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Media Education as a Tool to Develop Foreign Language Communicative Competence

Nataliya Khlyzova

* Irkutsk State University, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article deals with the issues of developing the foreign-language communicative competence by media education of the student. It shows the importance of the research, which is devoted to the organizing teaching a foreign language, e.g. English, in order to form the foreign-language communicative competence by means and on material of foreign-language media. The author analyzes lingo-didactic opportunities of media education from the point of their application in teaching students in the Linguistics direction. It studies the media literacy of the student as the purpose and result of media education, media knowledge, media ability and media attitudes as media literacy components. The analysis of the current state of teaching a foreign language has revealed the contradiction connected with the need of media education to work in foreign-language information space and the lack of due activities to build media knowledge, media abilities and media attitudes of the student. According to the theoretical studying of the scientific works of the Russian and foreign researchers, the described experience of adding a media educational component to the curricular of a foreign language we have held a forming experiment where we were developing the competence by means of media education. The received results confirm the hypothesis; demonstrate high potential of media education to develop the foreign-language communicative competence.

Keywords: media education, media literacy, media competence, foreign-language communicative competence, foreign-language media text, media, critical thinking, global information space.

1. Introduction

The development of the global information space and information technologies creates new conditions for the personality to form and socialize. The citizen of the 21st century interacts with media information every second. “People come in contact with media constantly throughout their daily lives. Being continuously bombarded with messages, the media has a powerful and tremendous influence on their thought processes as individuals and as a worldwide society” (Kayal, 2019). There is a need for abilities to percept media messages, select, estimate and analyze them. Therefore, media education, the autonomous section of pedagogic is getting popular. It can be described as “the process of the development of personality with the help of and on the material of media, aimed at the shaping of culture of interaction with media, the development of creative,
communicative skills, critical thinking, perception, interpretation, analysis and evaluation of media texts, teaching different forms of self–expression using media technology. Media literacy, as an outcome of this process, helps a person to actively use opportunities of the information field provided by the television, radio, video, film, press and Internet” (Fedorov, 2015).

As the information space has a global feature, a lot of information is broadcasted in a foreign language. “Citizens themselves are now generating and sharing across boundaries of language, culture and geography” (Media..., 2019). To become a full participant of the space it is necessary to master not only the knowledge of rules and systems of a foreign language, but also media language to be able to get foreign–language media, interpret, analyze and estimate media texts. The Council of the European Union determined the purpose of teaching foreign languages as to develop a foreign–language communicative competence, which is an ability and readiness of pupils to have a foreign–language communication and try to understand and be understood by native speakers (Council..., 2018).

Through media education, foreign–language communicative competence expands with the necessary media knowledge, media abilities and media attitudes in order to operate with language tools and communicate effectively in the foreign–language media activity.

According to this, we put forward a hypothesis that the potential of media education can be effectively used in the course of teaching a foreign language in order to form and develop the foreign–language communicative competence due to the new conditions of the information space. This article deals with checking the hypothesis and studying media education as a tool to form and develop the foreign–language communicative competence.

2. Materials and methods
The object of the research is media education as a tool to form and develop the foreign–language communicative competence. The purpose of the article is to study the potential of media education as a tool to form and develop the foreign–language communicative competence. The put–forward purpose requires us to solve the following research tasks:
- to determine the lingo–didactic potential of media education in teaching English;
- to analyze the modern situation to use media education at the English class;
- to develop methodical recommendations to form the foreign–language communicative competence by media education.

To carry out the tasks we used the complex of methods, such as:
- the analysis of the scientific literature of Russian and foreign authors of pedagogic, media education, a method of teaching foreign languages, linguistics;
- comparison, generalization, extrapolation, modeling;
- interviewing, conversations with teachers and students, observation as a method of the qualitative analysis of students’ work with the foreign–language media text;
- methods of mathematical statistics.

3. Discussion
No attempts to protect the personality from the media influence including foreign–language media, to stop their spreading and popularity or to establish control of them are successful. Therefore, there is a social need for media literacy of the personality. Media education seems to be a need of the modern society, aimed to protect the modern personality against media and develop the personality by means of media. According to Carl Heath “Having media and information literacy skills today is a necessity in order to understand what goes on around us in our world. Without those primary digital and media skills, the risk is that some people are left out of quite large discussions in society, and it becomes a clear issue for encouraging democratic dialogue”. The potential of media education is indisputable, studied by foreign and Russian researchers (Chelysheva, 2019; Crandall, 2016; Fedorov, 2010; Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2019; Hobbs, 2018; Jolls, 2018). Still media education is not always used in teaching a foreign language, e.g. English.

The concretized subject of our research – the student of the university – can prove it. On the one hand, he can skillfully work with the information technologies, regularly uses them for studying and drilling new vocabulary or grammar rules, looks for the necessary information, on the other hand, he cannot think critically, he has no ability to analyze, estimate, interpret the foreign–language media text, there are difficulties with perception of media. Thus, he does not use the
possibilities of the information space. The main reason of the situation is given by A.V. Fedorov, it is that “some Russian researchers and teachers still don't see a difference between media education and use of information technologies, distance learning, the media equipment in educational process of school and universities” (Fedorov, 2009).

According to Digital Education Survey, which analyzes 2,800+ responses from demographically–diverse teachers, parents, and students in the USA, “despite everyday use, there is room for growth in school technology adoption. Only 4 in 10 teachers say their school is “behind the curve” when it comes to technology adoption and implementation” (Deloitte, 2016). It also shows that “gaps exist between teachers’ perceived benefits of education technology and their actual frequency of use. Some of the widest gaps exist around learning outside of the classroom” (Deloitte, 2016).

Stanford University study showed that “80 percent of middle school students didn’t recognize an ad that was masquerading as a news story despite it being labeled “sponsored content.” The study also found that high school students had trouble telling the difference between the real Fox News Facebook site and a fake account mimicking the conservative news outlet” (Voice…, 2018).

This proves the need of media education in classes.

The analysis of the articles devoted to usage of media at the English classes at school and universities has shown that often teachers use information and communicative technologies only to increase the motivation of pupils and for an illustration. They apply media only to form language skills. Describing the potential of media at the English class A. Zorina notes that: "pupils can study the foreign language and communicate with native speakers by e-mail (that allows pupils to practice writing skills), and, use a web camera (that allows pupils to practice speaking skills)” (Zorina, 2017).

The survey in the USA finds the motivation as the main purpose to use media at the classroom. “For teachers, student engagement is the most important hook for acquisition of digital learning materials” (Deloitte, 2016).

Certainly, such technologies can be used in the didactic purposes, but it is more necessary to emphasize the analysis of the information and media education of the personality. Lindsey Tepe and Anne–Marie Slaughter write that “students need an introduction to methods for judging the credibility of different media and evaluating what they are reading. Most importantly, they need sustained access to trained teachers, librarians, and other professionals—perhaps even journalists themselves—who know how to engage them in critical conversations about what they are consuming and creating. Access to one of the nation’s premier newspapers is only a start” (Tepe, 2017). It is not debatable now. The modern society is often attacked by fake news. The advent of it is the worst–best thing to happen to media literacy in school due to Sherri Hope Culver, director of the Center for Media and Information Literacy at Temple University. “In years past, it was tough convincing legislators and reporters that how children are taught to analyze and evaluate media is important” (Stringer, 2018).

California State Senator Bill Dodd, a Democrat representing the Napa Valley said in a statement: “We already require critical thinking skills in our schools. By giving students the proper training to analyze the media they consume, we can empower them to make informed decisions” (Voice of America, 2018).

Meanwhile, Denise E. Agosto writes about the inability of people to identify fake news. “Fake news and other false or misleading information online can have a very real influence on society.” Analyzing the reasons to believe and trust fake news the author concludes the low level of media literacy of people (Agosto, 2018).

In addition, Irina Pelea finds “disinformation and Americans’ general lack of ability and desire to analyze, interpret and evaluate messaging, particularly on social media, is not confined to foreign interference” (Pelea, 2019).

National association for media literacy education in SNAPSHOT 2019 singles out “the disconnect between recognition of need and demonstration of action is vast and poses multiple challenges” (The National…., 2019). “The presence and placement of media literacy continues to be an area of debate and interest. Respondents referred to varied placements for media literacy in their organizations and institutions. Thirty–eight percent of respondents reported media literacy is part of a standard content area course, while 24 % shared it is a standalone subject. In 16 % of
responses, media literacy was described as part of an informal context, such as an advisory, after school program, or community event. In about 13%, media literacy was included as part of Library Curriculum, while about 9% collectively shared it is part of professional development, seminar or guest lecturing, or special events. Together, these varied placements suggest media literacy is valid and viable in a range of contexts and in addressing many purposes, from cross-curricular integration to professional development and community events. Media literacy, in turn, offers not only a subject of study, but also a way of teaching and learning that is meaningful across contexts” (The National..., 2019).

It proves the necessity to develop media education and media literacy of a student. Christina Hicks–Goldston and Amy Applebaum Ritchart study digital literacy. They include “seniors into the category of digital immigrants. The term describes current seniors who need to adapt to changes in society, based on digitization and technical progress, when so many offline activities are moving to online spaces” (Hicks–Goldston, 2019). We can predict the effectiveness of teaching English through media education.

Besides, as "the interpretation of media texts is changeable and often depends on the rate of political regimes" (Fedorov, 2016), for the students whose major is "Linguistics" who will work with cross-cultural communication, it is especially important to get the knowledge and abilities to interact with the foreign–language media text. O.V. Pechinkina, studying the integration of media education with teaching cross-cultural communication, concludes that: "there is a synergetic effect promoting more conscious and critical perception of information, easy penetration into the foreign-language culture and comprehension of its bases. Such approach to mass media of the USA allows pupils not only to learn about the previous and new events, tendencies and innovations, but also to understand the features of the perception of the current situation by the native speakers of one of the numerous cultures of the USA. That is a fundamental factor helping to carry out a successful cross-cultural communication” (Pechinkina, 2015). Nowadays the best way of teaching English seems to be the integration with media education.

Douglas Kellner and Jeff Share agree here and think that: “most education in the United States has not kept up with advances in technology or educational research. In our global information society, it is insufficient to teach students to read and write only with letters and numbers. We live in a multimedia age where the majority of information people receive comes less often from print sources and more typically from highly constructed visual images, complex sound arrangements, and multiple media formats” (Kellner, 2007). They offer “transformative pedagogy” where pupils can explore the “interconnections of media, cultural studies, and critical pedagogy” (Kellner, 2007) to be able use the whole potential of the information society. Heather Crandall, teaching a course of rhetoric, theorizing communication, small group communication, interpersonal communication, public address, gender communication thinks it is better to integrate it with media literacy. Heather Crandall created a course “Seminar in Media Literacy’, where one of the required relevant to media literacy is a practicum. It is a skill intensive course in public speaking, writing, and multi-media. In it, students complete a multi-media project that combines speaking and writing to improve their skills. Finally, the students are familiar with theories in rhetoric, cultural studies, semiotics, media ecology, agenda setting, framing, cultivation, standpoint theory, and the spiral of silence. It also means they have basic skills, and perhaps more advanced, with multi-media tools (Crandall, 2016). The integration of teaching any communication and media literacy of the students need a lot of practice. The idea with practicum can fit the purpose of developing the foreign-language communicative competence.

Paul Mihailidis and Benjamin Thevenin note that perspectives on media literacy vary widely, but also think that there is a growing consensus among scholars and educators that media education is a promising means of “developing informed, reflective and engaged participants essential for a democratic society” (National Association of Media Literacy Education, 2007). They make an argument for a pedagogical tool for media literacy and develop three critical media literacy outcomes—critical thinkers, creators and communicators, and agents of social change—that position media literacy as developing core competencies for engaged citizenship in a participatory democracy” (Mihailidis, 2013). Such teaching outcomes would be perfect for our students.

No doubt any foreign language is taught through culture. Bulgarian scientist Milena Tsvetkova thinks that “culture encompasses norms, beliefs, behaviours, values, traditions, languages, myths, ways of life, and so forth. Through the media, groups can create and represent
cultural identities, and the media play an influential role in the cultural practices of individuals. Media are manipulating minds some times, and controlling them. Powerful media nowadays such as social networks are able to wash brains and reshape identities especially for people who are not well educated” (Tsvetkova, 2019). That is why it is very important to master media literacy while studying the English language. So, we established a contradiction with the modern need in media education in the course of teaching foreign languages according to its proved relevance and the lack of the work to develop media knowledge, media abilities and media attitudes while forming the foreign–language communicative competence in real. Then we held a forming experiment where we formed and developed the required competence by means of media education. An indicator of media education of our students was the level of their media literacy, obligatory components of which are media knowledge, media ability and media attitudes.

4. Results
Before our experimental work, we have determined statistical similarity of experimental and control groups by revealing a normal distribution of the studied size. For this purpose, we had a special diagnostic class where the first–year students dealt with the English–speaking media activity. It stimulated their media literacy as a result of media education. The diagnostics shows that media knowledge, media ability and media attitude of the students are elementary. This conclusion allows us to separate two groups randomly: experimental (EG) and control (CG). Thus, 30 (15 in EG, 15 in CG) first–year students participate in the experimental work. It takes place within one academic year.

For fixing the level of students’ media literacy at the beginning of the experimental work with EG and CG we have a diagnostic activity with the news report of popular American radio station NPR "For one family contract work means 'feast or famine' as income varies” (https://www.npr.org). The purpose of such an activity to identify media knowledge, media abilities and media attitude in the interaction with the foreign–language media text. Table 1 gives the results.

Table 1. Results of the first diagnosing of students’ media literacy in the foreign–language media activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media literacy level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data show that the contingent of both groups has an elementary level of media literacy. These results are compared with the monitoring data, conversations, and observations. Thus, we conclude the received data are true and reflect initial knowledge, abilities and attitudes of the students of EG and CG in the English–speaking media of activity.

As for media knowledge, most of the students know about media education, media language and media functioning in the foreign–language society very little. A part of them (71 %) understand media education as "watching movies, playing computer games, using chattering messengers or e–mail, using the Internet, etc. In addition, they are not aware of the main categories and concepts of media education, regularities of perception and understanding English media text, media products. The results are in Table 2.
Table 2. First diagnosing of students’ media knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media knowledge level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for media abilities of the students during the special diagnostic activity, most of them show only some of media abilities. The most developed abilities are to send, receive media message in English (82 %), ability to search, save English information, using various search engines (84 %), ability to orientate in the information space (44 %). Abilities to analyze the media text critically (2 %). The ability to interpret an author’s position of the English–language media text is 10 %, only 6 % of the students can build logically the sequence of events in the plot. None of the students can create a media product in English. Thus, the analysis of the monitoring has shown that the most part of the students (72.8 %) have no media abilities. The results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. First diagnosing of students’ media ability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media ability level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to identify the students’ media attitude to media literacy as a result of media education, to English media texts and mediated cross–cultural communication, the main motives to participate in it, the students have written a three–paragraph essay “Media literacy is a key skill of the modern society”. About 15 % of the students support the idea, expressing the positive attitude to media education daily and especially in the professional field of translators and interpreters, reasoning the position with modern information conditions. About 60 % express the neutral attitude, 25 % criticize the developing media literacy and media education in general at the English class. Generally, they think that studying all–known categories connected with media is worthless and enlarging educational process by additional knowledge and abilities is irrational. The analysis of the essays shows that 28 % of the students express the interest to the mediated cross–cultural communication, 21 % are motivated to improve in it, and 14 % of the students are ready for developing media literacy in the course of studying English. The students also answer yes/no questions about media education. The questions and the percentage of positive answers are in the Table 4.

Table 4. The results of the first media attitudes questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media attitudes</th>
<th>EG (%)</th>
<th>CG (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media education is necessary today</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media literacy is an obligatory part of my professionalism</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be able to understand and analyze English media text</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media literacy helps to study English</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to have a high media literacy</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My media knowledge, abilities and attitudes must answer the modern demands</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to know how English mass media work</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I want to have self–development in the mediated cross–cultural communication 27 24
I want to study English through media education 65 65
I do as much as possible to be media educated 14 12
I want to take part in the mediated cross–cultural communication 27 32

In general, we conclude that the level of interest to media education, mediated cross–cultural communication, the attitude to the media literacy is rather low (Table 5).

**Table 5.** First diagnosing of students’ media attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media attitudes level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the monitoring of media literacy of the students in the English activity, we start to introduce media education in the process of forming and developing the foreign–language communicative competence.

The analysis of the curriculum "Foreign language" shows that the topics for studying can easily integrate with media education, all of them can help to form media literacy of the student. So, in EG we enlarge the curriculum with a media educational component, we use English media texts of different types and genres, all kinds of media, combining interpersonal communication and mediated one. The foreign–language communicative competence is formed and developed through mastering of media knowledge, media abilities, and media attitudes. A variety of forms allows us to involve all aspects of language. We form all structural components of the foreign–language communicative competence with the help and on material of media:

1) skills to make dialogical and monological statements, to perceive an authentic speech, to read, to write (speech competence);
2) pronouncing, lexical, grammatical skills (language competence);
3) social and cultural knowledge of the region, the abilities to use it in a proper way in the English communication (sociocultural competence);
4) abilities to use the available arsenal of knowledge and abilities in case of the lack of language means (compensatory competence);
5) meta skills and personal abilities in self–education and self–development in studying English (educational and informative competence).

In CG we teach English according to the traditional curriculum without media educational component, but with use of information technologies as a didactical means of teaching English. We emphasis the language aspects: speaking, listening, reading, writing. The foreign–language communicative competence is formed by traditional methods and means.

The dynamics of forming and developing the foreign–language communicative competence of the student by media education means is checked in different tests with the help of calculation of a complex indicator.

At the end of the experimental work there are huge changes in the attitudes of the students. In spite of the fact that in both groups the motives to study English through media education increase; nevertheless, the students of CG show an elementary level of media attitudes: 37.8 %. The students of EG have this level much less often (1 %). Such conclusion bases on the analysis of the essays, activities at the classes, conversations, observation and final media attitudes questionnaire. The results are in the Table 6.
Table 6. The results of the final media attitudes questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media attitudes</th>
<th>EG (%)</th>
<th>CG (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media education is necessary today</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media literacy is an obligatory part of my professionalism</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be able to understand and analyze English media text.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media literacy helps to study English.</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to have a high media literacy.</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My media knowledge, abilities and attitudes must answer the modern demands.</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to know how English mass media work.</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to have self–development in the mediated cross–cultural communication.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to study English through media education</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do as much as possible to be media educated.</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to take part in the mediated cross–cultural communication.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the same time in CG there is an insignificant growth of motivation to media education, but we get a significant increase in motivation to self–development in the mediated cross–cultural communication (from 24 % to 93 %). The growth of motivation in this field can be explained by the need of the students in the mediated authentic communication. The opposite situation we have in EG where besides the growth of motivation to study English through media education (from 65 % to 95 %), we observe a significant increase in motivation to form media literacy (from 32 % to 95 %) and motivations to the mediated cross–cultural communication (from 27 % to 100 %).

In general, EG have more demonstrative dynamic of forming and developing attitudes of the student: reliability of distinctions due to Student's t–test between the first and third tests in EG is 42.6 (<0.001), in CG – 17.5 (<0.001). The results of the final diagnosing of students’ media attitudes are given in the Table 7.

Table 7. Final diagnosing of students’ media attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media attitudes level</th>
<th>elementary</th>
<th>intermediate</th>
<th>advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td></td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>24</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The diagnostics of media abilities shows that 92.4% of the students in EG and only 14.2 % of CG have an advanced level of media abilities. We explain such a result in CG with a low degree of media production. The students of CG have no abilities to analyze characters’ positions, to interpret the idea of the author of the media text, to give a logical judgment, to resist to the external influence and manipulation, etc.

In the beginning the students in EG had also an elementary level of media abilities. The majority analyzing a media text retold the plot, they could not interpret an author’s position, could not see the logical sequence of events in the plot, could not perceive a latent component of the audiovisual media text, could not estimate the media text critically. A. Novikova, characterizing skills of a critical, thoughtful viewer, writes: "Our purpose is not as well training of future film critics. To benefit from one of the most popular pastimes of young people and teach them to analyze art, technical and commercial aspects of the movie are our tasks to achieve the main purpose – to promote the development of critical thinking of pupils and students" (Novikova, 2004). Our purpose extends to the different types and genres of the media text and in the end of the year the students of EG can understand codes and conventions of a certain media text, the
interrelation of form and content, the author’s message and its technical and language means. They can analyze a media image, characterize acts of characters, their psychological condition, they think critically. The results of the final diagnosing of students’ media abilities are given in the Table 8.

**Table 8.** Final diagnosing of students’ media ability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media ability level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The diagnostics of media knowledge is also positive. In order to determine the level of forming it in the end of the experimental work we give a new questionnaire developed to discover the development of the media knowledge. The open questions are about media education terminology, history, general categories. Then, the students create a web quest devoted to media knowledge. Here we can check both the media knowledge and media abilities in the mediated cross-cultural communication.

The analysis of the received results proves the efficiency of the classes in EG during this academic year within our experimental work which forms and develops media knowledge. The advanced level characterizes the majority in EG. 97.3 % of the students have such a result. 2.7 % have the intermediate level, none of the students has the elementary level in EG. Most of the students in CG have the elementary level. 48.4 % of the students show this level. 42.7 % of the students have the intermediate level. And only 8.9 % have the advance one. In general, the students in CG do not know media language, media technologies, and regularities of media functioning. At the same time, the average result of their knowledge in the field of media education increases.

Also, there is a stability of positive dynamics of all indicators both in EG, and in CG. The reliability of distinctions according to Student’s t–test between the first and third tests in EG expresses more considerably 43.8 (<0.001), than in CG 15.1 (<0.001). More details are in the Table 9.

**Table 9.** Final diagnosing of students’ media knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media knowledge level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, the interterm test demonstrates the formation and development of the foreign–language communicative competence through media education. It is given in one semester of the purposeful work. It shows the essential growth of the complex indicator of media abilities in the English media activity at EG (46.3±3.4 point). At CG the growth of the complex indicator of the abilities is also registered; however, it is not so considerable (18.4±4.2 point).

After the next test, at the end of the academic year and our experimental work, the complex indicator is already 84.2±2.1 point in EG and 34.4±1.5 in KG. This test confirms the stability of the positive dynamics of the studied process only in EG. The reliability of distinctions according to Student’s t–test between the first and third diagnostics in EG is 40.4 (<0.001), in CG is 18.2 (<0.001).

Therefore, it is possible to say that the reliable increase in level of the foreign–language communicative competence through media education of EG is registered. That demonstrates the efficiency of media education in the course of forming and developing the foreign–language communicative competence. The offered curriculum of the discipline, its volume and content promote the successful development of media abilities of the students to search, perceive,
understand, think critically the English media text of different genres, forms; media abilities to analyze difficult processes of how media work, to analyze the received information, to single out a latent idea, to interpret it, to create a media text.

The diagnostics proves the changes in the level of media literacy. Table 10 shows the results.

**Table 10.** Results of the final diagnosing of students’ media literacy in the foreign–language media activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Media literacy level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students EG</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students CG</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. **Conclusion**

The research, which is devoted to the studying of opportunities of media education to form and develop the foreign–language communicative competence of the university student, gives the results of the theoretical analysis and practical realization. That allows concluding the following:

According to the new conditions of the society, to the global information space the training of the students in the Linguistics direction at the English class demands special knowledge, abilities and attitudes. They need to deal with the English media text, to understand how English media work, to interact with them and contract their manipulative influence, to use new information technologies in studying English. In this foreshortening media education – a new pedagogical phenomenon directed to develop media literacy of the personality has great opportunities. The results received in the research prove the hypothesis, which has been given, show that media education has a high lingo–didactic potential, and can be an effective tool to form the foreign–language communicative competence of the student. However, to use this potential it is necessary to develop state standards, integrate media education into educational process of teaching English, to train teachers, to media educate systematically and purposefully.

The results of the given research also have a practical value. The developing of the foreign language communicative competence by media education through forming media literacy and its components: media knowledge, media abilities and media attitudes can be realized in teaching any foreign language, in various types of the highest professional educational institutions and secondary schools.

**References**


Teaching Students How to Analyze the Impact of Advertising Media Messages in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract

This paper examines a critical approach to analyzing advertising media messages and describes a number of instructional activities meant to enhance students’ reading and discussion skills, enforce their inferential thinking and critical analysis skills. It also considers linguistic, extralinguistic and extracurricular reasons for integrating advertising media messages in the EFL classroom. The focus is on key media education concepts which rely on applying critical questions advertising media messages. Analysis of advertising messages can help EFL teachers encourage sociocultural interpretation of contemporary media texts and raise students’ media literacy in the EFL classroom.

Keywords: language learning, advertising, message, analysis, critical thinking, inferential thinking, media literacy, media text, students, EFL.

1. Introduction

The impact of advertising on our lives is difficult to overestimate since almost every person at least once faces the need to place an advert, to scan adverts of other people or respond to someone else’s advert. It would seem that there are so many methods and tricks developed in the field of advertising that it is extremely difficult to invent something new.

There is an amazing variety of advertising media messages:

1) depending on an advertised object (product advertising – in the narrow sense, advertising a company, advertising a brand, advertising an idea, advertising a business, advertising a candidate, etc.);

2) depending on the application range (economic advertising, political advertising, social advertising, leisure advertising, meta-advertising – advertising of an advertising agency);

3) depending on the target audience (mass advertising, advertising for a specialist);

4) depending on the media (radio advertising, TV commercials, posters, street billboards, newspaper advertising, advertising by mail, advertising in special publications, advertising in catalogues);

5) depending on the argumentation method (rational advertising, emotional advertising, logical advertising, associative advertising, subject advertising, figurative advertising, factual advertising, etc.);

6) depending on persuasion means (direct advertising, allegorical advertising, dissonant advertising, conformist advertising). Besides, there is the so-called “tough” advertising and the so-

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called “soft” advertising, etc. In educational practice, advertising messages are most often used in teaching reading skills in the EFL classroom.

However, from our point of view, learning to read and understand an advertising text can hardly be considered the major goal of learners studying English as a foreign language. We prefer to treat the advertising message as one of effective EFL training tools or educational materials available to any teacher constantly searching for original and authentic texts in addition to traditional textbooks.

Moreover, advertising messages are becoming an important means of secondary socialization of an individual thus helping students to get acquainted with both the linguistic and extralinguistic norms of the society in which and for which they are created. They also contribute to developing inferential thinking and critical analytical skills of future professionals.

In our opinion, consumer advertising is one of the most suitable media texts for the EFL classroom since it contains well-known everyday life realities which are most widely represented in goods and services advertising. This also helps to overcome intercultural barriers that arise when teaching EFL if it is organized as a dialogue of cultures.

Advertising at the present stage has become one of the most common, dynamic phenomena of mass communication. Its extralinguistic, linguistic, lingucultural features make it a convenient source of authentic textual material suitable for learning a foreign language: “Advertising often explores linguistic and visual codes in a variety of ways, thus being of value to teachers. Advertisements use consistent patterns of linguistic, textual and visual representation, as well as persistent themes to project an image of a global reach” (Petrovska, 2008: 169).

When fulfilling informational and convincing functions an advertising message attracts some precedent phenomena, intertextual and hypertextual links thus concentrating in itself a large amount of explicit and implicit information about culture, history, mentality and background information connected with English native speakers and their culture.

2. Materials and methods

Journal publications and books concerning the issues of analyzing advertising media messages in the EFL classroom are the main sources for writing this article. The study is based on the systemic and the comparative methods.

Our research material concerns the analysis of advertising media messages in the EFL classroom which include print media (newspapers, magazines, pamphlets), electronic media (radio, television), outdoor signs and posters, direct mailings, novelties, and the Internet. We understand a “media message” as “information transmitted on media channels” (Fedorov, 2017: 20; 2019; Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2018). As for the term “advertisement”, it is understood as “public promotion of a product or service by means of a notice, such as a poster, newspaper display, or paid announcement in some electronic or digital medium, designed to attract public attention or patronage” (Danesi, 2009:11).

We also relied on key media education concepts in our research: media agencies, media/media text categories, media technologies, media languages, media representations and media audiences (Bazalgette, 1992: 199; Hobbs, 2011; Livingstone, Haddon, 2009).

3. Discussion

Going beyond the classroom, students meet with a great number of media texts which they sometimes cannot comprehend properly, such as advertising messages. There are many definitions of advertising (Bieberly, 2008; Bryant, Thompson, 2002; Danesi, 2009). Most of these definitions express the point of view of managers, advertising manufacturers and copywriters:

– advertising is a social institution, a tool of a product promotion, a form of marketing communication, as a rule, paid for by a certain advertiser that is non-personalized, and distributed to influence the target audience;

– advertising is non-personalized transfer of information, usually paid for and often based on persuasion, about products, services and ideas through various media;

– advertising is information about consumer properties of goods and types of services in order to generate consumer demand for them;
– a special combination of visual and targeted (pragmatic) information distributed through various channels (including mass media) by advertisers initiated by producers of goods and services in order to generate demand for these goods and services from consumers and encourage them to buy the advertised product.

Advertising attracts attention of researchers from different scientific fields: psychology, sociology, communication theory, theory of translation, linguistics, culturology. As a rule, advertising is considered from the point of view of its design, functioning, and methods of influence on the recipient. In other words, in most cases, researchers represent the position of advertisers and ad manufacturers. Very rarely scholars focus on language tools used by advertising to realize its inherent functions.

Much fewer methodologists, theorists and practitioners of language teaching pay attention to critical analysis of advertising messages. The advertisement has always been regarded as something exotic, a low colloquial genre which is seldom used in teaching foreign languages.

When evaluating the advertisement as a potential learning tool we inevitably encounter the need to characterize its potential merits justifying the appeal to them in the language learning process. Hence, let us discuss the reasons for using advertising messages in language learning.

**Linguistic Reasons**

1. Demonstration, as a rule, of a living, relevant authentic English language.

2. Reliance on a wide range of national cultural linguistic units (phraseology, proverbs, national cultural stereotypes, set word usage, references to precedent phenomena – names, texts, events, facts, etc.) that are of a particular value for learning a foreign language in the context of intercultural communication.

3. A wide range of facts and units of the English language included in the curriculum are represented in advertising messages which turn them contextually and communicatively into complete statements that can be viewed as lively and vivid illustrations of English grammar and vocabulary.

Contemporary advertising (advertisement) has already become an integral part of our life and is not just an “engine of commerce” but also a real art. Undoubtedly, any advertising has the same goal – to persuade a consumer to buy more, more and more. As they say, there is no such thing as bad publicity.

Traditionally, advertising has been considered to be a special type of a text, which, being a tool for stimulating economic growth, at the same time has a tremendous power of psychological impact on society.

Modern text linguistics refers advertising to the category of creolized texts which structure consists of two inhomogeneous parts: verbal (language / speech) and non-verbal (belonging to other sign systems). The world of creolized texts is multidimensional: newspaper and journalistic texts, scientific and technical texts, instructions, illustrated and artistic texts, ad texts, posters, comics, leaflets, etc. The role of creolized texts is rapidly increasing as the image is stepping up.

Such texts have their own rules governing the external design of the text. Knowledge of these norms allows communicants to accurately distinguish a newspaper text from a poetic one or an advertisement without delving into the content of the text in terms of its paralinguistic design. Thus, in advertising messages preference is given to photographs, verbal and iconic parts (a picture, a diagram, etc.) are found in different combinations. The communicative-pragmatic norm of an advertising message is characterized by a wide range of paralinguistic means.

On the one hand, advertising messages refer to utilitarian media texts but, on the other hand, they are considered to be the most mobile and dynamic texts which occupy a leading place in mass media according to intercultural communication experts since advertising reflects self-awareness of the linguacultural community in a simplified form.

A striking distinctive feature of advertising messages is the use of almost all functional styles of the English language: depending on the target audience of the advertising message they can belong to formal business and everyday speech, scientific, literary and artistic styles. This fact is essential for EFL students’ awareness of various functional styles of modern English.

It is known that the main requirement for an advertising message is a maximum amount of information accompanied by a minimum amount of text. Text compression should be combined with expressiveness thus causing a number of translation problems. Hence, when translating
advertising messages, it is necessary to understand the image of the product that a media agency seeks to convey to media audiences. The main criterion for relevant translation of such a media text should be its communicative and sociocultural adequacy. The text of an advertisement itself is an indissoluble unity of verbal and non-verbal components which must be taken into account when translating it into a foreign language in the EFL classroom.

**Extralinguistic and Extracurricular Reasons**

1. **Prevalence and availability of advertising messages** (they are easily found: in the street, at the airport, in the newspaper, on radio and television, in shops, on the Internet, etc.). Nowadays we are surrounded by different types of outdoor advertising: advertising on billboards, installations, furniture, street lighting, electronic displays, road signs and bridges; at train stations and airports; advertising installations on roofs of buildings, etc. Types of advertising in the subway: sticky application on turnstiles of station lobbies and subway cars, posters on the subway track walls, advertisements on doors of station lobbies, illuminated information signs and billboards in the lobbies of metro stations and subways, etc. Thus, the ubiquity of advertising makes it, perhaps, one of the most accessible types of authentic English media texts. It would be extremely irrational to ignore such accessible textual material when modeling the content of learning language.

2. **Conciseness.** Any advertisement is a brief media text, — sometimes a phrase, a motto, or an appeal. This conciseness of a statement in an advertising message is connected (except for the purely economic reason — a high cost of advertising space), among other things, with some psychological reasons: the shorter the advertisement, the more likely is that a person will read it to the end between times. Such non-language economy is realized with the help of various means of language compression (or meaning compression) — the ways to communicate information in a compressed non-expanded form. Brevity, visibility and mobility of advertising texts contribute to their methodological and educational potential in the EFL classroom.

3. **Reference to well-known realities** (advertised objects). Due to international economic, political and cultural integration, modern advertising often reports on goods, services of international and global distribution. In the field of mass communication there is a large number of transnational advertising, functioning in different countries. Such advertising messages often correlate their content with the national culture, mentality, traditions, etc. But its essence — the advertised product or service — remains the same, recognizable in all countries with the same success. In situations of intercultural contact this property of advertising makes it a speech material convenient for critical and sociocultural interpretation.

Owing to their specific functions advertising messages widely present information about culture as they appeal to the background knowledge and culture of a language speaker. Information of this kind is accumulated due to the reference to some precedent phenomena: names of famous people, words with a national and cultural component, phraseological units and proverbs. This fact contributes to students’ cultural awareness since advertising messages possess a significant linguistic and sociocultural potential. That is why they can be effectively used as a means of solving the problems of forming a speech, communicative, sociocultural, information and media competencies of EFL students.

4. **Results**

Despite their significant linguistic, methodological, and media educational potential advertising messages are rarely used by EFL teachers to solve the problems of fostering the language, speech, communicative, regional geographic competences of EFL students. At the same time, possessing all the advantages of authentic texts they can fully complement the language environment, and in some cases compensate for its absence at the EFL lesson and beyond.

In order for English-language advertising messages to be transformed into a means of learning, it is necessary, first of all, to decide on principles of their selection for educational needs. As the main criteria for deciding the question of the degree to which a particular advertising message corresponds to goals and objectives of teaching a foreign language, we offer the following requirements: informative content and compliance with educational and extracurricular interests of students (age, professional interests, social and cultural interests); representativeness (in terms of their representation of the genre advertising diversity); an educational value; a linguistic and cultural value; a positive axiological context; availability of its subject and metaphoric content for EFL students and the stage of language learning. An exceptionally rich linguacultural potential of
advertising messages is the best match for the tasks of linguistic and sociocultural aspects of teaching a foreign language.

Moreover, the inter-ethnic nature of advertising is provided, among other things, by a certain universal set of keywords used in advertising messages to form a positive image of a product or service in order to make the consumer purchase the advertised product. Study of these clichés and key words in the EFL classroom could help the teacher enlarge and enrich the students’ vocabulary concerning mass media production.

The most important function of advertising is to draw the attention of the media audience and stimulate consumer demand. It is associated with the use of various ways of expressing motivation: both explicit and implicit. And students should be taught to “read between the lines” the implied message in order to develop their critical reading skills.

Critical analysis of advertising messages can help EFL teachers enhance students’ analytical skills and raise their media literacy: “Instructors should consider using advertising analysis methods to help students meet the goal of improving critical thinking and language skill in a way that is motivating and interesting” (Hobbs et al, 2014: 27). In this context, EFL students can be asked to describe and analyze print and TV advertisements, develop their awareness of the advertising techniques and media effects on people, create their own advertisements, discuss how words and images are used together to communicate the message of the ad, discuss gender representation in advertisements, etc.

It should be noted that amusing or funny advertising in English is one of the most common features in many countries. Sometimes viewers can only guess what prompted the authors to create such “masterpieces”. There is even a special TV program that presents the funniest commercials in English of the year. Here are some useful Internet sites containing creative amusing advertising videos and posters that can be used by EFL teachers (funny-commercial.com, veryfunnyads.com, funny-commercial.org, funniest-commercial.com).

In our opinion, use of pragmatic media texts (advertisements, travel tickets, posters, etc.) at foreign language lessons corresponds to this principle and in turn contributes to the growth of learners’ motivation, acquaints students with contemporary reality of the English-speaking country and expands their linguistic and professional outlook.

Mass media culture inundates people with marketing and advertising every day telling them that they are not going to be happy or successful or attractive or worthy unless they buy what they have to offer, and hiding from view all the suffering and exploitation that are inherent in many ads and their products and services. That is why “the objective of classes devoted to studying advertising is to teach school children (or university students) to recognize various advertising technologies, analyze their goals and, finally, to make independent, reasonable decisions in everyday life” (Novikova, 2004: 19).

Hence, students should be provided with some tools to free themselves from the imposing influence of such advertising and to help them become conscious citizens able to discern, think critically, and make competent choices based on their own values and desires. For this purpose, they should be acquainted with the key media education concepts (Bazalgette, 1992: 199). Teachers can help both children and adults protect and empower themselves from marketing and advertising. Here are some activities that can help.

Activity 1. Advertising language.

Media concepts: language, category
Language skills: vocabulary

Procedure: show the students a word cloud (Figure 1) with advertising key words (such as market, publicity, brand, classified ads, flyer, commercial, etc.). The students focus on the words, or add more, to get everybody fully on topic under study. Then give them some sentences and ask them to try to deduce the meaning of the bold words from the context.
E.g. Advertising is a marketing tactic involving paying for space to promote a product, service, or cause. Many adverts are only effective because they persuade people that they need products or services when in reality they don’t. Sometimes advertising is deceptive, you can’t believe a word they tell you.

**Activity 2.** What advertised products do you have?
Media concepts: language, audience
Language skills: vocabulary, speaking
Procedure: ask students in pairs to think and speak honestly about all the things they have in their houses that have been advertised. Perhaps they could say what they have, how it was advertised, and who bought it and why.

**Activity 3.** Advertising slogans.
Media concepts: agency, language, audience
Language skills: vocabulary, speaking
Procedure: students review a number of “slogans” and write convincing sales slogans for something, which they should sell to the class. After listening to the advertisements ask the students to consider which ads have influenced them. Ask them to be very honest as they reflect on the impact of the advertising message on their desires.

E.g. Advertising Slogans
Can we interest you in a ... ?
This is a very popular item.
You’re never too old / young for a ... 
An eye-pleasing item!
Enjoy the amazing beauty of ...
Make an impression with ...

**Activity 4.** Analyzing advertisements.
Media concepts: agency, language, audience
Language skills: vocabulary, speaking
Procedure: scatter advertisements from popular modern magazines over the floor of the classroom. Demonstrate how to analyze the messages implied in them, using the following questions:

1. What product or service is being advertised?
2. What need or desire does the advertisement promise to fulfill? (e.g. love, happiness, wealth, beauty, health, etc.)
3. Who is the target audience?
4. Who is excluded by the advertisement? (i.e. social classes, races, body types, values, etc.)? 
5. What suffering, exploitation or destruction is hidden from the audience’s view? (i.e., destruction to the environment) 
6. What product might do more good? What service could do less harm? 
Activity 5. Do you know how to advertise? 
Media concepts: language, audience, technology 
Language skills: speaking 
Procedure: have your students role play the following advertising situations.
1. You want to sell a new type of laptop. You have decided to advertise it on the Internet. Decide when you want your ad to be broadcast so it could be seen by the maximum number of appropriate people.
2. You have just opened a new local electronic store. You don’t have a big budget so you need to think carefully about how and where to advertise.
3. You want a new roommate. Decide how to advertise so it will be seen by the type of person you want to live with.
4. You have invented a new kind of a medical device, and you want to market this. Decide which will serve you best and why.
5. You want to advertise your company. It is not a new company but you lost money last month and you want new customers.

5. Conclusion 
The issues of media culture and media literacy of the younger generation are becoming increasingly urgent nowadays in view of the growing and ambiguous effects of present-day digital technologies and their content on a personality and society development: “Media educated citizens with a high level of information and media culture are one of the strategic European educational and sociocultural objectives” (Mikhaleva, 2016: 116). This is especially relevant for children and youth since a low level of media users' information and media culture may actualize the risk of younger audiences being manipulated by some destructive forces, which sometimes leads to asocial behavior among children and teenagers (Livingstone, Haddon, 2009). Hence, the main aim of contemporary media education is a media educated personality with a high level of digital literacy and media culture that is indispensable for safe and socially significant self-fulfillment, sociocultural and personal development in ICT mediated cross-cultural communication.

On the one hand, thanks to their dynamic and socially responsive character, advertising messages are able to fulfill the role of the natural context in foreign language acquisition for introducing and training a wide variety of linguistic phenomena. Many educational topics in the study of the phonetic, grammatical, stylistic levels of a foreign language can be provided with illustrative material from contemporary advertising messages.

On the other hand, teachers should not forget about the manipulative character of advertising messages and teach their students to “read between the lines” the implied message in order to develop their students’ critical and analytical skills. And for this purpose, students ought to be provided with some media educational tools to free themselves from the imposing influence of such advertising and to help them become conscious citizens who are able to discern, think critically, and make competent choices based on their own values and desires.

In this context, EFL students can be asked to describe and analyze print and TV advertisements, develop their awareness of the advertising techniques and media effects on people, create their own advertisements, discuss how words and images are used together to communicate the message of the ad, discuss gender representation in advertisements, etc.

References


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Abstract
Internet is providing a platform to alternative narratives to unfold. Bypassing censorship laws, requiring lesser budget and tapping the raw nerve of the audience with instant and incessant feedback, Web series are destabilizing the existing entertainment industry comprising of films and Television. Comparatively a new field of study and critical analysis, web series are being treated as another audio-visual product, thus deriving from the critical film theories as a paradigm.

Akin to films, that are considered to be a mirror of the society with an imprint of the story teller, according to the auteur theory, the web series also is an audio-visual work of art, woven with a narrative. The identity of the story teller impacts the telling of the story, and the choice of the story as well. In the light of the Auteur Theory (Bazin, 1957), this paper discusses the perspectives of the director and employs an in-depth narrative analysis of the Netflix's Indian Web-Series Ghoul (2018) to study the representations and identity of various characters on the basis of their gender, race and religion. The paper studies the plot devices, themes, visual and audio design of the narrative by the filmmaker in reference to his personality and discernment. In the light of the auteur theory, the paper discusses the perspective of the director on representation of gender, race, politics and religion in the story. The metanarrative, with its many layers and contextual frames brings in an innovative actuality in the politico social and cultural milieu.

Keywords: narrative analysis, web series, metanarrative, identity, racial, religious and gender depiction.

1. Introduction
It is much more personal and quainter Web is taking over our worlds at a rapid pace. It also makes its presence felt in the way we humans have been creating, narrating and consuming stories. Back when the availability of the storyteller was of the prime importance, the premium selling point was the film ticket, the prime time on TV and the price spent on buying a book. Now as the web shifts the fulcrum of interest, it is the audience who has access to multiple platforms and avenues for entertainment and a plethora of stories to choose from. The medium could be text, audio or video or their amalgamation with interactivity, the story teller could be all powerful and omniscient like traditional medium or a collaborator like the new medium’s. The avenues for feedback are a plenty and a number of stories are finally seeing the light of the day due to the nature of the platform (Tryon, 2009).

One of the avenues supported on the internet is the web series. Initially formulated like a stage in between TV shows and Films, the web series are emerging as another imperative cultural

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product, closer to the audience due to the nature of the medium. The stories are less opulent, but deeply rooted, the targeted market is less vast, but more critical and the film makers are less glamorous but sincerer about the tales they aim to deliver. Audience also connects with the content differently with the trend of binge watching, and the interpersonal relationships people forge with their electronic devices like smartphones, laptops and tablets. Viewing a web series is neither a family activity like watching TV, neither an outing with friends or family like watching a film. (Alice, 2016).

Sticking to the Public Sphere model (Habermas, 2006), YouTube is a platform, which allows each individual to share video content and see video content uploaded by others. Being democratic in nature, the content rules who is more popular or rather gets a greater number of hits. With heavy traffic on a channel, the advertisers also want to hook in the audience. YouTube heralded the onset of web-series, with users creating and hosting their own video stories which involved less capital, great experimentation and relatable stories (Lambert, 2013).

Metanarrative and other relevant aspects is the narrative of narratives is a narratological enquiry into the stories, their mode of delivery, choice of themes etc. Done from a structuralist point of view, metanarratives try to look at a language beyond what is implied to ascertain the reasons and the context of the meaning assumed. Thus, discussing the metalanguage as well, freeing the words from their explicit meanings.

As Derrida put it, words are only vessels created to carry the meaning across, but what if the meaning is carried beyond in much more than the combination of words (Derrida, 1997). This is in the context of language and storytelling for the literary mediums, but can we juxtapose this with the Montage theory (Eisenstein, 2010) from the soviet school when discussing films? The theory states that when two shots are combined, the meaning could be much more than their combination. A + B is not equal to C.

Drawing parallels, the visuals mean much more than what they are when combined together in a specific space, time and context provided by the cinematic moment. Aid this with the dimension of sound, and the implicit meaning can be affected exponentially.

With the advent of a new medium, which hosts stories different from the mainstream, gives the mouthpiece to segments silenced till now and empowers the audience instead of assuming them as mere passive beings, there emerges a necessity of studying and chalking a metanarrative for it. What are the stories being told, why are they being told now, why are they being told at all? Who are the people who are telling this? While the auteur theory states that their persona an important factor, how does this relegate on this particular medium? This paper is an attempt to get an insight into such and related questions.

Before the Internet boom in the silicon city, Netflix began as an DVD renting company in 1997 in California. From an initial DVD sales and rental services, the giant is now foraying into TV and Film Production. Currently placed at the tenth position in the list of world’s largest Internet based companies, Netflix is starting to prove a worthy competitor to entertainment giants like HBO and Fox Entertainment. As the subscriber base increased and spread across the globe, so did the choice of content.

Within a time span, the creators realized that existing content might not be enough to keep the audience hooked. Thus began the commissioning of original content in 2010. By mid 2011, Netflix began live streaming of content, which is akin to broadcasting, but customized for content. In 2013, House of Cards, first series created, produced and streamed by Netflix debuted. Co-produced by Hollywood producers Kevin Spacey and David Fincher, the success of the series heralded a new entertainment platform and cross industry collaborations. It is like Hollywood met Silicon City.

Slowly TV channels began borrowing content from Netflix for their audience, for Example Orange in the New Black and Thirteen Reasons Why (Masters, 2016). In 2016, Netflix entered the Indian markets, testing waters with streaming first (Lieberman, 2013); plans for indigenous production unfolded in 2018 with Sacred Games (2018), Ghoul (2018), along with the films like Love Per Sq. Feet (2018), Lust Stories (2018), Brijmohan Amar Rahein (2018), etc. This paper concerns itself with case study of Ghoul (2018), because of reasons that will be discussed later in the paper.

Ghoul (2018) is an Indian horror web series based in Arabian folklore of a monster named Ghoul. The three part series is written and directed by Patrick Graham. In totality, it is lesser than
an average feature length film releasing in India. It was produced by Anurag Kashyap, Jason Blum amongst many others. Blum had also produced Hollywood success Get Out (2017) last year, another horror set in social reality. His production house, called Blumhouse Productions produces microbudget films and is famous for giving full creative control to the directors. One of his earliest production was the pathbreaking film in the horror genre, Paranormal Activity (2005).

Ghoul was conceived by Graham after he had a dream about a scary prison and a scarier inmate. Blending in with Arabian folklore of ghoul, who fits in 'because of his characteristics' (Rosario, 2018). Graham being a British, wrote the script in English, while the dialogues were later translated into Hindi. It is one of the first major works by the Director Patrick Graham, who has directed few shorts over past 5 years.

This paper aims to analyse Ghoul (2018), a widely viewed web-series, its various depictions and portrayals in the series and Graham’s perspective in its creation and telling.

2. Materials and methods

Aims and Objectives. The overarching aim of this study is to analyze the perspectives taken on political, racial, religious and gender depictions taken by the director in the web series Ghoul (Netflix, 2018).

The objectives of this research are:
- to study the depiction of Indian political scenario in Ghoul;
- to analyze the representation of female gender in Ghoul;
- to evaluate various themes, tropes and the horror genre as depicted in Ghoul;
- to ascertain the role of the director while formulating the narrative description for the above themes.

Research questions for the study are stated as follows:
- How is gender depicted in Ghoul?
- How is religious politics depicted in Ghoul?
- What are the various themes depicted in Ghoul?
- What are the major tropes used by the director to weave the narrative?
- How does the director use mythology, politics and social set up to create horror?
- What is director's perspective in the story universe?

Methodology: The paper utilizes narrative analysis method with the theoretical framework of auteur theory to answer the research questions.

3. Discussion

Williamson discusses the idea of representation in his book Almost a Girl: Male Writers and Female Identification. He states that men have trouble expressing emotions which are supposed to be feminine, thus they end up siding with extremes (Williamson, 2001). Feminist writer Gardiner, elucidates that because of difference in life experiences, male writers usually have trouble writing female characters (Gardiner, 2011) On the other hand, Pratt states that men have patriarchy so deeply imbed in their minds, that it is difficult for them to look beyond gender stereotypes while creating a character (Pratt, 1981).

Discussing female portrayals by male directors, Griffin in her paper discusses how black female bodies were still gazed at by white supremacist capitalist patriarchal gaze (Griffin, 2013). Smith et al in their paper studied how diversity behind the camera resulted in a diverse story telling as well, which was found lacking at the moment. They also found out that greater representation on and behind the screen lead to less stereotyping in stories as well (Smith et al, 2013).

Discussing the social politics of a horror film, Tompkins discusses the social allegories hinted at by horror narratives (Tompkins, 2014). Another researcher Cooley cites in his work that horror is nothing but collective cultural fear of a society (Cooley, 2015). Lastly discussing the auteur theory, which states that the director is the auteur or the author of the film, and his personality, perspectives reflect through his story and characters (Bazin, 1957).

Thus on the basis of review of these research papers, the study is designed to look at religious, social, racial and gender depictions in the web series in concern.
4. Results

Narrative Analysis

*Ghoul* is a 2018 Netflix series based in a future dystopian Indian society. The genre chosen is horror, starring Manav Kaul and Radhika Apte. The series was shot as a 3 episodic feature by Netflix. It has been conceptualized, written and directed by Patrick Graham. Graham is a British born, Christian-white-male film maker settled in Mumbai. The paper studies his perspective in a narrative universe based in Indian sub-continent, touches upon the Hindu Muslim tension prevailing in the country, involves the brown race and the protagonist is a female. Thus, we get the insight of an outsider into the religious, political and social milieu of the country and into the mind of the female character, Nida Rahim, who belongs to a stratified disadvantaged minority.

The plot does not specify which time, but it is stated that it is set sometime in near future when India is facing a major internal security terror threat and has resorted to extreme measures to curb the insurgency (Figure 1).

![Fig. 1. Ghoul (2018): screenshot](image)

There are regions specified for ‘Scheduled Religions’ and people crossing those regions are supposed to pass through a thorough security check and passed only after verifying that they pose no threats to security, like crossing a border. While not specifying any religion/s, geographical demarcations have separated all religions. People are being hunted, jailed and punished for practicing a form of religion (Islam, in this case) which is considered to be antinational. Books are being burned, religious preachers are being jailed and lives are being closely monitored. While neither of the characters on screen say that it is Islam which is considered to be a national threat, but the language and mannerisms of few characters specify that it is the Muslims who are bearing the brunt of all the security concerns.

The activities are possibly stemming from the fear prevailing in minorities in light of far-right ideology being practiced in the country today. Being termed as redefined ‘nationalism’, any deviation from the mainstream is being called out on social media and public platforms for public shaming and marginalizing. Graham’s depiction of near future is dark and bleak for not only many communities, but for the nation as well in totality as the roads and building seem deserted and the general visual mood is dark and barren. What makes it even more relatable is the fact that the actions leading to it (as shown in the series) are not too far removed from the actual events in today’s time, only a bit more extreme in color. Extremist attitude towards a religion, silencing all voices of dissent in name of sedition and one monolithic definition of patriotism, all these issues are resonant with the condition of Indian society right now. Book burning, distribution of ‘seditious literature’ underground and a character in the national security force claiming that ‘Intellectuals are not ideal citizens’ resonate with a lot of current occurrences in the country. It resonates with the ‘Urban Naxals’ and revokes memories of Kanhaiya Kumar from JNU, Arundhati Roy and many more.

Director: Patrick Graham is a British born film maker, now based in India. His choice of story and methods of storytelling make for a curious observation. Being a white, British, Christian male, the way he depicts a brown, Indian, Muslim woman is striking. First of all, as an outsider to the country and its affairs, he starts with a dark comment on the state of the nation and the way it handles its internal issues. It reminds one of many societies which lose their individuality in the quest of homogenizing and eradicating voices of dissent. It also hints at the repercussions of the current wave of nationalism without calling a spade a spade.

Characters: The characters etched by Graham have their own individual background stories, which are important to base and establish guilt and thus fear of repercussions in them. Nida Rahim, played by Radhika Apte is a naïve young Muslim woman, who believes in saving her country from a non-patriotic ideology. She joins the special security cell’s Advanced Interrogation unit, for interrogating prisoners and is a strong determined soldier. She is the highest scorer in the
training academy and turns in her father for an extremist anti-nationalist bent and propagating it through his teachings to his students.

Colonel DeCunha is played by Manav Kaul. He is a celebrated and decorated war hero who runs the advanced interrogation unit. He is guilty of beating and abusing his wife but yearns to be called a hero publicly. He drinks away to absolve himself. He strongly discredits any allegations against Rahim initially, showing the side of mistaken, yet trusting male character, who is disciplined and yet sympathetic. A Christian male, he is the character closest to Graham in identity. Shown to be a sympathetic, is the only voice of sanity and responsibility in the unit in the time of distress. Towards the end, he is the only one who ends up helping Rahim in her quest for fighting against the ghoul. But despite his solidarity and sympathy, his character is also not given a shot at redemption as he dies at the hands of Rahim in the end as she discovers that he is not the patriot he claims to be, but a corrupt man, killing innocent prisoners.

Das is another female interrogator, played by Ratnabali Bhattacharjee, at the detention center, who is depicted as a staunch extremist Hindu. She speaks in masculine proverbs, credited to her regional dialect and shows none of the stereotypical feminine characteristics. She is the only fellow soldier who rags Rahim and wants to imprison her on her arrival, for her ties with her father and her religion.

Now dissecting and discussing the narrative with different perspectives one by one. Firstly, the gender perspective. Many studies quote that while writing female characters, male writers tend to sexualize, infantilize or/victimize the female characters up to various degrees (Ward, 2016; Bong, 2015). This results in stereotyped characters fitting into predesigned bills and fulfilling specific roles in the narratives, such as the Madonna and the Whore. Bollywood too suffers from this, as female centric films are hard to come by, and even if they do, they show characters dealing with situations with extremist measures, such as Matrubhoomi (2003), Lajja (2001) or Mother India (1957). Such narratives push the strong female prototype to the fringes of society seeing them as a once in a while revolutionary and not just another character who could have been replaced by a male character easily. Most of the Indian films also fail to pass the Bechdel Test (Bechdel, 1985) which tests whether the film lies in the paradigm of feminist cinema or not.

Considering Ghoul, which has been directed by a male director, it creates a very distinct perspective for a female protagonist. Firstly, it is unusual for female characters to be called by their last names or the family names. In the Indian context women change their surnames post marriage, and thus are entrusted with the family legacy in a literal sense in patriarchal societal setups (Anujan et al, 2012; Dudrah, 2006). This is probably the first popular film/TV show/web-series of its kind where a woman is burdened with her father’s legacy, to carry it forward and to clear his name. This is the first time that a female character is portrayed as an heir in the right of the Bollywood narratives as the character is also called by her last name in the military set up. Mainstream cinema has had female characters with no last names, to the ones who adopt last names of the husbands. Here is a character who has her father’s last name and is called by it.

Secondly, the director does not sexualize the character. While the character is dressed in a religion abiding hijab in the initial scenes, she is shown stripping down to underwear after entering the military set up, in front of a fellow soldier, without any inhibition to change into the work wear. She has her hair tied severely, sports no make-up or form fitting clothes. While Apte has played glamorous roles otherwise in her career, Graham decides not to play with her physical attractiveness, and pushes her feminity into the background, into the shadows of the detention center, under the garb of the uniform. Apte’s feminity is used not as a visual device, but a narrative one.

The director though infantilizes the character up to some extent. First with the father telling her that she is naïve, later DaCunha adopting a savior and mentor’s role. But unlike many Bollywood narratives, which portray the female lead as a child woman, needing to be rescued, or at least had the back of in case of action scenarios, Apte’s Rahim is adept mentally and physically as an agent. She shows presence of mind, control over fear and physical and mental strength, which is required by the soldiers in such scenarios, as explained by the narrative in multiple places. But still, she needs a male character to anchor her. But in a twisted climax, Graham has Rahim kill both her fathers, actual and figurative.

Lastly, victimizing the character. Rahim is shown to be in a constant dilemma, of having rattedon her father. She is haunted by the guilt but keeps her faith in the system. This could be her naivety and a hint towards being a child-woman. Hers is the only character that feels trapped,
claustrophobic at the center. Her entrapment is not only physical but also mental as she wants to prove to the authorities that she is a patriot. While she is not very comfortable being a part of the actual interrogating process, she gets involved trying to justify to herself and others that she is an able soldier.

She is also very vocal about telling herself and others, reaffirming the need for such detention centers and the process. But Graham abstains from giving her any sort of redemption towards the end. Her guilt is not resolved through her experiences, but is converted in enlightenment, depicted by an artificial halo created by a light (Figure 2). In a Buddha like pose, Apte appears like a person who is inherently peaceful, but has learn to derive the meaning of peace for herself. The enlightenment puts her on a path of another crusade, this time on a different side.

**Religious perspective:** Graham’s position is of a man taking a perspective stand on people who are too engrossed in their battles to see the larger war. It resonates with the ‘white man’s burden’or ‘white saviour’ trope used to salvage inferior races (Beeman, Narayan, 2011).

Secondly, while Graham’s race is not in common with any of the characters, his religion is. Colonel DeCunha is a Christian and is considered to be the most powerful and in authority character in the universe of the story. He is idolized by Rahim for his idealism and patriotism. Starting as a hero, he suffers from his own demons. Depicted to be a family man, his major bone of contention is depicted to be his family as he used to abuse and hit his wife. This guilt turns him into an easy target for the ghoul, and his actions under the garb of patriotism make him the last kill for Rahim.

Graham takes a benched view at religious politics. While he does not vilify any religion, he does his part of reprimanding by showing the consequences of extremist’s actions. He also creates a distinction between a good Muslim and a bad Muslim as accepted by the society today, by setting stark demarcations between the two; thus, also skirting the issue of Islamophobia.

**Political perspective:** The story talks about a fascist, authoritarian regime and according to several film critics, the story satirizes the Hindutva politics and bringing of ‘acche din’ in the nation by hinting at extremist consequences of the same (Datar, 2018). While the director hints at a dystopian future, it is not very far put as one can see the reasons, factors and their consequences leading up to that situation. Graham takes a position of a person in midst of a socio-political upheaval, but still as aloof as to enable telling of the story. He does not pick sides, does not name any religion or person, but it is unambiguously hinted at throughout the narrative.

The current milieu of the country is fostering extremism and populist ideology in name of nationalism and promoting Hindutva (Gupta, 2018). The right winged politics of the nation is at the moment dedicated to pleasing and agreeing with a propagandist ideology. The minorities also answer back severely, with a greater causticity. Hate speeches, Facebook groups and posts seem like vehicles of spreading the hatred and scratching the political backs (Sharma, 2018). Graham uses this as the crucible for the narrative.

There are multiple tropes used by the director to carry the story forward, which colour and flavour the narrative uniquely. Most prominent ones are guilt, concealment, suspicion and justice. The theme of guilt runs parallel through the story. It revokes the famous work by Agatha Christie, *And Then There Were None* (1939). It plays on the theme that guilt is a very personal and individualized emotion. It also plays upon the act of concealment of guilt, which is directed at firstly to the characters in the story universe and later metaphorically towards the
audience. Concealment and guilt create a vicious circle leading to suspicion. Everyone is suspicious of everyone, Das is suspicious of Rahim and Colonel, while the nation is suspicious of a particular religion. Graham very well plays on the three factors again revoking the religious and political condition in the country. Lastly justice, who serves justice, what is justice and how do we redeem ourselves. Many characters seek redemption and affirmation of their actions, by others and by themselves, creating an environment of uncertainty.

The mythological story that is the basis of the narrative involves a demon that prays upon guilt of people. Graham also appeals to the collective conscious of the Indian mass, posing some unsaid but extremely uncomfortable questions to be answered. Rahim states in a scene towards the end that everyone is guilty, and the guilt will eat them away, and one can’t help but wonder if the statement holds truth only in the narrative universe or is an appeal for larger masses.

Futuristic and moreover dystopian narratives are usually aimed at self-reflection and analysis of actions. Ghoul arrives with a non-partisan and foreign perspective to do just that. Dystopian societies are characterized with dehumanization, in this case of a particular religion, a tyrannical government, environmental disasters or any other form of decline of society (Reddish, Reddish, 1990).

Mythology: Graham from his benched perch, looks at the stories of the culture with the eyes of a child. And this tends to exotify the phenomenon or things which are considered run of the mill by us. For e.g., the story of ghoul. A creature that can be invoked by blood sacrifices, referring to the blood magic, the evilest form of magic considered by Christianity. The ghoul preys on the guilt or the fear of the people. Taking the help of mythology, Graham primes the audience about the repercussions of the current extremist politics. The mythological story of a djinn or ghoul is picked up from an Arabian folklore as Graham exotifies a mid-eastern culture to tell a fantasy. Hinting at cannibalism, he also paints the culture in a primal light. Graham mixes this trope with the help of mythology, along with inspiration from the famous urban legend of the Russian sleep experiment.

Horror Genre: It is a Lovecraftian format of horror, where man/mankind is a child merely, trapped in a situation which is much more immense than he can assume. A common trope in the horror stories appearing in the western world (Lovecraft, 1992). Lovecraftian horror has an individual who understands his or her insignificance in the larger scheme of things and goes insane while understanding this. The settings of Lovecraftian horror were usually desolated and away from the civilization like the unit Meghdoot 31 in this case (Figure 3). Lovecraftian horror also draws upon the helplessness and hopelessness of individuals facing a problem.

Fig. 3. Meghdoot 31: screenshot

In past few years, a new genre has been surfacing in films, it can be termed as social horror for the lack of a better word at the moment. Social horror talks about perils of an accepted social malpractice and shows us the extreme and horrific aftermath in the future, if the practice persists unalteringly. Social horror derives maximum spooks from the fact that the factors/reasons causing the horror are extremely relatable in the current condition of the society. It appeals to the larger public about the perils by scaring them.

For e.g. Get Out (2017) talks about blatant racism and mixes sci-fi to create horror in the narrative (Holmes, Lang, 2018). Similarly, Babadook (2014) talked about single parenthood and micronuclear families. It mixed mental condition of lack of sleep, suppressed griefand maternal depression to create horror (Jacobson, 2016). A Quiet Place (2016) talked about parenting and utilized a dystopian future set up and post-human era. Similarly, Ghoul deals with religious
altercations used for politics, stemming from the current socio-political situation in the country and mixes mythological fantasy to spook the audience.

Lack of stereotypical feminine: Graham emphasizes on the lack of feminine in the story universe. While the apparent fight is between the two religions, there is another fight that does not happen on screen, the fight between the two genders. The only female characters that are seen are emasculated and refrain from displaying any feminine traits. Hinting at an imbalance, the narrative plays on that in order to survive in an apocalyptic future, the women will need to let go of the stereotypical features of femininity and pick up the gun literally.

Visual setup: Ghoul tries to critique the current situation of society by projecting a dystopian future which is bleak and dark with a constant fear lurking over the shoulders. Several checking points, guerrilla existence, establishment of national security cells, Scheduled Religion’s Zones and finally the unit, which seems like the paramount picture of such society comprise the visual set ups. Most of the unit is underground and whatever part is over it has its windows painted black, so that the daylight does not break in. At a point in the story, Rahim tries to scratch away the paint in order to check whether the sun still rises in the world outside (Figure 4) marking and acknowledging a disconnect in her reality and actual reality.

![Figure 4. Ghoul (2018): screenshot](image)

It also rains throughout the major part of the film. From dripping to torrential downpour, depending upon the amount of drama in the story at the moment (Figures 5 and 6). The metaphor of long dark and rainy night is depicted throughout the narrative.

![Figure 5. Ghoul (2018): screenshot](image)

The only shot in daylight is towards the end, where Rahim, a prisoner and DeCunha escape out of the unit (Figure 7).
Seeming like the light at the end of the tunnel, the director saves the last act of attempted reclamation for the day light set up. What could have been a new beginning for her, Rahim shoots DeCunha in front of the forces, burdening herself for a life in prison in exchange of fulfilling what her father aimed for.

Alternative content: The horror is supplemented with a lot of gore and violence, which makes the content deemed suitable only for the adult viewing. The content is also suitable only for a platform like web series as the cultural and religious undertones of the content along with the blood and the gore would have been very difficult to pass through the censorship laws in India. *Padmavat* (2017) was released after much riots and ruckus by a particular community in India, it is difficult to assume that a film like *Ghoul* would have passed the Indian censor board with its severe religious and socio-political undertones.

5. Conclusion

Many foreign filmmakers have found India to be an imperative set up for many of their stories. They tend to exotify the culture, the social conditions and the history. The colors, the people, the social milieu provides an interesting backdrop for ever more intriguing stories.

*Ghoul* is a noteworthy story because of the social horror genre set up in the current contextual scenario of the country, which beacons the ‘*acche din*’. While not discarding the narrative, it is important to note that films have been an agent of white supremacy in Indian and International cinema as well, with many renowned film makers infantilizing other cultures which are deemed to be less developed. Shadeism or colorism in cinema is telling stories about races that are supposed to be inferior, with a loftier attitude (*Hole et al.*, 2016).

But at times, a distant perspective is required to see things in totality, and Graham helps us in doing that through this web-series, as it is tacit that such plots could not be reveled on Indian film screens or Television sets without hurting few religious or racial sentiments. Stills

References


Communication and Information Technologies in Preparing Students for Research Work

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Abstract
The article is focused on the issue of preparing students for research work, which is being recognized as a critical element in teacher’s professional activity. The central element of modern research work is the ability of a professional to use digital technologies that offer instantaneous access to information, new forms of sharing research findings, consolidation and collaboration among researchers, expert participation, etc.

At present university training programs are placing more emphasis on research work in preparation of future teachers. New digital technologies give a variety of opportunities to enhance the preparation of students for this kind of professional activity. The use of new generation of communication and information technologies helps to shape and develop basic knowledge and skills, which are important for adequate research work in education in a fast-changing world.

Since the introduction of Federal Educational Standards of the “third generation” the main goal in curriculum design is to prepare students for independent research work. Content of courses in research work includes theoretical and practical elements of research technologies and procedures: problem selection, problem identification and formulation, choosing a methodology, data collection, its analysis and interpretation, experiment and evaluation of research results, formulation of research findings, etc. Beyond doubt, knowledge and use of communication and information technologies strengthen research work at each of these stages.

The article analyzes the practice of Taganrog Chekhov’s Institute regarding the process of training students to organize research work. It is indicated that research competencies are expanded when the students are helped to become more skillful and knowledgeable in research through the use of special strategies and methods of education, curriculum design, and content revision in accordance with modern requirements.

Keywords: education, research, communication and information technologies.

1. Introduction
The relevance of the topic chosen for the article is justified by the dynamic development of new generation of communication and information technologies and the growing need to explore their impacts on various fields of human life and activities. This also includes the sphere of education.

To outline the scope of our research, we limit ourselves to the issues of using new communication and information technologies in education of university students to conduct research work in pedagogy. These activities link future teachers with their professional mission:

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systematic investigation, evaluation, experimentation and measuring educational outcomes on the basis of new communication technologies related to the Internet. These technologies offer instantaneous access to information across time and space thanks to new features (online mode, access to big data basis and scientific literature, quickness, breadth and dynamics of information search/dissemination, anonymity/privacy, interactivity, etc.). New technologies give a variety of opportunities to enhance the preparation for the research work and the research per se. These range from forms for sharing research to forms of getting information and from internet exchange to video conferences, etc. Obviously, the realities of digital technology have already influenced the nature of research and the learning process. That’s why much attention in university education should be given to shaping those elements of students’ research competencies that are connected with new communication and information technologies.

Professional use of communication and information technologies in research work is an obligation shared by all teachers. That’s why all future students study and practice research as part of their curriculum. There is an emphasis on “a research continuum”, which encompasses training on undergraduate (bachelor’s) and master’s levels. At Taganrog Chekhov’s Institute both bachelor’s and master’s students are deeply involved in carrying out research work, writing course projects and final thesis. All teachers’ training curricula under the undergraduate and graduate programs in the field of “Education” require the completion of course projects (usually 2 course papers) and a final thesis (graduation paper) on a topic related to education and pedagogy. The main goal in curriculum design is that research courses should prepare students for independent research work on a search for a scientific problem and its theoretical and practical study. Content of courses in research work includes theoretical and practical elements of research technologies and procedures: problem selection, problem identification and formulation, choosing a methodology, data collection, its analysis and interpretation, experiment and evaluation of research results, formulation of research findings, etc. Beyond doubt, knowledge and use of communication and information technologies strengthen research work at each of these stages.

Most of bachelor degree programs offer a course paper at the second year of education. It is a study that requires a student to write about the chosen topic based on survey of scientific sources, literature analysis and reviews. As a result students prepare the text of the course paper in which they generalize in systematic form current scientific information and their understanding of the topic chosen for the study. To fulfill their research projects students must be familiar not only with research concepts, scientific methods which they apply in their studies, but also with new ways of information search. They must have knowledge of ethics for data usage, critical thinking skills, data comparison, confirmation or refutation skills, ability to distinguish between concepts, approaches and opinions.

As for the students of master’s degree programs there is a shift in the focus of their training. The primary tasks of education appear to be to develop students’ research competencies: how to learn additional skills, acquire additional knowledge and information, how to present research findings in the forms of articles, reports and presentations with the strong accent on new communication and information technologies.

At present the task of the university education is especially complicated. On the one hand, there has been a rapid development of the digital generation of communication and information technologies. On the other, the demands made upon the research competencies of students are increasing and changing rapidly due to the introduction of new generation of Federal Educational Standards. Since the introduction of Federal Educational Standards of the “third” generation the ability to carry out the research work is a core competency for students. Although there are many problems in putting these standards into practice. Moreover, research studies are only one part of the educational process and professional enterprise that scholars and teachers are regularly engaged in. Nevertheless it is critical to strengthen opportunities for developing students’ research skill and provide them with a broad basis for understanding how to use creatively new digital technologies in professional domain.

2. Materials and methods

Our choice of materials and methods has been guided by the views of how new means of digital communication can best serve the development of research competences of future teachers. For this reason we draw attention to the sources that provide theoretical basis and practical
recommendations for the development of research skills and competencies of students in a new educational context.

Content analysis is used as a method of research. We analyze works of Russian and English speaking authors that were published during the last decade. Among them are academic writings from such journals as “British Journal of Educational Technology”, British Educational Research Journal”, “Higher Education”, “Philosophy, Sociology and Cultural Science”, “Azimuth of Scientific Research: Pedagogy and Psychology” and others.

Along with the content analysis method, an empirical method of generalizing practical experience of Taganrog Chekhov’s Institute is used.

3. Discussion

Over the past decade, the discussion about the impact of new communication and information technologies and how they influence science, education, industry, and society as a whole has become increasingly complex and controversial. Analysis of modern scientific literature and day to day educational practice proves that the Internet and digital communication technologies significantly changed educational and research activities. Open access to information – the free, immediate, online access to the results of scholarly research, and the possibility to use and re-use those results – transforms the way research and scientific inquiry are conducted. These issues have become the subject of a large literature of monographs, journal articles and academic materials.

Many authors highlighted the role of research in changing modern society and policy making (Kay, Luckin, 2018; Seldon, Abidoye, 2018; Whitty, 2006 and others). For example, C. Chapman and M. Ainscow raise the issue of the role of research in efforts to address the equity policy challenge (Chapman, Ainscow, 2019). Other authors argue that research can lead to the development of new, context-specific knowledge that can support change processes (Kerr, West, 2010; Mittonet et al, 2007; Starčič, 2019). For education it means that universities have to create such systems that can help students to make better use of research knowledge in their future practice. The most important resource in this sense is the means of multimedia, which helps to establish productive links between science, research, universities, scientists and university students.

A large block of materials on the topic connected with growing use of IT in teaching can be found in English-language sources. Of particular interest to scholars is the ethical side of the use of electronic resources in scientific research. The materials about ethical issues in research work are well developed and well explored (Floridi et al, 2018; Gu, Lai, 2019; Richards, Dignum, 2019). According to Work Programme “Science with and for Society” of European Commission Decision (EC, 2019) the new code of conduct for research integrity is unambiguous: "It is of crucial importance that researchers master the knowledge, methodologies and ethical practices associated with their field" (EC, 2019: 12). The programme stresses the necessity to improve educational and training results for responsible conduct of research. And the integrity of research is called a key prerequisite to achieve excellence in research innovation. In the first Council conclusion on research integrity it is indicated that Higher Education Institutions as well as research funding organizations should play an important role in shaping the culture of scientific research. They are expected to "define and implement policies to promote research integrity and to prevent and address research misconduct" (EC, 2019: 13).

Russian and foreign researchers point out that modern communication technologies create a specific context that requires to update methods of education (Krigina, 2009; Edwards et al, 2013; Cuban et al, 2001; Pilkington, 2008), its content (Luckin, Cukurova, 2019; Levin, 2011), role of academics and students (Kovaleva, 2018, Krigina, 2015; Selwyn, 2015) interconnections and contracts between universities, society and economy (Fishman et al, 2013; Jongbloed et al, 2008) in accordance with the necessities of modern digital society. The use of Internet resources has direct implications for the preparation of students to conduct their research work, to focus on critical thinking, reflection and practical reasoning. This is particularly true of university courses on research work.

Scholarly community notes a number of benefits and advantages provided by the use of use of new information communication technologies, but they have a strong belief that their inclusion
into the educational process does not necessarily mean that student learning will be improved. Moreover there is a fear that quantification and autonomous systems provide a new wave of power tools to track and quantify human activity in ever higher resolution (Shum, Luckin, 2019).

Addressing this problem educators try to find answers to different questions: What tools are effective to orchestrate the use of new generation of communication and information technologies in the research teaching? How can the teacher’s role be defined? How does the use of IT practices construct teachers’ professional identities? What teachers’ competences will be needed? It is anticipated that university education will manage to deliver excellent education and research opportunities in diverse settings, ways and forms that are relevant to the productive teaching and learning processes (Baker, Siemens, 2014; Krigina, 2015; Cubbage et al, 2016; Brady et al, 2015). It is therefore essential that more support and scaffolding – such as workshops and peer sharing – are needed to facilitate IT implementation and to ensure its positive effect on teaching and learning (Gu, Lai, 2019).

Thus it is obvious that the use of digital communication technologies in university education offers endless opportunities for the development of the new types of professionalism and research not only for learners but for educators as well.

4. Results

We have found out that the problem of enhancing students’ research excellence with the help of the latest communication and information technologies in university education is very diverse and multifaceted.

Educators and researchers are struggling with answers to many questions. At practical level educators are expected to gather accurate data about students’ problems with their research work, to be cautious in making inferences from these data, to try to use relevant information technologies to increase students’ understanding of their research goals, ethical obligations and responsibilities in their research work, and so on.

At this point our own response to these questions can be outlined as follows. When teaching pedagogical courses for undergraduate program (“Theory of Pedagogy” and “Practical Pedagogy”) and for graduate program (“Modern issues of science and education” and “Innovations in education”) at Taganrog Chekhov’s Institute we pay special attention to the content that we consider as research priorities. In brief, our concern is to train students:

1) to master the ways of orientation in professional sources of information by using the possibilities of the information environment (magazines, websites, educational portals, etc.);
2) to select literature on research subject from a variety of sources (including electronic libraries, different journal groups, Russian Index of Science Citation bases (RISC) based on Scientific Electronic Library (elibrary.ru), ResearcherID, Scopus, ORCID, arXiv.org, Ebrary, Google Scholar, etc.);
3) to learn the ways of work with scientific literature (analyze, generalize, organize, comment, classify, interpret, etc.);
4) to make use of scientific language in describing pedagogical problems and basic approaches in solving them;
5) to develop diagnostic techniques for information collection, targeting, forecasting, modelling, design and experimentation in research work;
6) to use theoretical knowledge for the purposes of methodological reflection, i.e. to analyze one’s own scientific activities and practical experience on the research problem.

The most important issue for the near future educational process is to bring the concerns of students doing research with the resources represented by new forms of communication and information technologies.

Among potentially important resources for further development of students’ research habits are their involvement in research initiatives and grant searching opportunities from both Russian and international sources. In this case a wide variety of national and international digital sources may serve as a basis for informed research and consumership.

5. Conclusion

We have found out that research is essential to the education profession. Research competencies receive greater recognition in the totality of teacher’s professionalism. As the
communication and information technologies are increasingly developing; they should be used to full advantage to advance these competencies. By this we mean that universities have to lay the basis for giving research a more influential role in education. That’s why the content of the courses must be constantly revised to give students acute practical skills in communication and information technologies that can be directly applied to research.

References


Use of Facebook Information for News Production by Journalists in Pakistan

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a University of Sindh, Jamshoro, Sindh, Pakistan

Abstract

Nowadays, social media is considered one of the vastly used media not only by the public but also by professionals of all fields. Like other professionals, the journalists also use social media for dissemination of their stories with the public and also gathering information for story development through social media. Facebook is one of the popular social media networks among journalists to gather information for the stories. The purpose of this study is to determine and examine the patterns of use of Facebook information news production by Pakistani journalists. The data was collected by applying a survey method from Pakistani journalists through purposive sampling technique. The findings showed that the majority of surveyed urban journalists in this study used information sought from facebook for journalistic professions; mainly, they make the highest use of facebook information for getting themselves updated, writing follow-up stories, and then quoting facebook as source respectively.

Keywords: social media, facebook, journalists, news production, media studies, media text.

1. Introduction

Social media is considered one of the vastly used media not only by the public but also by professionals of various fields. The reason behind its familiarity is its wide range online technological features that allow users internal interaction, creation, and sharing of content and build social networks (Boyd, Ellison, 2007). That is why social media is getting more popular than other technologies because of its interactive nature (Molyneux, Mourão, 2019).

Thus, Belair-Gagnon (Belair-Gagnon, 2015) and Canter (Canter, 2015) suggest that journalists need to adopt these changing platforms for their professional practice. According to studies, these interactive features have brought many changes in society and ended the communication gap among masses around the globe. Along with society, many changes have been observed in the field of journalism during the past two decades. Mostly, it is because of fast developments in computer technology and the rise of new forms of media, especially social media such as various blogs, Twitter and Facebook (Weaver, Willnat, 2016). Such a developing situation has been changing to the journalistic culture.

Social media have not only occurred as a significant news platform for the masses, but also it has proved as a useful tool for journalists too. Journalists use social media to find story leads and to share their work with audiences, which has made journalism more interactive (Pradhan, Kumari, 2018). These proliferated changes in the shape of social media have transformed editorial roles, and it has grown the attention of academicians towards this phenomenon (Jian, Liu, 2018). Existing studies suggest that media practitioners have been integrating social media into their work...
routines and creating and experimenting with innovative practices (Barnard, 2016; Hermida, 2012; Lecheler, Kruikemeier, 2016). However, in a study about the role of social media in journalistic routines by examining Turkish news organizations Kiyan and Törenli (Kiyan and Törenli, 2018) revealed that the impact of social media on journalistic routines is limited. It can be contended that professional journalistic norms and practices continue their importance in Turkish news organizations.

Studies have revealed that the journalist uses the most famous Social Networking Sites (SNSs) for dissemination and newsgathering. However, Twitter and Facebook are comparatively more popular. In this way, the purpose of this research is to determine and examine the patterns of use of Facebook information for the production of news by journalists in Pakistan.

2. Materials and methods

The researchers collected the data by applying a cross-sectional survey. Because applying a survey technique in communication research is a common practice (Hansen et al., 1998). Moreover, the survey has central significance in communication research. Hence, researchers personally went to various newspaper organizations, TV channels, news agency offices, and press clubs to meet journalists in a face to face situation, as any query developed about the questionnaire while data collection may be answered and valid responses could be obtained.

The population of this research was working urban journalists in Sindh province, Pakistan. The selection of the participants was those journalists who were in practice of news reporting, news editing, news writing, and other journalism-related activities and belonged to the Karachi division and Hyderabad district of the Sindh province. Additionally, they were in employment in various print, electronic and online media organizations, and news agencies, both privately owned and state-run.

Sample selection was made by applying a purposive sampling procedure; because the complete list of the journalists who worked in the Karachi division and Hyderabad district was not available. Thus, this situation caused a starting point to use a purposive sampling method. As in this regard, contribute Singleton, Straits, and Straits (Singleton et al., 1999) that “In situations that preclude random selection, purposive sampling is an acceptable alternative. Finally, in the survey of this study total of 374 working journalists participated.

For data collection, the researcher personally visited all the press clubs and media organizations available in the Karachi division and Hyderabad district. Moreover, a fully structured questionnaire was designed for primary data collection. The questionnaire has mostly consisted of close-ended questions. Finally, for data analysis, firstly, data was coded in SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) software, and then it was analyzed and measured with relevant statistical tests.

3. Discussion

In the present times, social media has proved itself as one of the highly used media in all spheres of public life. From opinion sharing to marketing, it has occupied a unique space in public lives. That is why, from individuals to institutions, social media is used for all purposes, including for fulfilment of professional requirements too. According to Boyd and Ellison (Boyd, Ellison, 2007), the different online technical features of social media allow users to interact, create, and share content and build social networks. Therefore, its interactive nature makes it more popular than other technologies (Molyneux, Moura, 2019).

According to some studies, these interactive features of social media have changed the global society by ending the communication gap. It has made easy access to information sharing and receiving. Along with society, during the past two decades, social media has brought many changes in the field of journalism too. As put Weaver and Willnat (Weaver, Willnat, 2016), fast developments in computer technology and the rise of new forms of media, especially social media such as various blogs, Twitter, and Facebook, have changed the field of journalism.

Moreover, social media is becoming an increasingly important data source for learning about breaking news and for following the latest developments of ongoing news (Fink, 2014; Fuchs, 2017; Zubiaga, 2018). In a survey from news directors at a national network of affiliated televisions, Adornato (Adornato, 2016) discovered that social media is having an impact on editorial and production decisions related to newscasts. The journalists chose popular or trending, content, and
topics on social media for stories. According to Pradhan and Kumari (Pradhan, Kumari, 2018), proving it as a significant news access platform for masses, social media has occurred as a useful tool for journalists too. The reporters utilize social media as a tool for information gathering to develop story leads and to share their work with audiences. It has made journalism more interactive. Further, Jian and Liu (Jian, Liu, 2018) found that these thrived variations in the form of social media have altered journalistic role. It has increased the attention of researchers towards this phenomenon.

Additionally, some other previous research studies examined and proposed that media practitioners have been adopting social media into their work routines and generating and testing with innovative practices (Barnard, 2016; Hermida, 2012; Lecheler, Kruikemeier, 2016). In this regard, Raymond and Lu (Raymond, Lu, 2011) have also given similar findings that in comparison to ordinary users, journalists use social media to develop relations with online groups and utilize the same for their professional benefits too.

In a journalists’ national survey in the US, Weaver and Willnat (Weaver, Willnat, 2016) presented that more than 50 % of journalists told that they use microblogs for the newsgathering process, and social media is a significant source for 40 percent of their work. However, in contrast to the Weaver and Willnat (Weaver, Willnat, 2016) survey results, in a current review by Lecheler and Kruikemeier revealed that, in place of moving conventional news sources, online sourcing was ‘a (welcome) addition to journalistic sourcing routines’ (Lecheler, Kruikemeier, 2016: 160); while the practice of elite sources still dominated in news reporting. This pattern of social media use in sourcing reflects the common concern among journalists over the accuracy and reliability of social media information, as identified in several other studies (Bossio, Bebawi, 2016; Ritter, 2015).

Added to that, Pradhan and Kumari (Pradhan, Kumari, 2018) viewed that social media technologies have a variety of features made for particular functions, and the media practitioners utilize these different tools for a variety of journalistic purposes. They are related to this, Arceneaux and Schmitz Weiss (Arceneaux, Schmitz Weiss, 2010), elaborate that these social media tools have increased the speed of news gathering and dissemination process for journalists. However, some scholars have segregated the social media usage for journalism in the following three ways: (i) as a venue to freely post news stories to reach out to potential new readers and increase the number of visitors on their websites, cf. (Kwak et al., 2010), (ii) as an analytical platform to explore the preferences of news consumers, analyzing the news stories that users read and share most, cf. (Diakopoulos, Zubiaga, 2014), and (iii) as a gold mine to catch the scoop on breaking news, to retrieve additional context to broaden the coverage of their news reports (Muthukumaraswamy, 2010), and to reach out potential eyewitnesses who they might want to interview (Diakopoulos et al., 2012).

In a survey conducted from Editors-in-chief of German online newsrooms regarding social media use in the newsrooms, Neuberger, Nuernbergk, and Langenohl (Neuberger et al., 2019), examined that social media supports the use of various channel communications. It is necessary for journalists to learn social media operations for their professional use. The medium can be applied to all phases of news production. Further, Neuberger et al. (Neuberger et al., 2019) find out that social media applications Facebook and Twitter are used by journalists for more than one purpose. The study concluded that sustainable and experienced strategic newsrooms use social media for different tasks. In another study, Waters, Tindall, and Morton (Waters et al., 2010) revealed that journalists use social media such as Twitter and Facebook to gather newsworthy information and seek out potential interviewees. Likewise, many other researchers also concluded that social media platforms such as Facebook and Instagram are increasingly used for newsgathering and reporting (Lysak et al., 2012; Murrell, 2014).

Finally, to put that review of the literature found various studies on use of social media in journalism in developed countries such as US and Europe. Similarly, studies from developing countries have also shown that the practice of social media in journalism is growing (Rodrigues, 2014). Whereas, the studies found from non-Western states focus on individual social or political issues such as corruption in India (Rodrigues, 2014). With this increase in terms of popularity (Saldaña et al., 2017), social media has become a powerful tool for journalists and news organisations ranging from health journalism (Shoenberger, Rodgers, 2017) to sports journalism (Li et al., 2017), including emergency journalism (Bowdon, 2014) and political journalism (Parmelee, 2013).
According to Arceneaux and Schmitz Weiss (Arceneaux, Schmitz Weiss, 2010), journalists could gather and disseminate information at near-instantaneous speed by using social media tools. In that context, Memon and Umranii (Memon, Umranii, 2019) observed that Facebook is better SNSs than other networks for journalists. Media practitioners are inclined to Facebook in search of information for the stories. The journalists find, share, and promote stories on Facebook. Its fast features and saving of journalistic resources compel journalists to use Facebook for their professional purposes (Memon, Umranii, 2019; Gulyas, 2013), while conducting a study regarding public relations and strategies concluded that most journalists seek stories from social media such as Facebook. Previously, Urista, Dong, and Day (Urista et al., 2009) also have given similar results that now, many journalists use Facebook and SNSs for newsgathering. The main reason is the easy accessibility of the information on the networks. In another study Al-Rawi (Al-Rawi, 2017), about stories posted on Facebook pages of four foreign Arabic language TV stations: The Iranian Al-Alam TV, Russia Today, Deutsche Welle, and BBC, it was revealed that social significance and proximity, as well as the news organizations’ ideological agenda, are the most important elements that dictate the news selection process (Al-Rawi, 2017).

4. Results

Demographic profile of the journalists

| Table 1. Composition of the urban journalists by demographic Variables |
|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Variable                 | Frequency       | Percentage (%) |
| Gender                   |                 |              |
| Male                     | 326             | (88.8)       |
| Female                   | 41              | (11.2)       |
| Marital status           |                 |              |
| Married                  | 216             | (59.7)       |
| Unmarried                | 146             | (40.3)       |
| Age                      |                 |              |
| Up to 25 years           | 66              | (23.7)       |
| Between 25 to 40 years   | 160             | (57.3)       |
| Above 40 years           | 53              | (19.0)       |
| Mother language          |                 |              |
| Sindhi                   | 256             | (69.9)       |
| Urdu                     | 110             | (30.1)       |
| Religious identity       |                 |              |
| Muslim                   | 338             | (92.6)       |
| Non-Muslim               | 27              | (7.4)        |
| Education                |                 |              |
| Intermediate and less    | 44              | (11.8)       |
| Bachelor's degree        | 135             | (36.3)       |
| Master's and above       | 188             | (50.5)       |
| Monthly income           |                 |              |
| Up to 15000 PK Rupees    | 103             | (27.7)       |
| Above 15000 PK Rupees    | 154             | (41.4)       |
| No answer                | 110             | (29.6)       |
| Working city             |                 |              |
| Hyderabad                | 162             | (44.1)       |
| Karachi                  | 205             | (55.9)       |
Table 1 shows that the proportion of more than four-fifth (88.8 %) of the respondents was male. Whereas, against it, a little proportion of 11.2 % of the journalists was female. Thus it was concluded that the vast majority of the surveyed journalists were male. Subject to the marital status of the surveyed journalists the data showed that the proportion of almost three-fifth (59.7 %) of them was married, and the remaining proportion of slightly over two fifths (40.3 %) was unmarried. In this way, it was revealed that the majority of the journalists were married. In the context of age, the data showed that the proportion of nearly three-fifth (57.3 %) of the journalists mentioned their age between 25 to 40 years, whereas the second proportion of nearly one quarter (23.7 %) of the journalists was up to 25 years old. Moreover, the remaining proportion of almost one fifth (19.0 %) of them was more than 40 years old. Thus, it was concluded that the majority proportion of the journalists was young and actively engaged in the journalistic profession.

Moreover, the respondents were also asked about their mother language; then; as a result, the data showed that the proportion of more than two-third (69.9 %) of the journalists was Sindhi language speaking. While the remaining proportion of little less than one third (30.1 %) of them was Urdu language speaking. Therefore, it was concluded that the majority of the sampled journalists spoke the Sindhi language.

From the perspective of religious identity, the data showed that the proportion of more than four-fifth (92.6 %) of the journalists were Muslim. While the remaining proportion of less than one-tenth of them (7.4 %) were non-Muslims. Therefore, it was shown that the majority of the journalists were Muslim.

Academically, the proportion of over four-fifth (86.8 %) of the journalists had a university degree, while the remaining proportion of little higher than one-tenth (13.3 %) mentioned that they earned their final degree from colleges and schools. In this way, the majority of the journalists in this study were graduates having a degree of bachelor, master, or more than that.

Moreover, the analyzed data about the income level of the urban journalists in Sindh province showed that the proportion of more than a quarter (27.7 %) had their monthly income up to 15000 PK rupees. While the proportion of higher than two-fifth (41.4 %) of them said that they earned more than 15000 PK rupees from the journalistic profession; whereas, the remaining proportion of over than a quarter (29.6 %) of the surveyed journalists did not answer to this question.

Finally, about the working city, it was found that the proportion of over fifty percentage (55.9 %) was working in Karachi, whereas the remaining proportion of more than two-fifth (44.1 %) of them were working in Hyderabad city. Thus, it was concluded that the majority of the surveyed urban journalists were working in Karachi.

Work profile of the journalists

Table 2. Work profile of the urban journalists in Sindh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job nature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News editing</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>(54.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News reporting</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>(28.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(16.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>(34.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>(3.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>(3.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News agency</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>(9.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV channel</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>(50.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online sites</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>(10.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data in Table 2 reports findings regarding the work profile of the urban journalists surveyed in this study. In this way, first, regarding the nature of work, it was observed that the proportion of over fifty percent (54.3 %) was related to news editing. Furthermore, the proportion of over a quarter (28.5 %) said that they did news reporting. Whereas, the remaining proportion of over one-tenth (16.1 %) said the nature of their job was other than news editing and news reporting. Thus overall, it was found that the majority of the surveyed journalists in this study were involved in news editing. Second, in the context of media organisation it was seen that the proportion of slightly over fifty percent (50.5 %) of the journalists worked for TV channels.

Moreover, the other proportion of slightly over than one third (34.4 %) mentioned that they worked for newspapers; however, the remaining number of the surveyed journalists worked for online sites (10.5 %), news agencies (9.4 %), radio (3.5 %) and magazines (3.0 %). Hence, it was deduced that the majority of the journalists worked for TV media and newspapers. Third, in the context of work experience of the surveyed journalists it surfaced that the proportion of about two-fifth (38.5 %) of the journalists were senior. Added, the second-highest proportion sizing one third (33.8 %) were cubs. However, the last proportion of over a quarter (27.8 %) was junior journalists. Thus, it was observed that overall the highest proportion of the journalists surveyed in this study were senior journalists.

Use of Facebook information for news production

Table 3. Use of Facebook information for news production

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mdn</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1: Getting fresh news</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: Quoting Facebook as source</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3: Developing professional identity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4: Writing follow-up stories</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5: Getting news updates</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher mean scores equal a higher level of dependency on Facebook information. The scale ranges from 3=’to great extent’2= ’to some extent,’ 1=’not at all.’

Data in Table 3 presents findings regarding the surveyed news-workers’ use of Facebook information for journalistic activities and getting updates. The scale contains a total of five items related to seeking Facebook information by the news-workers that had to be used for journalistic activities and to get an update.

The data was collected on a three-point scale ranging from 3 = to a great extent, 2 = to some extent, 1= not at all. In this way, the descriptive statistics for the construct “measured a mean value 2.25 and standard deviation .69 for all the items. Hence, the mean score was higher than average level of 3-point Likert scale. Thus, it revealed that the construct has functional importance as the majority of the surveyed news-workers seek Facebook information and use it for journalistic activities and getting an update.

Moreover, it was observed in table 3 that out of the total of five, the first highest rated item in the construct was using Facebook information for “getting news updates” (Mean = 2.37, SD = .61). And then, the second-highest mean score was collected by the item using Facebook information for “writing follow-up stories” (Mean = 2.35, SD = .73). Whereas, the third-highest mean score was assigned to the item to use Facebook information for “Quoting Facebook as source” (Mean = 2.33, SD = .74). Thus, while interpreting these three items in series, it deduces that the news workers first get update from the Facebook information and then use Facebook information in journalistic activities, i.e., they use Facebook information in writing follow-up stories even quoting to Facebook.
as source of information.

They are added to that the lowest mean scores were given to the items to use Facebook for “Developing professional identity” (Mean = 2.17, SD = .78) and to use Facebook for “Getting fresh news” (Mean = 2.01, SD = .62). Thus, overall, the above-analyzed data showed that urban journalists used Facebook to seek information that has to be used for journalistic activities and getting updates.

Additionally, inferential statistical analysis was run upon this construct by selecting an Independent-Sample T-Test to know whether any significant differences could be observed between the demographic and profession-related groups and the Facebook information for news production.

Facebook information for news production and demographic groups

Facebook information for news production and age

Table 4. Facebook information for news production and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>T-test</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up to 30 years</td>
<td>Above 30 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting fresh news</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quoting Facebook as source</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing professional identity</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing follow-up stories</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting news updates</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher mean scores equal a higher level of dependency on Facebook information. The scale ranges from 3=‘to great extent’, 2=‘to some extent,’ 1=‘not at all.’

Table 4 presents data about journalists’ use of Facebook information for news production and age categories. In this way, first, subject to getting fresh news, it was observed that those journalists who were up to thirty years old (M=2.05) on average used Facebook more to get fresh news as compared to those journalists who were above than thirty-year-old (M=1.86), (t=2.65, p=.00). Second, in the view of quoting Facebook as a source of news story the data revealed that those journalists who were up to thirty years old (M=2.33) on average quote Facebook more as a source of news story than those journalists who were above than thirty-year-old (M=2.20), (t=1.441, p=.15). Third, in perspective to usage of Facebook to develop a professional identity as journalist the results indicated that those journalists who were up to thirty years old (M=2.13) on average used Facebook more to develop their professional identity than those journalists who were above than thirty-year-old (M=2.05), (t=.876, p=.382). Fourth, in the context of writing follow-up stories the data showed that those journalists who were up to thirty years old (M=2.41) on average used Facebook information more for follow-up stories than those journalists who were above than thirty-year-old (M= 2.18), (t=2.622, p=.009). Fifth, regarding getting news updates the results showed that those journalists who were up to thirty-year-old (M=2.04) on average used Facebook more to get news updates as compared to those journalists who were above thirty-year-old (M=1.95), (t=3.478, p=.001). Therefore, overall, it was concluded that those journalists who were up to thirty years old used Facebook information more for news production than those journalists who were above thirty years old.

Facebook information for news production and education
Developing professional identity

Table 5. Facebook information for news production and education level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Education level</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>T-test</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up to bachelor</td>
<td>Master and above</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting fresh news</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quoting Facebook as source</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing professional identity</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing follow-up stories</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher mean scores equal a higher level of dependency on Facebook information. The scale ranges from 3=’to great extent’2= ‘to some extent,’ 1=’not at all

Table 5 presents data about the journalists’ use of Facebook information for news production and education level. Thus, first, subject to getting fresh news, it was seen that those journalists who were qualified up to a bachelor degree (M=2.09) on average used Facebook more to get fresh news as compared to those journalists who had education up to master degree or above (M=1.94), (t=2.29, p=.02). Second, in the view of quoting Facebook as a source of news story the data revealed that those journalists who were qualified up to bachelor degree (M=2.42) on average quoted Facebook more as a source of news story than those journalists who had education up to master degree or above (M=2.25), (t=2.21, p=.02). Third, perspective to usage of Facebook to develop a professional identity as journalist the results indicated that those journalists who were qualified up to a bachelor degree (M=2.23) on average used Facebook more to develop their professional identity than those journalists who had education up to master degree or above (M=2.12), (t=1.25, p=.21). Fourth, in the context of using Facebook information for writing follow-up stories the data showed that those journalists who were qualified up to a bachelor degree (M=2.44) on average used Facebook information more for writing follow-up stories than those journalists who had education up to master degree or above (M=2.26), (t=2.438, p=.015). Fifth, in the regard of getting news updates the results showed that those journalists who were qualified up to a bachelor degree (M=2.44) on average used Facebook more to get news updates as compared to those journalists who had education up to master degree or above (M=2.31), (t=1.804, p=.072). Therefore, it was concluded that overall, those journalists who were qualified up to bachelor degrees on average used Facebook information more for news production than those journalists who had education up to master degrees or above.

Facebook information for news production and mother language

Table 6. Facebook information for news production and mother language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Sindhi Mean</th>
<th>Mother language</th>
<th>T-test</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urdu Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting fresh news</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quoting Facebook as source</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing professional identity</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing follow-up stories</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting news updates</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher mean scores equal a higher level of dependency on Facebook information. The scale ranges from 3=’to great extent’2= ‘to some extent,’ 1=’not at all.
Table 6 presents data about the use of Facebook information and mother language. Hence, first, subject to getting fresh news, it was observed that those journalists who spoke Sindhi language (M=2.05) on average used Facebook more to get fresh news as compared to those journalists who spoke Urdu language (M=1.91), (t=1.93, p=.05). Second, in the view of quoting Facebook as a source of a news story, the data revealed that those journalists who spoke Sindhi (M=2.40) quote Facebook more as a source of news story than those journalists who spoke Urdu language (M=2.16), (t=2.84, p=.00). Third, perspective to usage of Facebook to develop a professional identity as a journalist, the results indicated that those journalists who spoke Sindhi language (M=2.25) used Facebook more to develop their professional identity than those journalists who spoke Urdu language (M=2.00), (t=2.87, p=.00). Fourth, in the context of using Facebook information for writing follow-up stories the data showed that those journalists who spoke Sindhi language (M=2.41) on average used Facebook information more for follow-up stories than those journalists who spoke Urdu language (M=2.20), (t=2.523, p=.012). Fifth, regarding using Facebook for getting news updates the results showed that those journalists who were Sindhi speaking (M=2.42) on average used Facebook more to get news updates as compared to those journalists who spoke Urdu (M=2.27), (t=1.84, p=.06). Therefore, it was concluded that overall, those journalists who spoke Sindhi language on average used Facebook more for news production than those journalists who spoke the Urdu language.

Facebook information for news production and job type

Table 7. Facebook information for news production and job type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Job type</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>News editing</td>
<td>News reporting</td>
<td>T-test</td>
<td>P-value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting fresh news</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quoting Facebook as source</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing professional identity</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>-2.64</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing follow-up stories</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting news updates</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Higher mean scores equal a higher level of dependency on Facebook information. The scale ranges from 3=‘to great extent’ 2= ‘to some extent,’ 1= not at all

Table 7 presents data about the use of Facebook information for news production and their job type. In this way, first, subject to getting fresh news, it was observed that those journalists who did news editing (M=2.00) on average used Facebook more to get fresh news as compared to those journalists who were involved in news reporting (M=1.93), (t=.95, p=.33). Second, in the view of quoting Facebook as a source of a news story, the data revealed that those journalists who did news editing (M=2.36) on average quote Facebook more as a source of a news story than those journalists who were involved in news reporting (M=2.32) (t=.38, p=.69). Third, perspective to usage of Facebook to develop a professional identity as journalist the results indicated that those journalists who did news reporting (M=2.33) on average used Facebook more to develop their professional identity than those journalists who were involved in news editing (M=2.09), (t=.264, p=.01). Fourth, in the context of using Facebook information for writing follow-up stories the data showed that those journalists who did news editing (M=2.35) on average used Facebook information more for follow-up stories than those journalists who were involved in news reporting (M=2.30), (t=.49, p=.62). Fifth, regarding using Facebook for getting news updates the results showed that those journalists who were involved in news reporting (M=2.38) on average used Facebook more to get news updates as compared to those journalists who did news editing (M=2.32), (t=.82, p=.43). Therefore, overall it surfaced that those journalists who did news editing made the use of Facebook and its information more for getting fresh news, quoting Facebook as a news source, and writing follow-up stories. Whereas, against it those journalists who were involved in news reporting made the use of Facebook more for developing their professional identity and getting news updates.
5. Conclusion
Social media is such a platform of communication that is made use of not only by professionals but also by ordinary people as well. In this way, the purpose of this research endeavor was to assess how journalism professionals make use of Facebook for news production activities. Thus, it was found that the majority of the surveyed urban journalists in this study used information sought from Facebook for journalistic activities; mainly, they make the highest use of Facebook information for getting themselves updated. Then they use Facebook information for writing follow-up stories and also quote Facebook as the source, respectively. Additionally, it was observed that younger age journalists comparatively make more use of Facebook for news production activities. Whereas, it was also seen that those journalists who had higher-level education comparatively make less use of Facebook information than those who had lower level education. Finally, it was also known that the journalists who were involved in news editing comparatively make more use of Facebook information than those journalists who report news.

References


Blogger in Youth’s and Adults’ Social Perceptions

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a Chernyshevsky Saratov State National Research State University, Russian Federation

Abstract

This article presents the initial results of a comparative empirical study of the specifics of youth’s and adults’ social perceptions of a blogger’s personality. Currently, blogosphere is showing growth in its popularity, and therefore we can say that the social perceptions (the image) of a blogger as a multi-level socio-psychological media phenomenon is one of the most significant ones in shaping a person’s holistic view of mass media. The study involved students of the Chernyshevsky Saratov National Research State University and adults aged 30-45. The empirical material was collected with the use of associative experiment methods. The data obtained via the survey were processed with the prototypical analysis proposed by P. Verges, and the analysis of individual conversations and online discussions which helped to control the outcome. The results showed that unlike adults, students evaluate the blogger’s personality mainly in a positive emotional way. The representation of youth’s ideas is characterized by concepts with a positive semantic connotation – the blogger is perceived by them as a young man who translates certain meanings and values providing real assistance and realizing various significant functions. Unlike young people, adults demonstrate a contradictory attitude towards bloggers – for them, a blogger seems to be an ambiguous figure pursuing their personal commercial goals.

Keywords: blogger, blogosphere, blogger social perception, blogger’s image, blogger personality, analysis.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, one can observe millions of blogs, the fast growing number of subscribers all over the world, a growing interest in blogging of the public and researchers in various fields, a comprehensive discussion of formalizing the blogging profession at the governmental level, participation of bloggers as expert guests in meetings with government officials, creation of the Russian Blogger Research Agency which studies the dynamics of the blogosphere development, a demand for numerous blogging courses, schools and workshops on blog promotion, etc. It all in our opinion speaks to the graveness and large scale of the blogosphere problem nowadays.

V.D. Savenkov wrote about the place and role of the blogosphere in the mass communication system, the audience’s demand for blogs is associated with “showing interest in them as resources that allow constructionof a new reality and suggest solutions to various social and professional problems” (Savenkov, 2019). Along with this, the blogosphere is an important part of the modern media space, an interactive communication platform for promoting brands and products, a virtual

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platform for communication, self-presentation, self-expression and socialization, and an integral part of a person’s daily life.

2. Materials and methods
This study involved students from the Saratov State University, aged 17–23 and adults aged 30–45. The total sample size was 2,020 people. The empirical material was collected using the free associative experiment method. The data obtained were processed with the Verges’ prototypical analysis.

3. Discussion
The given the exponential growth of a popular blogger’s subscribers, experts predict that by 2025, video blogging can become a classic means of communication. E.V. Lazutkina notes that, “Despite the obvious shortcomings of the blogosphere (spreading false information, rumors, manipulating news, etc.), the mass audience is increasingly turning to blogs as sources of news” (Lazutkina, 2010).

Pointing to changes in the media landscape, in particular, the dynamics of blogosphere transformation, researchers focus on the fact that today people devote the bulk of their time both to consumption and production of their own media content. “There is a peculiar turn to studying the meanings that users endow to the life in the virtual space”, and communication in the media becomes “a field for constructing new cultural rituals and meanings, a marker of social changes” (Miller, 2016).

Not only is the semantic and functional load of the blogosphere a new type of social institution changing, but also are the forms and strategies of a person’s media behavior in the context of the changing media environment. So, “if anonymity used to be the major value of Internet communication, now narcissism, vivid self-presentation, and benefits from constructing your own image and creating your own managed space are actively cultivated” (Martyanova, 2015).

Moreover, some authors see the reason for the blogs’ popularity in implementing one of the communication trends in the context of modern media culture, which is to blur the line between the private and public spheres of life. A. Gornykh fairly observes that blogging as a postmodern historical form of a diary testifies to “emergence of a new subjectivity where the public–private topology finds itself turned inside out: publicity begins to sprout from the inside of the private life” (Gornykh, 2009).

In other words, the role of the demonstrative component of various spheres of a person’s life is growing. The person’s constant positioning of themselves and their life has become an integral element of a media user’s life. Media image tends to play an increasingly important role, it manifests itself not only in a person’s images and video presentations in the media space, but also in the media status that is revealed in the number of reposts, views, subscribers and comments. However, researchers note that «orientation toward such quantitative popularity provokes infantilization of communication associated with the motives for self-affirmation, self-presentation and self-identification that are relevant for young people. It translates into predominance of interests in personal communication and self-expression over business interests (Brazevich et al, 2017).

A person’s attitude towards the privacy of their own life continues to change, the boundaries of the person’s subjective reality expand, and social ideas about the world change. This perspective studies a number of psychological problems, including actualization of the analysis of the blogosphere’s value impact on transformation of a personality’s media behavior, as well as on social ideas about mass media in general.

The analysis we did has showed that the blogosphere is considered as an informational, political, social, educational, corporate and entertaining means of communication, and that depending on the implementation of certain functions, there are five main ways to use the blogosphere:

- as a news medium (information, communication, ideological, cultural and educational functions);
- as a political platform (information, communication, ideological functions);
- as a tool for Internet activities (communication, ideological, organizational functions);
- as a tool for educational activity (communication, cultural and educational functions);
– as a tool for corporate blogging (information, communication, organizational functions);
– and as a means of entertainment (recreational function) (Savenkov, 2019).

In general, the analysis of publications showed that for modern youth today, the blogosphere is viewed as leisure time, a good platform for self-realization, personal and professional advancement, a new socialization environment, a tool for marketing and advertising for promoting a business or a person. Researchers pay special attention to studying blogs as new social media and their impact on political processes in the society. In particular, V.D. Savenkov identifies the following blog functions:
– informational, emotive, referential, metacommunicative, organizational (in the field of transpersonal motivation);
– communicative, self-presenting, entertaining, social tie enhancing, reflexive, self-developing, psychotherapeutic, regulatory, evaluative (in the field of personal motivation) (Savenkov, 2019).

Also, I. Nebykov and E. Efimov described a socio-cultural portrait of a blogger (Nebykov, Efimov, 2012), L. Sabiy showed the relationship between blogging and personal motivation in the virtual space (Sabij, 2016), A. Kulminskaya in her thesis researched the blogosphere’s role in the development and formation of the Russian society (Kulminskaya, 2012), E. Lazutkina reflected on the specifics of how leading Russian bloggers’ opinions influenced organization and regulation of news flows (Lazutkina, 2010), N. Martyanova and M. Rubtsova in their article series analyzed the beauty bloggers’ identity management practices (Martyanova, 2015), E. Gorshkova, A. Rostova and M. Kuzmina studied the blog as a form and tool of social communication (Gorshkova, 2013), I. Guzhova and L. Kukhorenko investigated the blog as a platform for self-presentation and means of transmitting image-forming information (Guzhova, Kuhorenko, 2012), and O. Echevskaya and E. Janke considered fashion blogging as part of the system of creating and broadcasting fashion standards (Echevskaya, Janke, 2014).

It is worth noting that typology of bloggers is an issue researchers pay special attention to in the context of analyzing the blogosphere problems. E.g. A. Kulminskaya pointed out the following blogger types:
– by self-presentation (specific personality of a blogger, a ghost blogger, a team blogger);
– by the type of the content and features (creator blogger, compiler blogger);
– by the resource specifics (opinion leader, expert, regular user);
– by the technical base used (dependent and independent bloggers);
– by attitude toward blogging (professional employed and freelance bloggers and amateur bloggers (Kulminskaya, 2012).

The literature on the topic shows other typologies, too:
– “hobbyists” (60 %) who do blogs for their own interest without pursuing any commercial goals. 60 % of hobbyists spend less than 3 hours a week on their blog. The main goals of such blogs are self-expression and presentation of their personal opinions and views, and the author’s subjective satisfaction (72 %) is the indicator of the blog effectiveness;
– part-time and full-time professionals (18 %) who are independent bloggers working with various organizations and companies. For them, blogs are a source of additional income or their major professional occupation;
– corporate bloggers (8 %) for whom blogging is part of the main work, or those who maintain a blog created to solve issues of the hiring organization;
– entrepreneurs (13 %) for whom the blog is part of an organization or a company owned by the blogger (Brazevich et al, 2017).

Generally speaking, the above-mentioned list of studies points to the fact that currently, there is a certain interest in the blogosphere problems among researchers in various fields of science, which is due to the popularity of the blogosphere and its increasing influence on various spheres of life. Meanwhile, a theoretical analysis of the scientific works has also showed that to date psychological science has done no comprehensive research into the study of the blogosphere, which is apparently due to the dynamics of the blogosphere development which precedes the pace of the scientific research.

theoretical analysis of the vast field of scientific research has shown that to date there has been no psychological research aimed at studying empirically the young people’s social perceptions of the blogosphere, and in particular, about the personality of a blogger. M. Bartl believes that
children born after the advent of YouTube in 2005 have grown up surrounded by the content of popular video bloggers, and therefore blogging is considered as a serious career (Zhurenkov, Radulova, 2018).

According to a survey conducted by Bloomberg in 2017, every third British child aged 6–17 wants to work as a video blogger, which is 3 times the number of children willing to become doctors. A significant part of the youth’s time is devoted to videos of bloggers who have symbolic power, enjoy a high level of trust and loyalty with subscribers. Therefore, the blogosphere is an area where you can observe formation and transformation of social ideas about the blogger’s personality in the context of this extensive study of social perceptions about mass media as a mechanism for regulating a personality’s media behavior in the media environment (Zhizhina, 2018).

Considering today’s popularity and enthusiasm for the blogosphere, we can say that the social perceptions (image) of a blogger as a multi-level socio-psychological media phenomenon is one of the most significant phenomenon in shaping holistic views of mass media.

4. Results
This study of the blogger identity perception has yielded 358 non-repeating characteristics in the student group and 380 characteristics in the adult group. It should be noted that characteristics specified by over 3% of the respondents were statistically analyzed. The analysis of the research materials has made it possible to identify the core zone and the peripheral system of the blogger identity perception.

The core component of students’ social blogger identity perception is positive. The substantive elements of the core zone are the following blogger’s personality characteristics: “charismatic” (673; 3.01); “demonstrative” (581; 2.84); “positive” (581; 2.84); “with excellent self-presentation” (461; 3.53); “creative” (222; 2.59); “modern” (270; 2.48); “sociable” (157, 2.55); “popular” (202; 2.87); “funny” (164; 2.69); “active” (109; 3.06); “bold” (225; 2.80); “young” (163; 2.57); “fashionable” (99; 2.58); “communicative” (73; 2.18); “smart” (122; 2.51); “caring” (43; 2.79); “cheerful” (71; 2.18); “stress resistant” (122; 2.51); “energetic” (955; 3.22); “emotional” (48; 3.00); “inspiring” (54; 2.61).

In other words, representation of youth’s blogger identity perceptions is characterized by unambiguity and concepts with a positive semantic connotation – we have obtained a peculiar portrait of the hero of our time.

The peripheral system which plays a secondary role in the structure of social perceptions is designed with characteristics such as: “open” (3; 3.67); “brisk” (8; 3.88); “beautiful” (12; 4.67); “confident” (17; 3.94); “advanced user” (16; 14.06); “proud” (14; 4.36); “narcissistic” (12; 4.58); “informed” (9; 4.00); “savvy” (5; 4.80); “independent” (7; 5.00); “public” (9; 4.00); “financially secure” (17; 3.94); “silver spoon” (1; 5.0); “ostentatious” (5; 4.20); “advertising” (12; 4.50); “lazy” (3; 4.00).

Therefore, in the students’ perceptions, the blogger personality holds mainly noticeable positive semantic meaning, both in the core and peripheral parts of the social perception. As the results of the study showed, the blogger is perceived by students as a creative and positive media person with charisma, sociability, social courage and a well-developed ability of self-presentation. He or she is a modern, young, cheerful person who is really inspiring and helpful with presenting useful tips and tricks. Along with entertaining, social, cognitive, and motivating functions, some respondents pointed out the blogger’s manipulative, propagandistic and advertising opportunities.

In the group of adults, the general background of blogger perception is contradictory and contains characteristics with both positive and negative connotations. The content of the core zone of social perceptions of this group is based on conflicting characteristics such as: “advertising” (555; 2.47); “earning” (248; 2.10); “demonstrative” (216; 2.17); “dissatisfied” (122; 2.51); “promoting” (461; 3.53); “communicative” (122; 2.51); “compensated” (55; 3.22); “partial” (99; 2.58); “artistic” (109; 3.06); “brave” (157; 2.55); “media” (222; 2.59); “young” (132; 2.40); “ambitious” (164; 2.69); “public” (178; 2.21); “ostentatious” (138; 2.01); “unprincipled” (225; 2.80); “active” (71; 2.68).

A blogger is perceived ambiguously by adult audience–respondents’ opinions and assessments fall under three group categories: with positive, negative and contradictory ratings. To
be specific, the respondents say that the conflicting assessments of the blogger’s personality are related to the blogger’s personality, his or her professionalism level, and the blog’s substantive topics. Adult respondents think that bloggers (as well as their blogs) are different: they can broadcast their content with reliable, trustworthy and respectful information, or, on the contrary, a blog may not have high social significance and may not have cognitive, developing potential, but meanwhile pursuing advertising and commercial purposes.

Adults perceive the image of a blogger as a demonstrative, lazy, unprincipled, ambitious young man craving for fast big money, fame and popularity, a person who broadcasts himself and his life to an unfamiliar virtual audience at the same time loving publicity, increased attention to his own self, striving for constant self-presentation, socially brave, whose main goal is to promote himself, as well as goods or services.

The peripheral presentation system is formed by the following concepts: “corrupt” (8; 3.88); “trendy” (7; 4.57); “forward-thinking” (13; 3.92); “sociable” (9; 4.44); “truthful” (12; 3.67); “IT savvy” (16; 4.06); “selfish” (11; 3.09); “developing” (8; 3.25); “filming” (31; 3.71); “famous” (20; 4.30); “proud” (9; 3.56); “resourceful” (12; 4.58).

It is worth noting that the differences in the views of the student group and the adult group are not only in the poles of assessments, but also in the fact that in the student group, blogger perceptions are full of subjective experiences, which indicates students’ greater involvement in viewing blogs, and the fact that blogs for the young audience are certainly a trendy topic.

The blogger’s personality in the respondents’ social perceptions includes a system of knowledge, ratings and attitudes towards their media behavior based first of all on their individual experience from watching video blogs, as well as their experience in creating and promoting their blog. Interestingly, only 8 % of all study participants host their own blogs, 24 % of respondents had a personal negative experience in creating a blog, 14 % noted that in the future they would like to become a blog author, but so far they understand that it requires free time, interesting ideas, and quality content.

5. Conclusion

The study has once again confirmed the idea that blogosphere is especially popular among young people and it occupies a significant place in their free time. It is the youth audience that actively realizes itself not only as a spectator, but also as the blog author. Moreover, some students (as a dream) would like their future professional activities to be associated with blogosphere.

Social perceptions of the blogger’s identity are based on personal media experience, as well as on ideas that exist in the society’s social perceptions, above all, in perceptions of a social group that is significant for an individual. The phenomenon of the blogger’s image in social students’ perception includes the following components:

– information as summed knowledge about who the blogger is and what types of bloggers exist, which is determined by ideas and formed under the influence of macro environment factors (opinions of social groups and communities);
– a presentation field based on subjective assessments, which is formed under the influence of individual media experience in terms of viewing bloggers’ content or maintaining their own blog;
– attitude as a result of categorizing the blogger’s image in a media environment.

In our opinion, the multimillion number of bloggers cannot be reduced to a single portrait, and the blogosphere representations lie not only in its quantity and heterogeneity, but above all, in the particular person’s social perceptions of the blogosphere, which are formed under the influence of a complex of factors – first of all, person’s individual psychological characteristics, his media behavior, and specifically on the choice of his or her of favorite bloggers.

Each new media practice entering into the context of modern media culture actualizes new strategies and tactics of media behavior and on the whole changes in the person’s media behavior, at the same time actualizing changes in the person’s social perceptions of mass media. All in all, the problematization of the blogosphere expands the subject of mediapsychology as a science on personality included in the context of media culture, and it indicates an increasing trend in changes in the functioning of media behavior.
References


