

RESEARCH QUESTION 1: What is the extent of the coverage given to reporting child rights issues by the selected Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers in terms of frequency, level of prominence and types of journalistic genres used?

Table 4.1: Coverage of children's issues by the selected newspapers

Newspapers	Frequency	Percentages
<i>The Guardian</i>	96	21.4
<i>Daily Times</i>	97	21.7
<i>Daily Graphic</i>	170	37.9
<i>Daily Guide</i>	85	19
Total	448	100

Table 4.1 shows the coverage given to child right issues by the four newspapers. A total of 448 stories were covered over the five-year period of study. *The Guardian* had 21.4% of the stories, *Daily Times* had 21.7%; *Daily Graphic* had 37.9%, while the *Daily Guide* had 19%. *Daily Graphic* reported child right issues more than the three other newspapers.

Table 4.2: Journalistic genres adopted in coverage of child rights

Journalistic Genres	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
News	56 (58.3%)	43 (44.4%)	140 (82.3%)	75 (88.2%)
Features	19 (19.8%)	23 (23.7%)	17 (10%)	5 (5.9%)
Editorial	4 (4.2%)	4 (4.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Opinion	3 (3.1%)	7 (7.2%)	12 (7.1%)	0 (0%)
Picture	14 (14.6%)	20 (20.6%)	1 (0.6%)	5 (5.9%)
Total	96 (100%)	97 (100%)	170 (100%)	85 (100%)

Table 4.2 shows that the four newspapers reported children mostly, with straight news. The *Guardian* devoted 58.3% of its total stories to straight news, 19.8% to feature articles, followed by pictures with 14.6%. Editorials and opinion/letters followed with 4.2% and 3.1% respectively. *Daily Times* devoted 44.4% of its stories to straight news, 23.7% to Feature articles and 20.6% to pictures. Opinion followed, with 3.1%, and editorial with 4.2%. Straight News also dominated *Daily Graphic* reports, with 82.3%, followed by features with 10% and opinion with 7.1%. Pictures took 0.6% of graphic stories. Similarly, news dominated *Daily Guide* stories with 88.6%. Feature articles and pictures had 5.9% each, *Daily Guide* had no editorial, opinion or letters.

Table 4.3: Prominence of coverage by the newspapers

Story Placement	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Front Page Lead	6 (6.3%)	8 (8.2%)	7 (4.1%)	6 (7.1%)
Front Page Minor	5 (5.2%)	3 (3.1%)	7 (4.1%)	9 (10.5%)
Back Page Lead	2 (2.1%)	4 (4.1%)	4 (2.4%)	0 (0%)
Back Page Minor	5 (5.2%)	2 (2.1%)	4 (2.4%)	2 (2.4%)
Inside Page Lead	40 (41.6%)	57 (58.8%)	50 (29.4%)	24 (28.2%)
Inside Page Minor	38 (39.6%)	23 (23.7%)	98 (57.6%)	44 (51.8%)
Total	96 (100%)	97 (100%)	170 (100%)	85 (100%)

Table 4.3 reveals that most stories on child rights are found inside the pages of all the selected newspapers. *The Guardian* published 81.2% of all its stories on children (for both lead and minor stories) in the inside pages of the papers. The remaining 18.8% were found on the front and back pages. *Daily Times* had 58.8% inside page lead stories, followed by 23.7% inside page minor stories, 8.2% as front page lead and 3.1% as front page minor. Stories on the back page (lead and minor stories) were 4.1% and 2.1% respectively.

Daily Graphic also published 57.6% stories as inside page minor and 29.4% as inside page lead. Front page lead and minor stories had 4.1% each. The back page lead and minor stories were also 2.4% each. Inside page minor stories dominated the *Daily Guide's* coverage of child rights, with 51.8%, followed by inside page lead stories, with 28.2%. *Daily Guide* also had 7.1% and 10.5% as front page lead and front page minor stories respectively. The stories on the back page minor were 2.4%, and none on the back page lead.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: Do Nigerian newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than Ghanaian newspapers?

Table 4.4: Distribution of child rights coverage by country

Countries	Frequency	Percentage
Nigerian Newspapers	193	43.1
Ghanaian Newspapers	255	56.9
Total	448	100

The summation of reports of the newspapers, based on country of publication, shows that Ghanaian newspapers gave greater coverage to child rights issues with 56.9% than Nigerian newspapers with 43.1%.

Table 4.5: Annual reportage of child rights issues by the newspapers

Newspapers	YEAR					
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	Total
<i>The Guardian</i>	16 (16.7%)	16 (16.7%)	20 (20.8%)	18 (18.8%)	26 (27%)	100 n=96
<i>Daily Times</i>	16(16.7%)	18 (18.6%)	19 (19.6%)	23 (23.7%)	21(21.6%)	100 n=97
<i>Daily Graphic</i>	39 (23%)	31 (18.2%)	31 (18.2%)	38 (22.4%)	31 (18.2%)	100 n=170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	26 (30.6%)	22 (25.9%)	12 (14.1%)	17 (20%)	8 (9.4%)	100 n=85
Total	97 (21.7%)	87 (19.4%)	82 (18.3%)	96 (21.4%)	86 (19.3%)	100 N=448

Table 4.5 shows the trend of coverage given to child rights issues by the newspapers across the five-year period of study. It was in 2003 that *the Guardian* newspaper gave the highest coverage, with 27%, followed by 20.8% in 2001. The year 1999 and 2000 had 16.7% each and the least coverage was given in 2002, with 18.8%. *Daily Times* had a steady increase in reportage of child rights issues from 16.5% (1999), 18.6% (2000), 19.6% (2001) and came to the peak in 2002, with

23.7%. It later dropped to 21.6 in 2003.

The reverse seemed to be the situation with Ghanaian newspapers. *Daily Graphic* had its highest coverage in 1999, with 23%; followed by 22.4% in 2002. The rest of the years (2000, 2001 and 2003), had 18.2% each. *Daily Guide* recorded its highest coverage in 1999, with 30%, followed by a steady decrease from 2000 (25.9%), 2001 (14.1%), 2002 (20%) and 2003 (9.4%).

RESEARCH QUESTION 3: Do government-owned newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than privately-owned newspapers?

Table 4.6: Distribution of child rights coverage by ownership

Newspapers	Frequency	Percentage
Government-owned papers	267	60
Privately owned papers	181	40
Total	448	100

As seen in Table 4.6, 60 per cent of the stories on child rights are published by government-owned newspapers, while private-owned newspapers had 40 per cent. It then means that government-owned newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than private owned newspapers

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: What are the specifics and nature of child right issues covered by the selected newspapers?

Table 4.7: Specific child rights issues reported in the newspapers

Child Rights Issues	Newspapers				TOTAL Percentage
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>	
Health	12 (12.5%)	15 (15.5)	13 (7.6%)	2 (2.4%)	42 (9.4%)
Education	11 (11.5%)	8 (8.2%)	56 (33%)	4 (4.7%)	79 (17.6%)
Abduction	2 (2.1%)	3 (3.1%)	5 (2.9%)	1 (1.2%)	11 (2.5%)
Sexual abuse	3 (3.1%)	6 (6.2%)	5 (2.9%)	34 (40%)	48 (11%)
Epidemics and natural disaster	4 (4.2%)	5 (5.2%)	7 (4.1%)	3 (3.5%)	19 (4%)
Armed Conflict	8 (8.3%)	2 (2.1%)	4 (2.4%)	2 (2.4%)	16 (3.6%)
Child Labour	2 (2.1%)	3 (3.1%)	5 (2.9%)	2 (2.4%)	12 (2.7%)
Freedom of Expression/ ENT	16 (16.6%)	12 (12.3%)	2 (1.2%)	2 (2.4%)	32 (7.1%)
Trafficking	5 (5.2%)	3 (3.1%)	3 (1.8%)	3 (3.5%)	14 (3.1%)
Safety/security	3 (3.1%)	3 (3.1%)	3 (1.8%)	9 (10.5%)	18 (4%)
Child Neglect	7 (7.3%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.6%)	1 (1.2%)	9 (2%)
General	23 (24%)	37 (38.1%)	66 (38.8%)	22 (25.8%)	148 (33%)
Total	100 n=96	100 n=97	100 n=170	100 n=85	n=448

Table 4.7 shows the specific aspects of child rights reported by the newspapers.

Health: In *the Guardian*, 12.5% of the reports were on health, *Daily Times* had 15.5%, *Daily Graphic* had 7.6% and *Daily Guide* had 2.4% of its reports on health.

Education: Education had 11.5% from *the Guardian*, 8.2% from *Daily Times*, 33% from *Daily Graphic*, and 4.7% from *Daily Guide*.

Abduction: *The Guardian* had 2.1%, *Daily Times* had 3.1%, *Daily Graphic* had 2.9% and *Daily Guide* had 1.2%.

Child Abuse: Every type of child abuse was categorized here. *The Guardian* had

3.1% of its report on child abuse; *Daily Times* had 6.2%, *Daily graphic* had 2.9 and *Daily Guide* had 3.5%.

Armed Conflict: 8.3% of *the Guardian's* stories were focused on armed conflict, 2.1% were from *Daily Times*, while *Daily Graphic* had 4.1% and *Daily Guide* had 3.5%.

Child Labour: *The Guardian* had 2.1% of its stories on child labour, *Daily Times* had 3.1%, *Daily Graphic* had 2.9% and *Daily Guide* had 2.4%.

Freedom of Expression/Leisure/Entertainment: *The Guardian* had 16.6% reports on this, *Daily Times* had 12.3%, *Daily Graphic* had 1.2% and *Daily Guide* had 2.4%.

Child Trafficking: *The Guardian* had 5.2% of its reports on this, *Daily Times* had 3.1, *Daily Graphic* had 1.8% and *Daily Guide* had 3.5%.

Security and Safety of Children: *The Guardian* had 3.1% reports on this, *Daily Times* had 3.1%, *Daily Graphic* had 1.8% and *Daily Guide* had 10.5%.

Neglect of Children: *The Guardian* had 7.3%, *Daily Times* had no report on this. *Daily Graphic* had one report of 0.6% and *Daily Guide* had 1.2% report.

General: These are stories that are not specific to an aspect of children's rights, but they addressed the issue of child rights in broad terms. 24% of this category was from *the Guardian*, *Daily Times* had 38.1%, *Daily Graphic* had 38.8% and *Daily Guide* had 25.8%.

Table 4.8: The nature of issues reported about children

Nature/ Direction	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Favourable	39 (42.4%)	48 (58.5%)	112 (68.3%)	22 (26.8%)
Unfavourable	25 (27.2%)	10 (12.2%)	18 (11%)	51 (62.2%)
Neutral	28 (30.4%)	24 (29.3%)	34 (20.7%)	9 (11%)
Total	92 (100%)	82 (100%)	164 (100%)	82 (100%)

Table 4.8 shows the nature of stories about children. These were stories that reported events about children and actions done to children. They were grouped as favourable, unfavourable or neutral. Favourable stories are events or actions that are pro-children. Unfavourable stories comprise child abuse stories and other stories which may not constitute child abuse but are not in favour of children. Such stories included epidemic and natural disasters that affected children. From a total of 92 stories in *the Guardian*, 42.4% were favourable, 27.2% were unfavourable and 30.4% were neutral. Out of 82 stories from *Daily Times* 58.5% were favourable, 12.2% were unfavourable and 29.3% were neutral. The *Daily Graphic* had 28.3% favourable, 11% unfavourable and 20.7% neutral. In *Daily Guide*, of 82 stories, 26.8% were favourable, 62.2% unfavourable and 11% were neutral.

Table 4.9: Acts of children reported in the newspapers

Nature	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Positive	4 (100%)	10 (66.7%)	3 (50%)	1 (33.3%)
Negative	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (16.7%)	0 (0%)
Neutral	0 (0%)	5 (33.3%)	2 (33.3%)	2 (66.7%)
Total	4 (100%)	15 (100%)	6 (100%)	3 (100%)

Table 4.9 shows the reports on children's actions in the newspapers. These actions were categorized into three- positive, negative and neutral actions. Only 4 stories in *the Guardian* focused on actions of children and they were all positive. A total of 15 actions were recorded in *Daily Times*, giving 66.7% for positive actions, and 33.3% for neutral actions. *Daily Graphic* had 8 actions, 50% for positive, 16.7% negative and 33.3% neutral. *Daily Guide* had 3 stories, 33.3% positive, no negative story, while 66.7 were neutral. In all, a total of 28 stories focused on children's action out of the total of 448 for the four newspapers.

RESEARCH QUESTION 5: To what extent do the newspapers expose abuse of children?

Table 4.10: Coverage of child abuse by the selected newspapers

	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Child Abuse Stories	22 (22.9%)	8 (8.2%)	10 (5.9%)	49 (57.6%)
Non Abuse Stories	74 (77.1%)	89 (91.2%)	160 (94.1%)	36 (42.4%)
Total	96 (100%)	97 (100%)	170 (100%)	85 (100%)

Table 4.10 presents the extent to which the newspapers expose child abuse. *The Guardian* had 22.7% of its stories on children abuse while 77% was not on abuse. For *Daily Times*, 8.2% child abuse stories were reported, the remaining 91.2% were not on child abuse. *Daily Graphic* recorded 5.9% child abuse stories and non-child abuse as 94.1%. *Daily Guide* had 57.6% child abuse stories as opposed to 42.4% non-child abuse stories. It was the *Daily Guide* that reported child abuse most among the four newspapers.

RESEARCH QUESTION 6: What are the sources of information, subjects/themes of focus and categories of people the newspapers quoted on child rights issues?

Table 4.11: Sources of child rights reports by the newspapers

Sources	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Local	69 (71.9%)	82 (84.5%)	162 (95.3%)	73 (85.9%)
Wire Service	27 (28.1%)	15 (15.5%)	8 (4.7%)	12 (14.1%)
Total	96 (100%)	97 (100%)	170 (100%)	85 (100%)

Table 4.11 above shows that most of the reports on children were locally sourced. *The Guardian* had 71.9% reports sourced locally, as opposed to 28.1% reports from wire services. *Daily Times* published 84.5% locally sourced news while 15.5% was from wire services. *Daily Graphic* reports had 95.3% local sources and 4.7% from wire services. For *Daily Guide*, 85.9% were locally sourced, while 14.1% were from wire services.

Table 4.12: Primary subjects (themes) covered by child rights reports

Child Rights Issues	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Plights of children/Abuse	40 (41.7%)	35 (36.1%)	34 (20%)	35 (41.2%)
Advice to parents/children	6 (6.3%)	11 (11.3%)	28 (16.5%)	2 (2.4%)
Welfare stories on children/Philanthropy	4 (4.2%)	9 (9.3%)	39 (22.9%)	10 (11.8%)
Children involvement in sport/entertainment	2 (2.1%)	6 (6.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Efforts to redress bad children's situation	26 (27%)	27 (27.8%)	54 (31.8%)	32 (37.6%)
Juvenile delinquencies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.6%)	1 (1.2%)
Children's efforts for their own care	5 (5.2%)	4 (4.1%)	3 (1.8%)	0 (0%)
Others	13 (13.5%)	5 (5.2%)	11 (6.4%)	2 (5.8%)
Total	96 (100%)	97 (100%)	170 (100%)	85 (100%)

As shown in Table 4.12, the newspapers reported more on plights and difficulties confronted by children. In *the Guardian*, 41.7% of its stories were devoted to the

plight of children. This was followed by efforts that are made to redress the poor situation of children, with 27%. Other subjects covered by *the Guardian* were advice to parents (6.3%), welfare stories like philanthropic gestures to children (4.2%), children's involvement in sports and entertainment (2.1%), and children's efforts for their own care (5.2%). Other subjects that focused on events organised for children and meetings held to discuss issues affecting children accounted for 13.4%.

Daily Times carried 36.1% stories on the plight of children, 27.8% on efforts to redress the children's poor situation, 11.3% stories focused on advice to parents, 9.3% on philanthropic deeds to children, 6.2% on children's involvement in sport and entertainment, and 4.1% on children's efforts toward their own care. The remaining 5.1% focused on other issues and events organised for children and meetings held to discuss issues affecting children.

It was only *Daily Graphic* that reported more on efforts to improve poor children's situation, with 31.8% of its stories. This was followed by philanthropic gestures (in terms of donations) to children with 22.9%. The plights of children, including child abuse, constituted 20% while stories on advice to parents and children took 16.5%. Juvenile delinquency and efforts of children themselves took 0.6% and 1.8% in that order. Other issues like events organised for children and meetings held to discuss issues affecting children took 6.4%.

Daily Guide also reported more of plights of children, with 40.2% of its stories. There were 37.6% stories on efforts to improve children's poor situation. Advice to parents/children took 2.4%, while philanthropic deeds got 11.8%. Juvenile delinquency had 1.2% and no story featured on children's own efforts and involvement in sport or entertainment. Other subjects on events organised for children and meetings held to discuss issues affecting children had 5.8%.

Table 4.13: People quoted in child rights reports of the newspapers

Categories of People	Newspapers			
	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>
Government agents	11 (15.5%)	10 (17%)	35 (24.8%)	10 (13.9%)
NGOs/Advocates	29 (40.8%)	20 (33.9%)	32 (22.7%)	10 (13.9%)
Police/court	7 (9.9%)	7 (11.9%)	9 (6.4%)	37 (51.3%)
Parents/relatives	4 (5.7%)	1 (1.7%)	2 (1.4%)	5 (6.9%)
Individuals	3 (4.2%)	4 (6.8%)	3 (2.1%)	1 (1.4%)
Donors	2 (2.8%)	4 (6.8%)	31 (22%)	4 (5.6%)
Teachers/Administrators	3 (4.2%)	2 (3.4%)	11 (8%)	1 (1.4%)
Politicians	4 (5.7%)	3 (5.1%)	5 (3.5%)	2 (2.8%)
Researcher/Professor/ Experts/Doctors	5 (7%)	4 (6.8%)	5 (3.5%)	0 (0%)
Children	2 (2.8%)	3 (5.1%)	4 (2.8%)	2 (2%)
Others	1 (1.7%)	1 (1.5%)	4 (2.8%)	0 (0%)
Total	100% n=71	100% n=59	100% n=141	100% n=72

Table 4.13 focused on people quoted in the news. NGOs and advocates were mostly quoted in the Nigerian newspapers, Government officials in *Daily Graphic* and Police/Court were mostly quoted in *Daily Guide*. For *the Guardian*, NGOs and advocates received 40.8%, followed by government agents or

officials, with 15.5% and police/court had 9.9%. Others were researchers/experts (7%), politicians (5.7%), parents and relatives (5.7%), individuals and teachers/school administrators received 4.2% each. Likewise, donors and children had 2.8% each. Other individuals quoted like clerics took 1.7%.

Daily Times had 17% for government agents, 33.9% for NGOs/advocates, and 11.9% for police/court. Individuals, donors and researchers/experts had 6.8% each. Parents/relatives, school administrators/teachers, and politicians had 1.7%, 3.4%, and 5.1% respectively. Children had 5.1%, while other persons quoted had 1.5%.

In *Daily Graphic*, government agents were quoted in the 24.8% of the stories, followed by NGOs/advocates, with 22.7% and donors with 22%. The police and court were quoted 6.4%; parents/relatives, individuals and teachers/administrator had 1.4%, 2.1% and 8% respectively. Politicians and researchers/experts had 3.5% each, while children and others also had 2.8% each.

Daily Guide recorded the highest quotation for police and court, with 51.3% of its total stories. Government officials and NGOs had 13.9% each, parents 6.9%, donors 5.6% and politicians 2.8%. Individuals and teachers had 1.4% each; children themselves were quoted 2%, while researchers/experts were not quoted at all in *Daily Guide*.

RESEARCH QUESTION 7: Are there instances of textual abuse in the use of language on child rights?

We could not establish any case of textual abuse in the analysed sample. Contrary to Goddard and Saunders' (2000) observation that children are objectified in the English-speaking world's press by the use of the pronoun "it", appropriate pronouns were used for children in Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. However, two cases of the use of the possessive pronoun "it" were observed in an opinion article published in the Ghanaian *Daily Graphic*. The uses are:

Teachers and parents may condemn violence and aggression even though they sometimes regard these vices as 'natural' that the child should at

times be aggressive or selfish in its relationship with other children.

...he rapidly learns to adapt its behaviour to that of his parent and guardian.

(March 30, 1999; p.9)

In the excerpt above, the use of 'its' was observed instead of 'his'; the two cases are not sufficient to establish textual abuse in the newspapers, more especially that the story is an opinion article not written by a staff of the newspaper. Nonetheless, it was a mistake on the part of the editor of the page to have failed to detect the error. It may be further assumed that these uses suggest a lack of mastery of this aspect of English. Notice that *its child*, *his* and *he* co-exist in the text.

4.2 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in the coverage of child rights between the Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers.

Table 4.14: Cross-tabulation of coverage of child rights by country of publication

Country Newspapers	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency
Nigerian Newspapers	193	224
Ghanaian Newspapers	255	224
Total	448	448

$$X^2=8.5; df=1; p=0.05$$

The calculated chi square value of 8.5 is greater than the critical value of 3.8 at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom. We accept the research hypothesis. It follows then that there is a significant difference between coverage given to child rights between Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. Therefore, the coverage of child rights by Ghanaian newspapers is significantly greater than the coverage by Nigerian newspapers.

Hypothesis 2: The coverage of child rights by the government-owned newspapers is significantly different from that of privately-owned newspapers.

Table 4.15: Cross-tabulation of coverage of child rights by ownership

Newspapers	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency
Government-owned papers	181	224
Privately owned papers	267	224
Total	448	448

$$X^2=16.5; df=1; p=0.05; \text{critical value } 3.84$$

The data from both Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers show that the calculated chi square value of 16.5 is greater than the critical value of 3.8 at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom. We therefore accept the research hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the coverage of child rights between government-owned newspapers and privately-owned newspapers. In other words, government-owned newspapers covered more of child rights than privately-owned newspapers and the difference is significant.

Table 4.16: Cross-tabulation of coverage of child rights by ownership within the country of publication

Nigerian Newspapers	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency
Government-owned papers	97	96.5
Privately owned papers	96	96.5
Total	193	193
Ghanaian Newspapers	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency
Government-owned papers	170	127.5
Privately owned papers	85	127.5
Total	255	255

$$(\text{Nigerian Newspapers}-X^2=0.003; df=1; p=0.05)$$

$$(\text{Ghanaian Newspapers}-X^2=28.38; df=1; p=0.05)$$

Table 4.16 provides a closer examination of how the government-owned newspapers performed in comparison with privately-owned newspaper in each of the two countries. The result shows that there is no significant difference in the

coverage of child rights between government-owned newspapers and privately-owned newspapers in Nigeria. The calculated chi square value of 0.003 is less than the critical value of 3.8 at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom; meaning that there is no significant difference in the coverage of child rights between the two newspapers in Nigeria. However, in Ghana, the coverage of child rights by the government-owned newspapers is significantly different from that of privately-owned newspapers. The calculated chi square value of 28.38 is greater than the critical value of 3.8 at 0.05 level of significance and 1 degree of freedom. This means that government-owned newspaper significantly reported child rights issues more than privately-owned newspaper in Ghana.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference in the coverage of child rights by each of the selected newspapers over the five year period of study.

Table 4.17: Cross-tabulation of coverage of child rights by year and newspapers

OBSERVED FREQUENCY						
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	Total
<i>The Guardian</i>	16	16	20	18	26	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	16	18	19	23	21	98
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	39	31	31	38	31	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	26	22	12	17	8	85
Total	97	87	82	96	86	448
EXPECTED FREQUENCY (Rounded to the nearest whole number)						
<i>The Guardian</i>	21	18	18	21	18	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	21	19	17	21	19	98
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	37	33	31	36	33	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	18	17	16	18	16	85
Total	97	87	82	96	86	448

$$X^2=18; df=12; p=0.05; \text{critical value } 21.026$$

The test shows that the calculated chi-square value of 18 is less than the critical value of 21.026 at 0.05 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom. We reject the research hypothesis that there is a significant difference in coverage of child rights by the newspapers over the five-year period. Our finding thus shows that

there is no significant difference in the coverage of child rights in the five years of coverage by the *Guardian*, *Daily Times*, *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide*.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference in the genres adopted by the newspapers in the coverage of child rights.

Table 4.18: Cross-tabulation of coverage of child rights by journalistic genres

OBSERVED FREQUENCY						
	News	Features	Editoria 1	Opinion	Picture	Total
<i>The Guardian</i>	56	19	4	3	14	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	43	23	4	7	20	97
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	140	17	0	12	1	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	75	5	0	17	5	85
Total	314	64	8	22	40	448
EXPECTED FREQUENCY (Rounded to the nearest whole number)						
<i>The Guardian</i>	67	14	2	5	8	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	67	14	2	5	9	97
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	120	24	3	8	15	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	60	12	1	4	8	85
Total	314	64	8	22	40	448

$$X^2=116; df=12; p=0.05; \text{critical value } 21$$

The data show that the calculated chi-square value of 116 is greater than the critical value of 21 at 0.05 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom. We accept the research hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the genres adopted by the newspapers in the coverage of child rights. Straight news was used mostly in the coverage of child rights; the chi square test has shown that its use is significantly greater than that of other genres adopted.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant difference in the level of prominence given to child rights by each of the newspapers.

Table 4.19: Cross-tabulation of child rights coverage by prominence

OBSERVED FREQUENCY							
	Front Page Lead	Front Page Minor	Back Page Lead	Back Page Minor	Inside Page Lead	Inside Page Minor	Total
<i>The Guardian</i>	6	5	2	5	40	38	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	8	3	4	2	57	23	97
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	7	7	4	4	50	98	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	6	9	0	2	24	44	85
Total	27	24	10	13	171	203	448
EXPECTED FREQUENCY (Rounded to the nearest whole number)							
<i>The Guardian</i>	6	5	2	3	37	43	96
<i>Daily Times</i>	6	5	2	3	37	44	97
<i>Daily Graphics</i>	10	9	4	5	65	77	170
<i>Daily Guide</i>	5	5	2	2	32	39	85
Total	27	24	10	13	171	203	448

$X^2=36; df=15; p=0.05; \text{critical value } 25$

The test shows that the calculated chi-square value of 36 is greater than the critical value of 25 at 0.05 level of significance and 15 degrees of freedom. We accept the research hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the level of prominence given to child rights by the newspapers. In other words, inside page lead stories are far greater than other page placements. The inside page minor stories are significantly higher than other page placements.

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant difference between locally sourced stories on child rights and those obtained through wire service.

Table 4.20: Cross-tabulation of child rights coverage by sources of reports

	<i>The Guardian</i>	<i>Daily Times</i>	<i>Daily Graphic</i>	<i>Daily Guide</i>	Total
Local	69 (82.71)	82 (83.56)	162 (146.47)	73 (73.23)	386
Wire Service	27 (13.29)	15 (13.42)	8 (23.5)	12 (11.72)	62
Total	96	97	170	85	448

$$X^2=28.8; df=3; p=0.05; cv= 7.82$$

The calculated chi square value of 28.8 is greater than the critical value of 7.82 at 0.05 level of significance and 3 degrees of freedom. We accept the research hypothesis. It follows then that there is a significant difference between locally sourced stories on child rights and those obtained through wire services. In other words, locally sourced stories are significantly greater than those obtained through wire services.

4.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

1. What is the extent of the coverage given to reporting child rights issues by the selected Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers in terms of frequency, level of prominence and types of journalistic genres used?

The extent of coverage given to child rights by *The Guardian*, *Daily Times*, *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide* newspapers shows a gross under-reportage of children's issues. In fact, one can say that children seemed to be invisible in the newspapers' content. A total of 300 issues of the newspapers were sampled for analysis for each of the newspapers, making an overall total of 1200 issues. It is amazing that only 97 stories (21.4%) came from *Daily Times*, *The Guardian* had 96 stories (21.4%), while *Daily Graphic* had 170 stories, representing 37.9% and *Daily Guide* had 85 stories (19%). This means that there were several days when children's issues did not feature at all in the newspapers' coverage. If the newspapers were to feature a

child rights story everyday, we would have 1200 stories. Thus, a record of 448 stories shows that adequate attention has not been given to child rights issues.

This finding is similar to others carried out on children issues. McManus and Dorfman's (2002) study on the portrayal of child care in U.S newspapers showed inadequate reportage. They noted that though child care was among the most rapidly growing business in the U.S., it was surprising that the issue was underreported. Moss' (2001) study on the economic impact of the child care industry in California also showed gross under reportage of child care. The study showed that about 5.5% of the stories on news section fronts, editorial and op-ed pages were focused on education. Stories about child care, by contrast, represented a fraction of 1% of the stories in the sample newspapers. Similarly, McNamara's (n.d.) study on the representation of young people in the Irish national newspapers revealed under-representation of children and young people.

It appears then that children are generally underreported in the media. There are many possible explanations for this. Journalists may consider young people to be unimportant in societal decision-making processes, immature, ill-informed or indeed, not interested in current affairs. Besides, young people do not purchase newspapers regularly, nor do they usually have disposable incomes to do so. Not only that, some codes of practice suggest that journalists should not interview or photograph those under the age of 18 on subjects involving their personal welfare in the absence and without the consent of their guardian. This hurdle may discourage journalists from using young people as sources for stories as it may give rise to editorial delays. Journalists tend to feed at convenient tables where information is readily available, easy to access and on the record. Thus, the special status of children and young people may serve to work against them in terms of media coverage.

The newspapers adopted a variety of print media genres in the reportage of child rights. All the four newspapers used straight news format most in the reportage of child rights. It thus means that the newspapers are more concerned with delivering the news of child rights first hand to the public. Straight news comes in piecemeal and does not allow for a comprehensive report. Feature is more appropriate for

thorough treatment of any issue. It allows background information to be gathered and provides detailed information to educate the readers on any issue. The newspapers, however, did not adopt much of feature in their reportage.

We also observed that Nigerian newspapers made use of pictures more than Ghanaian newspapers did. This is quite good, as pictures give greater credibility and meaning to news coverage. Pictures help the readers to visualize the issue being reported on, and at times, pictures alone tell the whole story for readers to understand.

There is also low engagement of the public on the subjects of child rights, as reflected in the low coverage of opinion. The situation is even worse with the privately-owned newspapers. *The Guardian* had 3.1% on opinion while *Daily Guide* had none. The government-owned papers *Daily Times* and *Daily Graphics* managed to have 7.2% and 7.1% respectively. This shows that the newspapers either did not carry the readers along actively on the issue of child rights or the readers were indifferent to the issue.

We also see that the newspapers did not get involved in presenting much opinions on the child rights issues. While the Nigerian newspapers had over 4% editorials, the Ghanaian newspapers had none in all the samples analysed. In fact, the Ghanaian newspapers reported the issues with straight news mostly having over 80% of their reports taking that format. There is therefore no balance in the reportage of child rights by the newspapers.

The level of prominence, in terms of page placement, given to a report has implication on the extent to which the newspapers have set agenda for the issue. The results show that reports on child rights were buried within the newspaper pages. The chi-square test revealed significant difference in the placement of stories on the pages of the newspapers. In other words, inside page stories are significantly greater than the stories on front and back pages. Combining the inside page stories (both the lead and minor stories), we see 81.2% of *The Guardian* stories on inside pages, while *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide* have 87% and 80% respectively. This is an indication of weak newsworthiness of child rights stories.

Monitor (n.d.), illustrated the significance of front page news as showing strong newsworthiness. It noted that every front page magnifies stories that appear on it. For example, the front page story in *The New York Times* will likely be broadcast on the evening news, summarized by the wire services, ripped-off by ten thousand bloggers, and otherwise spread everywhere. *Times* front page stories influence elections, national policy -- and even launch wars. The concentration of child rights reports on the inside pages then means that the newspapers did not consider child rights issues as a subject that deserved high focus.

2. Do Nigerian newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than Ghanaian newspapers?

The finding has shown that Ghanaian newspapers gave greater attention to child rights than Nigerian newspapers did; the difference in the coverage is very significant. As observed in the literature, Ghana seemed to be making better progress in respect of child rights than Nigeria. In the first place, Ghana has been ahead of Nigeria in the formulation of policies and the passage of the Child Rights Act. Since 1997, several important measures, including child rights legislative reform and related policies, have been instituted to bring Ghana into conformity with international human rights standards on children. Legislation passed includes the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act 1998, The Children's Act 1998, Child Rights Regulations 2002 and The Juvenile Justice Act 2003. All these must have put Ghana on a pedestal above Nigeria, which similarly reflected on the press performance.

Secondly, the child rights indicators in terms of child mortality and under-5 years death recorded greater improvement for Ghana than Nigeria. The UNICEF's reports on the state of world's children (1997 to 2007) consistently show that the situation of Ghanaian children were better than Nigerian. All these put together suggests better performance on the part of Ghanaian government than Nigerian. This is also evident in the categories of people quoted in the newspapers reports as shown by our data. Government officials were mostly quoted of all the categories in the Ghana's *Daily Graphic*. While child rights advocates took the lead in the Nigerian newspapers. The dominance of government officials in statement about children is

an indication of government's commitment to children's situation.

Not only that, we observe greater philanthropic deeds to Ghanaian children by groups, NGOs and individuals. For example, most substantive piece, in *Daily Graphic* especially, focussed on donations to schools and motherless babies' homes. We also observe a deliberate effort on the part of *Daily Guide* in reporting child abuse cases. Though we perceive that child abuse cases were reported more from sensational angle, because they were not followed up in subsequent reports, they still served the purpose of creating awareness as to put the issue of child abuse on public and political agenda.

Looking at the coverage given to child rights over the 5-year study period, we see that the newspapers steadily and consistently reported the issues. No significant difference existed in the coverage given to child rights in the five years of coverage. However, we can observe higher frequency in reportage in some years. Both *The Guardian* and *Daily Times* reported more in 2002 and 2003. It should be noted that the push for the passage of the Child Rights Bill in Nigeria had reached its peak in 2002 before it was eventually passed in 2003. Similarly, *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide* reported more in 1999 and 2000; this was around the time that Child Rights Act was passed in Ghana, precisely in 2000. This further shows a connection between media agenda-setting and performance of children's rights.

This again corroborated Miller's (2005) explanation on the relationship among media agenda, policy agenda and public agenda, which form the broad scope of agenda setting theory. The media agenda is a set of topics addressed by the media; the public agenda is the set of topics that members of the public believe is important, while the policy agenda represents issues that decision makers, i.e. legislators and those who influence legislative processes believe are particularly salient. We thus discovered here that the push for child rights bills (public agenda) and consequent passage to law (policy agenda) dovetailed to media agenda- the coverage of child issues reportage being on the increase at this point in time.

3. Do government-owned newspapers give greater coverage to child rights than privately-owned newspapers?

Our findings further show that government-owned newspapers reported more on child rights than the privately-owned newspapers. Although the difference in the coverage given by these two newspapers in Nigeria is not significant; we must nonetheless conclude that government-owned *Daily Times* performed better than the privately-owned, *the Guardian*, on the basis of volumes (i.e. number of pages) that these papers published. *Daily Times* published an average of 40 pages while *the Guardian* had twice that number, that is, an average of 80 pages; whereas *Daily Times* reported 97 stories as against *the Guardian's* 96 stories.

Ghanaian newspapers' coverage confirmed our earlier assumption that government-owned newspapers would report more child rights than privately-owned newspapers; the difference as we discovered is quite significant. We may conclude then that government-owned papers gave greater attention to child rights than privately-owned papers. This is because children's issues are not of much economic interest; besides, since the private newspapers are more commercial and profit-oriented, it is expected that they would not give as much attention to children's issues as the government-owned newspapers would.

4. What are the specifics and nature of child right issues covered by the selected newspapers?

The examination of specific child rights issues covered by the newspapers showed that, apart from the stories that fell into the general category (those that could not be classified into the categories highlighted), health, education and children's involvement in entertainment, right to play received greater coverage in the Nigerian newspapers. Ghana's *Daily Graphic* gave the greatest attention to education, followed by health. However, *Daily Guide* reported on child sexual abuse most, followed by child safety related stories. A close examination of *Daily Guide's* reportage showed that there was no follow up on those sexual abuse stories. In fact, those stories were reported from a sensational angle rather than with a view to providing a warning. *Daily Guide* reported most of the stories with the straight news format without a follow up on the resolution of the crisis, that is, the punishment received by the perpetrators of abuse, or strategies to prevent future

occurrence. We agree with Goddard and Saunders (2001) that coverage of child sexual abuse could increase society's awareness of it and such reportage should include research and intervention strategies such as prevention campaigns.

The stories that came under general categories were those that could not be classified into specific child rights issue. They seemed to be more all-encompassing.

Some of the headlines read thus:

"To save our children"

"Mothers talking for their children"

"Children learn violence from parents"

"Birth registration, the right of every child"

"For children choristers, the rhythms flow"

"No child slavery: Minister warns NGOs to stop spreading false news"

"African child celebrated," etc.

We also examined the nature of stories about children. As earlier mentioned, these were stories that reported events about children and actions done to children. They were grouped as favourable, unfavourable or neutral. Favourable stories are events or actions that are pro-children. Unfavourable stories comprise child abuse stories and other stories which may not constitute child abuse but are not in favour of children. Such stories included epidemic and natural disasters that affected children. We see that the newspapers reported more of events and actions that favour children, except *Daily Guide*. This should be expected because *Daily Guide* has reported more of child abuse as revealed in the previous analysis. We give samples of stories that are regarded as favourable, unfavourable and neutral.

Favourable

Call for law against under-age marriages

June Call for protection of children

Children: Most endangered species globally

Bauchi ready to protect children

PENGASSAN's strike bows to children's rights

Foundation supports students

Invest in education of Children
Food cash gift to Osu Children's Home
Parents of street children attend workshop
How to prevent diarrhea in children
UNICEF supports education on the African plains

Unfavourable

Five pupils injured in blast
Man, 52, rapes 2 year old girl
13 girls die in boat mishap
A child amputee fleeing Freetown
Who killed that child?
61 yrs old man defiles girl of 9
Man rapes 9 yrs old girl
Man detains 18 girls in sex orgy
100 children missing at Kokorobite
Sprayer attempts to sell child
58 boys perish in fire
Girl defiled by watchman
Girl killed by refuse truck
Boy remanded for poisoning daughter
6 children killed in cross fire

Neutral

Children art festival begins on Sunday
Pupils on resumption (day)
Girls guides camping
Children's welfare worries club
Consider education of your children
These kids need your help
Raster sings for children
Obese kids rate lives with dismal scores
Children's issues need urgent attention
Female students call for peace

Invest in education of children

Children asked to be disciplined

Afghan children return after treatment in Germany

The second aspect of this focused on acts of children, that is, the things that children did which were reported. We see a very low reportage of acts performed by children. A total of 28 stories focused on children's actions, as against 448 stories reported by all the newspapers. It was *Daily Times* that reported children's actions most among the four newspapers. This implies a low direct representation of children in stories covered by the newspapers.

5. To what extent do the newspapers expose abuse of children?

The study went further to examine the extent to which the newspapers reported child abuse. The abuse here is not limited to sexual abuse alone; other forms of abuse such as child labour, neglect, armed conflict and trafficking were considered. We observe that Nigerian newspapers did not give much attention to child abuse; since only 22.9% and 8.2% cases were recorded by *the Guardian* and *Daily Times*. Ghana's *Daily Graphic* followed this trend, while *Daily Guide* had 57.6% of its reports on child abuse.

Child abuse is an important content of child rights. Saunders and Goddard (2002) noted that media coverage of child abuse and neglect of children performs an important and significant role in placing issues on the public and political agenda. They emphasized that such media role increases society's awareness of, and response to, child abuse and neglect, as well as positively influence public, professional and political responses to the circumstances in which children and young people find themselves. The limited reports on child abuse by Nigerian newspapers and the Ghanaian *Graphic* is an indication of inadequate agenda setting on the subject.

6. What are the sources of information, subjects/themes of focus and categories of people the newspapers quoted on child rights issues?

We found that more than two-third of stories reported by the newspapers were from local sources. This is a good development as it indicates that the child rights issues,

at the local level, are of interest to the newspapers. It also shows some commitments on the part of the newspapers to have dedicated local news staff to reporting children's issues rather than depending on wire services. The large amount of local news, as reported by the newspapers gave opportunity for understanding the children's situation within the local space.

The analysis of the reports also focused on what was being said about child rights. Most of the substantive pieces concerned difficulties that confront children. These challenges included cases of abuse, children suffering from some kinds of diseases, children that are out of school, those who are victims of accidents and disasters etc. The newspapers also reported on efforts being made to redress poor situation of children. These included government's activities to that effect, the efforts of advocates and NGOs, such as fora held to discuss promotion of child rights and to increase advocacy on them.

Another subject worth mentioning is that of the welfare of children which was generously reported on by the Ghanaian newspapers. The papers, *Daily Graphic* and *Daily Guide* reported philanthropic deeds in terms of donations (both in cash and kind) to schools and children's homes. Other issues were advice to parents to be responsible in bringing up their children and advice to children also. Nigerian newspapers reported the subjects of children's involvement in sports and entertainment, as well as children's own efforts to improve their situations. Other subjects that the newspapers covered included appeals to NGOs and motherless babies home operators to help children, the subject of birth registration as every child's right, disciplinary actions against some secondary school students and the like.

We also examined the individuals quoted in the newspaper reports. This shows to whom the newspapers turn when they need information and reveals the dominant opinion represented in the news coverage. For the two Nigerian newspapers, child rights advocates and NGOs are predominant voices that are quoted, followed by government officials and agents. This shows that the advocates have been in the forefront of setting agenda for the rights of the child and that they are doing a good job in getting their voices into the news. While advocates and NGOs had a fair

coverage in Ghanaian newspapers; the government-owned *Daily Graphic* quoted government agents most frequently. This is not surprising for as a government-owned newspaper, it is expected that it would give greater attention to government activities than would the private media. The *Daily Guide*, on its part, quoted the police and the court most in its coverage. This is also expected since *Daily Guide*, as shown in our previous analysis, reported more of child abuse than the other three newspapers. We see a generally low coverage for other categories of people such as teachers, donors, politicians and parents, as well as children themselves. It is surprising however, that the newspapers gave fewer opportunities to children's voices on issues that seriously affect them.

Advocates of child rights have always maintained dominant voice on the subject. Woodruff and Dorfman's (2001) study on newspapers coverage of child nutrition policies in the U.S. had advocates as most quoted on the issue of child nutrition. Advocates also came behind politicians and government representatives on the issue of children's health in the study conducted by Woodruff (1997). This means that advocates are the most sought after by journalists when in need of information on child rights or they are making all the efforts to get their voices into the news.

7. Are there instances of textual abuse in the use of language on child rights?

Finally, there is no evidence of textual abuse in the language used in the newspapers. This is contrary to Saunders and Goddard's (2001) conclusion that there exists textual abuse of children in the language used by journalists and authors to describe children in the English-speaking world. Goddard and Saunders described a phenomenon discovered in UK and Australian print media, termed 'child slippage'. According to them, journalists identify the child subject of their reports as a boy or girl. Then, they proceed to refer to the boy or girl as 'it', rather than 'him' or 'her'. Thus, the child becomes an object. One of the examples given by Saunders and Goddard's (2001:445) reads thus:

Headline: **Baby's parents on trial**

Roslee ... spent two weeks in intensive care recovering from
21 broken...bones...bruising inside *her* eyes and bleeding
inside *her* chest.

Doctors told ACT Supreme court, the injuries could have been caused by the baby being shaken or having *its* limbs twisted.

They concluded that this phenomenon is a textual abuse of children. Our data in this current study proved otherwise. The writings showed correct and appropriate usage of pronouns which do not make children to be objectified. The only case recorded could not stand as enough evidence to confirm Saunders and Goddard's findings of textual abuse of children in the English speaking world.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

The major aim of this study was to compare how Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers have been playing their roles in the promotion of child rights as required by the Oslo challenge. Against the backdrop of the media's role in the development process, child rights as a development issue requires serious media attention to bring them to the fore. In this regard, Article 17 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Oslo Challenge of 1999 assigned responsibility to the media to actively support the promotion of child rights. We thus examined the extent to which these newspapers have reported child rights, looking at the frequency of report, the performance of government-owned and privately-owned newspapers, types of journalistic genres adopted, prominence given to the reports, and the specific child rights issues reported among other variables.

Content analysis design was adopted in our investigation of the coverage of child rights. A total of 1200 newspaper issues were sampled and analysed. The samples were drawn from the pools of newspapers published between 1999 and 2003. The Intercoder reliability test calculated, using Cohen's Kappa reliability (*k*) test, recorded high level of agreement among coders, which established the appropriateness of coding instructions, category definitions and unit of analysis. The analysis yielded a total of 448 news stories. They were examined for their genres, prominence, nature, source among other criteria.

The results were presented in tables, showing their percentages. These were used to provide answers to the research questions. The hypotheses were tested using chi-square and log linear analysis to determine if significant differences existed in the

coverage. The qualitative aspect of the analysis focussed on textual abuse observed in the reportage of children issues.

5.2 CONCLUSION

This study has revealed that

1. Children were underreported in the Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. Unlike the political and business stories that always take prominent space in newspapers reportage, children issues do not have much commercial value. This may have accounted for the low representation.
2. Ghanaian newspapers reported more of child rights than Nigerian newspapers. We believe that this will not be unconnected with better commitment to children's welfare by government, NGOs, groups and individuals. One would have thought that Nigerian newspapers would give more spaces to child rights issues due to the advantage of volume (number of pages published) of their publication over Ghanaian newspapers but that was not the case as children issues seemed not to be of much serious concern to Nigerian newspapers.
3. The government-owned newspapers reported more on child rights than the privately-owned newspapers.
4. While there was consistency in the coverage of child rights stories published annually by the papers, the periods around which the Child Rights Act was passed in the two countries witnessed higher reportage of child rights. This is an indication of a connection between media agenda setting and performance of children's rights.
5. There is a lack of balance in genres adopted in child rights reportage. Straight news dominated the genres, a reflection of lack of in-depth treatment of child rights issues by the newspapers.
6. Public engagement was also poor as the data showed little report in the form of opinion articles and letters to the editors.
7. Health and education are the child rights issues mostly reported on by the newspapers.
8. There is also a weak news-worthiness of child rights issues. Most stories on children were found inside the newspapers pages. The newspapers did not

consider child rights issues as subjects that deserve high focus.

9. Most reports focused on events that favoured children or statements that supported the cause of children. However, cases of child abuse reported in the newspapers were not followed up. In fact, *Daily Guide* reported such stories more from a sensational angle than from an objective point of view.
10. Most of the subjects covered in newspapers' reports concerned difficulties that confront children. These challenges included cases of abuse, children suffering from some kinds of diseases, children that are out of school, those who are victims of accidents and disasters, etc.
11. Another interesting aspect of our findings is that children were hardly heard directly in the reports. The newspapers did not offer direct opportunity to children to air their opinions. The leading voice behind children's cause is that of the advocates and the NGOs. The government-owned newspapers quoted government officials more and focused on their activities for children issues.
12. The newspapers directly sourced the reports on children through their own staff instead of depending on wire services. This is an indication of commitment in presenting the true picture of the children's situation.
13. Finally, we could not establish that the language use of the selected newspapers constituted abuse against children.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study set out to examine the coverage given to child rights by making a comparison between Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers. We discovered that the coverage given to child rights by the four newspapers drawn from the two countries is generally low. This calls for improvement on the part of newspaper reporters and editors to step up the attention given to children. Against the backdrop of child rights as a development issue and the fact the media have great roles to play in the realisation of children's right, there is need for newspaper organisations to expand the coverage given to child rights. One way of doing this is to devote specific pages to children matters where issues affecting their rights could be featured. The awareness by the public that children issues are treated on specific pages can influence their looking out for such pages when information on children is needed.

In fact, children as well, can look forward to such pages to know about themselves.

It will also be needful for the government to formulate a policy guideline to compel newspapers to devote a certain percentage of their news coverage to issues that will serve the purpose of protection and promotion of the rights of the child. This will not be a strange policy since similar guideline exists for the broadcast media to give 60% of the programmes aired to local ones. This is in accord with the development media theory. The press is expected to support government policies in its quest for national development (McQuail, 2005). The news organisations can facilitate this by setting up children's desks in their newsroom. The desk must be equipped with well-trained journalists who are familiar with the details of child rights and materials on child rights so as to ensure excellent delivery on child rights issues.

We further discovered that Ghanaian newspapers did better than Nigerian newspapers in reportage of children's rights. This poses a challenge to Nigerian newspapers to improve on their current performance. The Nigerian press community happens to be the biggest in Africa and constitutes one of the most resilient and daring segments of Nigeria's civil society (Olukoju, 2004). One therefore, expected the Nigerian media to, as part of their social responsibility functions, consolidate on previous performance by playing more active roles in covering development issues like the child rights. The Oslo challenge realised that the rights of children cannot be fulfilled without support from the media and that is why specific tasks were assigned to the media. There is, therefore, the need to give good attention to child rights just as political issues have received good coverage over the years.

Moreover, the newspapers should strive to balance the format for presenting child right issues in order to achieve adequate presentation of the details of child rights. Our data showed that the use of straight news dominated the present coverage. This enables the news to be delivered first-hand to the public. But in order to present comprehensive reports, other print media genres must be adopted. Presenting some stories in feature format will allow background information to be added to the report, thus giving the readers the full import of such stories. In other words, the readers will have the opportunity of understanding the full content of the issue of

child rights under focus- from the cause to the consequences and then the resolution of the issue. Similarly, the use of opinion articles and letters to the editor will allow expression of divergent views which would help policy-makers in understanding the public perspectives on the issue.

Furthermore, setting agenda for children's rights requires presentation of the issues as newsworthy. It follows then that efforts should be made by the newspapers to present more of the children's stories on the front and back pages of their papers. The finding showed that children's stories lack news-worthiness due to their being buried inside the newspapers' pages. When someone reads newspapers, the first port of call is the front page and then the back page before checking the stories inside those papers. Putting children's stories on the front page will thus increase their newsworthiness. Though, there are many stories competing for the front page, one way around this is to set some children's news headlines in the front page, while the stories continue in the inside pages. This will to some extent raise child rights issue to the right plane.

The newspapers have done well by at least reporting some stories on all aspects of child rights. Though, health, education and right to entertainment/play received the highest coverage, this is still in order since health and education remain very critical rights of children, which deserve great coverage. However, there is need for the newspapers to follow up on cases of child abuse reported. Follow up on such issues implies that the newspapers are not just sensationalizing but that they are also interested in the resolution of the matters.

The newspapers have also done well in reporting the difficulties confronted by children and the efforts being made to redress the situation. However, the focus on children's bad situations should be increased and efforts should be made in those reports to attract greater attention to those who have responsibilities for correcting the situations. This will serve as a wake-up call to those individuals to be alert to their duties.

In addition, the newspapers should also improve their efforts in getting plenty of responses from other categories of people who have something to do with children,

apart from advocates and government officials. While the latter two categories of people have been given sufficient attention for their support of children's rights, other individuals such as parents, teachers, philanthropists, clergy, etc. should also be given a chance to express themselves on these matters. Parents and teachers especially, are in a privileged position of knowing children better. The parents can talk of the challenges they face and where they need help, while the teachers can identify appropriately challenges facing children and how they can be resolved. Besides, the children also need to be heard directly and so should be given the opportunity. Ridgard (n.d.) notes that children's voices are valuable and have the potential to enhance reporting enormously. He adds that taking a few extra minutes to ask child sources what they think of the news-making process, how they would like to be portrayed and building trust by treating them with respect and dignity, reflects in the reports and makes more interesting and engaging reading or viewing with which audiences are able to identify.

Finally, we have seen that government-owned newspapers reported more on children's rights than the private newspapers. This calls for continued sustenance of government-owned newspapers as they are in a better position to report development issues than privately-owned newspapers. Because of commercial interest of privately-owned newspapers, the drive to make profit and succeed as a business may not allow them to give much attention to issues that are not of economic interest. Therefore, there is the need for government-owned media to continue operation basically for development purposes. It is unfortunate that Nigerian *Daily Times* was privatised in August 2004, and this has left the country without a national government newspaper. This is then a challenge to the private national newspapers to endeavour to give greater attention to development issues such as the child rights than is being currently done. However, the state government-owned newspapers should raise the standard of their papers to a national level by expanding the horizon of their coverage, taking the challenge of supporting child rights rather than being used predominantly as government propaganda machines within their states.

5.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The findings of this study have opened up other areas that could be explored for further research. One of such is that of correlating the media agenda on child rights with public agenda. While the present study has examined the extent of coverage given to child rights, further studies can explore the public agenda in relation to child rights. This will help to determine the effectiveness of the agenda relayed by the media.

Another area that can be focused on is that of examining the content of the broadcast media and the extent of their coverage of child rights. The present study focused on the newspapers alone; examining other media of mass communication can help to determine which medium may be most effective in projecting child right issues.

Also, instead of comparing national newspapers as we did in this study, further research could compare the coverage of child rights within a nation. This comparison may be between the national and the regional or local newspapers and it could be between the print media and the broadcast media.

Finally, further study could explore the use of the new media technologies and the indigenous media system and their effectiveness for advocating the rights of the child.

5.5 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

This study has expanded the frontier of knowledge in the field of development communication. It helps with the understanding of what the news environment has been about the rights of children both in Nigeria and Ghana. It has revealed how the newspapers have been responding to the challenges posed by the Oslo Challenge and the UN Convention on the rights of the Child. The study revealed that children and their rights are under-represented in the newspapers' coverage and in fact the coverage lacks strong newsworthiness.

The study has also shown that government-owned media are more responsive to

child rights issues than privately-owned newspapers. As previously mentioned, the reason for this may not be unconnected with the fact that children's issues are not of much economic interest, especially to privately-owned newspapers which have more interest in making profit as a business.

This work has also brought to the fore the connection among public agenda, policy agenda and media agenda. The push for child rights bills (public agenda) and the consequent passage to law (policy agenda) dovetailed to media agenda-the coverage of child issues. We also come to know that the newspapers, both Nigerian and Ghanaian, have not been giving good attention to exposing child abuse; except for *Daily Guide* which reported more often though from sensational angle.

The study also revealed that setting agenda for child rights would require more efforts on the parts of advocates and government since they are the sources mostly patronised by journalists in search of children's news. Therefore, the more they push information to journalists, the more news on children and their rights would feature in the newspapers.

Finally, the study has revealed that Nigerian and Ghanaian newspapers are free from the allegation that the press in the English-speaking world abuse children textually. We discovered that appropriate language and pronouns were used in description of children.

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APPENDIX I

CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989

Entry into force 2 September 1990, in accordance with article 49

Preamble

The States Parties to the present Convention,

Considering that, in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Bearing in mind that the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Recognizing that the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenants on Human Rights, proclaimed and agreed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

Recalling that, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations has proclaimed that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance, Convinced that the family, as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members and particularly children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance so that it can fully assume its responsibilities within the community,

Recognizing that the child, for the full and harmonious development of his or her personality, should grow up in a family environment, in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding,

Considering that the child should be fully prepared to live an individual life in society, and brought up in the spirit of the ideals proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, and in particular in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity,

Bearing in mind that the need to extend particular care to the child has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924 and in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child adopted by the General Assembly on 20 November 1959 and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (in particular in articles 23 and 24), in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (in particular in article 10) and in the statutes and relevant instruments of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

Bearing in mind that, as indicated in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, "the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth",

Recalling the provisions of the Declaration on Social and Legal Principles relating to the Protection and Welfare of Children, with Special Reference to Foster Placement and Adoption Nationally and Internationally; the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules); and the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, Recognizing that, in all countries in the world, there are children living in exceptionally difficult conditions, and that such children need special consideration,

Taking due account of the importance of the traditions and cultural values of each people for the protection and harmonious development of the child, Recognizing the importance of international co-operation for improving the living conditions of

children in every country, in particular in the developing countries,

Have agreed as follows:

PART I

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier.

Article 2

1. States Parties shall respect and ensure the rights set forth in the present Convention to each child within their jurisdiction without discrimination of any kind, irrespective of the child's or his or her parent's or legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that the child is protected against all forms of discrimination or punishment on the basis of the status, activities, expressed opinions, or beliefs of the child's parents, legal guardians, or family members.

Article 3

1. In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.

2. States Parties undertake to ensure the child such protection and care as is necessary for his or her well-being, taking into account the rights and duties of his or her parents, legal guardians, or other individuals legally responsible for him or her, and, to this end, shall take all appropriate legislative and administrative measures.

3. States Parties shall ensure that the institutions, services and facilities responsible for the care or protection of children shall conform with the standards established by competent authorities, particularly in the areas of safety, health, in the number

and suitability of their staff, as well as competent supervision.

Article 4

States Parties shall undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative, and other measures for the implementation of the rights recognized in the present Convention. With regard to economic, social and cultural rights, States Parties shall undertake such measures to the maximum extent of their available resources and, where needed, within the framework of international co-operation.

Article 5

States Parties shall respect the responsibilities, rights and duties of parents or, where applicable, the members of the extended family or community as provided for by local custom, legal guardians or other persons legally responsible for the child, to provide, in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child, appropriate direction and guidance in the exercise by the child of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 6

1. States Parties recognize that every child has the inherent right to life.
2. States Parties shall ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child.

Article 7

1. The child shall be registered immediately after birth and shall have the right from birth to a name, the right to acquire a nationality and, as far as possible, the right to know and be cared for by his or her parents.
2. States Parties shall ensure the implementation of these rights in accordance with their national law and their obligations under the relevant international instruments in this field, in particular where the child would otherwise be stateless.

Article 8

1. States Parties undertake to respect the right of the child to preserve his or her identity, including nationality, name and family relations as recognized by law without unlawful interference.

2. Where a child is illegally deprived of some or all of the elements of his or her identity, States Parties shall provide appropriate assistance and protection, with a view to re-establishing speedily his or her identity.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall ensure that a child shall not be separated from his or her parents against their will, except when competent authorities subject to judicial review determine, in accordance with applicable law and procedures, that such separation is necessary for the best interests of the child. Such determination may be necessary in a particular case such as one involving abuse or neglect of the child by the parents, or one where the parents are living separately and a decision must be made as to the child's place of residence.

2. In any proceedings pursuant to paragraph 1 of the present article, all interested parties shall be given an opportunity to participate in the proceedings and make their views known.

3. States Parties shall respect the right of the child who is separated from one or both parents to maintain personal relations and direct contact with both parents on a regular basis, except if it is contrary to the child's best interests.

4. Where such separation results from any action initiated by a State Party, such as the detention, imprisonment, exile, deportation or death (including death arising from any cause while the person is in the custody of the State) of one or both parents or of the child, that State Party shall, upon request, provide the parents, the child or, if appropriate, another member of the family with the essential information concerning the whereabouts of the absent member(s) of the family unless the provision of the information would be detrimental to the well-being of the child. States Parties shall further ensure that the submission of such a request shall of itself entail no adverse consequences for the person(s) concerned.

Article 10

1. In accordance with the obligation of States Parties under article 9, paragraph 1, applications by a child or his or her parents to enter or leave a State Party for the purpose of family reunification shall be dealt with by States Parties in a positive, humane and expeditious manner. States Parties shall further ensure that the submission of such a request shall entail no adverse consequences for the

applicants and for the members of their family.

2. A child whose parents reside in different States shall have the right to maintain on a regular basis, save in exceptional circumstances personal relations and direct contacts with both parents. Towards that end and in accordance with the obligation of States Parties under article 9, paragraph 1, States Parties shall respect the right of the child and his or her parents to leave any country, including their own, and to enter their own country. The right to leave any country shall be subject only to such restrictions as are prescribed by law and which are necessary to protect the national security, public order (ordre public), public health or morals or the rights and freedoms of others and are consistent with the other rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take measures to combat the illicit transfer and non-return of children abroad.

2. To this end, States Parties shall promote the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral agreements or accession to existing agreements.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.

2. For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.

Article 13

1. The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice.

2. The exercise of this right may be subject to certain restrictions, but these shall

only be such as are provided by law and are necessary:

- (a) For respect of the rights or reputations of others; or
- (b) For the protection of national security or of public order (ordre public), or of public health or morals.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall respect the right of the child to freedom of thought, conscience and religion.
2. States Parties shall respect the rights and duties of the parents and, when applicable, legal guardians, to provide direction to the child in the exercise of his or her right in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child.
3. Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs may be subject only to such limitations as are prescribed by law and are necessary to protect public safety, order, health or morals, or the fundamental rights and freedoms of others.

Article 15

1. States Parties recognize the rights of the child to freedom of association and to freedom of peaceful assembly.
2. No restrictions may be placed on the exercise of these rights other than those imposed in conformity with the law and which are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, public order (ordre public), the protection of public health or morals or the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 16

1. No child shall be subjected to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his or her privacy, family, or correspondence, nor to unlawful attacks on his or her honour and reputation.
2. The child has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 17

States Parties recognize the important function performed by the mass media and

shall ensure that the child has access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual and moral well-being and physical and mental health.

To this end, States Parties shall:

- (a) Encourage the mass media to disseminate information and material of social and cultural benefit to the child and in accordance with the spirit of article 29;
- (b) Encourage international co-operation in the production, exchange and dissemination of such information and material from a diversity of cultural, national and international sources;
- (c) Encourage the production and dissemination of children's books;
- (d) Encourage the mass media to have particular regard to the linguistic needs of the child who belongs to a minority group or who is indigenous;
- (e) Encourage the development of appropriate guidelines for the protection of the child from information and material injurious to his or her well-being, bearing in mind the provisions of articles 13 and 18.

Article 18

1. States Parties shall use their best efforts to ensure recognition of the principle that both parents have common responsibilities for the upbringing and development of the child. Parents or, as the case may be, legal guardians, have the primary responsibility for the upbringing and development of the child. The best interests of the child will be their basic concern.

2. For the purpose of guaranteeing and promoting the rights set forth in the present Convention, States Parties shall render appropriate assistance to parents and legal guardians in the performance of their child-rearing responsibilities and shall ensure the development of institutions, facilities and services for the care of children.

3. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that children of working parents have the right to benefit from child-care services and facilities for which they are eligible.

Article 19

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or

exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child.

2. Such protective measures should, as appropriate, include effective procedures for the establishment of social programmes to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child, as well as for other forms of prevention and for identification, reporting, referral, investigation, treatment and follow-up of instances of child maltreatment described heretofore, and, as appropriate, for judicial involvement.

Article 20

1. A child temporarily or permanently deprived of his or her family environment, or in whose own best interests cannot be allowed to remain in that environment, shall be entitled to special protection and assistance provided by the State.

2. States Parties shall in accordance with their national laws ensure alternative care for such a child.

3. Such care could include, inter alia, foster placement, kafalah of Islamic law, adoption or if necessary placement in suitable institutions for the care of children. When considering solutions, due regard shall be paid to the desirability of continuity in a child's upbringing and to the child's ethnic, religious, cultural and linguistic background.

Article 21

States Parties that recognize and/or permit the system of adoption shall ensure that the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration and they shall:

(a) Ensure that the adoption of a child is authorized only by competent authorities who determine, in accordance with applicable law and procedures and on the basis of all pertinent and reliable information, that the adoption is permissible in view of the child's status concerning parents, relatives and legal guardians and that, if required, the persons concerned have given their informed consent to the adoption on the basis of such counselling as may be necessary;

(b) Recognize that inter-country adoption may be considered as an alternative means of child's care, if the child cannot be placed in a foster or an adoptive family or cannot in any suitable manner be cared for in the child's country of origin;

(c) Ensure that the child concerned by inter-country adoption enjoys safeguards and

standards equivalent to those existing in the case of national adoption;

(d) Take all appropriate measures to ensure that, in inter-country adoption, the placement does not result in improper financial gain for those involved in it;

(e) Promote, where appropriate, the objectives of the present article by concluding bilateral or multilateral arrangements or agreements, and endeavour, within this framework, to ensure that the placement of the child in another country is carried out by competent authorities or organs.

Article 22

1. States Parties shall take appropriate measures to ensure that a child who is seeking refugee status or who is considered a refugee in accordance with applicable international or domestic law and procedures shall, whether unaccompanied or accompanied by his or her parents or by any other person, receive appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance in the enjoyment of applicable rights set forth in the present Convention and in other international human rights or humanitarian instruments to which the said States are Parties.

2. For this purpose, States Parties shall provide, as they consider appropriate, co-operation in any efforts by the United Nations and other competent intergovernmental organizations or non-governmental organizations co-operating with the United Nations to protect and assist such a child and to trace the parents or other members of the family of any refugee child in order to obtain information necessary for reunification with his or her family. In cases where no parents or other members of the family can be found, the child shall be accorded the same protection as any other child permanently or temporarily deprived of his or her family environment for any reason, as set forth in the present Convention.

Article 23

1. States Parties recognize that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community.

2. States Parties recognize the right of the disabled child to special care and shall encourage and ensure the extension, subject to available resources, to the eligible child and those responsible for his or her care, of assistance for which application is made and which is appropriate to the child's condition and to the circumstances of

the parents or others caring for the child.

3. Recognizing the special needs of a disabled child, assistance extended in accordance with paragraph 2 of the present article shall be provided free of charge, whenever possible, taking into account the financial resources of the parents or others caring for the child, and shall be designed to ensure that the disabled child has effective access to and receives education, training, health care services, rehabilitation services, preparation for employment and recreation opportunities in a manner conducive to the child's achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development, including his or her cultural and spiritual development

4. States Parties shall promote, in the spirit of international cooperation, the exchange of appropriate information in the field of preventive health care and of medical, psychological and functional treatment of disabled children, including dissemination of and access to information concerning methods of rehabilitation, education and vocational services, with the aim of enabling States Parties to improve their capabilities and skills and to widen their experience in these areas. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 24

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and to facilities for the treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health. States Parties shall strive to ensure that no child is deprived of his or her right of access to such health care services.

2. States Parties shall pursue full implementation of this right and, in particular, shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To diminish infant and child mortality;

(b) To ensure the provision of necessary medical assistance and health care to all children with emphasis on the development of primary health care;

(c) To combat disease and malnutrition, including within the framework of primary health care, through, inter alia, the application of readily available technology and through the provision of adequate nutritious foods and clean drinking-water, taking into consideration the dangers and risks of environmental pollution;

(d) To ensure appropriate pre-natal and post-natal health care for mothers;

(e) To ensure that all segments of society, in particular parents and children, are informed, have access to education and are supported in the use of basic knowledge

of child health and nutrition, the advantages of breastfeeding, hygiene and environmental sanitation and the prevention of accidents;

(f) To develop preventive health care, guidance for parents and family planning education and services.

3. States Parties shall take all effective and appropriate measures with a view to abolishing traditional practices prejudicial to the health of children.

4. States Parties undertake to promote and encourage international co-operation with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of the right recognized in the present article. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 25

States Parties recognize the right of a child who has been placed by the competent authorities for the purposes of care, protection or treatment of his or her physical or mental health, to a periodic review of the treatment provided to the child and all other circumstances relevant to his or her placement.

Article 26

1. States Parties shall recognize for every child the right to benefit from social security including social insurance, and shall take the necessary measures to achieve the full realization of this right in accordance with their national law.

2. The benefits should, where appropriate, be granted, taking into account the resources and the circumstances of the child and persons having responsibility for the maintenance of the child, as well as any other consideration relevant to an application for benefits made by or on behalf of the child.

Article 27

1. States Parties recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development.

2. The parent(s) or others responsible for the child have the primary responsibility to secure, within their abilities and financial capacities, the conditions of living necessary for the child's development.

3. States Parties, in accordance with national conditions and within their means, shall take appropriate measures to assist parents and others responsible for the child

to implement this right and shall in case of need provide material assistance and support programmes, particularly with regard to nutrition, clothing and housing.

4. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to secure the recovery of maintenance for the child from the parents or other persons having financial responsibility for the child, both within the State Party and from abroad. In particular, where the person having financial responsibility for the child lives in a State different from that of the child, States Parties shall promote the accession to international agreements or the conclusion of such agreements, as well as the making of other appropriate arrangements.

Article 28

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

- (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
- (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
- (c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
- (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
- (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 29

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
 - (a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
 - (b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
 - (c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
 - (d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin; (e) The development of respect for the natural environment.
2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principle set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Article 30

In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language.

Article 31

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.
2. States Parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully

in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity.

Article 32

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

2. States Parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the implementation of the present article. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of other international instruments, States Parties shall in particular:

- (a) Provide for a minimum age or minimum ages for admission to employment;
- (b) Provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment;
- (c) Provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present article.

Article 33

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislative, administrative, social and educational measures, to protect children from the illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances as defined in the relevant international treaties, and to prevent the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of such substances.

Article 34

States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. For these purposes, States Parties shall in particular take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent:

- (a) The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity;
- (b) The exploitative use of children in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices;

(c) The exploitative use of children in pornographic performances and materials.

Article 35

States Parties shall take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form.

Article 36

States Parties shall protect the child against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare.

Article 37

States Parties shall ensure that:

(a) No child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Neither capital punishment nor life imprisonment without possibility of release shall be imposed for offences committed by persons below eighteen years of age;

(b) No child shall be deprived of his or her liberty unlawfully or arbitrarily. The arrest, detention or imprisonment of a child shall be in conformity with the law and shall be used only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time;

(c) Every child deprived of liberty shall be treated with humanity and respect for the inherent dignity of the human person, and in a manner which takes into account the needs of persons of his or her age. In particular, every child deprived of liberty shall be separated from adults unless it is considered in the child's best interest not to do so and shall have the right to maintain contact with his or her family through correspondence and visits, save in exceptional circumstances;

(d) Every child deprived of his or her liberty shall have the right to prompt access to legal and other appropriate assistance, as well as the right to challenge the legality of the deprivation of his or her liberty before a court or other competent, independent and impartial authority, and to a prompt decision on any such action.

Article 38

1. States Parties undertake to respect and to ensure respect for rules of international humanitarian law applicable to them in armed conflicts which are relevant to the child.
2. States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities.
3. States Parties shall refrain from recruiting any person who has not attained the age of fifteen years into their armed forces. In recruiting among those persons who have attained the age of fifteen years but who have not attained the age of eighteen years, States Parties shall endeavour to give priority to those who are oldest.
4. In accordance with their obligations under international humanitarian law to protect the civilian population in armed conflicts, States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure protection and care of children who are affected by an armed conflict.

Article 39

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim of: any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; or armed conflicts. Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

Article 40

1. States Parties recognize the right of every child alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law to be treated in a manner consistent with the promotion of the child's sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child's respect for the human rights and fundamental freedoms of others and which takes into account the child's age and the desirability of promoting the child's reintegration and the child's assuming a constructive role in society.
2. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of international instruments, States Parties shall, in particular, ensure that:
 - (a) No child shall be alleged as, be accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law by reason of acts or omissions that were not prohibited by national or

international law at the time they were committed;

(b) Every child alleged as or accused of having infringed the penal law has at least the following guarantees:

(i) To be presumed innocent until proven guilty according to law;

(ii) To be informed promptly and directly of the charges against him or her, and, if appropriate, through his or her parents or legal guardians, and to have legal or other appropriate assistance in the preparation and presentation of his or her defence;

(iii) To have the matter determined without delay by a competent, independent and impartial authority or judicial body in a fair hearing according to law, in the presence of legal or other appropriate assistance and, unless it is considered not to be in the best interest of the child, in particular, taking into account his or her age or situation, his or her parents or legal guardians;

(iv) Not to be compelled to give testimony or to confess guilt; to examine or have examined adverse witnesses and to obtain the participation and examination of witnesses on his or her behalf under conditions of equality;

(v) If considered to have infringed the penal law, to have this decision and any measures imposed in consequence thereof reviewed by a higher competent, independent and impartial authority or judicial body according to law;

(vi) To have the free assistance of an interpreter if the child cannot understand or speak the language used;

(vii) To have his or her privacy fully respected at all stages of the proceedings.

3. States Parties shall seek to promote the establishment of laws, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children alleged as, accused of, or recognized as having infringed the penal law, and, in particular:

(a) The establishment of a minimum age below which children shall be presumed not to have the capacity to infringe the penal law;

(b) Whenever appropriate and desirable, measures for dealing with such children without resorting to judicial proceedings, providing that human rights and legal safeguards are fully respected.

4. A variety of dispositions, such as care, guidance and supervision orders; counselling; probation; foster care; education and vocational training programmes and other alternatives to institutional care shall be available to ensure that children are dealt with in a manner appropriate to their well-being and proportionate both to their circumstances and the offence.

Article 41

Nothing in the present Convention shall affect any provisions which are more conducive to the realization of the rights of the child and which may be contained in:

- (a) The law of a State party; or
- (b) International law in force for that State.

PART II

Article 42

States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike.

Article 43

1. For the purpose of examining the progress made by States Parties in achieving the realization of the obligations undertaken in the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Rights of the Child, which shall carry out the functions hereinafter provided.

2. The Committee shall consist of eighteen experts of high moral standing and recognized competence in the field covered by this Convention.^{1/} The members of the Committee shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity, consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution, as well as to the principal legal systems.

3. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.

4. The initial election to the Committee shall be held no later than six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention and thereafter every second year. At least four months before the date of each election, the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a letter to States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary-General shall subsequently prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating States Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties to the present Convention.

5. The elections shall be held at meetings of States Parties convened by the Secretary-General at United Nations Headquarters. At those meetings, for which two thirds of States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.

6. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. They shall be eligible for re-election if re-nominated. The term of five of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election, the names of these five members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the meeting.

7. If a member of the Committee dies or resigns or declares that for any other cause he or she can no longer perform the duties of the Committee, the State Party which nominated the member shall appoint another expert from among its nationals to serve for the remainder of the term, subject to the approval of the Committee. 8. The Committee shall establish its own rules of procedure.

9. The Committee shall elect its officers for a period of two years.

10. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee. The Committee shall normally meet annually. The duration of the meetings of the Committee shall be determined, and reviewed, if necessary, by a meeting of the States Parties to the present Convention, subject to the approval of the General Assembly.

11. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.

12. With the approval of the General Assembly, the members of the Committee established under the present Convention shall receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide.

Article 44

1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Committee, through the Secretary-General of the United Nations, reports on the measures they have adopted which give effect to the rights recognized herein and on the progress made on the enjoyment of those rights

(a) Within two years of the entry into force of the Convention for the State Party concerned;

(b) Thereafter every five years.

2. Reports made under the present article shall indicate factors and difficulties, if any, affecting the degree of fulfilment of the obligations under the present Convention. Reports shall also contain sufficient information to provide the Committee with a comprehensive understanding of the implementation of the Convention in the country concerned.

3. A State Party which has submitted a comprehensive initial report to the Committee need not, in its subsequent reports submitted in accordance with paragraph 1 (b) of the present article, repeat basic information previously provided.

4. The Committee may request from States Parties further information relevant to the implementation of the Convention.

5. The Committee shall submit to the General Assembly, through the Economic and Social Council, every two years, reports on its activities.

6. States Parties shall make their reports widely available to the public in their own countries.

Article 45

In order to foster the effective implementation of the Convention and to encourage international co-operation in the field covered by the Convention:

(a) The specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund, and other United Nations organs shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their mandate. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund and other competent bodies as it may consider appropriate to provide expert advice on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their respective mandates. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund, and other United Nations organs to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities;

(b) The Committee shall transmit, as it may consider appropriate, to the specialized agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund and other competent bodies, any reports from States Parties that contain a request, or indicate a need, for technical

advice or assistance, along with the Committee's observations and suggestions, if any, on these requests or indications;

(c) The Committee may recommend to the General Assembly to request the Secretary-General to undertake on its behalf studies on specific issues relating to the rights of the child;

(d) The Committee may make suggestions and general recommendations based on information received pursuant to articles 44 and 45 of the present Convention. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be transmitted to any State Party concerned and reported to the General Assembly, together with comments, if any, from States Parties.

PART III

Article 46

The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.

Article 47

The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 48

The present Convention shall remain open for accession by any State. The instruments of accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 49

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day following the date of deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.

2. For each State ratifying or acceding to the Convention after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the deposit by such State of its instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 50

1. Any State Party may propose an amendment and file it with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The Secretary-General shall thereupon communicate the proposed amendment to States Parties, with a request that they indicate whether they favour a conference of States Parties for the purpose of considering and voting upon the proposals. In the event that, within four months from the date of such communication, at least one third of the States Parties favour such a conference, the Secretary-General shall convene the conference under the auspices of the United Nations. Any amendment adopted by a majority of States Parties present and voting at the conference shall be submitted to the General Assembly for approval.

2. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph 1 of the present article shall enter into force when it has been approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations and accepted by a two-thirds majority of States Parties.

3. When an amendment enters into force, it shall be binding on those States Parties which have accepted it, other States Parties still being bound by the provisions of the present Convention and any earlier amendments which they have accepted.

Article 51

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.

2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.

3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to that effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received by the Secretary-General

Article 52

A State Party may denounce the present Convention by written notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Denunciation becomes effective one year after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary-General.

Article 53

The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.

Article 54

The original of the present Convention, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. In witness thereof the undersigned plenipotentiaries, being duly authorized thereto by their respective Governments, have signed the present Convention.

1/ The General Assembly, in its resolution 50/155 of 21 December 1995 , approved the amendment to article 43, paragraph 2, of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, replacing the word "ten" with the word "eighteen". The amendment entered into force on 18 November 2002 when it had been accepted by a two-thirds majority of the States parties (128 out of 191).
<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm>

APPENDIX II

HEADLINES OF CHILD RIGHT ISSUES

DAILY TIMES

1999

- January** Poverty manifests in various forms such as poor feeding
- February** In times of war or civil crisis, women bear the burden of keeping the family together.
A child being immunized
Five pupils injured in blast
- March** Travails of British child-workers
Oxfam canvasses for Primary education for all by 2015 AD
- April** Call for law against under-age marriages
- June** Role of parents on sex education
Death from childbirth rises
Call for protection of children
- August** A woman and her quadruplet, waiting for alms
Economic gains of breast milk
- October** Man, 52, rapes 2 year old girl
Children: Most endangered species globally
- December** Doses of child-abuse

2000

- May** Setting a standard for our children
Drugs abuse and family- one problem too many
Benita, humming bird who wants to lead children to God
- June** Poverty, cause of child trafficking- Otti
- August** Mrs Obasanjo identifies panacea for reducing child mortality rate

13 girls die in boat mishap

Bauchi ready to protect children (through signing of legislative bill)

Wife of Lagos governor, Mrs Oluremi Tinubu (carrying two children) Grand finale of the year-2000 World Breastfeeding Week and Baby show in Lagos

Breastfeeding Week

Two students held over alleged kidnapping of 3-year old girl

October Boys Scouts at the parade to commemorate the 40th Independence celebration, Lagos.

President Obasanjo carrying a child ... at an event

Children artists make statements on canvas

November Mrs Stella Obasanjo received a cheque of 1.5 million naira being a donation by KLM, the Royal Dutch Airlines on behalf of the Child Care Foundation of which she is chairperson

Immunize your child against killer diseases (a child being immunized)

Where is the love you promised me (on the occasion of World Children's Day)

December Children: The product of marriage (Advise on child training)

PENGASSAN's strike bows to children's rights

2001

January First baby of the year

17 million Nigerian children out of school

Poverty-stricken Somali woman and child

Small kids, big expectations

Children of Child Life Line (school) in New Year party

Contribute to children's education

February Women trafficking and child labour

Teenage pregnancy, STD thrive on ignorance

NYSC launches scheme for underprivileged children

March Autistic child- Kid with special care

	58 kids roasted in Kenyan school
April	Over 350 kids storm National Stadium for Milo Tennis Clinic
May	Factors inhibiting growth of female children identified The rise of adult child
August	Make sacrifices for children's education
September	A severely malnourished Afghan child, Cul Baz, 2, rests at a bed in hospital in Peshawar
October	Let's do it for the child The sale of children, child prostitution and pornography: Optional protocol to the convention on the rights of the child
November	State of the world's children - Not yet euphoria School children halt Assembly Proceedings- Demand bill on access to quality education, health
 <u>2002</u>	
February	Displaced children after the bomb disaster Victims (children) of Lagos communal clash queue for food at Ikeja Police College Please save my soul- Bankole (<i>a child suffering from congenital defects</i>)
March	UN special session on children
April	Kids rush for Milo tennis at Sports City
May	Revitalizing early childhood care education Children on parade ground marking Children's Day Take advantage of FG's UBE scheme, <i>Anyim tells Nigerian children</i> Between Children's and Democracy Day Good morning tomorrow, Good morning tomorrow Children honour bomb blast victim colleagues
June	Oluwatosin laid to rest by schoolmates amid tears Mother, 2 children crushed by lorry
July	Female infanticide: killing in the name of population control Assaults on vulnerable group WOTCLEF on rescue mission
August	Boy, 13, others sue I.G, A.G for arrest, detention

- September** Strive to move the nation forward, Kumuyi tells youths
- October** Missing 3-day-old baby found/police
HOPE makes case for orphanage children
- November** 40 million children immunised against polio
Teenager sniper admits pulling the trigger
14 schools join Cowbell Children's club
Shameful trade called 'child-trafficking'
Enemies of Nigerian children
UNICEF appeals to lawmakers to reconsider children's welfare bill
- December** Educate disabled children, parents advised

2003

- February** Whither the fate of the child?
How women cause heart disease in children- Expert
- March** Children's parliament appeals for establishment of commission
Victims of war: A mother and her child in anguish
- May** Primary school pupils: How many of them have access to balanced diet?
Marking Children's Day- *Advice to government/parents*
For the sake of our children - *Enforcing bill on children rights*
What Children's Day mean to us
- June** For children choristers, the rhythms flow on Children's day celebration
Succour on day of the African child (*Pix of Kafilat at Kanu Heart Foundation Centre*)
Man in police net over alleged kidnapping of three girls
Eki Igbinedion declares total war on child trafficking
Birth registration, the right of every child
40 children to benefit from Kanu Heart Foundation
- August** 35 children die of HIV/AIDS in motherless home
- September** Liberia's child-soldiers await disarmament
Help teach children moral values; NOA urged
A suffering child from malnutrition
17-year old girl arrested for allegedly killing boyfriend

- Man, 49, rapes girl, 11
- October** Watching our children grow
- December** Kids' time out at Rosellas Amusement Park, Igando, Lagos

THE GUARDIAN

1999

- January** Children art festival begins on Sunday
Education fund to spend N4b on pry schools
- February** AREF launches children care club
- March** Mrs Titus & 4 of Ogobia's AIDS orphans
- April** Child-Soldiers are Africa's time bomb, says UN
- May** African child soliders
- June** Unicef laments child neglect by govt
Children at inauguration of the Children & Broadcasting Foundation at Nigeria Institute of International Affairs
U. S. pupils launch gun buyback crusade
- July** Mothers talking for their children (children literature) women writers of Nigeria
Abubakar signs decree of women, children hospital
- September** Mummy dies in crash, baby unclaimed 30 days after
- October** Girl, 14, arraigned over murder
- November** School girl killed in police Egbesu, OPC clash
To save our children - (child protection)
Stella Obasanjo's welfare house for 20 children
- December** 5-yr-old British girl found in squalid conditions

2000

- January** British boy gets compensation for brain damage.
- May** Pupils on resumption (day)
A child amputee fleeing Freetown

- Stella obasanjo launches child trust...
- June** Club donates bus to children's home
Ebonyi gov warns to parents over children's Education.
- August** Candy cigarettes entice children to smoke- says study
Between breast-feeding and rights of the child
- September** Ekwueme on male-child enrolment
Pupils of warring teachers
A 12-year-old girl's dream and her bow legs
- November** I feel good
Kenya releases child rights bill
- December** The Damilola I knew, by the teacher
Malnutrition causes high infant mortality, says Unicef boss.
- 2001**
- January** First baby of the year 2001
Raster sings for children
- March** 58 teenagers die in Kenyan blaze
National assembly get bill on prostitution, child abuse soon
Gunmen kill family of 13 in Algeria
- April** 20 pupils gets premier paints' bursary.
A little girl celebrating Palm Sunday.
Mystery slave ship arrives in cotonou with 43 passengers
Marooned children on the high sea
Boy 9, begins recovery of N8m judgment debt
- May** Unicef groups plan campaign on children's rights
- July** Missing Nigerian girl in France found drowned
Obasanjo, Ibori, Ige worried over children's plight
Baby weds 5-yr-old boy in Bangladesh
The other type of child abuse
- August** Afghan children return after treatment in Germany.
- November** Why avoiding breast feeding endangers baby's life
Treaty on child soldier effected at UN
Barakat and Ikomot... young victims of kerosene explosion at

	Ibadan
December	Plight of the girl-child on screen
 2002	
March	5-yr-old girls seeks peace between Israel, Palestine Blegging and dancing with death on the highway
April	Mass WASCE failure among deaf and dump students
May	Happy children's day Children's day: which children? A vote for the Nigerian child
June	World Bank verdict on children education Colors' of the African child Tears as slain pupil is burie Agabi to intervene over three-day-old baby's detention
August	Trafficking of kinds to U.K. worries London group
September	Poverty, ignorance turn communities against education Police smash child trafficking syndicate, rescue 35 kids
October	Children thrill audience with cultural displays 18-month-old baby wounded by Israeli machine gun 2000 school children benefit from deworming exercise
December	SOS children's village needs scholarship for inmates Home science group seeks action on child's bill.
 2003	
April	Some Iraq kids with a coalition of willing troops Minister list ways to end child mortality UNICEF urges support for pro-child bill
May	Lagos sets up Medicare for pregnant women, kids The drowning of a dream (babcook student) British court seeks true identify of six Nigerian kids.
June	Workshop on children's right begins today Day of the African child The menace of child trafficking A suspected pro-Charles Taylor child soldier patrols the street of

	Monrowa (A child soldier)
August	South African HIV positive girl Bongekile Mthul (13) flanked by her two brothers... allegedly abused and raped by their HIV positive father currently being looked after by their grandmother after mother died of AIDS Govt. to prosecute child traffickers. An Indonesian mother with her daughter crying after eviction from her unlicensed shack in sakarta HIV positive babies abandoned in orphanages
September	Children at risk from ozone depletion, UN warns The growing menace of branding kids witches (story of Mbawo)
October	Children learn violence from parents Obese kids rate lives with dismal scores Nigerien children...praying for their country at the 43 rd independence anniversary in Lagos yesterday. Police rescue 120 kidnapped Beninois kids Atiku's wife decries upsurge in child trafficking FIDA at <i>the Guardian</i> , canvasses right of woman, children When hope dies... at 17 (a boy who dies in bus crash) UNICEF to immunize 15 million children in Nigeria AIDS care myth fuels child rape in Zambia Alarm! Where are the vaccines? (scarcity of vaccine for polio)
December	Who killed that child (a child hawker killed) UNICEF alerts on neglect of girl education.

DAILY GRAPHIC

1999

February	Electrocuted student gets help
March	Student drowns Donation to school Poly student express regret Character development of a child

April	Pupil score low mark in class Child hawker dies Avoiding rapist/kidnappers
May	Child sex abuse- what to know I prefer football to sex
June	Child labour in morocco More girls go to school Improving performance in public basic school
July	Youth fair takes off TV and the pupil Admission to SSS Hollywood affecting children's value Help train children
August	Parents urged to monitor children's behaviour 10 million cedis for students Parents urged to be responsible Support students to be brighter Fund for students UN moves to protect children from war
September	Child, arrested over tape Donation to baby's home Children harvest maize at school
October	ABL gives to children's home Promote better future for girls To assist needy girls Donation to schools NGO to aid street children Students receive head of state awards Improvement in SSS awards
November	Teenage performance goes up Boy, mutilated organs doing well Jailed for stealing a boy
December	Support development of children, GARC World govt have failed children- UNICEF Girls acquire entrepreneurial skills

2000

- January** Group assist poor children
22 students fired
Quiz for girls
- February** Scholarship for pupil
Group assist children ward
Girl- child education launched
- March** AIDS- number of infected children rise
- April** Maid injured
Foundation assist 42 students
- May** They appeal for help
Hope for neglected children
Don't compromise girl education
60 students abandon school in protest
- June** Karimu condemns childhood marriage
Workshop on children's education
- July** Girls foil kidnap attempt?
Parents urged to invest in children's education
- August** Don't hamper girl education 6 children killed in
crossfire Christian centre helps orphan
Register all JSS3 students
- September** Man pays JSS finalist fees
Vacation classes for students
Magazine for SS students
- October** Master Barko needs support
Youth is my target
Group presents book to children
Girl defiled by watchman
Managing handicap of children in school
- November** Launcher for children
Student voted best farmer
Child appeal for peace
- January** Stop expulsion of pupils over school fees
Survey on child labour

	Philanthropist assists OSU children's home
	Child labour: the silent trade
	Baby show at KATH
February	Curbing child labour in Ghana
March	U.N promotes girl child
	Three children in Ho prison Fire burns 23 girls to death
	Basic schools need carrier guidance
	Women offers hope for needy children
	House on girl child education
	58 boys perish in fire
April	Prepare children for future challenges
May	Minister describes the states of rural schools
	Adolescent sexual relevance, health service vital
June	The woes of the street child
	150 child soldiers freed in Serria Leone
	Media and youth fertility
	Child labour, trafficking poses challenge
July	Bus runs over ice water seller
August	30 girls attend science workshop
	Victory schools hold speech day
September	As we roam for shelter let us give education a thought
October	Girl 4, killed in accident
November	NGOs promote female education
December	414.5m for 13 needy students
	Students die in accident
	Foundation supports 89 needy pupils
	Donation to school
2002	
January	Boy remanded for poisoning
February	3000 basic schools to be rehabilitated Stop children from attending funeral
	Help reduce child labour along Volta lake
	Promote girl education

March	<p>Girl killed by refuse truck</p> <p>SOS for children on the African plains</p> <p>Boy, 11 guns down play mate</p> <p>Getting the porter girls off Accra streets</p> <p>Children's hospital gets help</p> <p>Mariuns Foundation launched</p> <p>Managing girls sexual growth and hygiene</p>
April	<p>UNICEF supports education on the Afrain plains</p> <p>Kodua School gets new computers</p> <p>Obroma donates to children</p> <p>Beckley arrested again for allegedly abducing two girls</p> <p>Baby thief arrested</p>
May	<p>At the UN children's forum</p> <p>NGO saves education of 25 pupils</p>
June	<p>Latex Foam donates to children's ward</p> <p>Provide children with relevant education</p> <p>Child labour day marked</p> <p>Minister calls for good training of children</p> <p>WAJU rescues girl, 15, from forceful marriage</p>
July	<p>Sprayer attempts to sell child</p> <p>Appeal for help check child trafficking</p>
October	<p>Sniper alter target children</p> <p>Generator set for Bawjiase children's home</p>
November	<p>Keeping the child behind the school gate</p> <p>Fellowship donates to orphanage</p> <p>Moves to stop children from herding cattle Chinese embassy supports child foundation</p>
December	<p>Tussle over missing schoolboy intensifies</p> <p>NEPAD: A new partnership for Africa's children</p> <p>Bahado appeals to educate their children</p> <p>ASHFOAM fetes children on admission</p>
2003	
January	<p>Food cash gift to Osu children's home</p>

	3000 slave children homeless
	Society donates to orphanage
February	Mechanical Lloyd gives to children's hospital
	Tesie orphanage gets assistance
March	Children's issue need urgent attention
	Female students call for peace
April	Developing the talents in youths
May	Foundation supports students
July	Parents of street children attend workshop
	How to prevent diarrhea in children
	Health workers poised to offer youths friendly services
	Juaping JSS gets new school block
August	Confab for selected youths
September	Children asked to be discipline
	U.S. delegates to visit orphanage
	Maranatha Power Mission gives to Teshie orphanage
	Child health education for mothers
October	No child slavery-minister warns NGOs to stop spreading false news
	500 orphans registered at debibi
	New classroom for Minoso JSS
	Children must have education
	Muslim group assists needy pupils
	18 students with Likpe scholarship
	Polphins club supports orphanage
November	Parents asked to visit wards schools
	Educate your children
	Orphanages asked to avoid illegal adoption practices
	Minister asks society to assist orphans
	Mother and child foundation inaugurated in Canada

DAILY GUIDE

1999

January 61 yrs old man defiles girl of 9

Child snatcher grabbed

February Father who impregnates daughter in prison custody

April Man rapes 9 yrs old girl
18 month old child killed by aerial bombing in Mekele
Baby boy saves sister's life with transplant

May African child celebrated
Painter charged with rape
Man 65, defiles 10 yr old girl
Shamo Quaye's daughter suffers as Father and widow trade accusations

June These kids need your help

July Consider education of your children

August Mason gets 8 yrs for raping 13 yr old girl
Man 41 rapes 4yr old girl
Plumber in court for raping 12 yr old girl
Bad guy hammers his children and says - "it's a bad trading day"
Man gets 5 yr for raping 17 yr old lunatic
Driver grabbed for raping daughter
Life sentence for rapist
Technician in court for defiling a 13 yr girl
Girls, Father, in muddle rape charge

September Man detains 18 girls in sex orgy
Italian women assist street children
Man rapes child of 4
10 yrs for 'Bofrot' rapist

November Two kids murdered for fun
Nigerian rapist granted bail
Child's murderer still at large

2000

January Children's welfare worries club
Rape victim paralyzed
Okye Nhene hosts children's party
13 yrs old ice water seller raped

February Children inherit AIDS at birth
 AIDS crisis, - getting youth through
 62 yrs old rapist serves 3 yrs for raping child, 4

March Ghanaian dentist causes boy's death
 Rapist molester gets 12 yrs

May African child celebrated

June Girls guides camping
 2 hunks impregnate 8 JSS girls
 These children need you
 Hundreds sue order for abuse
 No more war for child soldiers

August Man arrested for defiling step child
 Carpenter defiles girl, 10

December Baby rapist jailed
 Herbalist charged with rape
 Man rapes child of 4
 Gay man, 52, killed boy, 12, over their secret sex
 Help the silent cure

2001

April Putting the children first
 Girl killed by grandfather's crocodile
 GMC supports Nsuta Schools
 National partnership for children launched

May Wiamoaze citizen in London donates to school

June Nkosi Johnson 12, advocates for HIV sufferers

July Old students donate to school

August Girl, 15 in love with rapist

September Ghana's children are stunted

October Aliu (VP) Mahama meets Northern children

November 3 boys kidnapped to New York
 S/Africans demonstrate against child rape

December Labone schools, Aquinas clash over girls

2002

- January** Stop child labour
"Carry kids" promotes child education
Man rapes daughter, granddaughter
- February** Rapist grabbed
Man charged with abduction
Girl, 16 raped by Basta
- March** Govt to address violence against women, children
Asmah gives to Osu children's home
- April** Teenage Father kills son
Six month old baby in prison
- June** Girl dies from gunshot wounds in chieftaincy clash
Scholarship for Bia students
- July** Refugee kids playing cards
- August** Young girl, man killed by car bomb in Spain
- November** 54-yr-old farmer in custody for defiling a 9-yr-old girl
- December** 100 children missing at Kokorobite

2003

- January** Girl, 19, before court for allegedly murdering child
- April** Tales of West African trafficking
- June** Cultural group stages live concept with school children
Little Mariam's diabetes still rages on
Birth registration is a child's right
- July** JSS pupil murders friend
Girl, 13, defiled by carpenter
- August** Man serves girl's head
- October** Asmah adopts 24 northern children
- December** MP gives to school

APPENDIX III

INTERCODER RELIABILITY

Variable 1: Child rights issues

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.794	.045	20.632	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.80

Kappa value for child rights issues is 0.80, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.

Variable 2: Genres

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.830	.049	12.871	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.83

Kappa value for genres is 0.83, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.

Variable 3: Prominence

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.938	.030	14.490	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.91

Kappa value for prominence is 0.91, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.

Variable 4: Sources of Reports

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.897	.050	8.788	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.90

Kappa value for source is 0.90, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.

Variable 5: Exposure of Child Abuse

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.882	.058	8.642	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.90

Kappa value for exposure of abuse is 0.90, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.

Variable 6: Direction of Coverage

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.835	.049	11.384	.000
N of Valid Cases	92			

K=0.84

Kappa value for direction of coverage is 0.84, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two coders.

Variable 7: Primary Subjects (themes)

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.818	.046	15.248	.000
N of Valid Cases	96			

K=0.82

Kappa value for primary subjects is 0.82, indicating that there is almost perfect agreement between the two ratings.

Variable 8: People Quoted

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Appox. T(b)	Appox. Sig
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.722	.061	14.807	.000
N of Valid Cases	71			

K=0.73

Kappa value for people quoted is 0.73, indicating that there is substantial agreement between the two ratings.