

Using Gender and Power Theory to Examine How Uganda Political Parties Contribute to Women Voices Marginalization in Election Reporting: The Case of 2021 Presidential Election Violence

Joseph Kato¹

¹ Victoria University, Kampala, Uganda

Correspondence: Joseph Kato, Victoria University, Kampala, Uganda.

Received: June 25, 2026
doi:10.65343/tpss.v2i3.116

Accepted: July 30, 2026
URL: <https://doi.org/10.65343/tpss.v2i3.116>

Published: August 5, 2026

Abstract

The paper examines how political parties in Uganda contribute to the marginalization of women's voices in election reporting, focusing on the 2021 presidential election. The focus is on how party structures, campaign strategies, and political communication practices shape media coverage, often amplifying or sidelining women's perspectives. Even though there have been efforts to promote gender inclusion, women's voices remain underrepresented or narrowly framed, raising concerns about the inclusiveness of democratic participation. The paper is anchored in Gender and Power Theory purposely to explore how entrenched inequalities within political and media institutions influence whose voices are heard. The theory highlights the impact of male-dominated party systems, unequal access to resources, and centralized control of political messaging on women's visibility in the media. Uganda's 2021 election provides a critical case due to its context of violence, repression, media restrictions, and a nationwide internet shutdown, which disrupted information flows. Within this constrained environment, political parties significantly shaped public narratives. The study shows how such conditions can intensify existing gender disparities, offering insights into the intersection of gender, media, and politics in developing democracies.

Keywords: 2021 presidential election violence, women voice marginalization, Gender and Power, political parties, Uganda

1. Introduction

Uganda held the 2021 presidential elections on January 14, and the winner, the incumbent and National Resistance Movement (NRM) candidate, Yoweri Museveni, extended his 35-year grip on power (Barometer, 2021). This paper has focused on the 2021 presidential elections because they were marked by unprecedented violence, which left more than 50 people shot dead by uniformed and non-uniformed security forces (Nyeko, 2021). Brutality was unleashed on opposition supporters of the National Unity Platform (NUP), headed by reggae star-turned politician Robert Ssentamu Kyagulanyi, alias Bobi Wine (Kagoro, 2023). From the nomination day of key opposition figures Bobi Wine and the FDC's Patrick Oboi Amuriat to polling day and even after Museveni was declared the winner, the period was characterised by widespread violations of human rights, ranging from the ruthless manhandling and detention of opposition presidential candidates to the killings of opposition supporters by security forces (Kagoro, 2023).

Nyeko (2021) explains that there were illegal arrests and abductions, a crackdown on the media, the beating of journalists, and the disruption of opposition rallies, alongside the deployment of heavily armed and hard-boiled-looking security forces, especially in the Kampala Metropolitan Area. Kagoro (2023) and Nyeko (2021) add that there was a total shutdown of the Internet, which made access to information and reporting on the elections a nightmare. The 2021 election was condemned by several key development partners, including the European Union (EU), which called for an investigation into electoral violence and irregularities (Kagoro, 2023; Nyeko, 2021). The Netherlands Institute for Multiparty Democracy (NIMD, 2025) writes that electoral violence has become a recurring challenge in Uganda, posing a significant threat to democracy, political stability, and human security. The complex interplay of political, socio-economic, ethnic, and historical factors influencing electoral conflicts has a great impact on election outcomes, peace, and stability (NIMD, 2025).

Kagoro (2023) indicates that the unprecedented violence during the 2021 presidential election was also described by the EU Council of Ministers as being massively characterised by the harassment of the opposition by security forces. This was also one of the reasons why, in February 2021, the European Parliament passed a resolution describing the election as undemocratic and condemning the excesses of the security forces (Kagoro, 2023). The UK Parliament (2021) also stated that Uganda's presidential election period was marred by serious human rights

violations, including killings attributed to security forces, as well as the arrest and assault of opposition supporters and journalists (Brooke-Holland, 2021). UK parliamentarians noted that opposition rallies were frequently disrupted, and access to social media was heavily restricted for several days around the time of voting. They also cited an incident in which 54 people lost their lives during protests following the arrest of Bobi Wine (Brooke-Holland, 2021). Nyeko (2021) and Brooke-Holland (2021) noted that opposition leaders accused the government of using COVID-19 restrictions as a pretext to suppress political gatherings. Despite Uganda having experienced violent elections over the years, the 2021 cycle stood out for the blatant intimidation of opposition groups and the harsh police response to protests (Nyeko, 2021; Brooke-Holland, 2021).

The EU and the UK indicated that Uganda's elections, particularly in 2021, were nowhere close to being a platform for citizens to express their political choices, but rather resembled an opportunity for Yoweri Museveni to display the state's coercive power (Kagoro, 2023; Nyeko, 2021). Brooke-Holland (2021) notes that, despite being declared the winner, Museveni secured his lowest vote share since the return of multiparty politics in 1996. This likely reflects Ugandans' growing dissatisfaction, particularly among young people who chose to align with Bobi Wine, a youthful and new entrant. Not only the UK and EU were concerned about the violent episodes of Uganda's 2021 presidential election, but also the United States. The US indicated that it was deeply troubled by reports of election violence orchestrated by security forces and voting irregularities, and it termed the electoral process as fundamentally flawed (Kagoro, 2023).

NIMD (2025) notes that Uganda's political landscape is increasingly defined by polarization and a growing culture of intolerance, where political affiliation or association with opposing views is increasingly perceived as enmity. NIMD expresses concern that this deepening intolerance is likely to fuel hostility and increase the risk of election-related conflict. This situation is further exacerbated by the perceived bias and lack of independence of key electoral institutions such as the Electoral Commission, the judiciary, and the security forces, which have significantly eroded public trust. Such distrust fuels frustration among political actors, some of whom resort to violence to express grievances or contest election outcomes (NIMD, 2025). The continued militarization of the electoral process, with security agencies particularly the military and specialized police units playing an outsized and often perceived partisan role, was also highlighted (NIMD, 2025; Brooke-Holland, 2021; Nyeko, 2021; Kagoro, 2023). This suggests that the lack of clear legal mandates, weak accountability mechanisms, and the politicization of security institutions are likely triggers for violence. Therefore, the unprecedented violence in the 2021 presidential elections is the reason this paper focuses on examining how the media presented women's voices during a period when many people, regardless of gender, were victims.

2. Gender and Power Theory

This study is anchored on gender and power theory because the researcher believes it is one of the ways women's voices marginalization in election reporting in Uganda can be critically understood. The conceptualization of gender as a central organizing principle through which power is produced and distributed within society in every organisation include political parties. It is within this context that this paper examines Uganda's political parties' contribution to women's voices' marginalization in election reporting. This is because literature suggests that such marginalization is not incidental but structurally embedded in gendered power relations that shape both political participation and media representation (Koester, 2015).

Koester's (2015) arguments are based on visible, hidden, and invisible power which provide a useful analytical framework for understanding how political parties in Uganda influence women's media representation during elections. According to Koester (2015), visible power is evident in the uneven presence of male politicians in election reporting, where men are more frequently selected as candidates, spokespersons, and primary sources of political information. Koester adds that the visibility is not neutral but reflects prior decisions within political parties that shape who becomes publicly recognized as a legitimate political actor. The hidden power operates through party gatekeeping mechanisms, where internal structures and decision-making processes determine candidate selection, allocation of campaign roles, and access to media platforms (Koester, 2015). This observation means that political parties play a decisive role in filtering women's access to public political communication spaces, thereby indirectly shaping their marginalization in election reporting. The invisible power is based on cultural norms that associate leadership and authority with masculinity, normalizing male dominance in both political institutions and media narratives (Koester, 2015). Koester's argument in the Ugandan context indicates that cultural dynamics are reinforced by deeply entrenched patriarchal systems that position men as primary holders of political authority.

Tickner (1991) argues that such patriarchal structures permeate political, economic, and social institutions, limiting women's access to decision-making spaces. This implies that political parties which are key political gatekeepers, often reproduce these inequalities by prioritizing male candidates for leadership roles and strategically positioning men as primary representatives in media engagements. According to Tickner (1991) institutional bias contributes directly to the underrepresentation of women's voices in election reporting, as media

outlets tend to rely on party-selected spokespersons and candidates as authoritative sources. This is due to the fact that gender roles function as mechanisms of power that shape both internal party dynamics and external media representation. These social constructions that frame women as passive, supportive, or less authoritative restrict their participation in high-profile political communication (Tickner, 1991). Politically structured stereotypes may translate into limited speaking opportunities for women, reduced visibility in campaign activities, and symbolic rather than substantive inclusion. This consequently implies that election reporting tends to reflect these internal party hierarchies, reproducing gendered patterns of visibility and authority (Koester, 2015).

Koester (2015) and Tickner (1991) arguments highlight the importance of understanding the interaction between private and public spheres in shaping women's political marginalization. This is because power relations within households and communities influence women's confidence, mobility, and access to political engagement opportunities. Such private sphere constraints intersect with political party structures, affecting women's ability to fully participate in political communication processes (Koester, 2015; Tickner, 1991). The duo observations mean that inequalities originating in the private sphere are reproduced within political institutions and ultimately reflected in election reporting.

Other authors Mukhopadhyay (2023) and Rey (2023) emphasize that political power is fundamentally about control over decision-making processes and access to resources. Their arguments indicate that political parties in Uganda function as critical intermediaries that regulate access to political power, media exposure, and leadership opportunities. It is through selective inclusion and exclusion practices, parties shape whose voices are amplified during elections (Mukhopadhyay, 2023; Rey (2023). Their explanations mean that even within formally democratic party structures, elite actors often dominate internal decision-making, thereby limiting women's influence over political messaging and media engagement.

Rey (2023) emphasizes that political parties are central to either perpetuating or challenging gender inequality in political communication. Rey's arguments mean that women may be formally included in party structures but when their actual visibility in election reporting is often constrained by unequal access to media platforms, leadership roles, and strategic communication spaces. It indicates that representation within parties does not necessarily translate into media visibility or substantive voice in electoral discourse. O'Neil & Domingo (2015) argue that even when women occupy positions within political parties, key decisions are often made within informal networks dominated by men. This observation explains that the informal arenas where alliances are formed and political agendas are negotiated usually exclude women, thereby limiting their ability to shape political narratives that later appear in election reporting. This means formal and informal power structures within political parties shape gendered media representation. According to Lee and Pratto (2011) political authority is strongly shaped by gendered norms that associate leadership with masculinity. The duo notes that even when women attain formal political positions, they often face structural barriers that limit their ability to convert institutional access into influence over media representation and public discourse. These observations point to the fact that men, by contrast, are generally better positioned to translate political resources into visibility and agenda-setting power, reinforcing their dominance in election reporting (Lee & Pratto, 2011).

Women marginalization is deepened by factors such as class, ethnicity, and social status intersect with gender to produce differentiated levels of exclusion (Koester, 2015; Rey, 2023). In this study's context, it means Ugandan women from elite or urban backgrounds may have greater access to political networks and media platforms, while those from rural or marginalized communities are more likely to experience compounded exclusion from both party structures and election reporting. The different authors' argument and observations in this literature about gender and power theory also suggests that Uganda's political parties play a central role in shaping the marginalization of women's voices in election reporting through multiple interconnected mechanisms. This aligns with Mukhopadhyay (2023), Koester (2015) and Rey (2023) discussion that political parties' gatekeeping practices such as candidate selection, reinforce patriarchal norms, exclude women from informal decision-making networks, and subject them to unequal access to political and media resources. This consequently makes women underrepresented in election reporting. Thus the visible or invisible women voices in political reporting should be contextualized as an outcome of institutionalized gendered power relations within political parties, rather than solely as a media-level problem (Koester, 2015; Mukhopadhyay, 2023; Rey, 2023).

3. Methodology

The paper applies a mixed methods research design to explore how political parties in Uganda contribute to the marginalization of women's voices in election reporting during the 2021 presidential election violence. Creswell (2014) explains that mixed methods research integrates qualitative and quantitative approaches to provide a more comprehensive understanding of complex social phenomena. This enables the researcher to draw on the strengths of both methodologies while offsetting their individual limitations (Creswell, 2014). The paper applies quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data from two newspapers often accused of promoting violence in election or political reporting (Ready, 2013). For instance, quantitative is obtained through systematic content

analysis of election related media stories in Daily Monitor and Red Pepper newspapers. The two newspapers were chosen because they have been accused to propagating violence in their reporting (Kato, 2025). Given to the fact that 2021 is described as the presidential election period that recorded unprecedented violence, it was befitting to use the most accused papers to examine women voices in a violent election process using the same papers (Kagoro, 2023). The researcher quantitative analysed stories reported in the period of November 2020 because it was the month that recorded the most violence episodes and it is the same period that more than 50 people were shot and killed by NRM regime security forces.

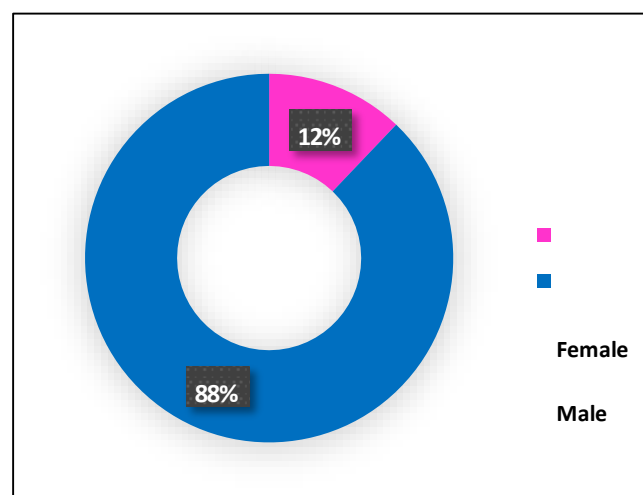
The qualitative data is collected through in-depth interviews with journalists who reported the 2021 election and some political party representatives. This content analysis of women voices in newspaper articles and their political affiliations as well in-depth interviews enriches dataset. In turn, it strengthens validity and reliability of findings (Piano Clark, 2017). The data analysis was done through SPSS and thematic analysis. SPSS was applied on quantitative data for purposes of descriptive and inferential statistics to identify patterns and disparities in representation (Poth, 2018). Thematic analysis was applied on qualitative data collected using interviews purposely to uncover underlying gendered power relations and institutional practices (Dawadi, 2021).

Quantitative and qualitative integration of findings during interpretation allows for a holistic explanation of how power structures embedded within political parties shape the marginalization of women's voices (Creswell, 2014).

4. Findings

Although the paper restricted itself to the month of November, 2020 since it was the one with the most violence in which more than 50 were shot and killed by security forces as seen in the opening section, the study was able to collect 237 newspaper articles. The Daily Monitor had 131 news stories in the month of November 2020 about the deadly campaign violence while Red Pepper had 106 stories. The content analysis outcomes showed that less than three of every 10 stories reported about the presidential campaign violence quoted a woman a main source. The main source was regarded the first person to be quoted in the story. But also in general reporting, women voices appeared in only 28.4 stories in both Daily Monitor and Red Pepper which translates into 12% of the total 237 stories examined for this study as presented below:

Only one in every 10 sources in campaign violence stories were women.



To establish the reasons behind this, the researcher interviewed four reporters two from Daily Monitor and two from Red Pepper whose names featured prominently in stories about the November 2020 presidential election violence. The researcher also interviewed an editor from Daily Monitor and another from Red Pepper. Hence, the total number of respondents was six. These were coded as Respondents one up to six. Respondents one and two were Daily Monitor reporters while Respondents three and four were Red Pepper reporters. Respondent five was a political editor at the Daily Monitor newspaper while Respondent six was the Red Pepper political and general news editor.

A question was put to all six Respondents: *What were the reasons for prioritizing men in your reporting of the November 2020 presidential campaign violence?* Through their responses and thematic analysis, five key themes were identified as explanations for male dominance in press coverage of the November 2020 presidential campaign violence. These included: male dominated political party appointments into positions of power, fewer women presidential contestants, violence that prevented women from attending rallies, abductions and

kidnappings of regime critics.

At least five of the six Respondents mentioned political appointments as one of the major factors behind the marginalization of women's voices in coverage of the November 2020 presidential campaign violence. The Respondents said the tense and violent campaign period required candidates to speak for themselves or through their party spokespersons, heads of campaign teams, or secretary generals, yet these positions were largely dominated by men.

Respondents one, two, and three cited NUP, NRM, and FDC as the political parties around which most of the news on the 2020 presidential campaign violence revolved. However, all their spokespersons were male.

"It was never deliberate to omit women's voices in the reporting. But this was beyond our control because all the people we sought commentary or responses from were largely males holding positions such as spokesperson, secretary general, or lead mobilization coordinator" (Respondent one, reporter).

Analysis of the newspaper articles showed that Joel Ssenyonyi was frequently quoted on brutality and violence against NUP members because he was the party spokesperson. Ibrahim Ssemujju Nganda was quoted on violent incidents involving the FDC candidate because he was the party spokesperson. Emmanuel Dombo was quoted in stories about NRM because he was the party spokesperson.

"If you call FDC for a comment, it's the spokesperson or the secretary general. You call NRM for a comment, and you will end up speaking to the spokesperson or the secretary general. Even in NUP, it is either the spokesperson or the secretary general who is authorized to speak. We could not speak to any woman in FDC, NUP, or NRM when we wanted an official comment" (Respondent three, reporter).

The analysis of Daily Monitor and Red Pepper articles showed that FDC's secretary general was James Nathaniel Nandala Mafabi, NUP's secretary general was Lewis Robongoya, and only NRM had a female secretary general, Justine Kasule Lumumba.

Respondent six, an editor, explained that even other "small" political parties in the 2021 presidential election race had males in key speaking positions. For instance, Respondent six cited DP, whose spokesperson was Gerald Siranda, while their secretary general was Fred Mukasa Mbidde.

"Even ANT had a male spokesperson in the name of Sulaiman Kakaire. It was only the secretary general, Winnie Kiiza, who was female in ANT. Whenever we wanted an official comment from these political parties, we would end up speaking to a man. It wasn't our design to neglect women's voices" (Respondent six, editor).

Analysis of the news showed that political representatives were the third most quoted category, with 12.6%, after candidates and security spokespersons. This means that if party key positions were held by men, it increased the likelihood of the media quoting more male voices for official comments.

The findings also showed that the 2021 presidential election race had only one female candidate. The Respondents said this further limited their ability to quote female voices, since candidates were the most frequently quoted individuals. Respondent five said that, as editors, they aimed to ensure that every candidate's voice was heard, but in a race dominated by 10 men and one woman, equal representation was not possible.

"It was our editorial policy at Daily Monitor that all candidates should be given space in the news to air their promises to voters and to speak out on what was happening throughout the campaign process. But where you have 10 male candidates and only one female, these voices could not be equal at all" (Respondent five, editor).

Indeed, analysis of Daily Monitor and Red Pepper articles showed that presidential candidates were the most quoted during the November campaign violence. They were quoted in at least 88.6 stories, accounting for 37.5%. This means male voices automatically overshadowed the single female voice.

The findings showed that government institutions such as the police, military, and Office of the President which had female spokespersons or women in positions of authority outperformed political parties in presenting women's voices in the media. For instance, government institutions had women quoted in 105 out of 237 stories as spokespersons, security commanders, or resident district commissioners. This represented 44.4%, while male representation was slightly higher at 56.6%.

Respondents one, two, and four noted that the deputy national police spokesperson was a woman, Polly Namaye, and the overall military spokesperson was Brigadier General Flavia Byekwaso. The Respondents added that the police had several women serving as district, regional, and station commanders who often spoke to the media about violence in their jurisdictions.

“When you look at our stories, the second most quoted individuals were government officials, including security commanders, spokespersons, and sometimes resident district commissioners. Because of affirmative action, several women are in positions of power in government institutions. These women often addressed the media on matters that had occurred in their areas” (Respondent two, reporter).

The findings showed that the voices of ordinary women were largely omitted in Daily Monitor and Red Pepper reporting of the November 2020 presidential campaign violence. A question was put to reporters and editors on why these voices were omitted. Respondents five and six attributed the lack of ordinary women’s voices to field reporters who did not follow instructions. For instance, Respondent five urged that they discussed gender gaps even before sending reporters to the field. Respondent five noted that, upon identifying these gaps, they introduced vox pops, where it was mandatory to include both a man and a woman.

“The gap was from the field. As a newspaper, we decided to introduce vox pops. We would get people at rallies to give feedback on what candidates had said. We rejected many stories without vox pops. It became more of a policy. A man and a woman could tell us their demands, the problems they were facing, and how they wanted candidates to address them” (Respondent five, editor).

However, Respondents one, and two said that violence at campaign rallies kept many women from attending, and even those who attended feared speaking to the media. For instance, Respondent one said many people were abducted for merely speaking out against regime excesses, which made several ordinary citizens especially women fear speaking out, even when they were victims of violence.

“We could be at a rally of NUP presidential candidate Bobi or FDC candidate Amuriat, and security would come and fire teargas and live bullets, beating whoever they came across. Male victims could speak out, but female victims would cry their way home

without saying anything. Some told us they would be abducted if they spoke out” (Respondent one, reporter).

Respondent three cited an example in Luuka District where the NUP presidential candidate was arrested by joint security forces, triggering countrywide protests. The Respondent said all the women who witnessed the violence inflicted on Bobi Wine’s supporters declined to speak, fearing similar consequences.

“One woman told me she would not attend any more rallies of opposition politicians because of what she had seen. She even begged me not to quote her or use her story in the media, yet she was bleeding after being injured in the scuffle” (Respondent three, reporter).

The above findings have revealed that male dominance in party leadership and communication structures significantly shaped media sourcing patterns. When vital roles such as spokesperson and secretary general are given to men, they are then positioned as primary sources of information during the campaigns or any other political activity. This consequently means journalists rely on these male-dominated official channels, reinforcing the underrepresentation of women’s perspectives in news coverage.

Women voices are slim in media reporting of political activities like the 2021 Uganda’s presidential campaigns when there is limited number of female presidential candidates. This constrains the visibility of women’s voices, as candidates constitute the most quoted sources. But also, structural and contextual factors like violence, abductions, and intimidation, disproportionately discouraged women mostly ordinary citizens from participating in public discourse or engaging with the media.

Even though government institutions according to the findings demonstrate relatively better inclusion of women due to affirmative action policies, political parties lagged behind in promoting gender-balanced representation. In nutshell, entrenched power relations within political parties, as explained by Gender and Power Theory, steadily limit women’s access to communicative power, thereby contributing to their marginalization in election reporting during periods of political violence.

5. Discussion

The above findings obtained through content analysis and in-depth interviews clearly demonstrate that political parties are central actors in structuring gendered patterns of media representation. The paper has revealed that the marginalization of women’s voices in election reporting is fundamentally rooted in the internal organization and power dynamics of Ugandan political parties. This draws on gender and power theory arguments particularly Koester’s (2015) framework of visible, hidden, and invisible power whereby political parties shape who speaks, who is heard, and who is recognized as a legitimate political actor during electoral processes.

This dominance starts with appointment of male spokespersons, secretary generals, and campaign officials across major parties such as NUP, NRM, and FDC. This explains visible power, where men are institutionally positioned as the primary conveyors of political information. By virtue of holding such positions, the media rely on them for

official sources comments and inquires, hence reproducing the gender imbalance in election coverage.

Outcomes have also shown that the limited number of female presidential candidates reflects hidden power within party structures. But this also goes back to the fact that candidate selection processes, which are controlled by party elites, systematically favor men, thereby restricting women's access to high visibility political roles. In times of political campaigns where candidates constitute the most quoted category in news coverage, the numerical dominance of male candidates directly translate into the dominance of male voices in the media. The study's observation strongly supports Tickner's (1991) argument that patriarchal institutional arrangements within political organizations reproduce gender inequalities in both participation and representation. The argument also aligns with Mukhopadhyay (2023) and Rey (2023), who emphasize that political parties act as gatekeepers of political and communicative power, determining whose voices gain public visibility. Since the leading political parties opted for males as their presidential candidates, it meant that they were prioritized for media reporting and comments.

Daily Monitor and Red Pepper stories and opinion collected through interviews further demonstrate the operation of invisible power, particularly through socio-cultural norms and the context of electoral violence impact how gender voices are portrayed in the reporting. Once there is widespread intimidation, arrests, and abductions as they were documented during the 2021 elections by Nyeko (2021) and Kagoro (2023), it creates an environment of fear that extremely discourage women mostly ordinary citizens from engaging with the media. This indicates that women's marginalization is not only produced within formal party structures but is also reinforced by broader socio-political conditions that limit their public participation.

Consequently, it aligns with gender and power theory which emphasizes that constraints reflect deeply embedded patriarchal norms that associate political engagement and public speech with masculinity, thereby normalizing women's silence.

Analysis of press articles and interviews have shown that even where women are present within political or institutional structures, their visibility in media reporting remains constrained. For instance, the government institutions performed relatively better due to affirmative action policies yet political parties lagged behind. This points to the fact that formal inclusion alone is insufficient. This is why O'Neil and Domingo (2015) argue, informal power networks within political parties often exclude women from meaningful influence, limiting their ability to shape political narratives that are later reflected in the media.

The paper has also revealed that exclusion of ordinary women's voices further reinforces the argument that political parties indirectly shape media representation beyond elite political actors. Once campaign environments are controlled through structural communication channels, and operating within a context of violence, it contributes to conditions that silence grassroots voices. Hence, it reflects the intersectional dimension of gender and power theory. This associates with Koester (2015) and Rey (2023) arguments that gender interacts with factors such as class and security to produce layered forms of exclusion.

In conclusion, the findings have demonstrated that Uganda's political parties contribute to women's voices marginalization in election reporting through multiple, interconnected mechanisms. It starts with monopolization of leadership and spokesperson roles with men, by limiting women's candidacy, by maintaining male dominated communication structures, and by operating within a violent political context that suppresses women's public engagement. Such dynamics confirm that gendered media representation during the 2021 presidential election violence was not merely a reflection of journalistic practices, but it was a structural outcome of power relations embedded within political parties.

References

- Barometer, A. (2021). Citizen views on the election environment for the 2021 general elections in Uganda. *Afro Barometer*, 3-9.
- Brooke-Holland, L. (2021). Uganda: reaction to the 2021 election. *House of Commons Library*, 2-3.
- Creswell, J. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*.
- Dawadi, S. S. (2021). Mixed-Methods Research: A Discussion on its Types, Challenges, and Criticisms. *Journal of Practical Studies in Education*, 26-30.
- Fleming, P. (2014). Power in management and organization science. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 237-242. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2014.875671>
- Kagoro, J. (2023). The Status Quo at All Costs: Human Rights Abuses during the 2021 Elections in Uganda. *Open Access Repository*, 1-5.

- Kato, J. (2025). Uganda Press Coverage of Presidential Campaigns Violence: A Case of Daily Monitor and Red Pepper. *International Journal of Recent Innovations in Academic Research*, 218-223.
- Koester, D. (2015). Gender & Power. *Development Leadership Program*, 1-3.
- Lee, C. (2018). *Gendered power: Insights from power basis theory*, 1-7.
- Mukhopadhyay, L. (2023). Power and Politics: The Psychology of Gender. *Psychology Research*, 1-4.
- NIMD. (2025). Election Conflict Situational Analysis & Hotspot Mapping in Uganda –2025. *Netherlands Institute for Multiparty Democracy*, 5-7.
- Nyeko, O. (2021, November 18). *Human Rights Watch*. Retrieved from Human Rights Watch. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/news/2021/11/18/one-year-later-no-justice-victims-ugandas-lethal-clampdown>
- O’Neil, T. (2015). The Power to Decided: Women, decision-making and gender equality. *The Briefing*, 2-4.
- Piano Clark, V. (2017). *Mixed Methods Research*.
- Poth, C. (2018). *Qualitative and Mixed Methods in Research*.
- Ready, P. (2013, June 5). *Index of Censorship*. Index of Censorship. Retrieved from <https://www.indexoncensorship.org/2013/06/free-speech-group-protest-violence-against-ugandan-journalists/>
- Rey, T. Y. (2023). Gender and power: A focused group discussion. In *Proceedings of the 6th International CEO Communication, Economics, Organization & Social Sciences Congress*, pp. 2-5.
- Tickner, A. J. (1991). *Gender in international relations: Hans Morgenthau’s principles of political realism—A feminist reformulation*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, pp. 27-40.

Copyrights

The journal retains exclusive first publication rights to this original, unpublished manuscript, which remains the authors' intellectual property. As an open-access journal, it permits non-commercial sharing with attribution under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0), complying with COPE (Committee on Publication Ethics) guidelines. All content is archived in public repositories to ensure transparency and accessibility.