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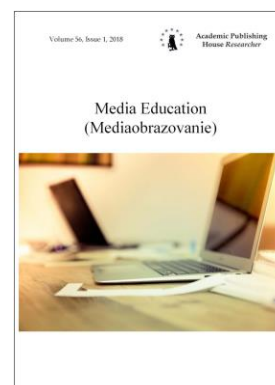
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Low Level of Student Information Literacy and Ways to Overcome It

Lyubov Alekseeva ^{a, *}

^aNizhnevartovsk State University, Russian Federation

Abstract

Information literacy is the most important factor ensuring personal success in the modern information society. This study presents the data on the level of the information literacy among first-year students and the ways to develop it via student research activity. The author analyzes the approaches to the definition of information literacy and highlights its components. Today, one needs to be sure that future teachers have mastered certain information literacy means to be able to organize the students' learning process in an effective manner and guide their educational and research activities. The author identifies the parameters for measuring the level of information literacy among students. The results of the survey of the first-year students allowed the author to identify the level of their information literacy. The study points to the weaknesses of developing students' information literacy at Nizhnevartovsk State University (KhMAO-Yugra, Russia). The author focuses on the arrangement of student research and concludes that the ability to do research is directly related to information literacy, since research activities cultivate student information skills.

Keywords: information literacy, media literacy, research, publications, students, skills, critical thinking.

1. Introduction

Information is a specific feature of modern life. The ability to find and interpret information is becoming an increasingly sought-after feature. This phenomenon has become especially noticeable in the educational environment. It is important to emphasize that information literacy (hereinafter IL) is directly related to improving the level of students' knowledge in the search, management and use of information. This cultivates the skill to search for information rather than produce it.

The first-year students with a low level of IL experience considerable difficulties in searching for the required information. It is particularly difficult for them when they want to study all of the existing literature sources on the subject. It is a problem for them to refer to, analyze and synthesize the given information, make conclusions, generalize and classify the historical facts. It is revealed through the fact that students find it difficult to prepare a scientific text (thesis, article, abstract). The skill of developing an independent text is more and more often replaced by the skill of constructing a text from discrete pieces of information found. The former skill is mastered through systematic work with information and particularly via research activity. There is a correlation between the level of IL and the quality of performing a study. The level of IL affects the

* Corresponding author
E-mail addresses: lvalexeeva@mail.ru (L. Alekseeva)

quality of the student research work, which, in its turn develops the content and cognitive levels of information literacy.

2. Materials and methods

This paper is descriptive and exploratory in nature, with elements of simple statistics. The main sources for the article are the publications of Russian and foreign researchers, UNESCO program and methodological papers. In our study we used such research methods as causal study, analysis, synthesis, generalization, classification, systematic review as the leading method, as well as observation and survey. Historical and situational methods allowed us to reproduce the assessment approach to the problem of information literacy. The observation, carried out in 2010–2019, allowed to observe and record some students' behavior in the field of information literacy. Surveys were conducted annually at the beginning of the study year (2010/11–2019/20) and covered a group of students who carried out research work at the Department for Russian History of Nizhnevartovsk State University. The sample of this study was composed of 199 students. Results of students' research activity were analyzed through 2011–2019 Russian History Department progress reports. These methods and materials allowed the author to collect empirical facts and reach the purpose of the study. Our points are also based on systemic and comparative approaches.

3. Discussion

The problem of how to develop IL is seen as a most relevant in the Russian and foreign scientific studies. The increasing number of researchers, librarians, educators, media specialists from all around the world are studying the issue of information literacy. IL plays a big role in (re)constructing knowledge bases, social networks and information landscapes (Lloyd, 2016: 5). For us, the issue of student information literacy is important in terms of training future teachers. A higher education system forced to look for adequate ways to cultivate student information literacy. However, this problem cannot be considered in isolation from the approaches currently prevailing in the world. Today the need for promoting media and information literacy is essential and these modes of new literacy are recognized almost universally as being a part of key competences in the educational system, especially in UNESCO (Kotilainen, 2012: 1). UNESCO carries out a large number of activities aimed at the IL development, including consultative meeting about updating UNESCO's model curriculum on media and information literacy (MIL) for teachers held in September 2019 (Updating..., 2019). It is gratifying to note that our region (KhMAO-Yugra) held two international conferences under the auspices of UNESCO devoted to the problem of MIL (2016, 2018) (Media..., 2017; Ugra..., 2018).

Many articles have been published on the subject of information literacy. The research sources available on the topic can be divided into several groups.

The first group includes works that define the term "information literacy". The term "information" is ambiguous. Yu.V. Kryanev believes that information is not reduced only to communicative activity, but it acts as a removable, reduced uncertainty. If the message does not remove uncertainty, it does not contain information (Kryanev, 2012: 15). In our study, we follow this approach. The concept of IL is defined as a set of knowledge and skills necessary for the effective use of information sources (Digital..., 2013: 5). IL refers to the ability to recognize when information is needed and to locate, evaluate, effectively use and communicate information in its various formats (Media..., 2011: 186).

The works by A. Silverblatt are widely known in the modern scientific community. A. Silverblatt states that IL is based on a set of principles and strategies enabling individuals to make sense of the information we are exposed to on an ongoing basis (Silverblatt, 2016: 54). A.V. Fedorov gives the following definition of IL: "Information literacy is the ability to analyze and synthesize reality, the ability to read the information text, it is knowledge of the basics of information culture" (Fedorov, 2017: 13). N.I. Gendina compared approaches to the definition of IL put forward by Russian and foreign scholars (Gendina, 2007: 57–69). A.B. Klimova emphasizes that in the national scientific environment, the use of the term "information literacy" has limitations associated with the semantics of the term-forming concept (Klimova, 2013: 78).

The emergence of the new term "media and information literacy" (MIL) and discussions about this term indicate that there is still no clear understanding of the definition, scope, and content of the concept, as well as the skills to be developed. Media and information literacy is a

complex concept proposed by UNESCO in 2007. MIL covers all competencies related to IL and media literacy that also include digital or technological literacy (Media..., 2019). We proceeded from the definition of MIL adopted in the 2012 Moscow Declaration on Media and Information Literacy. "MIL is defined as a combination of knowledge, attitudes, skills, and practices required to access, analyze, evaluate, use, produce, and communicate information and knowledge in creative, legal, and ethical ways that respect human rights" (The Moscow..., 2012: 2). O. Pilerot emphasizes that the elusive phenomenon of IL is traced, narrowed down, and conceptualized in three different ways: as a "label" for a field of research, as an empirical entity; and as a theoretical notion (Pilerot, 2016: 6).

The second group includes the works proving the need for special information training required to cultivate information skills. Information technology opens up huge opportunities for students possessing information (knowledge). A student is required to be able to work with a large amount of information. Information and communication technologies make it possible to access almost any knowledge. However, if a student does not have IL, he or she is lost in the vast world of information. Processing a large amount of information disorients his/her thinking. It is obvious that special information training is essential (Gendina, 2007: 59).

S. Black points out three theories (Development, Interest and Self-direction). They are of great importance for the formation of media literacy. The scholar describes each theory, draws parallels, and discusses the implications of these theories for the teaching of information literacy. The results of the scholar's study are interesting. S. Black makes a complete analysis and shows that IL provide a valuable perspective for higher education in terms of designing training that helps students transit to more mature levels of cognitive development, personal interest and self-directed learning (Black, 2018: 211).

B. Markowski, L.F. McCartin, S. Evers presented the results of a special course developing student information literacy via a combination of course-integrated sessions and credit-bearing courses. A first-year experience course aims to assist students in their transition from high school to college. It is an elective course with a broad focus on reading, writing, critical thinking, and communication skills. Course objectives include using effective research skills to retrieve and evaluate information from a variety of sources (Markowski et al., 2018: 128-149).

It should be noted that there is no systematic approach to cultivating meta-subject media and information skills among student majoring in teaching in the Russian higher education tradition, which is noted by S.I. Gudilina in her study (Gudilina, 2019: 95).

The third group consists of research works that consider ways of IL development. The UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2006 proposes four ways of how literacy has evolved based on disciplinary traditions. First, literacy is considered as a separate set of tangible skills such as reading, writing, and numeracy. Second, literacy is viewed as being reliant on context that goes beyond the acquisition of skills to the use and application of those skills in real-life situations. Third, literacy is seen as a learning process (Grizzle, Hamada, 2019: 242). The issue of ways to form information literacy is one of the most relevant in the Russian and foreign scientific studies. Andrea M. Bergstrom, M. Flynn, C. Craig emphasize that the question of IL has been discussed for a long time. Unfortunately, few scholars have explored improvements in media literacy skills (Bergstrom et al., 2018: 113). These researchers use the term "critical media literacy" and state, "We also took into account that critical media literacy involves cultivating skills in analyzing media codes and conventions, abilities to criticize stereotypes, dominant values, and ideologies, and competencies to interpret the multiple meanings and messages generated by media texts" (Bergstrom et al., 2018: 116).

Some scholars consider that information skills are formed by different disciplines. Researchers from Sam Houston State University (USA) rightly believe that studying how people interact with information can be approached from many disciplines (Aboulkacem et al., 2018: 40). It is recognized that it is no easy task to teach students to work with information presented on different media and to cultivate their skills. The researchers emphasize that teachers have noted the lack of student readiness and their tendency to be limited in their media literacy skills beyond the ability to simply access content (Bergstrom et al., 2018: 114).

Effective education demands that educators must have sufficient information literacy competencies as well as the competencies to promote student information literacy. We agree with M. Simons, W. Meeus and J. T'Sas who believe that educational institutions are teaching learners (pupils and students) to use media appropriately (Simons et al., 2017: 100). It is very important to note that there is a large and growing body of research sources arguing that working with data is a

key skill today. R. Bhargava and C. D'Ignazio propose that the pedagogical approach to building tools for data literacy among learners should pull from the rich histories of traditional literacy education and designing computational tools for learning (Bhargava, D'Ignazio, 2015: 1-2). They consider that data literacy includes the ability to read, work with, analyze and argue with data (Bhargava, D'Ignazio, 2015: 1).

D. Stebbing, J. Shelley, M. Warnes (Anglia Ruskin University) conducted a study called *What academics really think about information literacy*. They found six key areas of concern emerged around the teaching of IL: students transitioning into higher education, developing evaluation skills, the significance of the undergraduate major project and discipline differences, the information landscape and the perceived need for preparation for IL at work. The article discusses the findings, difficulties surrounding students achieving adequate IL and considerations for future practice in delivering focused IL support (Stebbing et al., 2019: 21-44).

The experience of students' working with research tasks is presented in the article by Amanda L. Folk (Ohio State University). The author notes that joining an ongoing discourse about a relatively new topic, particularly in an academic context, is challenging for many students. The author emphasizes the ubiquity of research assignments in the US undergraduate education and the direct connections these assignments have to students' academic outcomes (Folk, 2018: 45, 55).

Russian studies show that higher education, experiencing a deep crisis, as well as the entire education system in Russia, is not fully coping with the task of developing the cognitive aspect of personality. In this regard, undergraduates are not too ready for research activities. IL training is becoming an urgent task. Some scholars believe that IL cannot be reduced only to utilitarian skills of information search and processing. There is an indissoluble connection of IL with development of personal intellectual abilities (Information, 2010: 12). These conclusions are of fundamental importance. They are based on important empirical data and observations, and we fully support this approach.

Russian scholars consider the following major ways of cultivating IL: studying the perception of information-search activity; working in library-search systems; cultivating the abilities and skills of representing and assessing the information. Besides, some researchers discuss developing the resource base for student research activities as a teaching activity (Slyusarenko, Matrosova, 2016: 123). IL education aims at training all students for academic activities, so it is important to assess their initial knowledge and investigate the differences as well as personal factors, such as motivation, in order to better address the gaps (Dolničar, Podgornik, 2018: 24).

The fourth group of research papers are the publications revealing the correlation between information literacy and critical thinking. There is an opinion that information literacy and critical thinking are interrelated. Many scholars have considered this issue. A. Silverblatt pays great attention to the problem of studying media literacy and critical thinking in modern conditions (Silverblatt, 2018: 66-71). The author suggests that information literacy applies critical thinking skills to the assessment of information (Silverblatt, 2016: 55). Media literacy is most commonly described as a skill set that promotes critical engagement with messages produced by the media. M. Bulger and P. Davison put forward the argument that media literacy is the "active inquiry and critical thinking about the messages we receive and create". Most proponents emphasize this connection to critical thinking (Bulger, Davison, 2018: 3). Logic is very clear and it is a good thing to be able to practice in one's reading and writing.

According to S. Aboukacem, critical thinking should be applied not only to the information source, content, thinking and format, but also to the medium itself (Aboukacem et al., 2018: 41). Every student passes through the stages of critical thinking development. The university has an important role in cultivating this ability. J.M. Budd and A. Suorsa admitted that a set of skills must be a component of IL instruction, but it is also proposed one requires a way of thinking about information, informing, and an individual's relation to information and to the sources of information (speakers) (Budd, Suorsa, 2018: 14).

The fifth group of research works are the publications revealing the influence of the Internet and media technologies on information literacy. When we speak about IL, the emergence of the Internet and social media have dramatically altered media coverage and perception. Researchers are now studying the novel social dynamics introduced by new media technologies (Mason et al., 2018: 4). S. Aboukacem and L. Haas found that students get fatigued and overwhelmed with information (Aboukacem et al., 2018: 46). A number of scholars denote that students experience great difficulties when working with information, which is explained, among other things,

by information redundancy. It is becoming one of the most important humanitarian problems. According to M.A. Ivanov, the danger of creative thinking degradation is related to the overabundance of information, since today consumer attitude to knowledge rather than creative one is initiated (Ivanov, 2012: 61). A study conducted by A. AlDahdouh presents a model showing how students form connections to different kinds of resources, along with the criteria they use to decide on which resource to choose (AlDahdouh, 2018: 15-45).

When young researchers are working on their publications, the goal is not only to collect information, but also to form IL. A similar position is shared by Andrea M. Bergstrom, M. Flynn, C. Craig. They put emphasis on the importance of communication technologies in modern society. Most information is distributed through a variety of channels, making the ability to “read” and understand a range of mediated formats an essential skill to successfully navigate today’s culture (Bergstrom et al., 2018: 113). It is difficult to disagree with this statement.

N.S. Poleva raises the problem of information socialization. The researcher believes that the information technology approach to information socialization requires the cultivation of new skills and competencies. This initiates the development of numerous models of digital literacy and digital competence. The author emphasizes that digital technologies are developing faster than the list of skills and competencies (Poleva, 2018: 27).

Difficulties with the perception of scientific information can be explained in terms of psychology. S.V. Pazukhina and S.A. Filippova believe that the perception of information at different stages of mental development depends on the formation of cognitive mental processes, consciousness and self-consciousness, personal characteristics, life experience, protective mechanisms of the psyche, and personal worldview (Pazukhina, Filippova, 2018: 50). It is extremely important to group cognitive skills, willingness to learn, and the ability to critically relate to material and information.

The sixth group of research works includes publications that address the problem of information literacy assessment. There are many studies on this issue, such the Information Literacy Instruction Assessment Cycle (ILIAC) providing a systematic process for documenting and improving both librarian instructional ability and student IL skills (Oakleaf, 2009: 539-560). In 2012, K. Schilling & R. Applegate made a review of research sources and found self-reported attitudinal surveys to be the most common method of assessing IL (Schilling, Applegate, 2012: 258-269). B. Markowski, L.F. McCartin, S. Evers presented a study using rubric-based assessment: Sources, Evidence, Access and Use (Markowski et al., 2018: 128-149). J. Belanger, N. Zou, J.R. Mills, C. Holmes, & M. Oakleaf determine rubric assessment of IL as an important tool. They presented practical recommendations for implementing rubric assessment in a variety of institutional contexts. These recommendations focus on four areas: building successful collaborative relationships, developing assignments, creating and using rubrics and using assessment results to improve instruction and assessment practices (Belanger, et al., 2015: 623-644).

Another group of researchers has advanced the method of evaluation via headings. This study demonstrates information literacy skill benchmarks. T. Eastman, K. Lundstrom, K. Strand, E. Davis, P.N. Martin, A. Krebs, A. Hedrich established new library instruction classes, which targeted the skills students struggled with, mainly topic refinement and information synthesis. To measure the impact of the modifications, the authors used two rubrics as well as a citation analysis to identify the shifts in student learning. Findings indicate that the new lessons contribute to student improvements in synthesis, topic refinement, and source variety (Eastman et al., 2018: 64-85).

A. Carbery and S. Leahy presented the findings of a study carried out by librarians in Champlain College who developed a two-pronged authentic assessment approach to measure IL levels and determine the information seeking habits of students while conducting research for academic purposes. They devised and developed an IL rubric and a citation analysis checklist for the assessment of first-year annotated bibliography assignment papers. The study illustrates the merits of rubric-based, citation analysis assessment measures using authentic student coursework as a highly effective method of determining student outcomes assessment and information seeking habits while engaging in academic research (Carbery, Leahy, 2015: 74-90).

F.F. Sharipov proposes to consider the evaluation parameters through the concept of “information literacy of the individual”: computer literacy of the individual; knowledge about information; presence of the individual information needs of a wide range; the ability to navigate in information flows; the ability and skills to save information for reuse; the development of

algorithmic thinking of the individual (Sharipov, 2013: 169). These parameters are essential for the validation of information literacy.

In addition to the selected groups of studies, there are other research works. The discussion shows that the issue of information literacy is relevant both for national and foreign researchers. However, there are some differences in the definition of basic concepts and approaches. Russian and foreign scholars agree that students have a low level of IL. Researchers offer some ways of cultivating student information literacy. It is also obvious that IL cannot be reduced only to utilitarian skills of searching for and processing the information. Without the development of human intellectual abilities, it is hardly possible to solve the problem of information literacy.

4. Results

Education is currently facing a critical challenge of information literacy for digital society. Let's consider the history of student IL. It should be noted that media-information literacy is not taught in our University as a separate subject. There are two academic course units for bachelor students, such as Information Technologies, Fundamentals of Mathematical Information Processing and Information and Library Support of Education. The University has launched the course called Information and Communication Technologies and Media Information Literacy for the academic year 2019/20. There is a course called Media Competence in Professional Activity for master students majoring in teaching. The educational process remains spontaneous in this area.

A low level of student information culture is a serious obstacle in their educational and research activities. This problem is typical both for Russian and foreign university students. Students enroll in university from diverse educational backgrounds, potentially possessing differing levels of information literacy and related skills (Dolničar, Podgornik, 2018: 24). A. Littlejohn argues that many new approaches to teaching in higher education tend to focus on supporting students to pass exams, rather than to learn critical skills and knowledge (Littlejohn, 2019: 2).

How can we help students understand the importance of IL? Which method is the most effective? The idea is the following: what shall a modern student do about it? These questions are the main ones for our study. We assumed that IL refers to the availability of knowledge and skills required to perform the following tasks: effective search of information, its organization and transformation, identification, interpretation and analysis, as well as its use for specified purposes. These skills are largely cultivated through student research. However, our experience of working with students and managing their research activities shows the lack of IL among university students, especially during their first years of study.

The decline of student information literacy has been observed since the beginning of 2000s. The spread of the Internet has radically changed the educational environment. It took some time to develop the methods used to work in new social conditions. Book work began to decline, which immediately affected the level of literacy. Meanwhile, the reduced level of speech and intellectual development are incompatible with the conditions of the rapidly developing information society (Rotova, 2013: 9). These changes have negatively affected the quality of education in general, and education in particular. University applicants have average and weak training, as well as low level of IL. With regard to the Russian experience, the research shows a general decrease in the level of student' literacy, their weak readiness to study at higher education programs. Many students have difficulties in working with scientific texts and prefer using educational and popular literature and watching films. The fact is that students have no idea about the diversity of information resources. They have little knowledge of information retrieval algorithms and are unfamiliar with the methods of analytical and synthetic information processing. As a consequence, they do not know the technology of preparing their own information products. One potential way to deal with academic alienation and to help students join scientific discussions is to incorporate their identities, as well as their prior knowledge, experience and interests into their academic work (Folk, 2018: 47).

By exploring the level of information literacy among first-year students, we identified the following parameters: the ability to search for the required information, to know the algorithm for information search, extraction, text development and design. The aim of the study was to identify the level information literacy among first-year students and determine the areas for individual support during research activities. The survey included the following questions: Where do you usually look for information on history? Do you know how to work with the catalog? Do you know the rules of bibliographic text design? Do you know the algorithm for writing a text?

Over the past 10 years, the survey showed the following average results: students use the resources of Google and Yandex engines only; students use unverified data (for example, data from The Free Encyclopedia Wikipedia); 23 % of respondents said that they do not know how to use the catalog; 51 % of students claimed they ignore the rules of bibliographic text design; only 16 % of first-year students understand that a text should have an introduction, the main part, and a conclusion. These data are provided by students themselves, while the practical situation is even worse. In a recent survey, 84 % of first-year students experienced difficulties when working with information.

Observation and identification of information literacy of first-year students was carried out in the real educational process. Supervision was provided for fixing the following elements of information literacy: knowledge bases information resources; possession of information retrieval algorithm; possession of methods of analytic-synthetic information processing; technology ownership and readiness to prepare own information products. The study covered students and historians of the 1st course. The total number of students was 256.

Table 1. The level of information literacy among first-year history students (2010–2019)

	Year of admission of students to the University									
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Knowledge bases information resources	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	15 %	20 %	20 %	20 %	25 %
Possession of information retrieval algorithm	5 %	5 %	5 %	5 %	5 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	15 %
Possession of methods of analytic-synthetic information processing	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	15 %	17 %	20 %	18 %	30 %
Technology ownership and readiness to prepare own information products	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	10 %	15 %	20 %	18 %	20 %	30 %

The improvement in indicators has been observed since 2015. This is due to the fact that schools have begun to pay a little more attention to working with texts (the introduction of Federal Educational Standards). Since 2015, the main normative document in teaching history has become the Historical and Cultural Standard.

However, when working with bachelor students we have noticed that many of them use low-quality resources in their research and study activities. Information literacy is based on the abilities to request, search for, evaluate, process, and create information using various sources, as well as the ability to navigate the software in the ever changing world of new technologies and rampant growth of information, which are to be developed during high school period (Kravchenko, Petukhova, 2017: 76).

Our experience shows that the ability to work with information, to transform it, to present it in the required form is mainly developed via individual student support. Student research activities are guided by an adviser. We consider research to be original work addressing the issues that have not undergone extensive studies. Such work is aimed at obtaining new knowledge. 25 years of

lecturing experience and research guidance at the Department for Russian History of Nizhnevartovsk State University showed effective ways of student skills development. It is important that the teaching staff should adopt a principled attitude towards students' research, which is a top priority of our activities. It pushes the frontiers of knowledge in new and exciting areas.

Over the years, the following algorithm for individual student support has been developed: first, the department staff members meet first-year students and present scientific studies performed by professors, graduate and undergraduate students; the best senior students present their research results. First-year students get time to decide on the research area and research adviser. During the first and second semester, students attend conferences, seminars and other scientific events of the Department. As a rule, most motivated students decide upon the scientific area by the end of the first semester, choose their research topics in accordance with the research areas developed at the Department.

Russia being a country of regions, the major area for student historic research activity is studying regional history, particularly, the history of North-Western Siberia. The students receive academic support at all stages of their research activities and develop necessary skills. The activities are based on a system of individual tasks following a particular algorithm.

1. Defining a research topic.
2. Scheduling.
3. Retrieving information, collecting research material (identifying/recognizing information needs: What do I want to find out? What kind of problem am I trying to solve?).
4. Identifying the level of prior studies of the problem (making review of the research literature sources on the subject).
5. Defining the purpose of the study (writing down initial thoughts, making a diagram or mind map to help organize the ideas).
6. Developing a source base through published and archival documents. (Determining sources of information: Do I use the internet, books or television? Do I use primary, secondary or tertiary sources?).
7. Defining a working hypothesis.
8. Writing the text of the study, defining the structure and composition.
9. Making self-assessment of the work done; analyzing the results.
10. Editing.
11. Presenting the research results at student scientific conferences; developing reports and abstracts.
12. Registering the study in accordance with the requirements.

At the first stage of research activities, students develop a database of information resources, locate or search for information. The guiding questions here are the following: Where should I look for information? Who can I ask for help? Nowadays, there is a great variety of electronic information resources, but they are of different quality.

A low level of student information literacy is manifested immediately at the stage of collecting information. The students enrolled in the University do not know where to look for the required information resources and do not distinguish between concepts of source and research. The 10-year study of the first-year student information literacy showed that before the admission none of students knew of the electronic library (elibrary.ru), launched in Russia in 1998 and integrated with the Russian index of scientific citation. The students practice searching for resources on the library portal and use the results of modern research in their scientific studies. As a matter of priority, our students analyze the availability of publications and sources on history in some regional universities, museums, libraries and state archives.

Many students have difficulty in finding information for their research. The right choice involves extensive comparative and analytical work with an overabundance of information. For students it is rather difficult to collect all of the existing literature, since they do not know where to look for the necessary texts. 50 % of first-year students are unable to find scientific texts for their task. At this stage, research advisers spend a lot of time explaining where and which resources are available. Our task is to acquaint novice researchers of regional history with qualitative resources and their location.

So, the first step is providing information to students about research databases. Next, we teach them to work with the data by developing the skills and techniques of working with information. Nowadays, students face an overabundance of information. The scholar M.A. Ivanov

emphasizes that overabundance of information entails the psychological mechanisms of blocking originality (Ivanov, 2012: 61). For analyzing and evaluating the quality of information, students need to ask themselves the following: *How do I know the information is reliable?* There is still a problem of efficient reading and a weak mechanism of semantic forecasting. Students lack anticipation and read every word, lacking flexible reading strategy. Students fail to set goals or use the rules of text processing. Thus, we teach students to apply rational reading (types and algorithms of reading) and ways of fixing information, and give them recommendations on how to read scientific papers and monographs, how to take notes, how to make references to resources. Our goal is to teach students to realize their misunderstanding, to give them essential tools allowing them to receive and transmit information in the form of a written text. Therefore, we develop reading skills of extracting information, creating a common understanding of the text, translating and understanding the information, considering the text content and form.

B. Markowski, L.F. McCartin, S. Evers (University of Northern Colorado) came to similar conclusions. The authors conducted a performance-based assessment of information literacy to determine if students in a first-year experience course were finding relevant sources, using evidence from sources effectively, and attributing sources correctly. Study results indicate that students in the sample were able to find relevant and appropriate sources for their research papers; however, they were not using evidence to effectively support an argument or attributing sources correctly (Markowski et al., 2018:128-149).

The next important stage is grouping the identified material, structuring the text, organizing, storing, or archiving information. Here, students need to ask themselves the following: How do I efficiently organize information from multiple sources? A historian must be able to analyze, summarize and theoretically comprehend the facts. By and large, any description and grouping of facts (even chronologically) contains a generalization element. A student needs to highlight the principles of grouping the collected material. Similarly, the classification of the material should be carried out (Zverev, 2016: 63-64). After that one needs to develop a working hypothesis, i.e. the initial version of the sequence of answers to the questions, in order not only to reveal the essence of the issues, but also to find the form of evidence, the correspondence of conclusions to the content. After that, a student can develop a structure and compose a scientific work by drawing up and then adjusting a primary plan. Partitioning the research material is also a difficult task for a student.

The case with information analysis and synthesis is even more drastic. This work is effectively performed only by one of 10 students. We teach students to perform a primary analysis of the text, encouraging to make information extracts, to group and classify the data. As a result of this titanic work, most of the graduates acquire the ability to search for, analyze, interpret and evaluate information, as well as to present the data according to the required form. Drawing up an abstract and writing conclusions are tasks that half of the students get ready for just at the end of their undergraduate studies. At the same time, poor knowledge of English is a serious problem for many students. Here, the downsides of school education are obvious. Poorly trained undergraduates experience difficulties during the University learning.

It is clear that students find it difficult to prepare a scientific text (a thesis, an article, or an abstract), since they fail to see the structure of the text. The research adviser explains how to present the material in accordance with the existing guidelines. To learn to use the information in an ethical, efficient, and effective way, students answer the following: How do I take copyright into account? To create and communicate new knowledge, they think of how to present the available information. Developing the first version of the script is a very difficult task for a student. Having developed it, a student presents it to the research adviser for verification. Next comes the correction, which can take place many times until the text meets the requirements. 80 % of students have problems with summarizing the information. Eventually, students understand it is a complicated thing to develop a scientific text.

At the same time, the level of self-efficiency in developing the final and research papers is variable among undergraduate students. Research results are expressed not only in student final papers, but also in the number of academic publications.

Table 2 shows that the research activity has been successful and there has been an increase in the number of student academic papers. However, over the years, the data has fluctuated, with highest rates achieved in 2013, 2014, 2018, and lowest results in 2011, 2016, 2019.

Table 2. Results of student research work (2011–2019) (Department for Russian History)

Year	Number of students	Number of published scientific papers	Average number of publications per 1 student	Number of scientific reports prepared for conferences	Average number of reports per 1 student
2011	22	26	1.18	19	0.86
2012	35	37	1.05	39	1.11
2013	18	26	1.44	26	1.44
2014	16	35	2.18	29	1.81
2015	21	38	1.80	21	1.0
2016	37	36	0.97	35	0.95
2017	20	47	2.35	23	1.15
2018	17	52	3.05	47	2.76
2019	13	22	1.69	12	0.92
Total	199	319	1.74	251	1.3

As a rule, university graduates have several publications. However, sometimes a student with a low level of prior motivation, academic experience and maturity would have no publications and can write final papers only. Some students get distracted from their research, lacking a systematic working effort and unable to manage their time. Information literacy skills depend largely on inherent self-efficacy.

Throughout research activities, the level of students' IL gets increased. Here, we observe the following pattern: most relevant skills include selecting information rationally and effectively; understanding and defining the need for relevant information; assessing the accuracy and reliability of the processed information; selecting, filtering, analyzing, developing information layout; systematizing, generalizing, structuring and interpreting the final volume of information; searching for new ways to transfer, present and use information as one's own knowledge; developing information products and presenting them to other users to meet various objectives.

It is obvious that IL correlates with critical thinking, developed through information processing. Working with information requires a long and systematic exercises. Whilst the awareness of competences gained is essential, it is only a start in achieving one's study, career and life goals through the appropriate use of information means. In this respect, information literacy is an element in the ongoing development of an individual identity. Student research activities provide skills that have no expiration date, for whichever major a student chooses, he or she is laying a foundation for life-long learning.

5. Conclusion

The results of our study point to an interesting trend: the level of information literacy among first-year students is rather low; although the students achieve certain results in searching for information via the Internet, they tend to refrain from using library sources and databases. Therefore, information search and awareness of the databases concentrating high quality resources is a common modern problem. Since the beginning of the new Millennium and the spread of the Internet, we have observed a decline in the level of student information literacy. Moreover, the increasing amount of information entails frustration among students, since it's becoming more and more difficult to find high quality information. We have observed another problem among first-year students. Namely, they lack a clear idea of text structure and bibliographic design, as well as consequent information and analytical skills. Our experience allows us to conclude that providing individual support to students within their research activities is an effective way to solve the problems of information literacy. The effect of student research work is obvious: students improve their information literacy and develop information culture. The development of research competencies and information culture will not only contribute to the ability of performing research, but will also allow students majoring in teaching to grow professionally and provide high quality training to schoolchildren in future.

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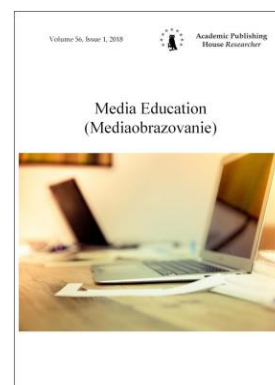
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Construct (Suggestive) Models for Media Education in India: A Connecting Threads of Media Academia and Media Industry

Alok Kumar Jha ^{a, *}, Rachana Gangwar ^a

^a Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow (U.P.), India

Abstract

Media education in India facing the isolation from the media industry as well as stagnation of critical thinking and pedagogical development. On the one hand, there is a gap between media academia and media industry while on the other hand, media education in India has been expanded in numerical form, but not as qualitative, pedagogical. Also, non-uniform of curriculum that is not fulfilling the industry's demands. All the universities viz. public and private universities or institutions have failed to reshape of uniform curricula Hence, media educators in India faced the poor infrastructure, poor course of contents, lack of rigorous contents of theory, practices, critical thinking, pedagogical development as well. In India, the lack of connecting threads of media academia and media industry and that is the one of the major issues and challenges of media education. In this study, the researchers have tried to construct (suggestive) models for media education that connecting threads between media academia and media industry in India. Through these models media academia and media industry can be interconnected and it gives answers to the questions that how to bridge the gap between media academia and media industry. This study is based on the existing researchers' opinions, models and theories. To achieve the goal authors, use literature review, theoretical analysis and synthesis as well as followed abductive research approach (it is a form of logical inferences which starts with an observation and predict to construct models or theory) to understand the existing expert's opinions towards media education. This study is based on normative theory that utilizes the review strategy for knowing and portraying what exists Hence, on the basis of this study, authors have constructed models that will be helpful to uplift media education.

Keywords: media, media education, media education models, media academia, media industry, critical thinking, pedagogy.

1. Introduction

Media education in India has been completed almost ninety years. But it has not yet been freed from the duality whether it is considered technical education or ideological education. While the duality of technology and ideology is the cause of the marginalization of media education, on the other hand, the government neglected and also an apathetic attitude of media institutions is blurring the pictures of media education. On the basis of long journey of media education in India, it can be said that media education has not been able to progress as much as it should have done. There has been a quantitative growth in media education, but the lack of quality is enough. Lack of resources are another big issues and challenges towards media education in India. If seen, even

* Corresponding author
E-mail addresses: ajha664@gmail.com (A.K. Jha)

today media education has not met the standards of education. If compare it to other subjects then this serious subject has not been given as much attention. In spite of the connection with human sensibilities and social responsibility, media education in India is not take place that it should actually get. There are many reasons behind this. Therefore, in this study researcher has tried to know the reason behind of this.

As we know that media education in India connects two sectors: media academia and media industry. If we look back in the history, then it found that in the eighties and nineties, there is a flourishing of media education in India (Desai, 2008). Despite the long journey of media education in India, it has not yet gained the status of professional education. Also, it is in duality whether it is a professional or traditional or vocational education. The lack of mutual support of media academia and media industry in India is one of the issues and challenges of media education in India. At the same time, media institutions are not preparing the syllabi as per the requirements of media industries and when students leave media institutions and go to a media house, the knowledge they learned in the institutions seems to incomplete. Today, there is a need to consider Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary model approach of media through which media education should be out from the Arts and Social Sciences and develop it as a separate discipline. Along with this, media education institutes should prepare syllabi and curricula as per actual needs of media industries.

2. Materials and methods

– Authors have constructed (suggestive) models for media education in India. To achieve the goal authors, use abductive research followed by normative theory that utilizes to construct some models of media education in India.

– Abductive research approach refers to know or deciding what the most likely inferences or prediction are that can be made from the set of data observation (Mangal, 2019). On the basis of abductive research approach authors have tried to construct ‘Media Education Models’.

– On the basis of aforesaid theory and approach these following models are constructed and issues and challenges of media education can have overcome.

– The purpose of the study is to justify theoretically and experimentally the methodology for the construction of media education models.

The method of research: theoretical analysis and synthesis on the problem of research, generalization and classification.

3. Discussion

The problem of media education and development in India are being studied by many researchers (Agrwal, 2006; Bagchi, et al., 2009; Bhattacharya, 2014; Das, 2009; Desai, 2008; 2017; Dutta et al., 2011; Eapen, 1982; Kuthiala, 2011; Muppidi, 2008; Murthy, 2011; Singh, 2011; 2017 and others).

The emergence of media education in the world is ‘the initial expansion of journalism has been mostly in Europe, hence the training of journalism at the global level has also been done in England, France and Germany.’ But the training of journalism grew rapidly in the United States, and today the world's most popular journalism and media training courses are mostly in Europe and America. Although there was no formal training available for journalists before these courses and they used to learn the art of journalism while working. It has been recognized across the world that journalism comes from birth and cannot be made a journalist. But today this illusory situation has ended and only the educated media workers get to enter in the most media organization. Western influence is gradually decreasing and now many universities and institutions of Asia and Africa have their place in the world (Kuthiala, 2011).

There are two different wave of media education around the world-American and European wave of Media Education. The wave of Australia and Canada were also found later after American and European wave. In American tradition, the craft is more emphasizing in media teaching. It has emphasized on media production and how to produce journalists. While Europe is particularly related to the second wave of media education which was developed in the UK. This tradition emphasizes the study of media by combining other topics like sociology, political science, economics, psychology etc. This tradition has given critical thinking towards interdisciplinary courses like the sociology of the media, the psychology of the media and the economics of the media. Many years later Media Educators of India and neighbouring countries were on the way or followed of U.S. orientation of Media Education (Singh, 2017).

The first media education course in India offered in the 1920 with the efforts of Dr. A. Besant as a graduate degree in the department of English under the faculty of Arts at Adyar University. In 1930, Aligarh Muslim University started the media education as a 'certificate' course by Rahmat Ali (But Some other scholar argues that; in 1938 Aligarh Muslim University was initially started two years diploma in Journalism). Due to mutual differences, this course was closed in 1940. In 1936, Dr. J.P. Kumarappa established the 'American College of Journalism'. In the year 1941, Professor Prithavi Pal Singh who came from the famous Columbia University with a hope in the media education. He established the journalism department at Punjab University, Lahore, where initially one-year Part-time Diploma Courses were started. With the partition of the country in 1947, this department was established in Delhi. Finally, in 1962, this department was established under Punjab University, Chandigarh. After independence, Calcutta University started the course of journalism in 1948. After this, the University of Madras and Osmania University also started the course of the media. In addition, in 1965, the 'Indian Institute of Mass Communication' was established in collaboration with the then Central Government (Singh, 2011).

This is also a coincidence that the growth of media education in India is more along the lines of America. The result was that instead of media studies, craft-based education was more dominated. One of the reasons for this is because the expansion of media education is related to the expansion of radio, television, newspaper, cinema etc. At present, the courses at universities are taught by mixing all types of media-related materials. Currently, the purpose of the courses is not clear. Even among the teachers associated with media education, there is no clarity about the courses (Singh, 2017). By the 20th Century, some renowned private media sector started their own Media/Journalism education training institute. These institutes are MICA, Ahmedabad, Times Group's 'School of Journalism', New Delhi, The Asian College of Journalism (The Hindu Group), Chennai. At the beginning of the 21st Century, a large number of National-International Media education training institute were opened like Wigan and Leigh India (WLCI), Mumbai, Sri Sri Centre for Media Studies, Bangalore and many more. Besides this, by the establishment of *Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC)*, New Delhi, *Film and Television Institute of India (FTII)*, Pune and others institutions give their contribution towards enriching media education in India (Desai, 2008). In India, Journalism education is mostly known as 'Mass Communication' or 'Media education', or it is seen as a subset of mass communication. Indian scholars have argued that the media industry has not made a significant investment towards media education (Eapen, 1982; Agrawal, 2006). After 1990, television news channels, new media and Broadcast Journalism have actively worked towards media education (Desai, 2017).

Media department is opening in New Central universities established in 2009. In many public universities where media department has opened or are now opening, competing can be seen to open a media department in private university also. Media education in India has been expanded in numerical form, but not as qualitative, pedagogical. Now, media education should have critical thinking in terms of pedagogy and professional, which is the demand of today (Singh, 2017).

Journalism and Mass Communication education in India facing the isolation from the media Industry as well as technological development. On the one hand, there is a gap between media academia and media industry while on the other hand, Non-uniform of curriculum that is not fulfilling the industry's demands. All the universities viz. public and private universities or Institutions have failed to reshape of uniform curricula. Hence, media educators in India are facing from the poor infrastructure, poor course of contents, lack of rigorous contents of theory, practices and research as well (Murthy, 2011). In context to the present state of journalism education in India and the relevance of journalism in the current scenario, the important point and concerned about the lack of regulations, lack of resources, poor infrastructure as well as the lack of consistent course curriculum (Muppidi, 2008).

The status of media education policies, media practices and issues that which facing by the media education particularly in India. Indian media sector does not recognize and consider traditional media education processes in the country seriously. In India 'Communication' understanding in terms of interpersonal and group communication while 'media' mean such as technology or audio-visual context and it is being taught under the aegis of different disciplines viz. Medicine to literature. However, this Journalism education or so-called media studies has passed the seven decades of journey. As we know that, this Journalism education at first followed by film, electronic media while at current scenario it has been shifted in 'New Media' and 'Media Management'. M. Desai also highlighted the issues in terms of curriculum, pedagogy, Media

educator and learner profiles as well as at present time mapping the media courses etc. have been discussed in this paper. Apart from aforesaid M. Desai has also explored the issues related to nomenclature. At one hand some universities or institutions are using as 'Journalism', 'Journalism and Mass Communication' while on the other hand some universities or institutions are using media courses as 'Mass Communication and Journalism', 'Media Studies', 'Communication Studies', 'Mass Communication' and so on. These day media institutions or universities being offered as one-liner course such as 'Advertising', 'Public relations', 'Broadcast Journalism', 'Brand Management' and so on (Desai, 2008). It must be considered as a serious and diversifies discipline not only to train students in a form of Vocational training programs. It must not be concentrated on 'Hands-On Training' only. Continuously M. Desai has raised questions here that how media education is different from the other disciplines. M. Desai also argue that media education should be based on the nature of 'interdisciplinary, process-centric and self-experiential'. It demands both conceptual and theoretical and practical approach (Desai, 2008).

The problem behind the understanding of media education that we consider it yet as a 'Vocational training course'. As we know, students of political science background, but in actual they do not end up with becoming a politician. Same thing lies behind for the Sociology, who opted sociology, but they do not end up with a sociologist. Similarly, it can't be said that a philosophy background student ends up with a philosopher. But, unfortunately in media education, it is projected and focuses upon to creating media professionals only. As we know that political science and sociology is creating a sensible thinker who shape the society. Same thing should be applied behind media education. It works not only to produce media professional, also creating and aware from the media sensibility (Bhattacharya, 2014).

Media education facing with absence of quality teachers, lack of practical orientation, lack of trained teachers, syllabus and quality books, passiveness in adopting new technologies related to media education (Bagchi, Rath, 2009). Even in 2001, UGC has constructed a model curriculum for Mass Communication and Journalism, but unfortunately it has been failure due to showing passiveness of implementation by the universities or institutions while some universities or institutions have followed or adapted the UNESCO model curriculum (UNESCO..., 2007). In India, there is a clear distinction between the terms "*media education*", "*Educational technology*" and "*Professional education in media*". According to B. Das, the term Educational technology includes all teaching techniques as well as the use of media in school curriculum whereas Professional education in India refers to a mixture of school of Journalism and film. Das also argue that media education is not just about how to apply media, but also knowing how to apply critical learning regarding media (Das, 2009).

The challenges and prospects of media education in India such as (1) Explain the relationship between media literacy and media education, (2) The Statues and Challenges of the media education in India and (3) Describe the model of media education in India. Media literacy ensures knowledge of how mass media works. In the age of media saturation, a wide range of media channels are available. So, media literacy is now more than the matter of reading and writing. In short, media literacy is to help people learn how to communicate, access, create, care and contribute for the wellness of society (Dutta, Ray, 2011). Apart from Indian researcher who highlighted the status and challenges of media education in India. But some other researcher who highlighted the status and challenges of media education around the world. In particular, A. Fedorov highlighted and come into sight of status of media education and its issues and challenges around the world. A. Fedorov has constructed models of media literacy and media education that could bridge the gap between media academia and media industry as well as problem related to critical thinking of students and media pedagogy (Fedorov, 2014). A.K. Jha and R. Gangwar (Jha, Gangwar, 2018) have constructed pedagogical graphical model of media education which is also based on Fedorov's media literacy education model.

4. Results

To achieve goal and try to mitigate the gap between media academia and media industry authors have implemented the following models and theory.

(1) *Experiential Learning Model:*

In the 1970, David A. Kolb developed Experiential Learning Model with colleagues Kurt Lewin, John Dewey and Jean Piaget. This model is basically the process of learning through

experience. It may understand by Learning by Doing or Learning by Experience. It emphasises on Hands-on Learning approach (Kolb, 1984).

Through this model media educators may teach media students about what skills/ knowledge they (media educators) have learned in the media professional field and media students may learn from the media educators and implement/ reflect the previous learned skills/knowledge in the media professional field.

(2) *Critical Pedagogy Approach:*

Paulo Freire has coined the term 'Critical Pedagogy'. This approach basically helps students to gain Critical Consciousness (Freire, 1984). A critical pedagogic educator Ira Shor has defined the critical pedagogy in deep. According to Ira Shor Critical pedagogy is based on dialogic relationship of teaching and learning (Shor, 1992). It may understand as: "Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking with go beneath surface meaning, first impression, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology and personal consequences of any actions, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media, or discourse (Empowering Education: 129)".

It is a progressive teaching method that makes students better thinker and better people. This approach can make students philosophically better. Through this approach media students may understand the conflicts of media and society.

(3) *Teaching Hospital Model for Media Education:*

According to Eric Newton (Senior Advisor to the president, S. John and J.L. Knight Foundation) "A model of learning-by-doing that includes media students, media educators (media academician) and media professionals working together and produce community driven contents under the one roof". It is an idea that builds the model for Journalism/Journalism Education (Newton, 2013). According to this idea, Media Education should work like a medical profession. It produces or train media students to become a journalist same like a doctor.

(4) *Construct Media Education Models:*

For this study, the researchers have tried to construct(suggestive) Models for Media Education in India that will be helpful to uplift media education and also can be overcome the issues and challenges. On the basis of these following model the gap between media academia and media industry can be bridging.

(5) *The Umbrella Model of Media Education:*

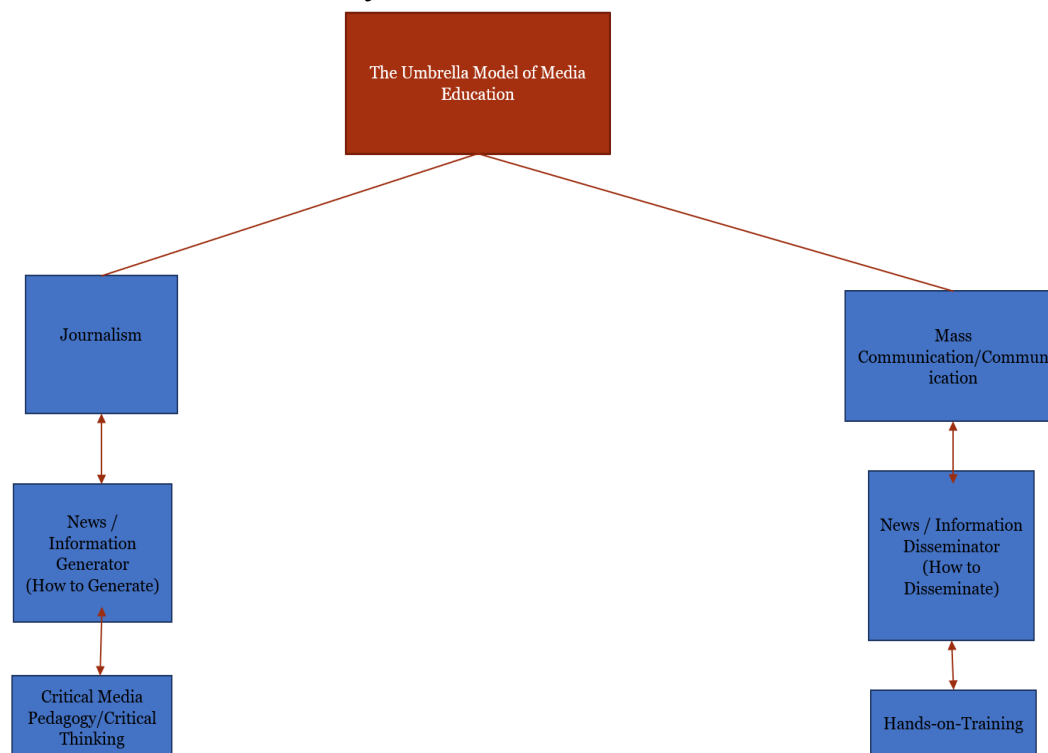


Fig. 1. The Umbrella Model of Media Education

The Umbrella Model of Media Education demarcated media studies into two parts: Journalism and Mass Communication/Communication. Through this model researchers have suggested that journalism should be treated as news or information generator i.e. media educators should be emphasised or taught journalism as how to generate news or information. Also, researchers have suggested that journalism education should be treated as critical media pedagogy. As a result, this approach may lead to enhance critical thinking in media students. On the other hand, mass communication or communication should be treated as news or information disseminator i.e. media educators should be emphasised or taught mass communication or communication as how to disseminate news or information. For this, researchers have suggested that mass communication or communication should be treated as hands-on-training approach. This approach may lead to enhance adequate skills related to media. The two type of media education may understand as follows:

(a) Journalism: It should be understand/treated as News/Information generator (How to generate news/Information). Therefore, it should be treated as 'Critical Media Pedagogy' or 'Critical Thinking'.

(b) Mass Communication/Communication: It should be understand/treated as News/Information disseminator (How to disseminate News/Information). Therefore. It should be treated as 'Hands-on-Training'

(6) *Experiential Learning Model for Media Education (Based on Kolb's Experiential Model):*

In the 1970, An American educationalist theorist David A. Kolb developed 'Experiential Learning Model' with colleagues Kurt Lewin, John Dewey and Jean Piaget. This model is basically the process of learning through 'experience'. It may understand by 'Learning by Doing' or 'Learning by Experience' (Kolb, 1984). It emphasises on 'Hands-on Learning' approach. Through this model media educators may teach media students about what skills/knowledge they (media educators) have learned in the media professional field and media students may learn from the media educators. Through this approach students may implement/reflect their previous learned skills or knowledge into the media professional field.

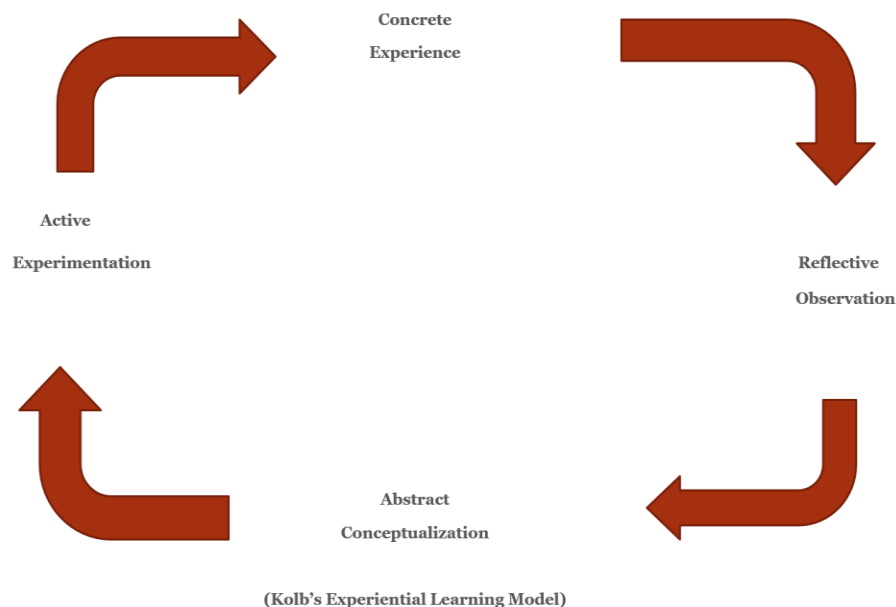


Fig. 2. Kolb's Experiential Learning Model

– *Abstract Conceptualisation:* Media Educators should have experiences of Media Professional Field. Media Educators should be entered into media academia with new ideas of media and should try to modify the existing or old concept of media education.

– *Active Experimentation:* ... Should teach accordingly what they (Media Educators) have learned in the Media Professional Field. Also, should try to teach accordingly what is happening in

the current media field, what is the actual requirement of media fields. It will be helpful to bridging the gap of media academia and media industry.

– *Concrete Experience*: Media Students may learn about Media Professional Field. Through this approach student will get or acquaint of new experience of media professional field, they may develop their understanding of current situation or scenario of media.

– *Reflective Observation*: When Students will go into Media Professional Field, they may implement or reflect their own previous experiences or what they achieved from media academia. Through this approach student may understand the inconsistencies between learned experience (Previous experience) and new experience. These inconsistencies (send feedback to the native institution where they learned) may help to modification in media education or teaching methodology.

– Through this model media educators may teach media students about what skills/knowledge they (media educators) have learned in the media professional field and media students may learn from the media educators.

– Through this approach students may implement/ reflect their previous learned skills or knowledge into the media professional field

(7) *Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Model for Critical Media Pedagogy:*

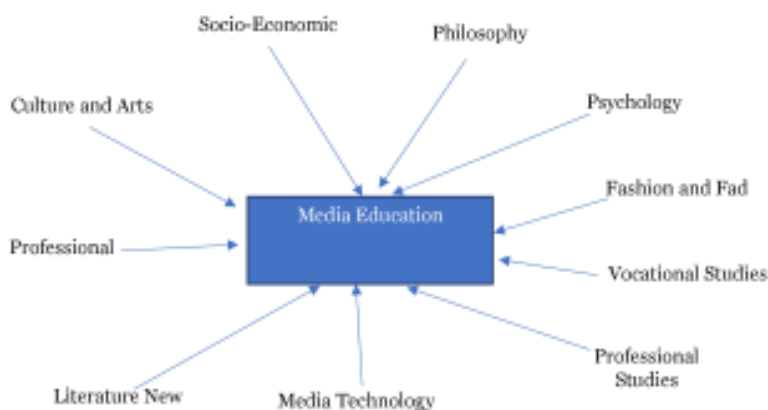


Fig. 3. Interdisciplinary Model for Media Education

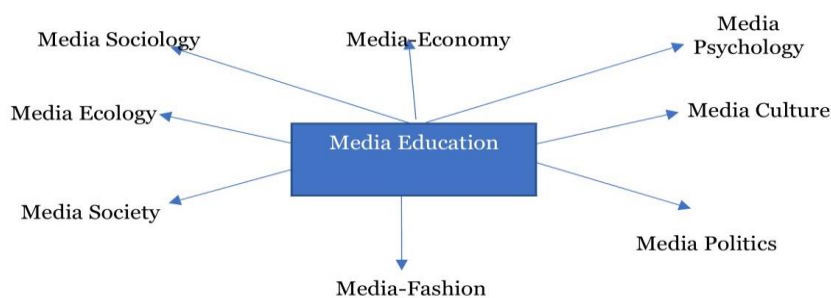


Fig. 4. Multidisciplinary Model for Media Education

Above Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 show that Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Model of Media Education. In context of India, media education should be rethinking and should be followed these models for upliftment or improvement the state of media education in India. In India, media education is still suffering of identification whether it is Interdisciplinary or Multidisciplinary or Social Science or Arts and Humanities or what? On the one hand, these models help to make identification of media education along with these models also pointing out that media education

not just a skill training course, it also a diversified and pedagogical subject like philosophy, psychology, political science, sociology etc. These aforesaid models may help to enhance the critical thinking towards media education in India.

-*Interdisciplinary*: For diversification of media education, it should be treated as Interdisciplinary and should be included other subjects like philosophy, psychology, political Science, Socio-Economic, Cultural etc. with core subjects of media. Also, Media education should be treated as Vocational, Professional and Traditional. It should be treated as convergence pedagogy.

-*Multidisciplinary*: For development of critical thinking in media education, it should be treated as Multidisciplinary. It will help to make understanding and inter-relation of media-economy, media-culture, media-society, media-fashion, media-politics, media-psychology etc.

(8) *Teaching Hospital Model for Media Education:*

A teaching hospital model provides medical education and training to future and current health professionals and that is involved in medical research. Teaching hospitals are often associated with medical institutes and work closely with medical students. Teaching hospitals model also offer graduate medical education, where medical institute's graduates train under a supervising (attending) doctor to assist with the coordination of care. Apart from this, it also offering medical education to medical students and residents' doctors, many teaching hospitals also serve as research institutes.

In these hospitals, medical students work or learn under the real specialists who figure out how to draw blood, how to embed catheters, how to set broken arms, even how-to delivery. Why need to work or learn under the specialist doctors? Because book learning and finishing assessments are sufficiently not to show you how to be a specialist (Newton, 2013).



Fig. 5. Teaching Hospital Model. Source: Model for University Hospital Assessment, Brazil, 2003

The teaching hospital model for journalism settles upon the old thought that individuals learn by doing. Journalism education thrives through learning by doing. It can be understood through Chinese proverb “*I hear and I forget; I see and I remember; I do and I understand* (Newton, 2013).”

In other fields, science students work on real experiments under their professors. Sports students participate in actual sports. Computer science students program real computers. Journalism educators interested in learning by doing could find examples in studies of agriculture, law, the arts, education, science, sports and many other fields (Newton, 2013).

With working together; students, professionals and professors can build the ultimate teaching hospital model for journalism. If it is built out, then this model will help lead journalism to a better future in the 21st Century (Newton, 2013).

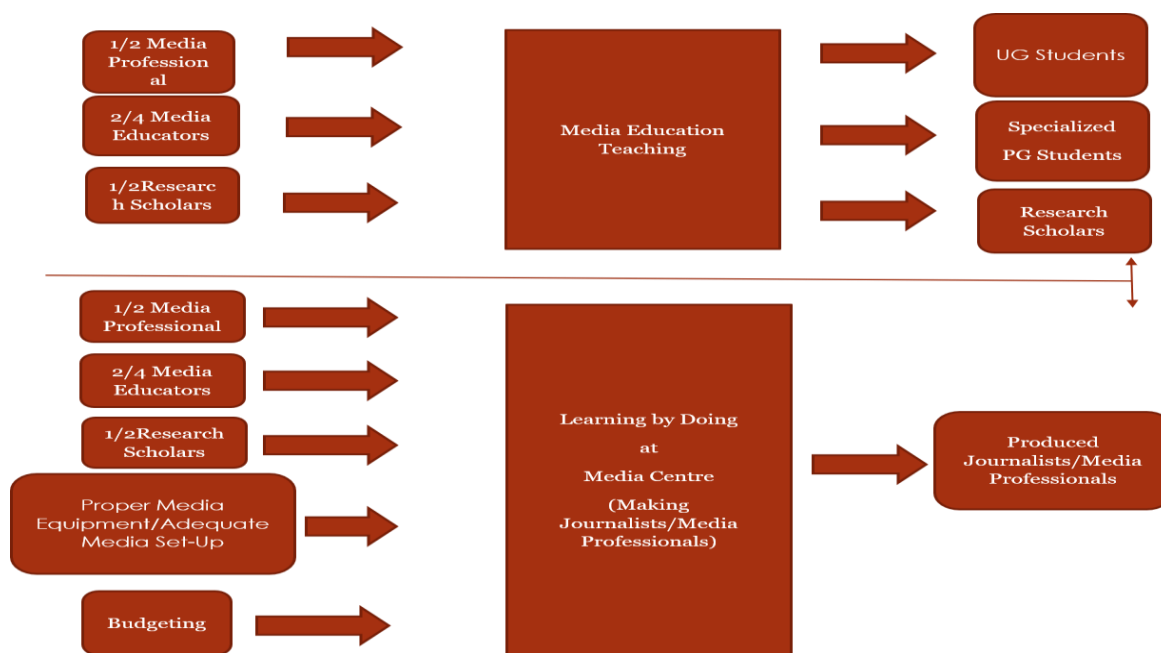


Fig. 6. Media Education Model, based on Teaching Hospital Model

Teaching Hospital Model train students through learning by doing method. They treat patients and conducts research same as for Journalism education should train students of Journalism. According to Eric Newton (Knight Foundation’s senior Advisor) “Hospital Model need six elements” such as: (1) Students doing the Journalism, (2) Professional Mentoring to Improve the quality and Impact of Journalism (3) Professor bringing in topic knowledge and raising issues (4) Innovators Pioneering new tools and technique (5) Academics doing major research project (6) Everyone working together with an emphasis of not just informing a community but engaging it.

(9) Model for the choice of Media Students:

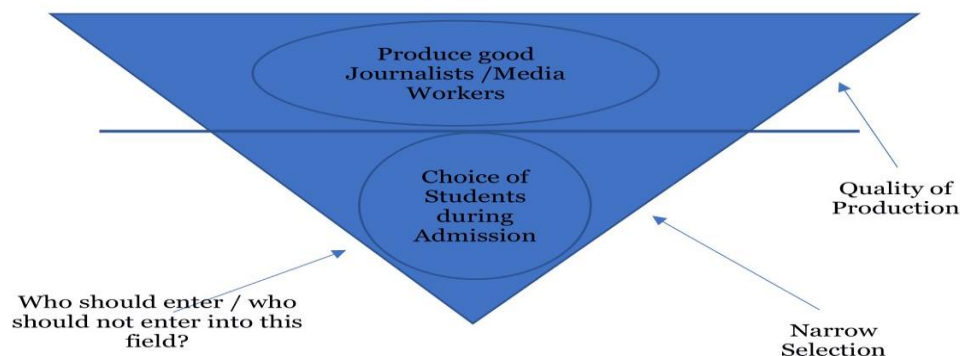


Fig. 7. Inverted Pyramidal Model of Media Education

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 show that Inverted pyramidal model of media education and pyramidal model of media education in India respectively. Inverted pyramidal model of media education suggested that choice of media students during admission. During admission strongly assessment of students must be followed that who should come and who should not come in this field. This gatekeeping approach can produce quality of journalists. In contrast to India, unfortunately following pyramidal model of media education. There is no strong assessment or gatekeeping approaches being followed that who should come and who should not come in this field. Merely entrance examination (most of universities or institutes conducting entrance examination in MCQ) is not enough assessment for the choice of media students. Choice of media students should be based on entrance examination (i.e. entrance examination should be conducted as MCQ with subjective manner including test of verbal and non-verbal communication skills, knowledge of

world affairs, social, cultural, political, economic aspects etc.) which must be followed by interview, Statement of purpose (why students wants to opt media education etc.), orientation etc.

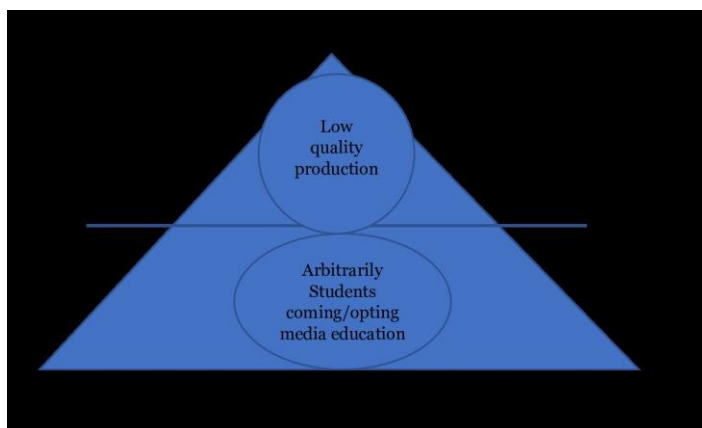


Fig. 8. Pyramidal Model of Media Education in India

-For enrich media education and quality production of Journalist, should follow Inverted Pyramid of Media Education. For this, should try to make gate-keeping process during the entrance of students that who should get entrance pass to study media education and who should not.

-This assessment process could be helpful to producing quality of media worker and then after academia could be able to meet the need of media industry. Specially for media education, should not merely fill the seats against vacant with first-come-first get or without adequate assessment process. During admission process keep in mind that media is a subject related to human sensibilities such as medicine.

5. Conclusion

In this study, researcher have suggested models for media education that will be helpful to uplift media education and also can be overcome the issues and challenges. Also, these models will be helpful to find the answers of 'how to mitigate this gap'. In addition, these media education models will also be helpful to understand the 'hands-on-training' and 'critical media pedagogy' approach.

On the basis of findings, the present study can be concluded as follows:

- To overcome the issues and challenges of media education in India, it is highly need to set-up or build media education model.

-Media education in India can be improved through adopting of both approaches of media education i.e. 'Hands-on-Training' and 'Critical Media Pedagogy'.

-Media education in India can be improved through proper dialogue between media academia and media industry. For this proper maintain of critical pedagogy and hand-on-training.

- Researchers observed that media education in India is less emphasised on critical thinking of media. For building of critical thinking among students need to follow interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approach.

- Adopting teaching hospital model for journalism education, media academia may fulfil the requirement of media industry.

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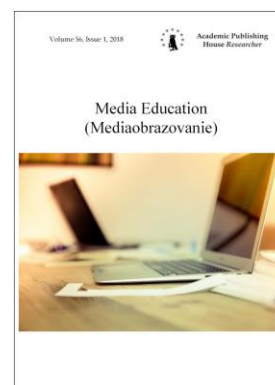
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Content Analysis of University Students' Interethnic Tolerance Reflected in Russian and English-language Media Education of the 21st Century

Irina Chelysheva ^{a,*}, Galina Mikhaleva ^a

^a Rostov State Economic University, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article analyses the major development trends of interethnic tolerance in Russia and in English-speaking countries in the 21st century. The authors analyse the main official documents on the issues under study, present a review of some works written by Russian and foreign researchers regarding interethnic tolerance. During this period, education in English-speaking countries as well as in Russia is characterized by increased attention of their governments and the general public to reforms and continuous modernization. At the same time, emphasis is laid on critical understanding of the established traditions in education and reforming of education; problem areas of education are also discussed, in particular, the urgent issues of promoting interethnic tolerance and social justice. Consequently, at the present stage, the challenge of fostering interethnic tolerance among young people has received new development vectors and acquired an interdisciplinary nature as it includes historical, philosophical, psychological, pedagogical, sociological, cultural and other aspects. The integration which is taking place in the contemporary information society, modernization of education systems and transition to digital education determine the search for new approaches and ways to the challenge of promoting intercultural dialogue, cooperation, spiritual and moral education of the younger generation. In this context media education approaches developed in Russia and English-speaking countries may provide effective solutions to promoting social equality and civil responsibility and combatting intolerance. This is especially important in modern conditions and is one of present-day priority objectives of higher education.

Keywords: interethnic tolerance, media education, Russia, English-speaking countries, university students.

1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the 21st century, public recognition of the phenomenon of cultural diversity has been supported by modern mass media, information and communication technologies thus contributing to a dialogue of cultures, interethnic respect and mutual understanding. So, in 2001, UNESCO adopted the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity ([Universal Declaration..., 2001](#)), and in December 2002 the UN General Assembly proclaimed May 21st the World Day for Cultural Diversity in the name of dialogue and development.

The Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions proclaimed its basic aims to support: “1) national policies and measures promote creation, production, distribution and access with regard to diverse cultural goods and services and contribute to informed, transparent and participatory systems of governance for culture;

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: ivchelysheva@yandex.ru (I. Chelysheva)

2) preferential treatment measures facilitate a balanced flow of cultural goods and services and promote the mobility of artists and cultural professionals around the world; 3) sustainable development policies and international assistance programmes integrate culture as a strategic dimension; 4) international and national legislation related to human rights and fundamental freedoms promote both artistic freedom and the social and economic rights of artists” ([Convention..., 2005](#)).

The year 2000 was proclaimed the International Year for the Culture of Peace by the UN General Assembly, and 2001 was the Year of the Dialogue of Cultures and Civilizations. The year 2010, which concluded the decade of a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World, was declared the International Year for the Rapprochement of Cultures by the United Nations. Its major aim was “to demonstrate the benefits of cultural diversity by acknowledging the importance of the constant transfers and exchanges between cultures and the ties forged between them since the dawn of humanity” ([International Year..., 2010](#)). Among the main activities of the UN in 2010, the program of events accentuated “contribution of the media and the new communication and information technologies to change the perception of different cultures and religions through, inter alia, the promotion of dialogue on the Internet where numerous cultural and linguistic expressions can be circulated and shared; or co-production fostering dialogue between media professionals from different cultures particularly on delicate issues” ([International Year..., 2010](#)).

In the early years of the 21st century, in Russia, the issues of interethnic and international tolerance, the fight against xenophobia and extremism were reflected in a number of federal laws including the Federal Law “On General Principles of Organizing Communities of Indigenous Minorities of the North, Siberia and the Far East of the Russian Federation” ([Federal Law..., 2000](#)), the Federal Law “On Countering Extremist Activities” ([Federal Law..., 2002](#)) and others. Later, in 2003, the concept of multicultural education in higher education of the Russian Federation was developed ([Davydov, Suprunova, 2003](#)).

Of great importance for promoting interethnic tolerance is the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation dated October 4, 2000 “On the National Doctrine of Education in the Russian Federation” that determines its further development until 2025 ([Decree, 2000](#)). This document reflects the main strategic goals of education including “the interests of citizens of the multinational Russian state” ([Decree, 2000](#)).

Further guidelines and priority directions of the Russian national educational policy in general education in the context of its modernization in the period from 2004 to 2010 were defined in the concept of national educational policy of the Russian Federation approved by order of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation in 2006 ([Order..., 2006](#)). This document identified the main priorities of the national state education policy in Russia ensuring the ethno-cultural and linguistic needs of its citizens. An important role in the document is given to the management of “developing of a system of educational institutions that implement general education programs with an ethno-cultural regional (national-regional) component and with instructions in their native (non-Russian) and Russian (non-native) languages” ([Order..., 2006](#)).

Also, a great contribution to promoting interethnic tolerance in the early years of this century was made due to the Federal Grant Program “The Formation of Attitudes of Tolerant Consciousness and the Prevention of Extremism in Russian Society (2001-2005)” approved by the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation on August 25, 2001. Many leading universities of the Russian Federation took part in the research and development of this program. The main goal of the federal program headed by A.G. Asmolov ([Asmolov, 2002](#)) was “the formation and implementation of standards of tolerant behaviour in social practice that determine the sustainability of behaviour in society of individuals and social groups in various situations of social tension as the basis of civil harmony in a democratic state” ([Federal Grant Program..., 2001](#)). Among the main tasks of the Federal Grant Program along with the tasks of developing and implementing measures to promote civic behaviour, countering extremism and reducing social and psychological tension in society, developing and implementing methods and mechanisms for monitoring, diagnosing and predicting the socio-political situation in the country, assessing risks and consequences of destructive processes in society, measures to stimulate tolerant behaviour including working out training programs for all levels of education were outlined.

Principles of interethnic tolerance, ethno-cultural diversity, good neighbourly relationships and equality of representatives of different ethnic groups and cultures, preservation of national

traditions have remained at the forefront and acted as target vectors of the state national policy of the Russian Federation over the past decade.

2. Materials and methods

The main methodological principles of the study are: the unity of theory and practice in the study of interethnic tolerance; a creative historical approach to the problem under study based on objective and comprehensive study of socio-pedagogical processes and phenomena, an integrated approach; a systematic approach to the studied objects including personal, active, axiological, ethno-pedagogical, polysubjective, prognostic, reflective and other aspects. We also used the following methods: collection and analysis of information (PhD dissertations, abstracts, monographs, scientific articles, reports, etc.) concerning the theme of the project; analysis of scientific literature, theoretical analysis and synthesis; generalization and classification, content analysis.

3. Discussion

In the time of reforms and transformations, political and social changes that took place in Russian society in the early years of the 21st century, the challenges of spiritual, moral, civil, patriotic education of the young generation did not lose their significance. As the analysis of scientific publications of recent years shows that various aspects of interethnic tolerance are presented in a number of important documents and scientific studies of Russian researchers.

The ideas of upbringing in the context of national self-identity and interethnic relationships are reflected in the concept of spiritual and moral development and education of the personality of a citizen of Russia (Danilyuk et al., 2009). Among the basic social and pedagogical concepts, national self-awareness (identity), diversity of cultures and peoples, interethnic peace and harmony and basic national values are highlighted (Danilyuk et al., 2009: 7-8). The main principles of state policy and legal regulation of relationships in education adopted in the Law on Education in 2012 are the following: “the unity of the educational space in the Russian Federation, protection and development of ethno-cultural characteristics and traditions of the peoples of the Russian Federation in a multinational state; creating favourable conditions for the integration of the education system of the Russian Federation with the education systems of other states on an equal and mutually beneficial basis” (Federal Law..., 2012).

The principles of interethnic tolerance and the culture of interethnic communication are reflected in the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation dated August 20, 2013, № 718 “On the Federal Grant Program “Strengthening the Unity of the Russian Nation and Ethno-cultural Development of the Peoples of Russia (2014 - 2020)”. The program emphasizes that “traditional forms of spirituality and ethnic culture of the peoples of Russia are the basis of all-Russian identity, therefore, the strengthening of the unity of the Russian nation, building a common civil identity of Russians, ensuring the dynamic ethno-cultural and spiritual development of the peoples of Russia, and countering ethno-political and religious-political extremism are important factors for further sustainable development of the country” (Decree..., 2013). The aim of the program is “strengthening the unity of the multinational people of the Russian Federation (Russian nation). Achieving this goal involves the following tasks: contributing to the strengthening of civil unity and harmonization of interethnic relationships; promoting the ethno-cultural diversity of the peoples of Russia” (Decree..., 2013).

A number of important laws regarding interethnic tolerance have been adopted in English-speaking countries too. As you know, the first British law on racial relations was adopted back in 1965: “The 1965 Race Relations Act outlawed discrimination in public places and incitement to racial hatred, and set up the Race Relations Board” (Ashcroft, Bevir, 2019). In 1976, it included the concepts of direct and indirect discrimination, a remedy against violations related to interethnic intolerance. The associated reforms caused a certain shift in the social policy from “assimilation” to “integration”. Although the 1976 Race Relations Act allowed measures to be taken to provide services to meet the needs of certain groups (such as refugees), it was strengthened in the Race Relations Amendment Act 2000 (Race..., 2000) and later in the Equality Act 2010 (Equality Act, 2010). These official documents of the law required from government bodies, including government agencies, schools, universities and the police to promote race equality. The Equality Act 2010 was the result of a fourteen-year campaign by equality experts and human rights organizations. This law requires from the UK public authorities to give due consideration to the need of eliminating illegal racial discrimination and to promoting equality of opportunity and help, to establish good relations

between people of different racial and ethnic groups. Thus, the law goes beyond the framework of anti-discrimination initiatives and includes more active or positive measures.

The British government defined a new vector of the educational policy of the British state in the 21st century under the slogan “Every child matters!” and “Youth Matters!” (HMSO, 2003; DfES, 2004; DfES, 2006). In relation to ethnic minorities, the national educational policy is focused on overcoming any manifestations of gender and ethnic inequality in the educational environment: “schools have a critical role in raising the educational achievement of children in care and other groups that have consistently underachieved, for example some minority ethnic groups” (HMSO, 2004: 38). Hence, according to the national strategy for improving student achievement from ethnic minorities, the forefront is the need to develop educational technologies for schoolchildren, to apply effective educational tools for the equivalent study of their native and national languages.

In more detail, the former British Prime Minister T. May revealed the new education strategy in the UK in her speech on one of the central channels of the BBC in September 2016. The key aspects of the reform addressed the following issues: access to quality education for all categories of citizens, improving the quality of school education, support or opening of new schools by leading British universities, ethnic and social integration of students from religious schools, multicultural and multi-religious education, support for children from disadvantaged and low-income families. At the same time, a slogan was put forward declaring a new policy of the British government regarding the national education in the UK: “We will create a country that works for everyone!”

Speaking at a briefing at the University of Derby in February 2018, Teresa May emphasized equal access to education, equal educational and career opportunities for all categories of citizens, creating a more flexible educational system that meets the interests of students with different educational needs. In her opinion, in the UK it is necessary to create a “meritocracy” society, free from class, racial prejudices and social barriers, in which power will belong to the most talented and gifted citizens, qualified and highly educated specialists, regardless of their social and ethnic origin.

The American tradition of multicultural education is associated with the long-standing struggle of Americans against all kinds of discrimination which can be traced to the historical evolution of the American state educational strategy presented in key official laws, programs and initiatives aimed at modernizing the education system, for example, “No Child Left Behind” (DOE, 2002), “Race to the Top” (DOE, 2009), “Every Student Succeeds” (DOE, 2015), etc. The documents deal with such challenges as some imperfections of the national educational system such as inequality, illiteracy and a low level of mass education. At the same time, the education system in the United States still suffers from a number of acute social, economic, ethnic and cultural contradictions including socio-cultural and academic assimilation of children and youth from migrant families. Therefore, prevention of hatred, aggression and violence among adolescents and youth in schools and universities is still particularly relevant in the United States.

In the period under review, historical and philosophical aspects of interethnic tolerance are presented in some works written by Russian researchers (Gershunsky, 2002; Khomyakov, 2011; Pertsev, 2002; Valitova, 2001).

Psychological and pedagogical aspects of promoting interethnic tolerance are analysed by a greater number of Russian scholars (Abakumova, Ermakov, 2003; Asmolov, 2002; Bardier, 2007; Bondyreva, Kolesov 2003; Borytko et al., 2006; Bratchenko, 2003; Draganova, 2007; Kavun, 2012; Khakimov, 2003; 2011; Khotinets, 2002; Krysko, 2004; Lebedeva, 2002; Markova, 2010; Moldenhauer, 2001; Nedorezova, 2005; Nepochatykh, 2004; Soldatova et al., 2011; Spitsyna, 2006; Zinchenko, 2007).

Sociological approaches to the problem under study are also considered in some works by Russian scholars including PhD dissertations (Akopyan, 2004; Antsiferova, 2007; Drobizheva, 2003; Kasyanova, 2006; 2009; Klyuchnik, 2005; Serikov, 2005; Sobkin, Adamchuk, 2006; Yadov, 2010).

Culturological aspects of interethnic tolerance have also been analysed (Bakulina, 2014; Klimenko, 2009; Rybalko, 2012). The political context of interethnic tolerance has been studied in a number of Russian publications (Eliseev, 2010; Galkin, 2002; Galkin, Krasin, 2003; Ilyinskaya, 2007; Kapustin, 2001; Neretin, 2006; Shalin, 2000).

There are some PhD dissertations devoted to studying teaching interethnic tolerance of this period (Agisheva, 2001; Aleksashenkova, 2000; Belogurov, 2003; Borsuk, 2007; Gracheva, 2009; Ilchenko, 2005; Komogorov, 2000; Kolokova, 2001; Markova, 2010). Philosophical approaches to

interethnic tolerance are also studied in the dissertation researches (Gurenkova, 2008; Kasyanova, 2009; Shebzukhova, 2004; Stepanova, 2008).

Among these dissertation researches the closest to the topic of our study are, for example, the work by O.V. Rubtsova about teaching tolerance for older adolescents through social advertising media texts (Rubtsova, 2012) and the research by R.V. Osin analysing the attitude of representatives of various socio-demographic groups towards the image of a labour migrant in response to media exposure (Osin, 2015).

Promoting tolerance in the context of fostering students' media culture media education is reflected in a number of publications by Russian authors. The analysis of major researches on this topic shows that the study of the interethnic tolerance in this context is also interdisciplinary in nature and covers psychological and pedagogical (Chelysheva, 2016; Chelysheva, Mikhaleva, 2019; Fedorov et al., 2007; Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2020; Pavlova, 2007; Rubtsova, 2012; Zhmyrova, 2008), sociological (Khilko, 2013; Pechinkina, 2015; Vinichenko, 2011, 2017), philological (Chechet et al., 2014; Cherkasova, 2010; Ivanova, 2013) scientific aspects.

For example, some researchers present the analysis of the media education potential in fostering personality tolerance (Chelysheva, 2016; Chelysheva, Mikhaleva, 2019; Fedorov et al., 2007; Khilko, 2013; Vinichenko, 2011, 2017).

Cinema as a means of promoting tolerance is considered in the studies by E.Yu. Zhmyrova (Zhmyrova, 2008; Zhmyrova, Monastyrsky, 2012). E.D. Pavlova focused her research on teaching the younger generation the national information culture by means of media education (Pavlova, 2007). M.N. Cherkasova examines the media-linguistic and media-critical representation aspects of media events and media images by analysing the examples of hate speech (Cherkasova, 2010). T.I. Chechet, J.V. Borisova and T.Yu. Ionkina devoted their research to an integrated approach to analysing developing students' critical thinking and modern tolerance in teaching foreign languages based on media texts (Chechet et al., 2014). The researches carried out by L.A. Ivanova, E.I. Murtazina, O.V. Pechinkina, N.Yu. Khlyzova focus on multicultural aspects of media education in the context of studying foreign languages (Ivanova, 2013; Khlyzova, 2012; Murtazina, 2018; Pechinkina, 2015).

Having analysed a wide range of issues presented in the dissertation researches, we can state the expansion of issues related to interethnic tolerance including multicultural education, interethnic communication, the culture of interethnic communication in a multinational school, development of ethno-regional educational systems and the socio-psychological foundations of interethnic interaction. The first works presenting a systematic analysis of interethnic tolerance contain researches made by A.Yu. Belogurov (Belogurov, 2003), L.P. Ilchenko (Ilchenko, 2005), E.I. Kasyanova (Kasyanova, 2009) and N.G. Markova (Markova, 2010).

Russian scholars propose various interpretations and definitions of the concept of tolerance. For instance, E.V. Kolebina defines this concept as an integrative quality of the personality with the following structural components – “cognitive, emotional and axiological, motivational” (Kolebina, 2006: 26).

G.U. Soldatova, T.A. Nestik and L.A. Shaygerova define tolerance as a personal characteristic including social activity and a high level of morality. Accordingly, tolerance implies awareness of one's own dissimilarity to others, and at the same time “the need for unity with other people. ... The formation of such a person is possible through the development of vital social skills that allow them to master the art of living in peace and harmony with themselves and others” (Soldatova et al., 2011).

E.Yu. Zhmyrova and V.A. Monastyrsky define interethnic tolerance as “a tolerant and respectful attitude of a carrier of any nationality to other races and ethnic groups, their mentality, national languages, cultures, behaviour and appearance. At the same time, interethnic tolerance is an integral part of national identity as a whole, since, being a form of relationship manifestation of a particular person, it cannot exist abstractly without a real medium – the subject of national and interethnic relationships” (Zhmyrova, Monastyrsky, 2012: 22).

The structural components of interethnic tolerance are presented in the studies by E.M. Bimbaeva (Bimbaeva, 2011), N.G. Markova (Markova, 2010). N.E. Solynin (Solynin, 2010) and others. For example, the research by E.M. Bimbaeva describes the main aspects of internal and external factors in fostering students' interethnic tolerance. According to the author, the internal factors include: “individual personality traits (age, gender, education, social status, ethnicity); individual and typological personality traits (ethnic self-identification, type of interethnic behaviour, sustainable percept images of representatives of different ethnic groups as “close”, “alien”,

“special”)(Bimbaeva, 2011: 11). The external factors of this concept are “features of the sociocultural environment; state policy in the interethnic sector, the political situation in the country and region; educational system and educational institutions; the media” (Bimbaeva, 2011: 11).

The analysis of the psychological component of interethnic tolerance considered as an integral property of a person’s individuality that predetermines their behaviour in interethnic communication allowed N.E. Solynin to present the properties of the psychological structure of ethnic tolerance including “individuals of all levels: personal (empathy, autostereotype value, heterostereotype value, self-concept, social distance, aggressiveness, hostility, ethnic identity, communicative tolerance), subjective (behaviour efficiency in conflict), and individual (gender, age, intelligence, neuropsychic stability)” (Solynin, 2010: 133).

Of particular importance for our research is a systematic approach to interethnic tolerance presented in the dissertation research by N.G. Markova who considers students’ intercultural education as an integrated system which contains the content, model, principles, technologies of forming students’ culture of interethnic relationships that are not only integrative but also humane-personality-oriented in nature: they influence students’ consciousness; shape their behaviour experience characterized by a high level of interethnic culture, tolerance, intercultural competence, significant personal qualities (Markova, 2010).

Many contemporary English-language scholars attempt to comprehend the essence of genuine tolerance and interpret it as an ability to live among ethno-cultural differences that we cannot approve of, or as a “virtue” that allows us to accept: beliefs that we consider false; actions that we consider unfair; institutional mechanisms that we consider cruel or corrupt; and people who embody what we oppose (Bowlin, 2016). Others, on the contrary, present convincing arguments in favour of “conditional tolerance” which requires us to constantly discuss and reflect on the boundaries of what we are willing to tolerate (Davids, Waghid, 2017).

In the 21st century, interethnic tolerance is also central to addressing political, legislative and legal issues in English-language studies, including issues related to race, gender and social origin. A large number of English-language publications are devoted to interethnic tolerance that cover various aspects of this theme: the history of the struggle against various forms and manifestations of intolerance in the USA, Canada, Great Britain and other European countries; modern academic and cultural assimilation of immigrants and refugees; development of multiculturalism and transnationalism (Hogarth, Fletcher, 2018; Kafka, 2013; Kivisto, Ng, 2005; Mason, 2000; Wallis, Fleras, 2009); modern racial prejudices and bias (Carbado, Gulati, 2018); ethnic, national and religious discrimination (Herman, 2011), etc.

English-speaking researches of the period under consideration that analyse fostering interethnic tolerance of the young generation in media education are presented in the works by D. Buckingham (Buckingham, 2019), J.R. Thompson (Thompson, 2014), D. Rushkoff (Rushkoff, 2002) and others. Researcher and media teacher B. Duncan studies the aesthetic and educative potential of on-screen art; he has also published several manuals for developing schoolchildren’ media literacy (Duncan et al., 2007). A. Caron devotes his research to media education of children and youth (Caron, 2008); R. Hobbs and D.C. Moore study the impact of TV and cinema on children and youth; they consider on-screen media texts as an important factor in increasing the level of media culture of the younger generation (Hobbs, 2011; Hobbs, Moore, 2013;).

Tolerance is a recognition of the reality and constancy of diversity in modern communities. In this sense, governments are required to adopt special social practices in strengthening interethnic tolerance in society and to provide support for various civic institutions in order to protect unpopular minorities from violence on the part of their fellow citizens or other members of civil society.

4. Results

Having examined various approaches to interethnic tolerance with a variety of definitions and characteristics of this concept, we believe that the major meaningful components of interethnic tolerance in the modern sense include mutual understanding, constructive dialogue, mutual respect and cooperation of representatives of different nationalities and ethnic groups, mutual acceptance of traditions and cultural values in the context of cultural diversity. Interethnic tolerance has a positive-active nature of relationships between representatives of different ethnic groups; in a multicultural society it means equal and positive attitude towards other nations on the basis of deep respect for representatives of their nationality. Interethnic tolerance is a crucial

indicator of interethnic culture of relationships that carries a deep axiological meaning and is closely linked to values of the individual.

Since 2000, the issues of interethnic tolerance, national consent, harmonization of interfaith and interethnic relationships, building a culture of interethnic communication have received a new development vector and are now associated with the rapid development of the media sphere. Among the major studies related to this trend one can name the research by E.Yu. Zhmyrova (Zhmyrova, 2008) who presents the possibilities of cinematographic art in teaching tolerance for students and the dissertation by V.I. Kapustin (Kapustin, 2001) who considers the role of media in harmonizing interethnic and interfaith relationships. The development of Internet technologies has also been reflected in dissertations of this period, for example, the dissertation research by A.A. Selyutin who presented an analysis of media texts of social sites from the point of view of tolerance in social communication (Selyutin, 2009).

Our analysis made it possible to conclude that the concept of “tolerance” is undergoing some transformation in contemporary English-language scientific literature. For example, in the monograph by D.A. Carson “The Intolerance of Tolerance” the present-day interpretation of tolerance is called into question. The book describes a huge shift in how we began to understand tolerance in recent years – from protecting the rights of those who hold different beliefs to asserting all beliefs as equally valid and correct. Looking back at the evolution of this shift, the author emphasizes its significance for culture today, its impact on democracy, discussions about good and evil. At the same time, D.A. Carson proves that the “new tolerance” is not only socially dangerous but actually leads to genuine intolerance towards all those who struggle to defend their beliefs (Carson, 2013).

Many modern English-speaking researchers try to comprehend the essence of genuine tolerance and interpret it as an ability to live among ethno-cultural differences that we cannot approve of or as a “virtue” that allows us to accept: beliefs that we consider false; actions that we consider unfair; institutional mechanisms that we consider cruel or corrupt; and people who embody what we oppose (Bowlin, 2016). Others, on the contrary, present convincing arguments in favour of “conditional tolerance” which makes us constantly discuss and reflect on the boundaries of what we are willing to endure (Davids, Waghid, 2017).

The growing interest in the study of interethnic tolerance is evidenced by a sufficient number of English-language publications of recent years that highlight various aspects of this problem. For example, in the monograph “London is the Place for Me”, K.H. Perry examines the contemporary racial politics and civil rights of “black Britons” in the 20th century Great Britain in the context of empire and transnational racial politics of the state (Perry, 2004).

Of particular interest are some scientific reviews of English-speaking researchers on the positive impact of education on promoting interethnic tolerance. It shows that education is crucial in all the countries surveyed and contributes to creating a tolerant attitude towards ethnic and national minorities in Western Europe, the United States and other countries. The scientific researches are aimed at different target audiences (schoolchildren, students, university and school teachers) and focus on teaching how to overcome and eliminate different social, cultural, religious and economic barriers and prejudices, misinformation and bias (Black, 2016; Burns Coleman, White, 2011; Hamburg, Hamburg, 2004; Derman-Sparks, Edwards, 2010; Thompson, 2014).

In the early 2000s, the local authorities were still in charge of providing education and curriculum in the UK. At the same time, the Department for Children, Schools and Families, established in 2007, suggested that they should be guided by the “Children’s Plan: Building a Brighter Future” (2005-2010) and, among other things, entrusted schools to promote social cohesion in addition to recognizing ethnic diversity, respecting human rights and maintaining social justice. The curriculum was to include training in key concepts of identity and diversity, and to encourage citizenship education for the younger generation in the UK. The term “multiculturalism”, as a rule, was not widely used in political documents, the term “integration” was more common. Unfortunately, insufficient attention was paid to multiculturalism, anti-racism, and social adaptation of ethnic minorities in the curriculum.

In 2001, a series of racially motivated incidents in Britain (in Oldham, Burnley and Bradford) led to creating a government-led working group to analyse the cohesion of British society. The public outcry caused by the terrorist attack in London on July 7, 2005 contributed to creating a socio-political discourse that was primarily oriented to ethnic communities. In 2005, the British government proposed the program “Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society” (2005-2009)

– a strategy to increase racial equality and strengthen cohesion of British society. In 2009, the British government announced the “Tackling Race Inequalities” strategy.

At the beginning of the 21st century, the Communications Act which came into force on 25 July 2003 in the UK had a wide range of provisions, among them were the following: Ofcom was given the responsibility to “promote” media literacy in the UK; broadcasters were required to carry a “suitable quantity and range of programmes” dealing with religion and other beliefs, as part of their public service broadcasting; OFCOM was made to take into account the different interests of persons in the different parts of the United Kingdom, of the different ethnic communities within the United Kingdom and of persons living in rural and in urban areas ([Communications ...](#), 2003).

Moreover, the BBC in recent years, among its objectives, also sees the representation and reflection of various groups of the population, including ethnic and religious communities. The corporation seeks to showcase programs representing the multi-ethnic mosaic of the UK and explore ethnic, cultural, religious and non-religious groups to help society understand their customs, beliefs, and concerns. This involves the use of voices and faces of representatives of various regional and ethnic groups and communities. In 2016, the BBC launched a new ambitious diversity and inclusion strategy. By 2020 the BBC intends to have a workforce at least as diverse as any other in the industry; to cover a much wider range of diversity than any other broadcaster, with a bigger impact for audiences across a wider range of programmes to reflect the lives of all their diverse audiences. For this purpose, they promise to set new on-air portrayal targets for disabled people, women, ethnic minorities to ensure their content reflects the public they serve. They are also determined to continue to invest in and develop new talents through the Assistant Commissioner Development Programme and Diversity Creative Talent Fund.

The British Commission for Unity and Racial Equality used to provide funding to multicultural groups. But funding was suspended after the commission was reorganized in 2007. It was replaced by the Equality and Human Rights Commission which focused on legislation equality issues, instead of financing and supporting ethnocultural groups.

In February 2009, the British government launched a two-year program called the “Tackling Race Inequalities Through Leadership, Policy and Research”. The Fund is supporting organizations that promote equality of opportunity for people from ethnic minorities in a range of public services, including education, health, housing and the criminal justice system and in employment. It also supports organisations that carry out research into issues relating to race equality or increase levels of civic participation, volunteering or representation in civic or political institutions among people from ethnic minority groups.

Acute social issues of discrimination and violation of rights based on interethnic intolerance were increasingly reflected in the American cinema of the 2000s: including such stunning films as *Crash* (2004), *The Help* (2011), *12 Years a Slave* (2013), *The People v. O.J. Simpson: American Crime Story* (2016). These films tell of unspoken racism and irreconcilable social conflicts in modern America, of racial stereotypes and speculation in public opinion.

Being aware of media messages that can have a negative or unhealthy influence on teenage behaviour and attitudes in certain areas, including social interactions, communication, attitudes and citizenship, American researchers have long been talking about the threat of “ethnic and cultural war” ([Macedo, Bartolomé, 1999](#)) as well as the influence of the ideology that defines social, cultural and political discourse. In this context developing students’ critical thinking is seen as one of effective solutions to the problem of negative media influence.

Training young people in critical analysis of media texts is part of media education and protecting citizens from negative media affects which are sometimes aimed at creating an intolerant mood in society. Another, no less important area is practical media education which in the American media education model stands for active participation and media production by youth. As a rule, the content of such videos or films is based on real stories of teenagers who used to suffer from interethnic intolerance. An example of such an experience is the social project “It’s not about Grit: Trauma, Inequity, and the Power of Transformative Teaching” ([Goodman, 2018](#)) which was supervised by S. Goodman, the founding director of the educational video centre in New York. For many years now, he has been offering award-winning documentary seminars on social justice for students from disadvantaged communities and professional development for teachers. S. Goodman writes about youth media, critical literacy, civic activism and educational reforms and is the author of the famous book “Teaching Youth Media: A Critical Guide to Literacy, Video Production, and Social Change” ([Goodman, 2003](#)).

The purpose of such social projects is, firstly, to draw public attention to the issues of social inequality, injustice, intolerance towards the socially vulnerable, marginalized or other sections of society, and, secondly, to help young people who became victims of discrimination not only to tell but also to create their own documentary films or videos. The educational value of such an experience lies, above all, in the fact that schoolchildren and university students create these films together in a team, then critically analyse a problem situation by involving various specialists (teachers, psychologists, lawyers, community leaders, etc.) and endeavour to assess the causes and consequences of what happened, and finally, they publicly show the finished film that reflects acute social issues.

The idea of “civic participation” or “civic responsibility” of youth in solving acute social problems is also explored by D. Buckingham who writes on his blog that this project “describes a very specific kind of youth media practice, carried out in a very specific context. This is undoubtedly its strength. Even so, there are questions about how far this approach might transfer to other contexts; and about how the emphasis on documentary sits alongside other forms of youth media production” (Buckingham, 2019).

The contradiction between the widely declared racial equality and tacit discrimination in English-speaking countries has often led to outbreaks of mass social protest, especially in the United States. A vivid example is the well-known sad events in Cincinnati (2001), Ferguson (2014) or Baltimore (2015): the excessive and unjustified brutality and impunity of the police caused a widespread wave of indignation among the coloured population of the country. These events show that America is still struggling for racial equality notwithstanding the state’s titanic efforts to curb and eradicate any manifestation of interethnic intolerance.

The analysis of the theoretical aspects of interethnic tolerance in researches carried out by some English-speaking authors suggests that in foreign countries with a high proportion of migrants, children begin to learn about interethnic tolerance from an early preschool age (Derman-Sparks, Edwards, 2009), and then continue to study social and cultural tolerance at school (Burkholder, 2011; Burns Coleman, 2011; Dismondy, 2015; Hamburg, 2004), universities and colleges of higher education (Hurtado, Ponjuan, 2005; Thompson, 2014).

A content analysis of the national curricula of the English-speaking countries of recent decades indicates that students, starting from the first stages of education, will learn about various national, regional, religious and ethnic groups in formal education (for example, from a social studies program) and are brought up in the spirit mutual respect and understanding. The main goal of integrating the ideas of interethnic tolerance with the system of school and university education is to develop students’ basic skills and understanding of how to live in a pluralistic and diverse world.

It can be stated that contemporary foreign scholars consider interethnic tolerance and cultural diversity in different contexts, mainly state-pragmatic, political and ideological: racial and ethnic pluralism in the student community as a factor in the country’s industrial and economic prosperity (Franklin, Rachel, 2013; Hagendoorn, Nekuee, 2018; Ottaviano, Peri, 2006); in higher education as a factor of innovative growth and creative potential of future specialists: “Student racial and ethnic diversity in higher education is an important and timely topic, as institutions, policy-makers, and economists increasingly recognize the value that accrues at many levels of having a skilled and diverse student body and workforce. Students benefit from learning in a diverse environment; firms may benefit from a diverse workforce; and more demographically diverse regions make experience higher rates of economic growth” (Franklin, 2013: 30).

At the same time, the positive influence of education does not always help to overcome the negative influence of conservative values that have been established in society and prevailing ethnic prejudices. In addition, it is obvious that merely formal education of the population on issues of interethnic tolerance is not enough to change prejudiced views. Other forms of socialization that foster a tolerant attitude must also support the positive effects of formal education.

A long historical tradition of cultivating tolerant relationships and maintaining civil liberties in European society has led to many years of integration processes in the modern national system of education and training in English-speaking countries, based on a multicultural nature and non-discriminatory educational practice. A number of foreign researchers emphasize the urgent need and importance of creating a favourable, positive climate in universities with multi-ethnic student communities (Arbona, Jimenez, 2014: 167): various initiatives for working with ethnic groups on campuses are proposed and analysed. In this regard, the problem of further research is being updated, the main purpose of it is to study the impact of these initiatives on ethnic minority

students' perception of the psychological climate on campus, including their psychological adaptation in college or university (Hurtado et al., 2008).

5. Conclusion

So, the conducted content analysis of researches concerning interethnic tolerance indicates that the following tendencies are most characteristic for Russian and English-language media education of the post-Soviet period (2000-2020):

- a substantial increase in the range of issues related to interethnic tolerance in Russian and English-language research. So, the challenges of multicultural education, interethnic communication have come to the fore, such as culture of interethnic communication in a multinational school, building ethno-regional educational systems, socio-psychological foundations of interethnic interaction, Russian and foreign studies including a systematic analysis of interethnic tolerance; (Belogurov, 2003; Franklin, 2013; Hurtado et al., 2008; Ilchenko, 2005; Kivisto, Ng, 2005; Markova, 2010; Thompson, 2014, etc.);

- development of a new vector of Russian and foreign studies examining the possibilities of media culture and media education for promoting interethnic tolerance of the young generation: in particular, the English-language studies of recent years consider the methodological principles of media education (Buckingham, 2000; 2003; 2004); mechanisms of media influence on the audience and the study of media communication issues (Bryant, Thompson, 2002; Rushkoff, 2002); practical aspects of media education and media literacy (Goodman, 2003; 2018), genesis of foreign media education and its current state (Caron, 2008; Duncan et al., 2007); the impact of on-screen media texts on children's and youth audiences and media culture of the younger generation (Hobbs, 2007; Hobbs, Moore, 2013);

- Russian researchers also focus on interethnic tolerance in the context of media culture and media education: using the potential of media education in fostering personality tolerance (Chelysheva, 2016; Fedorov et al., 2007; Khilko, 2013; Vinichenko, 2011; 2017); cinema art as a means of promoting tolerance (Zhmyrova, 2008); building national information culture of the younger generation by media education (Pavlova, 2007); media-linguistic and media-critical analysis of media events and media images on the example of hate speech (Cherkasova, 2010); an integrated approach to developing students' critical thinking and tolerance in teaching foreign languages using media texts (Chechet et al., 2014); multicultural aspects of media education in the context of studying foreign languages (Ivanova, 2013; Khlyzova, 2012; Murtazina, 2018; Pechinkina, 2015);

- during this period, education in English-speaking countries as well as in Russia is characterized by increased attention of the state and the general public to reforms and continuous modernization. At the same time, the emphasis is on critical understanding of the established traditions in education and reforming of education; problem areas of education are discussed, in particular, interethnic tolerance and social justice. That is why at the present stage interethnic tolerance is receiving new vectors of development and acquiring an interdisciplinary nature including historical, philosophical, psychological, pedagogical, sociological, cultural and other aspects;

- both Russian and foreign media, especially the so-called “yellow press”, often use hate speech. In this regard, one of the key tasks in fostering interethnic tolerance of youth is developing students' independent analytical skills and skills to interpret media texts of various types and genres from the standpoint of interethnic consent, mutual respect and peacefulness;

- the integration taking place in the modern information society, modernization of education systems, transition to digital education determine the search for new approaches and ways to intercultural dialogue, cooperation, spiritual and moral education of the younger generation. One of the factors for solving these problems is media education. That is why in modern conditions there is an urgent need to use the potential of the best practices of Russian and foreign experience in media education in promoting interethnic tolerance of the younger generation. In this regard we agree with the thought of A.G. Asmolov that “media education, by and large, whether we want it or not, is becoming a serious competitor to what is called formal education. I mean school and university education. Their boundaries are eroded as the media reach every person, unlike formal education, for all its accessibility. Therefore, how the world will move on depends largely on the media. ... We are used to saying that we live in the most difficult time when, along with our worlds, virtual worlds literally have become a reality. And in virtual worlds require virtual responsibility from us. And in these situations, the ideology and philosophy of tolerance act as that thread of Ariadne which will help us to be tolerant not only in the Declarations but also in our personal and social actions” (Asmolov, 2002).

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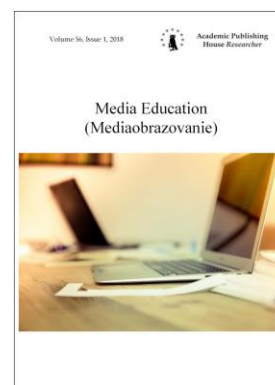
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Pseudo-Chomsky or Media Manipulation in the Scientific Area

Alexander Fedorov ^{a, *}, Anastasia Levitskaya ^b

^aRostov State University of Economics, Russian Federation

^bTaganrog Institute of Management and Economics, Russian Federation

Abstract

Having analyzed a number of published research papers, the authors of the article come to conclusion that manipulations in the scientific world can, inter alia, manifest themselves in the following forms:

- substitution of the authorship, that is, replacement of the surname of a little-known author with the surname of a scientific celebrity (manipulation technique "appeal to an authority") subsequently distributing the now false scientific text on the Internet. This manipulative technique, in the absence of an authenticity check obligatory in such cases, causes a whole loop of citations and references in scientific journals of different countries, since scholars who cite the fake are mistakenly convinced that they are dealing with a genuine article from a respected author; the purpose of this manipulation is not to derive direct benefits for the manipulator, but a kind of scientific trolling: to prove to the academic audience that by falsely attributing the name of an author authoritative in the scientific world to someone else's mediocre text, it is possible to make other scientists take this fake for genuine scientific work;

- the use of scientific works written in a foreign language (without correct references and citations) in their publications (manipulative technique of direct plagiarism) for gain purpose of appropriating another person's piece of writing, passing it off as their own.

The present study has revealed an urgent need both for researchers and for academic journals' editors – to carefully verify quoted sources that may be false. Representatives of the scientific world, traditionally considered to be the most informed community, must not become victims of manipulative influences.

Keywords: media manipulation, disinformation, fake news, media literacy, society, media, audience, analysis.

1. Introduction

The traditional model of media exposure assumes that the audience shares fake messages, not only for profit or personal gain, but also because they are misled by manipulators. The worldview of the audience is formed by its social, cultural, and political perspectives and beliefs, which are often very different or even conflicting. However, today manipulative media texts are part of the media environment, therefore, it is necessary to explore which algorithms and marketing techniques promote or stimulate manipulative content. In order to unravel the problem of false media information used for manipulative purposes, effective models and technologies are needed. False information is not just a problem of the polarized audiences, they have existed

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: 1954alex@mail.ru (A. Fedorov), a.levitskaya@tmei.ru (A. Levitskaya)

before, too. It is caused not only by the erosion of traditional journalism's credibility, but also by the transition to receiving the bulk of information via the Internet (in particular through social networks). Looking into these complex processes can mitigate the effects of media manipulation processes (Marwick, 2018: 509-510).

2. Materials and methods

Materials of our research are academic books and articles on media manipulation, as well as Internet sites. Methodology is based on theoretical framework on the relationship, interdependence and integrity of the phenomena of reality, the unity of the historical and the logical in cognition, the theory of the dialogue of cultures. The research is based on a content analysis and comparative approaches.

The following methods are used: data collection (monographs, articles, reports) related to the project's theme, analysis of academic literature, theoretical analysis and synthesis; generalization and classification.

3. Discussion

Today, in the scientific world, great importance is attached to research aimed at developing technologies for detecting media manipulations and false media texts (Bakir, McStay, 2018; Born, 2017; Bradshaw, Howard, 2018; Dentith, 2017; Derakhshan, Wardle, 2017; Farkas, Schou, 2018; Fitzpatrick, 2018; Flintham et al., 2018; Gelfert, 2018; Grachev, Melnik, 1999; Janze, Risius, 2017; Kara-Murza, Smirnov, 2009; Lazer et al., 2018; Levy, 2017; Marwick, 2018; Nielsen, Graves, 2017; Pocheptsov, 2015; Pocheptsov, 2019; Rushkoff, 2003; Sadiku et al., 2018; Tambini, 2017; Tandoc Jr. et al., 2018; Van Dijk, 2006 and others).

We believe that The Open University, which in 2014 developed the PROMPT anti-manipulation critical assessment technology for media information (the name is an acronym for: Presentation, Relevance, Objectivity, Method, Provenance, and Timeliness), has made significant progress in this direction. (The Open University, 2014).

M. Kunovskaya applied this anti-manipulation technology to the text with the carrying great weight title "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010–2020).

Presentation (Is the information presented and communicated clearly? Consider the language, layout and structure) (The Open University, 2014).

Here M. Kunovskaya comes to the conclusion that as far as the English grammar is concerned, the text looks correct, but there are some problems with the clarification of the viewpoint, since a clear message should answer the question: who does what, but the analyzed text gives a vague answer to this (Kunovskaya, 2017).

Relevance ("Is the article relevant to the topic you are researching? Look at the introduction or overview to find out what it is mainly about") (The Open University, 2014).

M. Kunovskaya suggests that most readers who have reposted a link to the pseudo Chomsky's article may not have specifically been seeking information on how to direct the mass opinion, but were attracted by a headline that responded to some hidden aspirations. The points of view coincided, and further the author could argue whatever (Kunovskaya, 2017). Moreover, the pseudo-Chomsky's article contains neither specific references to any scientific works, nor a review of them.

Objectivity ("Is the article biased, or motivated by a particular agenda? Is the language emotive? Are there hidden, vested interests?") (The Open University, 2014).

M. Kunovskaya argues that a text, written by an author who is trying to be objective is usually written in an impassive, rational manner. In the subjective, on the contrary, there is expressive vocabulary, metaphors, exaggeration and understatement (Kunovskaya, 2017). In the text of pseudo-Chomsky this affecting style is present. For example, there is the following emotional phrase: "Go to the public as a little child. Most of the advertising to the general public uses speech, argument, people and particularly children's intonation, often close to the weakness, as if the viewer were a little child or a mentally deficient" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010–2020).

Method ("Is it clear how the data was collected? Were the methods appropriate and can you trust it?") (The Open University, 2014).

In the pseudo-Chomsky article (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010–2020) there are no references to any scientific methods, data collection procedures or authoritative sources.

Provenance ("Is it clear where the information has come from? Can you identify the author (s) / organization (s), and are they trustworthy? Are there references / citations that lead to further reading, and are they trustworthy sources?") (The Open University, 2014).

None of these logical questions are answered in the article, and the text itself can be read (in all major European languages) on hundreds of non-academic or infotainment sites (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010-2020). Moreover, this text is published there without a date and without reference to an initial source. None of these Internet sources can be called reliable.

However there is a genuine interview of N. Chomsky with the journalist M. Nevradakis (Nevradakis, 2012).

In this interview, M. Nevradakis asks the famous scientist a question regarding this particular text, "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010).

In response, N. Chomsky states the following:

"I should add a cautionary note here. You may be referring to something that circulates on the internet called, I think, "10 strategies of manipulation by the media", which is attributed to me, but I didn't write it. There have been many efforts to correct it, to get it off, but once something's on the internet, it's hopeless. So if that's what you mean, it's not mine" (Chomsky, 2012).

Thus, in this case, we have a direct statement by N. Chomsky that a popular text entitled "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" is a fake that has nothing to do with his scientific works.

Timeliness ("How up-to-date is the material? Is it clear when it was written? Does the date of writing meet your requirements, or would it be obsolete?") (The Open University, 2014).

The pseudo-Chomsky's article (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010-2020) features no concrete and accurate examples of how manipulation strategies are applied. It is also completely incomprehensible from this text exactly when it was written.

Thus, M. Kunovskaya, based on the application of PROMT technology, draws a reasonable conclusion that the text "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010-2020) is not trustworthy (Kunovskaya, 2017).

To try and detect the source of fake information, we decided to use the Google search engine and first find out how many links to the text "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" are on the Internet.

In response to this phrase, the Google search engine produces 14.500 pages in all major languages of the world. It turns out that before 2002 there were no links to it at all, but we managed to find a French text, posted on one of the popular sites about medicine, "Stratégies de manipulation" (Timsit, 2002), which completely coincides with the English-language article of the pseudo-Chomsky (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010).

Meanwhile, the francophone author S. Timsit, in his article, posted on the popular science site Syti.net, never mentions or refers to N. Chomsky, his article's title does not contain number 10, although it does list ten manipulation strategies.

Our further search for the text "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" showed that from 2002 to the first half of 2010 there was no text titled like that on the Internet. However, in September-October 2010, various Internet sites posted the text "Stratégies de manipulation" (both in French and English) under the name "Noam Chomsky – "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010), and in subsequent years it began to multiply in different languages on hundreds of sites.

The emergence of unverified information on the Internet, unfortunately, is far too common today. However, the case with the text fraudulently attributed to N. Chomsky turned out to be much more complicated: it started to be actively quoted – as a genuine academic source – in scientific articles, monographs, research reports and dissertations.

For example, a reference to this fake is contained in the report on the scientific project "Noam Chomsky – Theorist", carried out by three American scientists (Aguilar et al, 2012: 3) in Texas University in 2012. Another reference to the pseudo-Chomsky was made by French scientists who published their article in the academic journal *Les Cahiers Internationaux de Psychologie Sociale* (De Visscher, Latinis, 2015: 101).

References to the text of pseudo-Chomsky penetrated the monograph of Dr. E.E. Rumyantseva "The Truth Against Deceiving the Population, Distorting Reality and Replacing Concepts: expert commentary on media news in 1997-2017" (Rumyantseva, 2017: 6), the book of F.O. Bogachev on a positive way of thinking (Bogachev, 2011: 179-182), in dozens of articles

(Farafontova, 2012: 54-55; Fedotova, 2015: 417, 419; Gogol, Protopopova, 2014: 231; Kanataev, 2014: 11; Kipyatkova, Torgovanova, 2016: 76-78; Larionova, 2015: 1083; Orekhov, 2019: 142, etc.).

Moreover, Ph.D. dissertations were defended, the authors of which (together with their supervisors) (Shikhaliyeva, 2014: 105-106; Trokhinova, 2019: 236, 335) seriously consider the text "Noam Chomsky - "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Pseudo-Chomsky, 2010) as a real scientific source.

These facts indicate that a fake launched into mass Internet rotation and scientific circulation using the classical manipulative technique of "appeal to an authority" can be uncritically accepted as genuine not only by the mass audience, but also by scientists who have not questioned the source and correctness of this information. Paradoxically, in this case, quite a few authors of research papers on media manipulations themselves became victims of media manipulation using a false article on this topic.

It is good that Professor N. Chomsky directly asserted that he has never written the text "10 strategies of manipulation by the media" (Chomsky, 2012). But if an Internet troll tries to launch a false text attributing it to a famous scientist who passed away, it will be much more difficult to expose such a fake.

3. Results

We have applied the PROMPT anti-manipulation technology (The Open University, 2014) to an academic article on media education "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" published in the scientific journal "Proceedings of the Belarusian State Technological University" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78).

The analysis of this article shows the following:

Presentation

The article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" is quite logical, information on the state of affairs with media education of Belarus schoolchildren and students is given in a scientific style.

Relevance

This article is fully consistent with media education topics, it has a review of the scientific literature on this topic.

Objectivity

This article does not seem biased, it is written in a standard scientific language, devoid of a bright emotional coloring. Gain interests are not visible.

Method

Seemingly, the data for the article was collected and analyzed in the traditional way for a scientific article (collection and comparative analysis of scientific literature on the topic), but the question of the methods' validity will be disclosed below.

Provenance

Using the Internet search engine and the anti-plagiarism software program, we discovered that the following scientific monographs and articles became real sources for the article:

- "Media Education of Young Audiences" (Zhilavskaya, 2009);
- "Research and practical implementation of media educational projects in modern Belarus" (Chelysheva, 2012: 42-52);
- "The discourse of media education research as an articulation of the challenge of the cultural situation" (Sharko, 2012).

Meanwhile, the above sources are neither correctly cited in the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78), nor present in the *References* section after the article.

The plagiarism control check of the text of the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78) shows that it contains almost 90 % plagiarism and is a compilation of large paragraphs from the above scientific works (Chelysheva, 2012 : 42-52; Sharko, 2012; Zhilavskaya, 2009).

The text "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78), excluding the list of references, consists of 31.045 characters (including spaces). Of this volume, the text, fully "borrowed" from the monograph "Media Education of Young Audiences" (Zhilavskaya, 2009), makes up 3.782 characters (12.2 %). The main body of the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017:

71-78) almost entirely consists of a text "borrowed" from the article by I.V. Chelysheva (16.893 characters, i.e. 54.4 % of the total text that A. A. Bogdanov and L.I. Petrova ascribed to themselves), and the conclusion is taken from the article by O.I. Sharko (6.859 characters, i.e. 22.1 %).

In total, a borrowed text without attribution and without quotation marks constitutes 27.534 characters in the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78), i.e. 88.7 %.

Thus, not only the (stolen) information's origin is revealed, but it is also proved that the "authors" of this article are not trustworthy, and the existing links/quotes available in "their" text are not reliable, since they do not refer to the three real sources which A.A. Bogdanova and L.I. Petrova unethically took advantage of.

Returning to the *Objectivity* criterion, it can be argued that behind the plagiarism in the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78), there are apparently some vested interests: an imitation of scientific work, an attempt to manipulate academic audience by passing off texts from other people's works as their own.

Timeliness

The article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" (Bogdanova, Petrova, 2017: 71-78) was published in 2017, however, the list of references includes academic sources dating from 1989 to 2011. The absence of more recent sources from 2012-2017 is explained by the fact that the list was also not compiled by A.A. Bogdanova and L.I. Petrova, but it was directly taken from the scientific works mentioned above (Chelysheva, 2012 : 42-52; Sharko, 2012; Zhilavskaya, 2009), which, logically for *their* publication time, could not contain references to books or articles later than 2012.

Thus, the issue of the timeliness of the article "The system of youth media education in the Republic of Belarus" is not applicable because of the plagiarism case.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, manipulations in the academic environment can, among other, take one of the following forms:

- substitution of the authorship, that is, replacement of the surname of a little-known author with the surname of a scientific celebrity ("appeal to an authority" technique) subsequently distributing the now false scientific text on the Internet. This manipulative technique, in the absence of an authenticity check obligatory in such cases, causes a whole loop of citations and references in scientific journals of different countries, since scholars who cite the fraud are mistakenly convinced that they are dealing with a genuine article from a respected author; the purpose of this manipulation is not to derive direct benefits for the manipulator, but a kind of scientific trolling: to prove to the academic audience that by falsely attributing the name of an author authoritative in the scientific world to someone else's mediocre text, it is possible to make other scientists take this fake for genuine scientific work;

- the use of scientific works written in a foreign language (without correct references and citations) in their publications (direct plagiarism) for gain purpose of appropriating someone's work and intellectual property, passing it off as their own.

The present study has revealed an urgent need both for researchers and for academic journals' editors – to carefully verify quoted sources that may be false. Representatives of the scientific world, traditionally considered to be the most informed community, must not become victims of manipulative influences.

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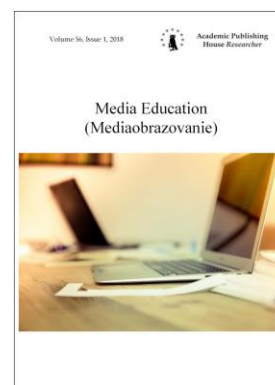
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TV News Coverage of Election-related Public Opinion Data: Media Literacy is Necessary for Their Consuming

Olha V. Harmatiy ^{a, *}

^a Lviv Polytechnic National University, Ukraine

Abstract

The paper explores the media reportage of polling issues on the example of television network news coverage over the 2019 presidential and parliament elections in Ukraine. The importance of television news programs for viewers' understanding the public situation is emphasized. The author analyzes theoretical, methodological, and legal approaches to the media use of opinion polls. The study examines the peculiarities of TV presenting essential poll information which provides viewers with the ability to independently evaluate the poll's validity and reliability. The findings reveal that the TV channels sometimes have avoided disclosing such information or presented it selectively and incompletely. Incorrect poll-based covering confuses the audience, interfering people to distinguish the real dimensions of public opinion from their imitation. The research also investigates different aspects of these occurrences, and it is focused on the analyzing of existing problems in the sphere of news reporting opinion data and searching efforts and opportunities to avoiding it. The article gives some recommendations to TV channels on poll coverage, as well as viewers for verifying factual data of newscast. Indeed, the enhancement of media education and media literacy will help eradicate the incorrect poll coverage and support the public demand for high-quality poll-based media content.

Keywords: TV news, opinion polls, poll coverage, media education, media literacy.

1. Introduction

Media have been playing increasingly important roles in people's daily life and in education (Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2018: 11). As a consequence, they influence significantly how people perceive and understand reality. Despite the dynamic growth of the Internet share in media consumption, traditional media, especially television, managed to maintain the audience commitment. Moreover, the status quo shows that television is finding a new form of an existence (Izrael, 2015: 43) and continues to be an important source of news and information for citizens of different countries.

For instance, television is the main place 70 % of Russians say they turn to for news (D-Russia.ru, 2019). 80 % of respondents from the United Kingdom also watch traditional TV on a weekly basis (Statista, 2019). The percentage of Americans who get news often from television is almost half the population – 49 % (Shearer, 2018). 66 % of Ukrainians use TV for news reception (InMind, 2019: 11). Overall, television is still a popular platform for news consumption – even though its use has declined recently.

Contemporary television content covers events from all spheres of people's life. TV also reports survey findings and puts them on the public agenda. Journalists use the results of polls to

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: oharmatiy@lpnu.ua (O.V. Harmatiy)

confirm arguments, illustrate real-life situations in society, and most often refer to them during elections. Much earlier M. Goot and T.W. Beed (Goot, Beed, 1979: 141) observed that "during an election, to talk about politics is to talk about the polls".

Since 2019 was the year of two election campaigns for Ukraine – presidential and parliamentary, the share of such messages was significant. It should be noted that elections of the President of Ukraine were held in two rounds: the first on March 31, the second – on April 21; the parliamentary elections were held on July 21. And these campaigns are still of interest because of the unwavering reflection on the extraordinary nature of both the elections themselves and their results.

At the start of the 2019 election period, the Sociological Association of Ukraine called on the media to check the sources of information and strictly adhere to the requirements for publicizing the results of public opinion polls. Concerns have been raised by sociologists as with the election approaching, fake and unprofessional data emerge: "Media publishes material... without mandatory methodological information to evaluate data" (Institute..., 2019). Incorrect poll-based media reporting confuses the audience, interferes real understanding of public attitudes to certain events and processes. Consequently, it has a negative impact on the socio-political situation in the country. At the same time, viewers rightly expect the accuracy and reliability of poll-based media texts.

2. Materials and methods

The material for this study are news programs of leading Ukrainian TV channels. The news is most fully implementing one of the main television functions – informational. TV newscast, especially of leading channels, is always in the spotlight of political and public attention. News programs are the epicenter of television broadcasting (Nedopytanskiy, 2006). They model the information picture of the day, turning the average citizen into an indirect participant in socio-political events. News programs certify the level and public weight of their channel on the country's television market and determine the channel's policy.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate news programs on the Ukraine's TV on the subject of presenting results of public opinion polls during the 2019 election contests. The research tasks are to collect empirical data, consider the standards of media coverage of such information, examine the providing the "minimal essential information" (Welch, 2002: 111) about election-oriented polls, and explore the trends of polling issues reportage in the context of elections.

In order to fulfill the stated tasks, I explored the following news releases: "TSN" (channel1+1), "Today" (channel "Ukraine") and "Facts" (channel ICTV) broadcasted during the last two elections in Ukraine. There were two main reasons for such a selection. Firstly, these TV broadcasters have the forefront positions on the Ukrainian television market. According to the representative surveys (National..., 2019), these channels have consistently led the ratings in the whole 2019 election period. Secondly, mentioned newscast programs are the most popular among Ukrainian audience. On the channel "Ukraine", news "Today" is the uncontested leader of informational broadcast, and its prime time issues (Monday – Saturday, 19.00) were watched by 25.7 million viewers in the studied period (Ukraine, 2019). As for the channel1 + 1, "TSN" (Monday – Friday, 19.30) has a top position concerning television viewing. By the SOCIS research, "TSN" news program is the most rated on Ukrainian television (SOCIS, 2019). Finally, ICTV broadcasts news "Facts". For the research, I chose one of its issues (Monday – Saturday, 18.45) which is the most popular news program of this channel according to my survey results (n = 400), and comes out in prime time viewing hours as well as other studied newscasts. Eventually, I have collected 84 election-related news stories covering public opinion data.

The research was conducted by combining theoretical and empirical methods of investigation. The study used such methods as: review of the literature on the stated subject, selection and discussion of theoretical material, comparative method, content analysis with comparative elements and combined qualitative and quantitative data and analysis.

3. Discussion

In most cases, news is a compromise between different political, economic, cultural, professional influences, which shifts significantly in election campaigns. And news not meeting the standards of professional journalism is opposed to news produced according to all rules of the genre (Zernetska et al, 2005: 10). Thus, while the objectivity of television news is debatable, news programs are most characterized by it. Today, people by means of television news reporting find out about affairs in all areas to understand them and know how to deal with them. J. Višňovský,

L. Greguš, J. Mináriková, and K. Kubíková indicate that newscast is one of the main determinants of opinion-making (Višňovský et al., 2019: 51). A similar thought is expressed by T. Fedoriv, saying that television news is one of the most visible elements of viewers' formation of the "image of the world", which naturally influences their decisions and actions (Fedoriv, 2004: 3).

Besides, A. Wonneberger, K. Schoenbach and L. van Meurs conclude that viewers' interest in the news mostly depends on external contexts than the individuals' intrinsic stimulus which means that news audiences may get bigger or diminish due to circumstances (Wonneberger et al., 2011: 325-343). For instance, the media consumers are more actively engaged in the news during the elections.

It is precisely during election campaigns that the media report the largest number of polls: candidate ratings, confidence in parties, electoral characteristics of voters, etc. J. Strömbäck proves the media's use of opinion polls has become an important part of their coverage of elections (Strömbäck, 2012: 1). C. Atkin and J. Gaudino also say that survey findings are one of the leading categories of news, particularly during election campaigns (Atkin, Gaudino, 1984: 119). According to Y. Bhatti and R.T. Pedersen, polls play a key part in news media coverage of elections (Bhatti, Pedersen, 2016: 129). By C. Holtz-Bacha's standpoint, across the world, polls have long become a major staple of media reporting (Holtz-Bacha, 2012: 267).

Extensive polls involvement can be explained by several reasons. Firstly, as T. Petersen denotes, in fact, the media need survey results as they offer information that their users expect (Petersen, 2012: 47). Secondly, these developments may also be related to evolving models of news broadcasting. The near voracious demand for content of 24-hour rolling broadcast news and the internet usage, combined with lessening resources in the newsroom, have made for the centrality of polls in the media (Dunaway, 2011; Frankovic, 2012). In such a context, there is no wonder that news organizations seize the polls opportunities to create media content. Additionally, public opinion polling is getting very important in present-day civilizations as people's viewpoints and reactions turn to be ever more changeable and opinion poll data become ever more easily accessible.

Paradoxically, however, despite the active media use of polls, the relevance of their coverage remains debatable. J. Strömbäck indicates that the question is to whether the media's reporting on opinion polls should be considered as detrimental or beneficial is still open and contested (Strömbäck, 2009: 55). Nonetheless, scientists agree the media, through their use of opinion polls, both reflect and shape public opinion (Atkin, Gaudino, 1984: 119). Similarly, Holtz-Bacha denotes that the media not only produce their own news but also – intentionally or not – intervene in the political process through the publication of poll results (Holtz-Bacha, 2012: 267). This view is supported by P. Moy and E.M. Rinke, they emphasize the role that polls play in the citizen-policy maker relationship hinges upon their dissemination by the media (Moy, Rinke, 2012: 225).

As J. Strömbäck says, published opinion polls matter more than opinion polls in general (Strömbäck, 2012b). Moreover, L.L. Kaid and J. Strömbäck prove convincingly that present-day elections are really mediated happenings to politicians and parties, and their public audiences in terms of displaying differences in political systems and media alignments around the world (Kaid, Strömbäck, 2008). In this discussion, P.O. Tryggvason and J. Strömbäck consider that one of the main democratic purposes of the media is to give people necessary information they need to be free and self-governing. This is evenly significant when presenting opinion polls (Tryggvason, Strömbäck, 2018). In such a context, media opinion polls data make a valuable contribution to the democratic process, promote the development of civil society, and encourage parties and politicians to a higher level of responsibility. In open societies without any monopoly on truth, everyone's opinion is important and public monitoring becomes an integral part of daily life. S.R. Gawiser and G.E. Witt underline that polls provide the best direct source of information on public opinion. They are valuable tools for journalists and can serve as the base for accurate and informative news reports (Gawiser, Witt, 2006).

Simultaneously, there are also negative aspects of poll coverage. For example, among shortcomings of television news' portrayal of the elections, S.J. Farnsworth and S.R. Lichter highlight the damaging focus on horse-race coverage of the winnings and modest attention is paid to matters of substance. Coverage that focuses on the horse race shortchanges candidates trying to talk about issues, and voters who think about issues. The questions voters ask of candidates are about a lot more than who is gaining or losing ground in the poll (Farnsworth, Lichter, 2008: 54). D.-M. Ordway agree that journalists' covering elections focus primarily on who's winning or losing – instead of on policy issues – voters, candidates and the news industry itself suffer (Ordway,

2019). Nevertheless, this focus on the horse race is becoming more common in today's news and is a ubiquitous part of election contests coverage (Bhatti, Pedersen, 2016; Strömbäck, 2012).

Considering the prominence and power of the media in the election process, evidently, informing the audience about the poll, the media must strictly adhere to journalism standards, such as credibility, truthfulness, accuracy, unbiasedness, timeliness, clarity, etc. Additionally, the representativeness of public opinion is also important within the social and political aspect of the news (Nedopytanskiy, 2006).

F. Pétry and F. Bastien emphasize that pollsters' reports should be a basic element to consider in any attempt to improve the accuracy level of media covering the horse race (Pétry, Bastien, 2013). As such, it is best for journalists to follow the interpretations that they find in pollsters' reports. For the news media to provide information about public opinion polls properly, S.R. Gawiser and G.E. Witt developed 20 questions journalists should ask about poll results (Gawiser, Witt, 2006). When covering polls, R.L. Welch advises to use the standards established by the American Association for Public Opinion Researchers (AAPOR) and the National Council on Public Polls (NCP) (Welch, 2002: 105).

It should be noted that Ukrainian legislation contains a number of requirements for the coverage of election-related poll information. Both laws "On the Elections of People's Deputies of Ukraine" and "On the Election of the President of Ukraine", which were in force during the 2019 elections, put similar norms. They pointed out that media, while presenting the election-oriented survey results, have to provide information on full name of polling organization, carried out the survey; customers who ordered the survey; the dates of fieldwork; territory of the survey; size and method of forming a sample; precise wording of questions; survey methods; possible statistical error (The Law..., 1999; 2011).

Obviously, this information is easiest to provide in reports of opinion polls published online or in print. Nevertheless, according to European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research (ESOMAR) and World Association for Public Opinion Research (WAPOR), all video reports must include methodological information about the conduct and sponsorship of the opinion poll, the timing of the interviews and the interview method (ESOMAR/WAPOR, 2014: 8). By these requirements, comparatively less information about polls is required.

At first, the media should specify the name of the organization, which conducted the poll. If it is unknown, such data should not be published. During the 2019 elections, the Sociological Association of Ukraine indicated that the destructive activities of bogus services, little-known or completely unknown organizations that distributed pseudo-polls had a negative impact on the socio-political situation in the country (Institute..., 2019). Therefore, journalists should evaluate whether certain surveys can be trusted and the data of certain companies disseminated.

Furthermore, the audience should be informed about who ordered the poll and paid for it. This, in turn, will explain why the poll was conducted. It is crucial to provide citizens with open and complete information about funding sources so that they could make informed decisions.

Another significant information moment is the time of the survey. The fact is that events can dramatically change people's minds and, as a result, offset poll findings. The interpretation of the survey should be based on the context in which the events were conducted. Also, a poll conducted a few months ago (which is very long in the electoral process) may be interesting for history, but not for news, because it loses its representativeness and relevance.

Finally, it is important to tell the audience the survey method (face-to-face, telephone interview, internet access panel, mixed mode, etc.). Although telephone and online surveys are the most common in the world, personal interviews are still the most methodologically grounded in Ukraine. It should also be noted that telephone surveys are quite reliable, and sometimes they are the only way reach the respondents because of the obstacles of watchmen and door locks of buildings in cities. But a general online survey cannot be conducted because not all residents of the country use the internet. Surveys on streets, shops, and other accessible public places may provide interesting material for life stories, but they cannot be considered as opinion polls. Media coverage within the above methodological categories will allow journalists to communicate well the poll results and provide the audience with reliable information.

4. Results

Having analyzed the literature on the media coverage of polls results I considered TV news reporting a public opinion data taking into account whether the information was provided about:

the organization that conducted the survey, poll sponsor, survey method, and the time of its holding. I followed ESOMAR and WAPOR's recommendations, deliberately narrowing the list of information the media should make it public. I was guided by several considerations. Firstly, both of these institutions are very prominent sources that offer standards for media coverage of polls. Secondly, these rules are specifically for video reports, which is completely in line with the specifics of my research on TV news. Thirdly, the detailed analysis of the media coverage of these categories will provide a sufficient basis to determine and understand the overall picture of presenting poll-related data on Ukrainian television.

The findings show that completeness and the quality of media reportage of polling results are very uneven. Some methodological categories are more often represented, and some are almost always ignored. According to the study, polling organizations were usually named in television news. Journalists either voiced their names or noted in the infographic on video. The research results also prove that newscast programs mostly indicate the dates of the surveys. Instead, journalists less frequently informed about the survey method.

Besides, the study found that the disclosing the sponsor – the organization(s) or person(s) who paid for the poll – is the most problematic. In this context, it is worth noting that the NGO Centre for Democracy and Rule of Law (CEDEM) sent requests to the four most respected in Ukraine polling companies (Social Monitoring Centre, Rating, Razumkov Centre, and Kyiv International Institute of Sociology) demanding to disclose the customers and purchasers of the electoral opinion polls. The NGO referred to the law "On the Elections of People's Deputies of Ukraine", under which the information about the customer of the polls must be open. According to the appeal, people have the right to know who ordered the polls, and such information would help to define which polls are trustworthy (CEDEM, 2019). However, the polling centers stated in response that since the law does not impose such obligations on them, they have the right not to disclose information about the customer (KIIS, 2019). In fact, these companies refused to make public the data about opinion poll sponsors.

Thus, this situation demonstrates contradictions in the legislation. On the one hand, the law requires the media to disclose customer information, but on the other hand, it does not establish the same rule for polling organizations. Under these circumstances, the latter does not provide this information to the media. Besides, it should be noted that in Ukraine there is no actual responsibility for rule violations when informing about the poll. There is also no regulator in the country to monitor the law compliance when publishing polls data and prosecute for violations. National Council of Television and Radio Broadcasting of Ukraine only carries out monitoring of election campaigns coverage by the media.

After examining the polls data broadcast on Ukrainian television it can be stated that providing methodological information for poll data quality assessment is problematic. TV channels frequently provided some information and at the same time consistently did not disclose other poll information. According to research, channels did a good job of covering the polling organization. In all TV news, this was clearly the most reported item (98.8 %). Instead, less poll-based news stories indicated survey dates (82 %). The interview method was the third most covered category on all channels, although this total was not reported as much as the previous two things (69 %). Simultaneously, news programs almost never provided other information. This was particularly the case with the poll sponsor, which was covered only once. Taking all these factors together produces the following picture (Fig. 1), which shows how news on the leading TV channels broadcasted necessary poll information during the 2019 elections in Ukraine.

Actually, such incomplete information traps can be considered as preventing viewers from accurately and correctly interpreting the poll results. Indeed, full polling information provides viewers with the ability to independently evaluate the reliability of polls.

However, it should be noted that the shortcomings in the media coverage of the polls are not unique to Ukraine. For instance, F. Pétry and F. Bastien identified frequent inaccuracies in journalistic interpretations of the horse race and of change over time in poll reports in Canada (Pétry, Bastien, 2013). According to R. Mattes, in South Africa few, if any, news reporters have developed any methodological expertise about the advantages or limitations of polling data, or how to interpret it (Mattes, 2012:191). S.J. Farnsworth and S.R. Lichter noted that television news on the presidential contests has been marked by the less-than-satisfactory performance with respect to the journalists' cardinal issues of accuracy and fairness in the USA (Farnsworth, Lichter, 2008:

43). Similarly, B. Toff certified the erosion of news organizations' abilities to assert independent gatekeeping standards around individual poll results in the United States (Toff, 2017: 873).

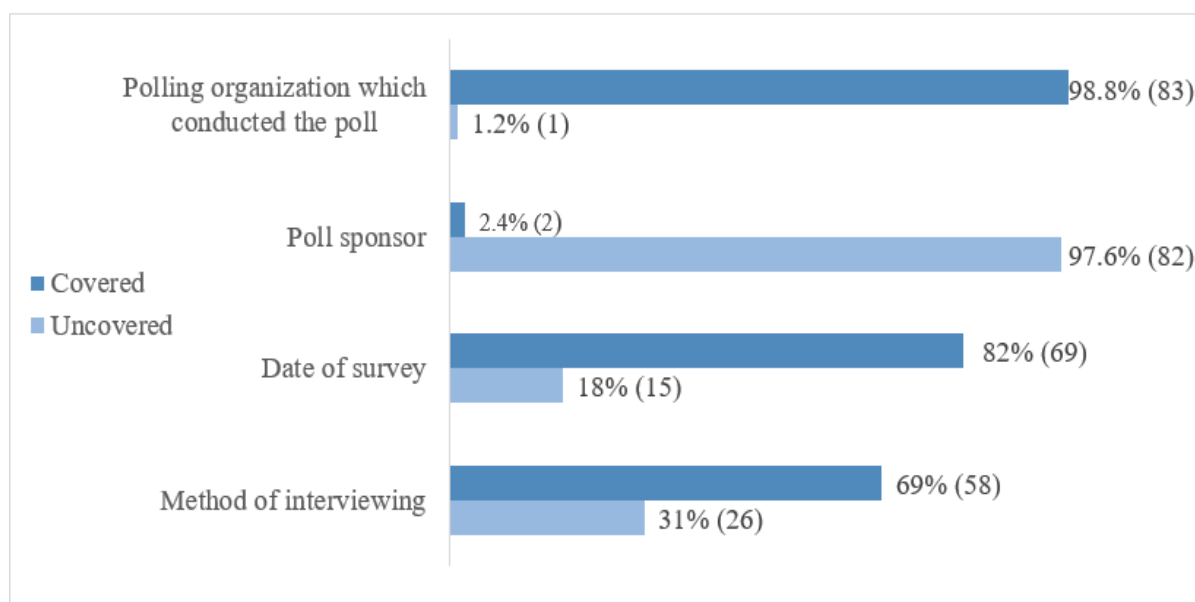


Fig. 1. Percentage and number of TV news stories reporting methodological poll information
Note: number of articles is in parentheses.

5. Conclusion

In today's society, media, including television, are a powerful institution without which the operation of public authority is impossible. News as one of the most demanded media products contributed significantly to articulating the social meanings of society. Television news enhances the audience awareness of reality.

Opinion polls, published in media, influence discussions and decision-making in almost all areas of public life. They are also becoming a key item of covering elections. Poll-based news both reflect attitudes and preferences of citizens and form them. In the context of citizen information support, poll-related news play a role in understanding the events and processes taking place in the country. Complete, accurate, and unbiased information helps people to adequately understand and properly interpret the survey results, separate the real dimensions of public opinion from their imitation. Therefore, it is important to properly disseminate polling data. The media disclosing the essential methodological information on how the survey was conducted helps the public to determine a poll's validity and reliability. Failure to comply with these principles violates the right of citizens to receive objective information about elections and other events. Therefore, it is in the interest of the audience to know more about polls that are made public. However, as the research results show, polls can be misinterpreted by the media.

Speaking about ways to overcome the negative phenomena in the media reporting polls associated with its television presenting, I can distinguish a few important aspects.

Firstly, enhancing journalists' professionalism. As the function of the media is to help the audience become savvy consumers of public opinion polls, journalists have to do a thorough, professional job covering polls. Only on condition of adequate disclosure of polling information, viewers become informed participants in political discourse. Taking into account the social significance of poll-based news and the importance of interpreting it correctly, media professionals must meet standards of poll coverage, offering solid grounding in the form of methodological survey information needed to assess the quality of polls data. The media must also check the credibility and competence of the sources of information. These questions are directly related to the skills and knowledge of reporters. I think it is necessary to introduce the topics of polling coverage into the educational process of students-journalists. As for working journalists, it is possible to help close the gap by means of specialized literature, online resources, and training programs.

Secondly, increasing media accountability for disseminating incomplete and untrusted poll-based information. Nowadays in Ukraine there is a problem with the regulation and control over

the dissemination of poll data. There is no one institution that could restrict or limit the unfair poll coverage. In this regard, the powers of public authorities (primarily the National Council of Television and Radio Broadcasting) should be expanded to allow monitoring and taking appropriate measures in cases of non-compliance and violation of legislative norms by journalists and media owners, including election rules.

Thirdly, polling organizations should provide complete and comprehensive information about their research. Presenting results, researchers must make available information about how the poll was conducted. As the number of surveys is growing steadily, they are becoming more complex and diverse, so disclosure requirements matter, and researchers should provide full information on their methodology and characteristics. If polling companies are open enough and provide a comprehensive amount of information in their reports, the media will have more opportunities to provide the public with full survey data.

Finally, the last item in this list, however, is perhaps the first in value. Due to the need for safe, effective and competent use of media texts by the public, there is a necessity for media education, and its studying by every person throughout life. Media literacy is one of the opportunities to perceive election-oriented poll results. The ability to interpret the poll-based data correctly should not be limited to a narrow range of experts. In a democratic society, it is important for everyone to be able to distinguish manipulative messages, not to be misled by distorted information, and to understand the real possibilities and limitations of representative polls. Moreover, it is obvious that the need to be media literate consumers of polls will only grow as opinion polls have increased in number and variety and polling data has become more important to public and civic discourse.

Awareness and understanding of whether media provide enough information to determine the polls' reliability and validity, or whether the media cover them accurately and comprehensively, without missing essential methodological details, will help the public resist survey profanation and data manipulation, and will not be deceived by fake polls. Citizens will become competent consumers of opinion poll-related news by analyzing media products carefully and critically. As a result, they will thus contribute to improving the quality of media content, as the media literate audience is only able to create demand for high-quality media.

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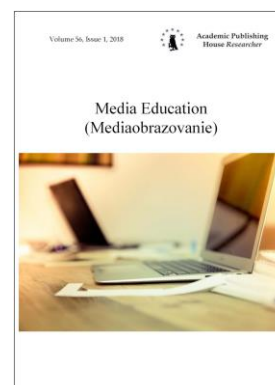
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Soviet Feature Films about Children in the War and It's Use in the Training of Future Teachers

Ilya Hazanov ^{a, *}

^a Kurgan State University, Kurgan Pedagogical College, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article gives the theoretical justification of a professionally oriented approach to the analysis of the film and its application in the educational process. The main category of professionally-oriented approach is the pedagogical analysis of the film, which is understood as a set of targeted intellectual actions to identify and substantiate the socio-psychological, historical, moral and ethical problems of the film, educational situations, factors that create conditions for the development of personal qualities of children and youth, their worldview and behavior patterns. The pedagogical essence of Soviet cinema as a means of personality formation is disclosed. It is noted that the Soviet feature film about children in the war reveals the features of the socio-psychological and ideological conditions for the development of the child's personality, shows the circumstances that contribute to the unity of young citizens with the adult world and increase the effectiveness of education. The main thematic lines of Soviet films about children in the war are highlighted. The results of the study of the potential of Soviet feature films about children in the war as a means of moral and civic education and the ideas of future teachers about the conditions and ways of using these films in educational work are analyzed. The specific elements of methodological support for preparing students for the use of Soviet films about children in the war in the educational process are described.

Keywords: Soviet feature films, children at war, future teachers, professionally-oriented approach, pedagogical essence of the film.

1. Introduction

In the year of the 75th anniversary of the Victory in the Great Patriotic War, all Russia bow their heads before the feat of the generation of the 40s. These were people of the highest moral strength, who managed to survive in incredibly difficult conditions and save the country and the whole world from fascism. In this generation, children were worthy of adults, together endured all the pangs of war, worked, helped each other, believed in the future. Today, carrying out patriotic education of students, we must turn to the unique human spiritual experience of those years.

The lessons of World War II should not be forgotten throughout the world. The main task of mankind is to prevent military conflicts, learn to overcome all contradictions in the dialogue, and develop friendly and partner relations between peoples. It is children – the future of all nations – who must learn the clear principles of pacifism, non-acceptance of violence, and learn to empathize with other people.

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: hazanovilya@gmail.com (I. Hazanov)

The custodians and translators of the memory of the war are teachers. The ability to create conditions for students to understand the essence of war and peace, the universal human ethical principles of building relationships between people is the most important element of professional pedagogical competence. One of the sources of historical and moral experience can be feature films about the war. At the same time, films about children in the war are more accessible for schoolchildren to understand, since at a young age the experience of peers is much closer. Films about the war show their peers in a critical situation in which all their best qualities are manifested - stamina, disinterestedness, industriousness, and the ability to be friends. Soviet cinema presents outstanding examples of films about children in the war. Therefore, mastering by future teachers how to use Soviet feature films about children at war in the educational process becomes one of the key tasks of training in a professional pedagogical educational institution.

The aim of our study is, within the framework of a professionally oriented approach to the analysis of feature films, to develop and test the content and methods of preparing future teachers for the use of Soviet films about children in the war in educational work with students.

2. Materials and methods

The article describes the results of the initial stage of the study. A theoretical analysis of the main approaches to the study of Soviet cinema, including children's cinema, is carried out. The own experience of using cinema in the process of training future teachers is generalized. The theoretical foundations of a professionally oriented approach to the study of cinema are highlighted. Methodological developments on the research topic have been completed.

A survey of students of the Kurgan Pedagogical College – future primary school teachers was conducted. The aim was to identify students' knowledge in the field of Soviet feature films about children in the war, their ideas about the possibilities of using these films in educational work with schoolchildren. 41 respondents participated in the survey.

We also used the analysis of the products of the activities of future teachers – an essay with a pedagogical analysis of films.

3. Discussion

Justifying the requirements for the organization of teacher training, Western researchers argue that teacher educators engage in simultaneous innovation in three related, but distinct aspects of program design and implementation: organizational structures and policies, content and curriculum, and teacher education pedagogy (McDonald et al., 2014). Among the key areas of research in teacher training (analysis of the relationship between theory and practice, routes in teaching, various contexts for teacher education, primary teacher education, assessment of teacher education and others) one of the important places is the use of technology (Livingston, Flores, 2017). A. Brew and C. Saunders suggest that in the twenty-first century context there is a need for teacher education to be proactive in generating self-reflective teachers with the capacity to shape classrooms and schools to meet changing needs, for this it is necessary to apply research-based learning in teacher education (Brew, Saunders, 2020). We believe that these approaches are applicable in the process of organizing media education of future teachers, in particular in the context of studying the educational potential of films.

Currently, there are several basic approaches in Russia to the analysis of films, including children's ones. So, the ontological approach considers such a phenomenon as the experience of the cinema viewer, which is never individual, since cinema is a mass phenomenon. The relationship between the technical and existential aspects of cinema is studied (Kurtov, 2012).

The socio-cultural approach involves the separation of the inextricable link of the children's film with the political and socio-cultural conditions and tasks of the state in the period under review. Cinematography is considered as a factor having a significant role in the formation of the cultural space of society and human culture, especially in the Soviet historical period. It is noted that cinematography, based on a synthesis of arts and syncretism, allows the formation of universal cultural and aesthetic values (Lubashova, 2013).

The hermeneutic approach includes the analysis of stereotypes, ideological analysis, identification analysis, iconographic analysis, plot analysis, analysis of character characters. Media text is compared with historical, cultural tradition and reality (Chelysheva, 2019).

Using the tools of these methodological approaches, we recognize the need for a professionally oriented approach, in which cinema is considered as one of the effective means of

achieving the goals of professional activity. Such an approach must necessarily take into account the content, worldview and technological aspects of each profession, as well as the process of its development by future specialists. The specifics of the teaching profession is that its subject is the process of formation and development of the child's personality, that is, a process that has the characteristics of creation and self-realization; a process determined by the socio-cultural conditions of human life; the process, which is based on personal and educational communication, in which dialogue develops into polylogic. Cinema has all of the above signs and dependencies, therefore, cinema corresponds to the nature of the teaching profession, not only organically reflects its centuries-old experience, but also affects the direction and dynamics of its changes. We can argue that, since the formation of a person's personality as a social being requires the presence of a mentor (parents, teachers, peers, other representatives of social institutions can act as a mentor), cinema can also become an effective mentor. In the process of training, the development of the personality of the future specialist continues, therefore, the movie as a potential mentor of the future teacher can realize its functions of modeling social and professional reality, problematization of the goals and content of human relations in the educational process, updating the relationship between the internal side of human life and external social influences.

At the same time, Soviet cinema is attractive for its orientation toward the formation of a certain model of the worldview and behavior of both an adult and a child. The behavior patterns of an adult and a child in Soviet cinema are harmonious, consistent with each other and with the principles of building a society, based on universal moral standards, and therefore can be accepted by a young teacher quite naturally. From the point of view of the educational function, Soviet cinema is not outdated, even despite the significant ideological changes that have occurred in Russian society since the beginning of the 90s of the XX century. Therefore, we believe that in relation to Soviet cinema, the concept of "pedagogical essence" can be used as a characteristic of its conformity to the goal-setting, content and technological tools of the pedagogical profession. Since the teacher interacts with the child in the educational process, it is precisely films about children, age-related features of their development, their personal crises, communications, experiences, the connection of their life with the life of the country in a particular historical period that potentially become mandatory material for study.

V.B. Khramov sees the reasons for the successful development of cinema in Soviet times in the fact that cinema belongs to synthetic forms of art. By their nature, synthetic species are closest to the social trend of democracy, associated with the participation of citizens in the construction of the state, and this trend intensifies during the revolution. Therefore, it is no coincidence that during the revolutionary period it is precisely synthetic forms of art that require many people to collaborate in creating a concrete work of art: the creative team, and administrators, and philanthropists, and others – become the main, socially approved, dominant in culture (Khramov, 2009). Studies of Soviet cinema, including films about the war, undertaken by Western researchers (Beumers, 2009; Gillespie, 2014; Youngblood, 2007). It is noted that war films have long been the most influential genre in Soviet cinema, since Soviet society was militarized, that cinema played a major role in propaganda efforts during World War II.

N.F. Khilko identifies 12 main thematic areas in Soviet children's cinema. Among them – the theme of friendship and love, morality and human relations, the spiritual greatness of the feat, social responsibility of the individual and others. The scientist notes such a feature of Soviet cinema as faith in children, inextricably linked with faith in the future (Khilko, 2011). A.K. Bernatonite notes that Soviet films for children were the foundation of the ideological foundation and offered certain behaviors for both the adult (parents or teachers) and the child. Cinema visualized the problems of children of a certain age and showed various aspects of overcoming the impasse. Watching the film contributed to the optimal finding of a way out of both the private (for example, lying, inability to establish contact with peers) and the more general problem (such as relations with the teacher, patriotism, professional honor and dignity). The scientist believes that it is impossible to unequivocally answer the question about the need for modern children to watch children's films of the Soviet era due to a change in moral and spiritual guidelines, the pace and rhythm of everyday life. But Soviet children's cinema is universal. It carries the light of simple and understandable truths; it is characterized by the ability to build intrigue. Throughout the entire Soviet cinema for children, the thought passes that trials temper the spirit and help find the right solution (Bernatonite, 2019).

O.A. Baranov and S.N. Penzin substantiate the union of pedagogy and cinema on the basis of the function of broadcasting the ideal. In their opinion, a film is such a media text that places high demands on the audience; in most other mass media, the concept of “artistic image” is absent. School and university film education does not prepare film experts, but full-fledged, competent viewers, educates them in the need for real cinema (Baranov, Penzin, 2005).

The need to include the formation of media literacy in teacher education is justified by Western researchers. Various methods of integrating the formation of media literacy into teacher education have been studied (Butler, 2019; Gretter, Yadav, 2018; Meehan et al., 2015; Schwarz, 2001; Yeh, Wan, 2019). R. Hobbs notes that in many nations, teacher education in media literacy uses both informal and formal approaches depending on the types of expertise available. In both formal and informal settings, it is still typical for media literacy programs to rely on the enthusiasm of the individual teacher, who may teach it as a ‘hobby subject.’ Few training institutions offer the subject at all either in terms of content subjects (in communication studies) or of methodologically-oriented training (in education) (Hobbs, 2007). Involving students in active learning and open research, personalizing instruction, new forms of online education, a process-oriented approach to developing competencies in the field of media and information literacy are becoming the key principles of media education (Oberg, Ingvaldsen, 2016).

In Russia, A.V. Fedorov distinguishes three main areas of media literacy education for future teachers: 1. Literary and imitating, dramatizing and situational, graphic and imitating creative studies for the audience to obtain creative skills on media material via heuristic activities, games and ICT. 2. Creative studies aimed at developing the audience’s adequate perception of media texts. 3. Creative studies aimed at developing the audience’s ability of media text analysis (Fedorov, 2010). Common to them is the principle of active work with a media text that creates the conditions for the development of creative and critical thinking, the value sphere of students. Media literacy education includes goals for personal development, training and educational tools, a pedagogical model, functionality and communicativeness (Fedorov et al., 2014).

In our opinion, the study of the general principles of the methodology, content, and technological methods of using cinema in the educational process inevitably leads to attempts to study the particular aspects of cinema pedagogy – highlighting individual thematic elements of the content of films, analyzing the conditions and methods of their use in educational work with students of different ages, identifying them parameters with professionally-oriented specifics. Therefore, the study of the role of films about children in the war in the process of training future teachers is an urgent scientific and methodological problem.

4. Results

We conducted a survey of students of graduation groups – future primary school teachers on the topic "Soviet feature films about children in the war and their use in professional activities." When answering the question “Do you consider it necessary to use Soviet feature films about children in educational work with primary school students?” 97.5 % of respondents answered positively. This testifies to the recognition by the vast majority of students of the great educational potential of Soviet films about children.

When answering the question “What features of Soviet feature films about children do you consider the most significant for achieving pedagogical goals?” 59 % of students chose the option “these films about peers are the most understandable, affect common problems, interests, experiences of students”, 53.8 % – “these films show high standards and behaviors”, 38.5 % – “these films reveal relationships children and adults in the context of universal and traditional Russian norms and values. ” 59 % of respondents said that "these films allow us to see the norms and values of collectivism, selflessness, patriotism, empathy and mutual assistance that have been significantly lost today." 35.9 % of students believe that "these films allow us to study the Soviet period in the history of our country, to correlate it with the present." Thus, future teachers are aware of the need to maintain a connection with the history of the country, as well as the high moral level of human relations that students can perceive by watching these films. In addition, students know the age characteristics of children who will understand peer experience much better than theoretical reasoning by adults.

When answering the question “Do you consider Soviet feature films about children in war to be an effective means of forming morality and patriotism among elementary school students?” 95 % of students responded positively. It turned out that future teachers watched a number of

Soviet films about children in the war – *Son of the Regiment*, *The Fate of a Man*, *Eaglet*, *Ivan's Childhood*, *Squad of Trubachev Fighting*, *Winter Morning*, *Five of the Brave*, *Oginsky's Polonaise*, *Kingfisher*, *Young of the Northern Fleet*, *Alexander the Little*, *Saved Name*, *Night Witches in the Sky*, *Girl from the City*, *Legend*. 50 % of respondents named at least one movie. However, half of the respondents could not name a single film, which indicates the need to introduce them to the study of this subject of cinema.

When answering the question “Have you used Soviet feature films about children in the war in educational work with younger students?” only 35 % of respondents answered in the affirmative. This means that it is necessary to involve students in the development and application of various forms of work with schoolchildren, where these films will be used. At the same time, it is necessary to replicate the positive experience of those students who have already used these films in educational work.

When answering the question “What forms of work using Soviet feature films about children in the war did you use?” only 18 responses were received. Of these, 44.4 % of respondents indicated a film lesson and a quiz, 33.3 % – a drawing contest and discussion, 11.1 % – a museum lesson, 5.6 % – an exhibition and a social project. No one used the children's film club.

The question “Do you consider it necessary to master the future teachers in the process of training in a professional educational institution in the ways of using Soviet feature films about children in the war in educational work with schoolchildren?” showed that only 7.7 % of respondents deny the need to master forms of work with children's films about children in the war in the process of training future teachers. 84.6 % of students answered in the affirmative, doubt – 7.7 %. These results confirm our assumption that in the teaching of pedagogical disciplines it is necessary to include assignments for the study and use in educational work of Soviet feature films about children in the war.

Students were asked to name the reasons why they would not want to use Soviet feature films about children in the war in educational work with younger students. The answers were received: “these films are difficult to understand at such an early age,” “these films can adversely affect the psyche of children,” “not all children like to watch films, especially black and white.” But these answers are single. In addition, students did not take into account that only films with an age limit of 0+ or 6+ in accordance with Russian law can be selected for use in work with younger schoolchildren. Of course, films whose content does not correspond to the age characteristics of elementary schoolchildren and can harm their nervous system and emotional state cannot be used. But in Soviet cinema, the war was very carefully and correctly shown, while at the same time not hiding its true essence - the destruction and death of all living things. Soviet films about children in the war were psychologically verified. It does not focus on external effects, but serious attention is paid to the image of feelings and emotions, which is necessary for the formation of the emotional-sensual sphere of personality.

The results of the questionnaire strengthened our desire to carry out educational work with students in the field of Soviet feature films about children in the war, to develop methodological support for the future teachers to master the educational potential of these films.

We can distinguish the following Soviet feature films about children in the war, the content and duration of which correspond to the age characteristics of younger schoolchildren.

The film *Son of the Regiment* (Soyuzdetfilm studio, 1946) was created on the basis of the novel by V. Kataev. Ivan Solntsev, a village orphan boy, was found by artillery battery scouts. Everyone loved the clever and clever boy, especially the battery commander, Captain Enakiev, who wanted to adopt him. The boy became a scout, showed high stamina and courage, being captured by the Nazis. After the death of the captain, the boy was orphaned a second time. He was sent to the Suvorov School, and you can be sure that he will become a worthy officer.

The film *Daughter of the Commander* (Belarusfilm studio, 1981). The daughter of the Soviet officer Val and his young friends goes through the horror of the outbreak of war – the defense of the Brest Fortress. The girl's fortitude is amazing – even standing in front of the Nazis, risking being shot, she does not ask for mercy. She does not agree to persuade the defenders of the fortress to surrender. A girl is by no means a “superhero” from an action movie. She cries, she is scared, she has to gather all her strength. But debt is stronger than fear, the defenders of the Brest Fortress do not give up, children are worthy of adults in steadfastness and heroism.

The film *Sit next, Mishka!* (Gorky Film Studio, 1977). In 1941, Misha Afanasyev, the resident of Leningrad, was preparing to enter the first grade of the school, but in the summer, he gets scarlet

fever and ends up in a children's hospital. June 22 begins the Great Patriotic War. The main character has to endure many trials – wound, hunger, separation from parents. His friends give concerts for wounded soldiers and officers. Only mutual assistance and faith in victory helps the residents of Leningrad survive. Mishka meets with his friends on May 9, 1945.

The film *Ivan Makarovich* (Belarusfilm studio, 1968). The peaceful childhood of 13-year-old Ivan was interrupted by the war. The father went to the front, and the boy loses his mother during the evacuation. Adults do not leave him without help, the boy shows such a strong will and independence that others call him by middle name. He works at the factory, maintaining kindness and faith in life.

The film *Street of the Youngest Son* (Belarusfilm studio, 1962) was created on the basis of the novel by Soviet writers L. Kassil and M. Polyanovsky about 14-year-old Vladimir Dubinin, the son of a sailor, a resident of the city of Kerch. When the Nazis occupied Kerch, in the autumn of 1941 Vladimir left with a partisan detachment in a quarry and became the commander of a detachment of children-scouts. Several times he went upstairs and brought valuable information that saved the life of the soldiers of the detachment. Nothing could break the guerrillas' stamina. Vladimir Dubinin gave his life to save his homeland, but his memory lives in the hearts of his descendants.

The film *A Girl Seeks a Father* (Belarusfilm studio, 1959). A partisan detachment is operating in occupied Belarus. The Nazis are trying to capture the little daughter of his commander, but the locals help the girl. The forester's grandson, Janka, actually becomes her older brother. The leading theme line of the film is salvation. Saving lives, the best feelings of the Motherland, which is possible only with the unity of children and adults (Films..., 2020; Portal..., 2020).

This is only a small part of the huge legacy of Soviet cinema. All these films are united by the presence in children of amazing willpower and courage. They are one with their country, family, friends, neighbors. Having lost their parents, they do not break, but endure all hardships, without losing optimism, without being hardened. And although they grow up early, they retain the ability to rejoice. These children are real citizens. Undoubtedly, they can become an example for modern youth, which, unfortunately, is often infantile and not always aware of its civic responsibility. Another feature of these films is the mutual trust of children and adults. The sensitive, touching attitude of adults towards children and their feelings is not isolated cases, it is the principle of life of the whole generation. Adults did everything possible to save the life and health of children, to provide them with normal conditions, even among the horrors of war. Many researchers note the excessive ideologization of Soviet cinema. But the production of cinema in the Soviet Union was state-owned, and it was the state's value orientations of patriotism, honesty, productive labor, and commonwealth that were reflected in the content of the films. Government officials understood that cinema is a natural and effective means of shaping the worldview of citizens. A movie is a work of art that cannot be without an idea. Even strong ideologization is better than an ideological vacuum (provided that positive ethical attitudes are promoted). Soviet films evoke deep feelings of bright feelings, form an attitude to follow high moral principles in one's own life. In them there is a clear division of the heroes into positive and negative, which is clear to children. Soviet cinema did not always reflect the real life of people, but it showed what it should be, what all citizens should strive for.

We can distinguish the following thematic lines in Soviet films about children in the war, which have a moral-aesthetic and civil-patriotic content and create conditions for the audience to experience and relate to the characters in the films:

- unexpectedness, criticality of changes in the social and life situation and adaptation to them;
- suffering and temporary loneliness;
- awareness of the meaning of peaceful life, a conscious coming to the denial of war and violence;
- civil and human unity with the people of their country and allied countries, mutual assistance, empathy;
- growing up, overcoming, preservation of moral character and spiritual growth.

The selection of each of the named thematic lines and the creation of conditions for their understanding by schoolchildren is one of the main tasks of a teacher when working with cinema material in the educational process.

The basis of a professionally-oriented approach to cinema within the framework of the pedagogical profession, we consider the pedagogical analysis of the film. By the pedagogical

analysis of the film we understand the set of purposeful intellectual actions to identify the socio-psychological, historical, moral and ethical problems of the film, highlight and justify the solution of situations of an educational nature, reflecting the dynamics of the relationship between children and adults, factors that create conditions for the development of personal qualities of children and youth, their worldview and behavior patterns. We offer students the following algorithm of pedagogical analysis of the film:

1. Determine whether the film has pedagogical problems (the presence of elements of the pedagogical process as the subject of the image in the film, the subjects of the pedagogical process and their relationships, the identification of contradictions, dependencies, mutual influences).
2. Describe the main idea of the film – is it pedagogical? Highlight the complex of pedagogical problems reflected in the film.
3. Describe the dynamics of personality development of the main characters of the film. How do they influence the socio-psychological circumstances in which they find themselves? What moral values are the images of the main characters, do they strengthen along the way?
4. Highlight the pedagogical situations in the film, describe how they are solved. What are the principles and conditions for the interaction of children and adults, is there a dialogue between them?
5. What is the pedagogical essence of the film for you? Have you gained professional knowledge, values, ideas? Do you consider the ideas and content of the film to be in line with modern goals, directions, means of the educational process?

After the questionnaire, students of graduation groups were invited to watch one of the Soviet feature films about children in the war on their own and write an essay. An analysis of the essay showed that most future teachers are able to highlight pedagogical issues in films. Students understand the dramatic fate of the main characters, highlight individual characteristics of the relationship of children and adults shown in the films. A certain difficulty is the analysis of the historical context in Soviet films, which is associated with a sufficiently large difference in the time of making films (more than 30 years). Students note the possibility of using Soviet films about children in the war to conduct educational activities with younger students. Among the forms they offer are dominated by conversation and quiz.

The development of forms of educational work with the use of Soviet children's feature films about children in the war was proposed by us as a variant of one of the tasks in the course of educational and production practice at school. Some students noted the positive effect of events where they, together with younger students, discussed the ideas and significance of films. Children are trying to relate themselves to the main char.

For the next academic year, we will offer students the implementation of an individual research and methodological project "Soviet feature films about children in the war and the potential for their use in educational work." The project will be completed while learning the basics of classroom instruction. The aim of the project is to prepare a theoretical and methodological framework for the use of Soviet cinema about children in war in professional activities. During the project, students will create the list of films with selected topics, perform their pedagogical analysis and develop activities with various options for using films in educational work with younger students. At the same time, attention will be paid not only to feature films, but also to documentaries.

5. Conclusion

Despite a certain idealization of the relationship between children and adults, Soviet feature films about children in war are a powerful educational tool. Movies contribute to the formation of empathy – the ability to empathize with movie heroes who find themselves in difficult life circumstances, but who have retained their stamina and ability to achieve their goals. The socialization of children shown in these films, in fact, can be called shock, since the war is rapidly destroying their lives, making it completely different. But war does not lead to social maladjustment. On the contrary, it enhances the unity of children with society. This unity is promoted by the common goal of children and adults – survival, saving the country, overcoming personal grief, which becomes an organic part of social grief.

At the same time, we note the insufficient distribution of work with films among young teachers. Measures are needed to expand the involvement of students in the study of the

educational potential of cinema. Studying Soviet cinema will contribute to the historical and spiritual continuity of generations.

The current direction of further work on the use of Soviet cinema about children in the training of future teachers, we consider the use of the potential of the Internet. We plan to attract students to the active use of sites, forums, social networks as a means of attracting a young audience to watch and discuss films, including in the framework of children's virtual cinema clubs.

The professionally-oriented approach to the analysis and application of films highlighted by us means the use of cinema, taking into account the specific goals and content aspects of the profession. For the teaching profession, this involves identifying the possibilities of educational dialogue between the film and the viewer. Considering possession of the analysis of the pedagogical essence of the film as an element of media literacy, we support the opinion of E. Thoman and T. Jolls that the main thing in media literacy is not the memorization of facts, but the development of mental operations, including analytical ones (Thoman, Jolls, 2004).

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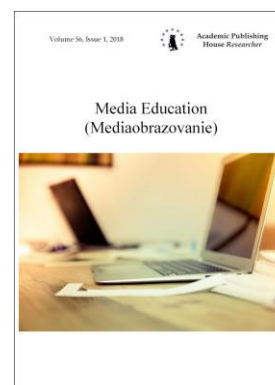
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“Yandex.zen”: Platform as a Tool for Media Education

Tatyana L. Kaminskaya ^{a, *}, Oksana V. Erokhina ^a

^a Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article analyzes the experience of using the *Yandex* platform *Zen* or *Yandex.Zen* in professional media education. This research is based on a practice-oriented approach to training media professionals. The authors of the article suggest linking the idea of practice-oriented education with the process of implementing a full-cycle media project by each student. The research includes all the stages of media project from creating their own channels to monetizing them. This model was created and successfully implemented as part of the training of journalists and specialists in advertising and PR in two universities and it's considered as an integral process of preparing media specialists for the market realities of digital communication.

The article shows why the platform *Yandex.Zen* is a suitable tool for training specialists in contrast to groups and personal accounts in social media. The use of this tool in media education has shown both the positive aspects of project learning and the fact that the project model of learning is not suitable for all students. It includes the stages of implementation of the model during two semesters from choosing of thematic areas for students' own channels and the organization of the educational process to receiving feedback from students in the form of a survey and self-reflection in coursework. The author of the article offers his own experience as a possible scenario for professional media education to colleagues from other universities.

Keywords: professional media education, *Yandex.Zen* platform, project, content, algorithm, student self-reflection.

1. Introduction

Over the past few years, there have been significant changes in media formats, and the profession of a journalist and PR specialist has changed. The entire everyday life of an ordinary person has been mediatized, and the trend to turn each person into a media is maintained in the context of the development of new digital communication tools. Every year, updated formats and tools for online communication impose new requirements for training professional media communication personnel in terms of technological competence. Media platforms provide more and more opportunities for all market participants: new channels and new tools for agencies, media, social activists and bloggers are emerging.

At the same time, journalists and communicators working online need almost uninterrupted text activity: editors and publishers are puzzling over the problem of 24-hour updating of media channels. In these conditions, media education plays a huge role, and the education of specialists in the field of mass communication has to be transformed based on new market demands. The increasing competition, the demand for new skills and professions, and the development of

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: tlcam1@mail.ru (T.L. Kaminskaya), o.v.erokhina@gmail.com (O.V. Erokhina)

new rules of the game encourage the use of new tools in teaching practice today. “In society, there is a strong need to search for and form modern models that provide predictability” (Tarasenko et al., 2019: 592).

2. Materials and methods

The main sources of writing this article are, first, the results of using the project learning model in two universities, and secondly, the texts of students written in the form of self-reflection (questionnaires based on the results of the semester and term papers on the research of the *Yandex platform.Zen*). The questionnaires that students completed at the end of the course included questions about the positive/negative qualities of the *Yandex* platform itself (for authors), and also included questions about the pros and cons of project learning for students using the platform.

The author's reasoning is also based on the problem-chronological approach and the method of included observation, which allow evaluating a specific model in professional education. The authors suggest linking the idea of practice-oriented education with the process of implementing a full-cycle media project by each student: from creating his own channel to its monetization. This model was successfully implemented into educational process in two universities (Novgorod State University and Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation) within the studying “Theory and Practice of Media” and “Promotion of Projects on the Internet” disciplines.

The comparative method allowed the author to compare the results of students' work within the framework of the platform and their conclusions with the conclusions of researchers about its use by large media projects.

3. Discussion

Professional media education has always played a key role in reviews of various approaches to media education, its transformation in the post-Soviet period, and studies of the current state (Fedorov, 2015). The researchers note: “the main directions of media education are: media education of future professionals in the field of mass communication – journalists, editors, directors, producers, actors, camera men, etc.” (Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2018: 12). At the same time, the practice-oriented model of education is becoming more and more popular today. This applies both to the training of journalists and education of other communication specialists, whose work effects are usually measured in quantitative terms (the number of views, the growth of the resource's audience, etc.). Listing the difference between practice-oriented education and academic education, I.A. Fateeva notes that the main conditions are the involvement of practical journalists and project technologies (Fateeva, 2008: 24). Design technologies need tools and platforms. Since the digitalization of all life, especially the communication of the youth audience, has been repeatedly pointed out by researchers (Kaminskaya, 2015), it is necessary to use online platforms and modern media tools for training.

The experience of using project-based training of journalists in leading Russian universities has received scientific understanding in recent years. Thus, L.A. Kohanova, summarizing in a number of articles the experience of using project training of journalists at MSU, notes that it “contributes to the formation of a new digital culture, the carriers of which are mainly young people. In addition, it is used for inter-generational dialogue, which in many ways contributes to the resolution of the digital divide” (Kokhanova, 2018: 319). L.P. Shesterkina, A.R. Marfitsyna comprehend the experience of the faculty of journalism of the South Ural University, where students under the guidance of a teacher make public television projects on the shopping center “SUSU-TV”. The researchers conclude that media projects are the dominant component of modern journalism. The media project defined by the researchers as “a kind of social engineering in the field of media, which is a creative development with goal setting, tasks, and character design changes, scale, and time-bound implementation; performed using various technological platforms and aimed at achieving goals that are of great social importance for the development of society” (Shesterkina, Marfitsyna, 2019: 41).

In understanding the Russian practice of project-based professional media education, researchers mainly present projects of traditional media (TV programs, Newspapers, radio scripts). The development of new media platforms is very slow, although the students can use them to express their opinion.

Speaking about emerging new platforms online and the use of artificial intelligence in the education process, the researchers emphasize their importance (as well as risks) for the digital generation: "For youth, these platforms offer new opportunities and risks for participation, and suggest corresponding implications for civic education" (James, Cotnam-Kappel, 2019).

When projecting into the future, various use cases are considered in science new technologies in the educational process. Nobody can ignore the duality either the role of technology in the educational process, which today began pay attention in scientific discourse. So mastering new technologies can give equal opportunities to all students for self-realization. On the other hand, they can become a means of control and operation, and prepare students for readiness to be exploited in the economy (Dencik et al, 2019; Doxtdator, 2017; Macgilchrist et al., 2020; Vetter, 2018). At the same time, the use of technology and understanding of this experience gives rise to discussions about the role of the teacher in the education process. In particular, there is a possible decrease in its influence and its role in the educational process (Macgilchrist, Felicitas, 2017). Criticizing the traditional e-learning system as not adapted to individual requests of students, as well as reduced opportunities for students to work with texts (as opposed to visual information) the authors offer various options algorithms for personalizing systems (Benhamdi et al., 2017).

Russian universities, however, today tend to meet the needs of the economy, and not personal requests of students. At the same time, it is especially difficult for them to integrate into the rhythm of its rapid changes, when the situation around the world is as follows: "Big data has the power to transform education and educational research. Governments, researchers and commercial companies are only beginning to understand the potential that big data offers in informing policy ideas, contributing to the development of new educational tools and innovative ways of conducting research" (Heed, Kubyskin, 2018; Williamson, 2018).

Media projects have changed the very nature of journalism, and today professional media education cannot do without project technologies. At the same time even the very methodology of project training is not universally recognized and well-established, and it is perceived as experimental. In the universities where the authors work, have used such forms of design as creating their own educational newspaper (paper and online versions), creating and promoting *Vkontakte* thematic groups, and information channels on Instagram for a number of years.

Yandex.Zen was used for the first time, the author faced the need to understand this training experience and evaluate the channel as a training tool. The platform phenomenon is distinguished by the involvement of millions of people in a short period of time. *Yandex.Zen* managed to achieve good results despite the fierce competition online for the target audience and for the activity of the authors. Today, this media format is both a media and an economic project. Using artificial intelligence, this platform selects the most popular content for a specific user and analyzes it using different technologies. The system determines the subject of texts, categorizes them, analyzes images and recognizes what is depicted on them. Then it promotes the material to a specific user and offers to view it. The system analyzes the user's browser history, preferences, time zone, and many other factors.

At first, *Yandex.Zen* appeared in order to help the news aggregator *Yandex* to increase its turnover and profit exclusively at the expense of internal resources – a free audience and a team of developers. However, many authors were involved in the system, some of whom, under the terms of the project, were able to get monetization of their author's efforts to create content.

Using various media formats (video, text, photos), the channel is not a media in its traditional sense. It is difficult to register it as a media according to the rules of Russian legislation. *Yandex.Zen* is also a research problem today – in terms of genres, images of the author, recipients of texts and other familiar criteria, it does not fit into the accepted typologies of media. Its creators note that *Zen* was treated by its authors as a universal product in order to increase the consumption of media and adjust it to the interests of people. It is not limited to one format, but includes all possible formats. *Zen* is also different from *Yandex.News*, where the main task of the service is to aggregate news and display the most important thing to all of the same, on the main page of the portal.

At the same time, the algorithm offers earnings to authors who can open their own channel within the project. It strictly defines and periodically changes the rules of the game for authors and improves the technology for delivering content to the audience.

In 2018, the project's Executive Director, V. Lamburt, announced the goal of making *Zen* a competitor to *Instagram*, *Vkontakte*, and *YouTube* worth several billion dollars. In an interview

with the *Bell*, he notes: “We are aiming for something extraordinary, we are building a kind of “TV of the future”... It is based on artificial intelligence technologies that will very soon completely determine media consumption. Even the stream of TV broadcasting in the home TV in 10-20 years will work on the same algorithms that we are currently developing in *Zen*. As a result we will have a mix of the formats that we can already see in social media-video, TV broadcasting, text, and images. There will be a personalized newsfeed that will accompany us everywhere on different devices, especially on smartphones.

If we talk about the business sense for *Yandex*, then *Zen* is an opportunity to increase the mobile audience and enter the social media market. The market that has traditionally been a stranger to *Yandex*. *Facebook*, *Instagram*, *Facebook*, and other social networks and services are located in This area. And we started working on this territory" (We..., 2018).

Some of Russia's leading media outlets are actively and successfully attracting new audiences to *Zen*. These are *Lenta.ru*, *Kommersant*, *Komsomolskaya Pravda*, and others. *Zen* has also proved attractive to marketers of some brands. The platform itself contains both guidelines for working on it (how to create and monetize a *Zen* channel) and descriptions of successful cases for using it. For example, it places a self-advertisement in the form of news (“Eat Village food”). *Yandex* runs its own channel-*Zen* magazine (<https://zen.yandex.ru/zenmag>). It reports on various innovations of the system, publishes its own narratives and gives useful advice to authors and recommendations to subscribers. So, in March 2019, a new version of the algorithm was released, which is called Alpha Centauri (both in the closest star system to Earth, three stars, and in *Zen*, three new algorithm changes: A, B, and “Proxima”). *Zen* changed its technology for selecting articles for recipients, increased the speed of selection, and improved machine learning technologies. A large number of channel authors, however, criticized these updates: they wrote that they did not notice any improvements at all. Many of them suggested that *Zen* decided to “squeeze out” the old channels, so as not to pay them and live at the expense of new authors, promising them success and convincing them that they need to write and write, while at the same time he will use free unique content and collect money from it.

However, the phenomenon of *Yandex.Zen* despite significant financial indicators and active growth of those involved in the 4 years of existence in addition to the optimistic predictions received a negative evaluation. All of them are in the form of short reflective reviews primarily from the authors of the platforms that tried to monetize their channels or to express themselves creatively in it. The main negative effect connected with *Yandex.Zen* and interfered with the practice of teaching, is a great dependence evaluation of author's work by the audience. This inevitably gives rise to pandering to the audience, the desire to please the most uninspiring readers. So S.M. Shakirov giving a detailed analysis of the algorithm of the platform and finding it even intellectual narratives, however, notes that the platform is intended to be “closer to meeting the demand of mass culture” (Shakirov, 2019: 131).

Today, there are only a few scientific publications, mainly related to understanding cases of using the platform for traditional media. So A.A. Morozova, O.V. Murzina show how this platform is successfully used regional site 74 (summer 2019), noting that “promotion and advertising, in its usual sense, it happens by itself and does not require financial investments” (Morozova, Murzina, 2019: 110). N.A. Larina, A.Yu. Tsitsinov, on the contrary, present the result of an unsuccessful experience using the platform in the military journalism for the weekly *Zvezda* (Larina, Tsitsinov, 2019). The case of failure to promote *Zvezda* explained by the specifics of the submission of texts in military journalism, which is not suitable for algorithms of the platform. The project of the blog *Zvezda* on *Zen* platform today should be recognized suspended and has not received the widespread popularity of the little commented on, the audience is only 294 subscribers (as of 24.09.2019).

There are rare attempts at scientific understanding of the *Zen* phenomenon itself. I.V. Novikova notes that the narratives of *Yandex Zen* are a new trend in filing media content. However, listing tips for using and creating a successful one the narrative of *Yandex.Zen*, the author adds to them their own, very general recommendations for using photo materials in online communication (Novikova, 2019). The use of a new media tool in teaching practice, despite to all the existing contradictions of the platform and criticism of the project approach to media education seems promising in the conditions of digitalization of reality.

4. Results

The process of using the *Yandex* platform *Zen* in project training was as following. Firstly, practice-oriented teaching included collaboration with editor-in-chief of the regional online publication *53 news* (<https://53news.ru/>) who worked as an expert. The publication uses mass media in Russia for its promotion social networks, but the most successful experience was using the platform *Yandex.Zen*: over the past year, *53 news* has managed to double the number of views and it reached the top attendance figures among regional online media.

In the course of teaching the courses “theory and practice of media” and “promotion of projects on the Internet”, third-year students of the two universities created more than 30 own channels, but only 10 % of them managed to monetize.

The topics of their own channels chosen by the students met their daily interests: cosmetics, sports, celebrity discussion, and study. Some students decided not to focus on a specific topic, but to write their opinions on the current events of a particular day on a daily basis. There were also those who, after starting to write on one topic, changed the format and subject of their channel several times. One of these “changeable” students found his niche and received monetization of the channel. In addition to monetizing channels, it was important for students to learn how to write texts for 40+ audiences, which today make up the majority of the platform's subscribers. The situation with the target audience, whose information requests are difficult for students to understand, represented an additional problem area of training.

Students had to first study the rules for working on the platform and audience feedback on similar channels. At the same time, they realized that readers leave mostly negative comments. Next, students had to present their observations and research on the platform in their own essays.

Then, after opening and promoting the channel, students recorded their own achievements and mistakes together with the teachers. Monetization of the channel and compliance with all stages of presenting their results to teachers meant that they automatically received the highest grade in the subject for the semester.

In the next semester, two students, having successfully monetized their own channels, chose understanding their results as the goal of the course work on the PR specialization.

In the course of training, research of the platform and their own experience as authors, students identified the following advantages of the *Yandex.Zen* platform:

1. Compared to many other platforms, *Yandex's* policies and algorithms are aimed at ensuring maximum impressions of the author's content, based on the interests of users similar to the proposed topic. It is also important that the use of this platform is free.
2. An ever-increasing number of users of the platform: more and more businessmen, advertisers and ordinary users are included in the work on this platform, which makes the possibility of monetization of the channel more and more likely.
3. Unlike networks like *Instagram*, monetization on this platform is possible without having a huge number of subscribers.
4. Impressions of this platform are present in almost all *Yandex* services. This property allows you to get the maximum flow of impressions and readouts on the author's channel.
5. The possibility of almost unlimited placement of links to other resources of the author, which in the end only increases the popularity of the use of this platform by authors, increases the possibility of providing information, also allows for additional monetization in other platforms.
6. The absence of restrictions on the volume of author's articles allows you to give out the maximum of useful content.

Imperfections of the *Yandex* platform *Zen* were also identified:

1. The platform's recommendation engine fails, giving users content that doesn't match their interests. For example, if a user is interested in digital technologies, they can get a selection of anecdotes.
2. Geolocation functions that link to the user's location do not always work correctly, which ultimately leads to negative responses to the content of the proposed platform content, since many users are more interested in news from their native region. The user will not read various articles and news about incidents in Kolomna while in Veliky Novgorod.
3. According to the observations of students and user reviews of the platform, on *Yandex.Zen* there are problems with unsubscribing and blocking content that users want to exclude from their feed. Many people notice that even if you use the “Block source” function provided by the platform,

after a while, this source appears again in the feed. However, this happens in both mobile and browser versions of the *Yandex* platform *Zen*, even when using *Yandex.Web* browser.

4. The disadvantages of the platform also include the abundance of ad blocks in the personal feed. Despite the fact that advertising allows the audience to use the platform for free, and channel authors to get monetization, excessive advertising negatively affects the number of users of the platform, which in turn leads to a commensurate decrease in the key indicators of channel monetization.

5. A significant drawback of the platform is the small functionality of the content submission capabilities due to the capabilities of the built-in editor (this affects the key indicator—the completion of publications).

The survey also concerned the project form of training itself. Disadvantages of the project format of training using the *Yandex* platform are identified. *Zen* highlighted by students can be divided into the following two groups. The first group of shortcomings was related to objective points (the above-mentioned features of the *Yandex* platform *Zen*). The second group—with subjective feelings of students: “not everyone likes this Internet platform and not everyone could find themselves in it”, “it is easier for me to write texts on the topic proposed by the teacher”.

Among the positive aspects were the development of practical skills and the habit of constantly practicing writing texts, a useful skill for a journalist and PR specialist to explore their audience and match it, as well as the opportunity to earn money from professional activities. Examples of positive feedback about the course methodology are as follows: “This prepared us for future professional activities. In addition, if a student receives monetization on the channel, he has a stable income, this motivates further growth”; “I had almost no difficulties. I wrote about what I was interested in, what I did in my daily life. While doing sports in the gym or cooking, I took photos. Then I wrote small texts and published it. With the advent of monetization of my efforts, it became much more interesting to work in *Yandex Zen*.”

Based on the analysis of students' work on the platform, we can define the most important influence on the success of monetization:

- 1) Correctly selected title to the text;
- 2) Creative design of the article / narrative
- 3) The volume of the article (do not publish too large texts);
- 4) Writing text in an accessible language;
- 5) Correctly selected tags;
- 6) Using the most popular topics for your target audience.

The ability to meet these requirements will be useful, in the opinion of the author of the article, when working in any field of media.

5. Conclusion

1. Today, difficulties in organizing practice-oriented education of professionals are associated with a rapid change in media reality: constant updating of communication tools and the emergence of new formats. One of the ways to organize such training is to introduce project work on new online platforms as part of special courses.

2. Choosing the platform *Yandex.Zen* for the practice of media education was very successful. Platform *Yandex.Zen* offers authors an algorithm of work, defines the rules for creating texts and allows the teacher to follow all the stages of performing the algorithm and getting the result. However, the work of the platform is not yet without drawbacks. Motivating students to notice the platform's capabilities and shortcomings is one of the goals of training future communication professionals. To get the best effect from such project training, it is necessary to attract communication professionals who have mastered new online tools.

3. The learning process will be most effective if students' reflection is organized based on its results. This can be achieved not only with the help of survey methods, but also within the framework of course work on specialization. In this case, self-reflection combines with an analytical approach to the communication tool that is used.

4. The described project approach is effective for those students who are communicative leaders and are able to show responsibility and creativity at each stage of the project implementation. One of the options for such project work is to work in groups with the distribution of roles among students.

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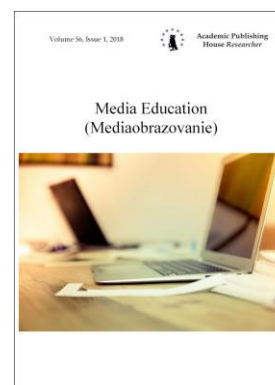
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Structural and Content Features of Russian Research on Media Literacy

Alexander Kazakov ^{a, *}

^aSaratov National Research State University named after N.G. Chernyshevsky, Russian Federation

Abstract

Empirical basis of this research includes 103 papers published from 2015 through 2019 in such established scholarly journals as *Media Education*, *Political Linguistics*, *Political Studies*, *Herald of Moscow University. Series 10: Journalism, Media Scope, Political Expertise*, and *Media Linguistics*. Articles sampled were then conveniently divided into two groups: a so-called “media literacy” group consists of 45 papers explicitly dedicated to various aspects of media education and related topics; “indirect” group is comprised of 58 articles dealing with the issues that are not directly connected to media education or media literacy but touch on adjacent notions and processes.

Special attention is paid to the following features:

- specifics of the articles’ authors corps (including their scholarly background, academic degree holders rate, and places of residence);
- content blocks, keywords, and scholarly classifiers of the articles;
- geographical focus and key age objects of the articles;
- structural elements and types of the articles;
- the most popular research methods and definitions of media literacy used by the authors;
- the most often quoted papers and authors.

Two centers of media education research (i.e. Taganrog and Moscow) are distinguished. The most challenging and potentially high in demand aspects of media literacy scholarships are outlined.

Keywords: media literacy, media education, mass media, scholarly journals, research, structural elements, article, state-of-the-art review, Russia.

1. Introduction

In the age of post-truth politics, fake and partisan news, the need for media education and media literacy is quite obvious. Moreover, it is one of the few things we can use to mitigate the consequences of manipulation, propaganda, information overload, and media wars. In this regard, it always pays to evaluate the current state of media literacy research in a certain country. To what extent does it match the growth of the demand for media literacy training? What are the main problems it is facing now? Is it capable of solving them? Does it meet basic standards of international scholarships in this field of study?

Even though attempts to answer these questions are made from time to time, most of them focus primarily on foreign studies. At the same time, Russia is in need of such surveys, too. Further than that, there are at least two reasons why our country may have even greater interest in this type of research.

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: aldr.kazakov@gmail.com (A. Kazakov)

Firstly, social and political life itself explicitly requires tools and mechanisms of checking information flaws: unfortunately, the quality of news and media performance in this country sometimes is far from perfect. “Possibilities of political and commercial manipulations of the public are growing in number with the use of a powerful media complex and the latest communication technologies. This trend poses a threat to democracy, which degenerates into a manipulative ersatz that excludes the really free and informed will of citizens” (Korochensky et al., 2019: 393). Disappointingly, all this holds true to Russia, too.

Secondly, compared with Europe and North America, media literacy movement (at least in its political branch) in Russia is still very much in its infancy – therefore, self-assessment is necessary in order to further develop the field. Thus, a kind of scholarly introspection here seems to be quite timely and relevant on both practical and theoretical levels.

2. Materials and methods

Empirical basis of this research consists of papers published from 2015 through 2019 in such scholarly journals as *Media Education*, *Political Linguistics*, *Political Studies*, *Herald of Moscow University. Series 10: Journalism, Media Scope, Political Expertise*, and *Media Linguistics*. Several factors were taken into consideration while choosing these journals. First and foremost, their remits were considered – I picked out those sometimes touching upon issues pertinent to mass media and media education. Journals’ status also played a role: except for *Media Linguistics*, they are on the State Commission for Academic Degrees and Titles list; more than that, *Media Education* is indexed by *Web of Science*. At last, my choice was also built on their geographical spread (apart from Moscow, they represent Saint Petersburg, and regions) and *Science Index* impact-factor.

I believe that scholarly articles published in above-mentioned journals adequately reflect the state of the art in the field of media literacy. One may fairly argue that monographs should also be scrutinized. However, I had two reasons not to do it. My own research experience tells me that in most cases the basic content of the book is preliminary tested in the article format (or – more rarely – vice versa). In addition, to gain access to print and even PDF-versions of monographs is usually much more difficult than to articles.

So, having perused all volumes of above-mentioned journals published from 2015 through 2019, I found 103 papers on the issue under consideration. The main research methods I used to explore them were comparative analysis and content analysis of the texts, abstracts, keywords, and references.

Then I deemed it possible to conveniently divide articles into two groups:

1. A so-called “indirect” group is comprised of 58 articles dealing with the issues that are not directly connected to media education or media literacy but touch on adjacent notions and processes (e.g., but not limited to manipulation, information wars, fake news, post-truth, media consumption etc.).
2. A so-called “media literacy” group (from this point onward, including bar charts and graphs, “ML” group) consists of 45 papers explicitly dedicated to various aspects of media literacy education and related topics.

Fig. 1 shows the way these groups are presented within the seven journals analyzed.

As one can see, *Media Education* published the overwhelming majority of the “field-oriented” articles. On the one hand, taking into account the journal’s focus, it is hardly surprising. On the other hand, and it is oddly enough, such a hot-button issue does not receive much attention of scholars publishing their research at other journals. Of course, some issues related to media literacy were somehow addressed in “indirect” articles as well. However, it seems to me that modern political reality necessitates much more thorough analysis of such issues carried out by scholars from different areas – i.e. political science, social science, philology, philosophy, psychology etc.

3. Discussion

In 2020, A.V. Fedorov and A.A. Levitskaya examined the content of around 600 PhD theses on media literacy education carried out in Russia and other CIS countries from 1960 to 2019. One of the inferences they made was that “traditional for the USSR priority of aesthetically-oriented media education in the CIS countries of the 21st century has been replaced by sociocultural and cultural

studies” (Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2020: 75). Even though there is still no mention of political science angle, timid drift toward social dimension of media literacy is quite promising in this context.

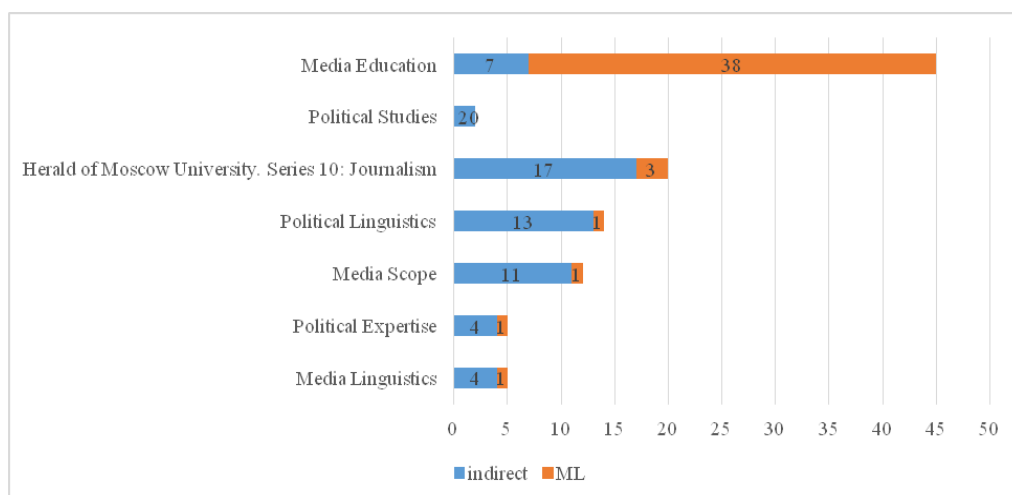


Fig. 1. Allocation of articles between the journals (number of units)

Generally speaking, an article I have just cited as well as A.V. Fedorov’s “Evolution of Russian Scientific Research in the Field of Media Education” (Fedorov, 2009) are perhaps the only attempts to analyze Russian media literacy education scholarship in its entirety. Enormous sample, numerous aspects taken into consideration, and approved forecasts make them an important benchmark for research of such kind. However, not only PhD dissertations may be deemed as a touchstone for the state of affairs in media literacy field. I suppose that papers published in well-established scholarly journals are also indicative enough. In a sense, these two approaches complement each other.

In terms of scope and methods of research, “Leaders of Soviet Film Distribution (1930–1991): Trends and Patterns” (Fedorov, 2020) is of this kind, too. Interestingly enough, despite the very focus of the author (film industry is usually perceived as being a part of entertainment sphere), there are some ideological strands in this article that add a political undertone to this survey.

There are also some state-of-the-art reviews concerning media research in a broader context. Having analyzed main directions and methods of media theories within Russian science, M.I. Makeenko argues that “research approach” is underdeveloped here which, in its turn, results in small number of ingenious theoretical and empirical results. He supposes that “almost all corps of classic foreign texts, monographs, and scholarly articles on media theories are left outside “academic discourse” and those publications that are used by Russian scholars do not necessarily imply “direct appeals to theories under consideration” (Makeenko, 2017: 24).

Similar inference is drawn by D.V. Dunas. He believes that “a kind of terminological, theoretical, and conceptual confusion, desire to disengage from the heritage of Marxism and Leninism, to articulate national identity within foreign academic media discourse are intrinsic to contemporary Russian media studies” (Dunas, 2017: 3).

It should be noted that roughly the same critical evaluations of theoretical and methodological parts of Russian media research are not uncommon (Kuchinov, 2016; Vartanova, 2012; 2015; Vyrkovsky, Smirnov, 2018). Moreover, I can assume that, to some extent, this tendency is true for media education studies as well.

As far as foreign “state of the field” studies are concerned, several aspects are worth mentioning. First of all, such surveys are arguably more popular abroad than in Russia. One of the most prominent reviews of this kind was conducted by W.J. Potter. In 2010, he presented an overview of how media literacy had been treated as an issue in curriculum design within the institution of education, and then how it had been treated as an intervention by parents and researchers (Potter, 2010).

Potter’s article caused enormous controversy. For example, R. Hobbs accused him of omitting much of the innovative work that had emerged in the early 21st century from scholars across the fields of communication, education, and public health. She also thought that Potter

failed to capture the depth and complexity of the field (Hobbs, 2011b). “Potter views current momentum in research and scholarship in media literacy as validation for the longstanding value of the effects tradition ... Adopting this perspective removes more than 90 % of all the most interesting new ideas now emerging from new scholarship on this topic” (Hobbs, 2011a).

To my way of thinking, the very fact of debate on such an “exclusively” scholarly issue is worthy of respect. It allows not only to discuss some controversial aspects and heighten academic interest to the area but to jointly outline prospects of further development of the field. I feel like Russian media literacy scholarship lacks such “positively polemic” discourse.

Significant part of foreign reviews deals with different sides of media education and media literacy as a social movement. It includes (but is not limited to) considerations about curriculum design, teaching, and the assessment of media literacy (Christ, Potter, 1998), reflections on the opportunities and challenges faced by media literacy educators (Cappello et al., 2011), debates within the field (Hobbs, 1998), key obstacles to the development of media education in certain countries (Kubey, 1998) etc.

It is not surprising though that “there is very few research analyzing the development of media education in the CIS countries published in Western European countries” (Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2020: 65). Instead, western scholars focus primarily on rather broad issues concerning either their own countries or the whole world. The audience with its connection to the field of media literacy is one of them.

In fact, the audience is usually given full consideration within studies on post-truth and fake news. Among other things, the effects of elite discourse about fake news on the public's evaluation of news media are analyzed (Van Duyn, Collier, 2019: 29-31); attempts to evaluate the size of the online fake news consumers are made (Nelson, Taneja, 2018: 3720-3721); and the way audiences grapple with pervasive ambiguity as they navigate their media and communication resources is explored (Wenzel, 2019: 1987-1990). In terms of media education, the latter seems to be of crucial importance. How residents cycle between verifying information and disengaging from news to relieve stress, as well as possible pathways to resolve ambiguity are arguably the most urgent issues in the whole field nowadays.

Quite an interesting attempt to treat media literacy education as a useful lens for teaching students to be more crucial was made by Y. Friesem who described a semester-long undergraduate course designed to deconstruct information disorder in the post-truth era by looking at economics, ideology, and power relations (Friesem, 2019). Needless to say, social, political, and economic environment plays a great role in the way people interact with mass media. However, not only students (be they undergraduate or postgraduate) but more general (in terms of their age and occupation) public needs to be examined in such way, too. Moreover, unlike students, they may not know the first thing about crucial attitude to media messages; hence higher degree of vulnerability to fake news, disinformation, and propaganda.

I guess that one of the most effective tools to counteract negative attributes of post-truth age is fact-checking. In recent years, fact-checking as a main issue of media studies has grown in popularity. Sometimes, it is examined within the context of relationship between media literacy and fake news as one of the challenges that misinformation represents in the Internet era (Lotero-Echeverri et al., 2018: 295-316). Research on journalists perception of fact-checking has also become quite common (Mena, 2019: 657-672). Some scholars go further and aim at exploring the role of information format (print vs. video) and tone (humorous vs. nonhumorous) in shaping message interest and belief correction in the context of political fact-checking (Young et al., 2018: 49-75). Others argue that “strong social connections between fact-checkers and rumor spreaders encourage the latter to prefer sharing accurate information, making them more likely to accept corrections” (Margolin et al., 2018: 196). At last, ingenious attempts to check how fact-checkers check are also worth mentioning (Lim, 2018).

In this context, of crucial importance are explorations on how professionals recommend ordinary people to seek truth in the information age that is faced with overwhelming amounts of information, channels, problems of misinformation, and the spreading of false stories via social media (Berger et al., 2019). Though truth-seeking is one of the primary objectives inherent in higher education, the process for students may be less clear than it may be for trained academics or professors (Arth et al., 2019). On the other hand, not all faculty are trained enough to be able to teach students how to check facts. Sometimes, forward-thinking students, on the contrary, can teach them one thing or two.

Some scholars provide a foundation for evaluating media literacy efforts and contextualizing them relative to the current media landscape (Bulger, Davison, 2018). As we know, media literacy is traditionally conceived as a process or set of skills based on critical thinking. It has a long history of development aligned along the dialectic between protection and participation. Contemporary media literacy tends to be organized around five themes: youth participation, teacher training and curricular resources, parental support, policy initiatives, and evidence base construction. Programs like these have demonstrated positive outcomes, particularly in the case of rapid responses to breaking news events, connecting critical thinking with behavior change, and evaluating partisan content. However, media literacy programs also have their challenges. In general, there is a lack of comprehensive evaluation data of media literacy efforts. Some research (Wineburg, McGrew, 2016; 2017; Metzger et al., 2015) shows that media literacy efforts can have little-to-no impact for certain materials, or even produce harmful conditions of overconfidence. The longitudinal nature of both assessing and updating media literacy programs makes this a perennial struggle.

Because of these challenges, M. Bulger and P. Davison made recommendations for future work in the field: to develop a coherent understanding of the media environment; to improve cross-disciplinary collaboration; to leverage the current media crisis to consolidate stakeholders; to prioritize the creation of a national media literacy evidence base; and to develop curricula for addressing action in addition to interpretation (Bulger, Davison, 2018: 12-14). No doubt, all these steps are rather timely and important. However, as far as Russia is concerned, I would add at least three more. Firstly, practical measures should be taken in order to galvanize professional media community into action in this area – i.e. to see that journalists' code of ethics is observed. Secondly, practice of teaching media literacy needs to be broadened; this applies not only to universities but to schools as well. Last but not least, more state-of-the-art research on media literacy in Russia should be undertaken. It is time to identify what we know (and what we do not) about the field, where the gaps lie, why media literacy might fail, and what the surrounding environment contributes to successful media literate practice.

4. Results

Dynamic of the number of articles sampled is rather amazing. It is visualized on the Fig. 2.

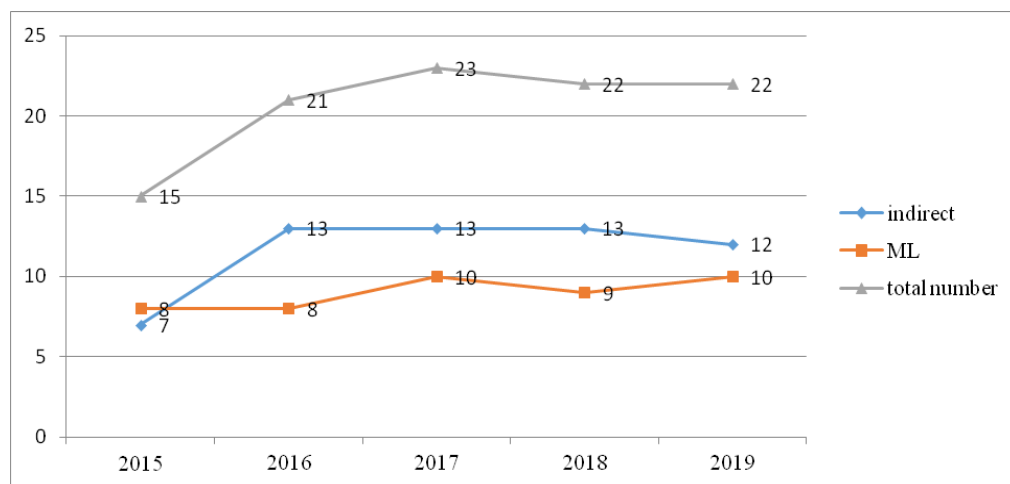


Fig. 2. Dynamic of publishing the articles (number of units)

Contrary to expectations, not a headlong growth but barely perceptible increase of publications' number is observed. Moreover, this increase may well be of random or fluctuating character. That being said, I admit that a kind of slow response effect may take place in this case: it is also conceivable that a surge of interest to the topic has already occurred; however, it has not been yet reflected in a number of articles published.

I also analyzed the authors corps. In total, 103 papers were authored by one hundred and fifty-four scholars. One hundred and four of them were "unique" – this number was calculated by excluding situations when the person authored more than one article.

Data presented on Fig. 3 allow saying that the number of "unique" authors writing on media literacy "directly" is bigger (both in absolute and percentage terms) than number of those creating

“indirect” research. To my mind, that makes perfect sense: the narrower focus inevitably demands the smaller circle of scholars specializing in it.

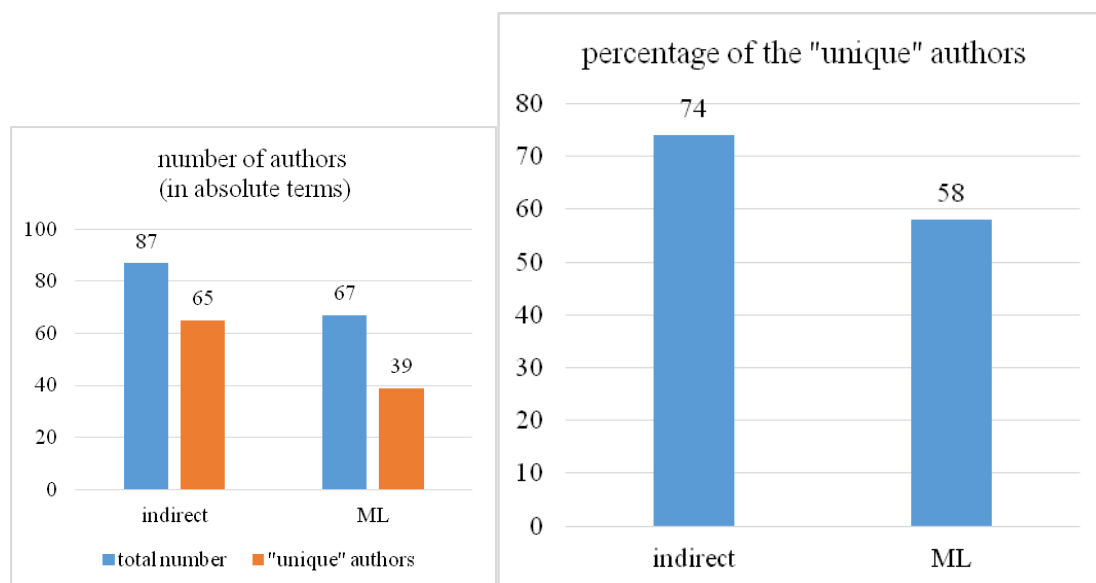


Fig. 3. The ratio of “unique” authors to their total numbers

Academic degree holders rate is also rather indicative. Even though the difference between authors of “indirect” and “ML” papers is not very substantial in absolute terms (see Fig. 4), higher scholarly status of those focusing on media education is more obvious in percentage terms (see Fig. 5).

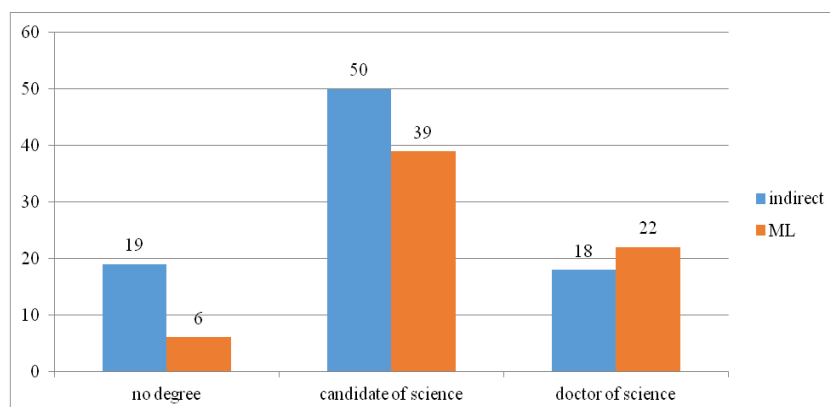


Fig. 4. Academic degree holders rate (number of authors)

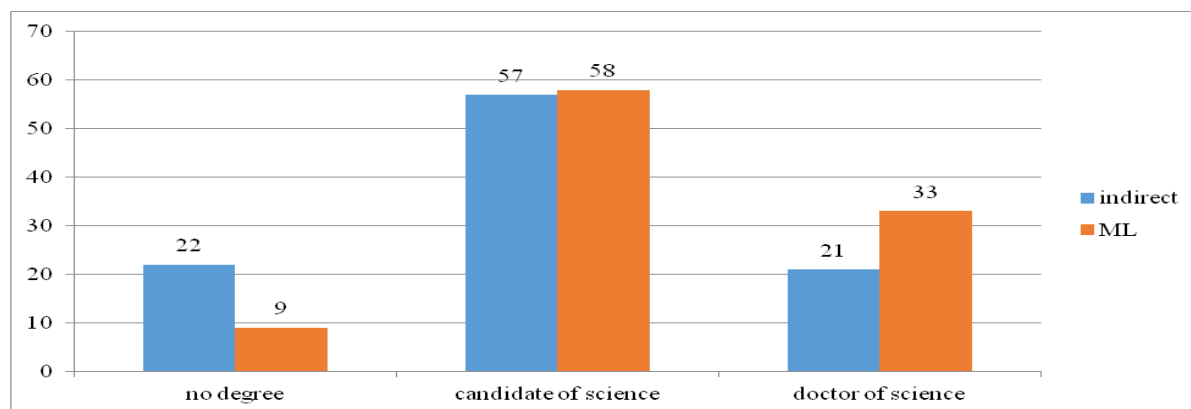


Fig. 5. Academic degree holders rate (percentage)

In this connection, it is also quite interesting to look at academic background of the authors working on ML-related issues. For perception convenience, I divided these data into two groups – i.e. for candidates (see Fig. 6) and doctors (see Fig. 7) of science.

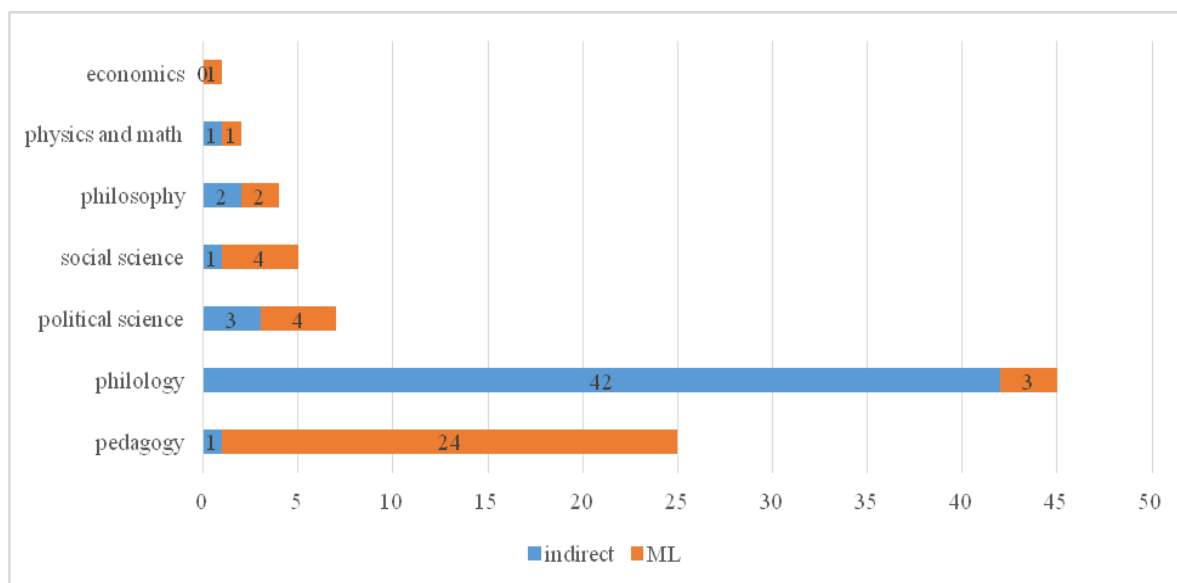


Fig. 6. Authors' academic background: candidates of science (number of authors)

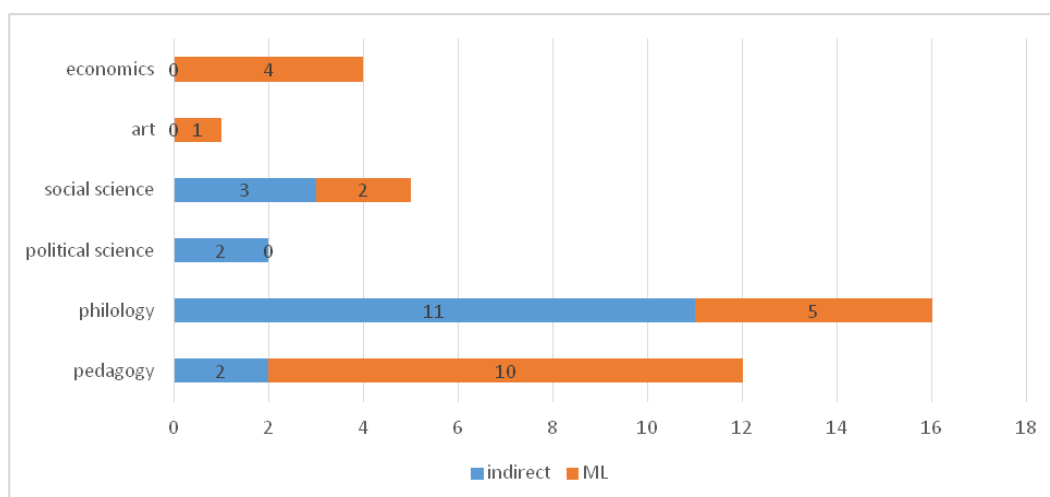


Fig. 7. Authors' academic background: doctors of science (number of authors)

Clearly, philologists – both candidates and doctors of science – primarily touch on “indirect” issues, whereas holders of degrees in pedagogy commonly focus on media education. Partly, it is due to the fact that there are more candidates and doctors of philology among faculty of Journalism at Lomonosov Moscow State University (they make up the bulk of the authors corps of the *Herald of Moscow University. Series 10: Journalism*), while scholars with pedagogical background prevail in “Media Education”.

It is quite revealing that, among representatives of areas other than pedagogy and philology, there are specialists in social science, philosophy, economics, art, and even physics but no psychologists (see Fig. 8). Taking into consideration not an insignificant political part of media literacy, the number of political scientists could also be bigger. It appears that both psychologists and political scientists might contribute much to media literacy scholarship.

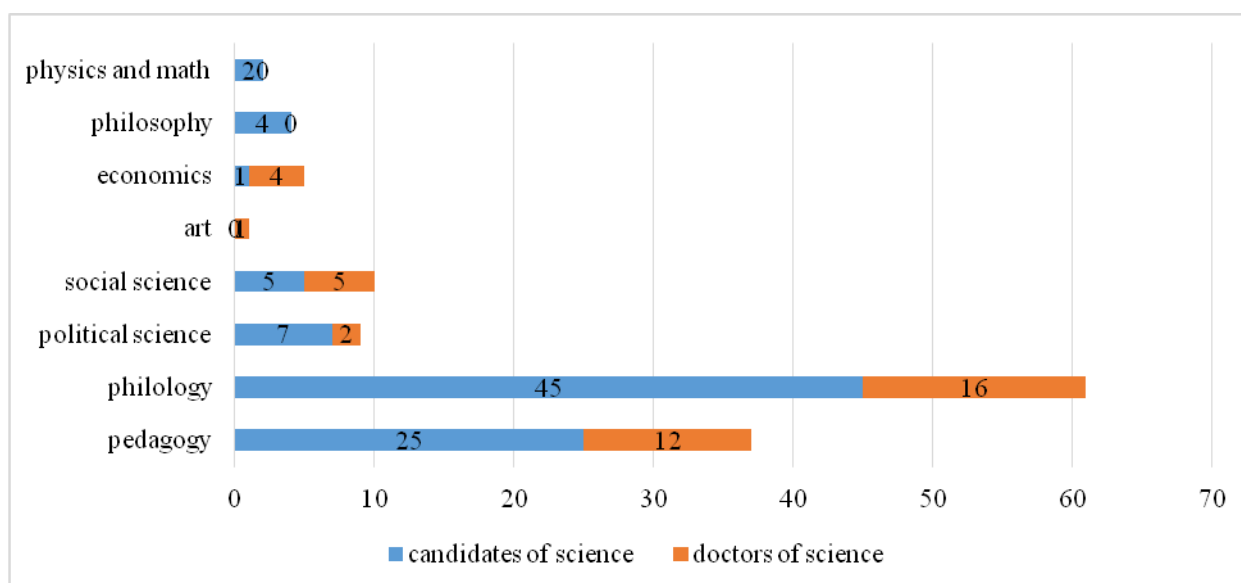


Fig. 8. Authors' academic background: candidates and doctors of science (number of authors)

Obviously, the sample of 103 articles is not enough to draw a global inference. However, I am sure that it allows making general conclusions, the more so because experience I have got verifies these observations in relation to other journals.

Two more aspects concerning the authors corps are also worth mentioning.

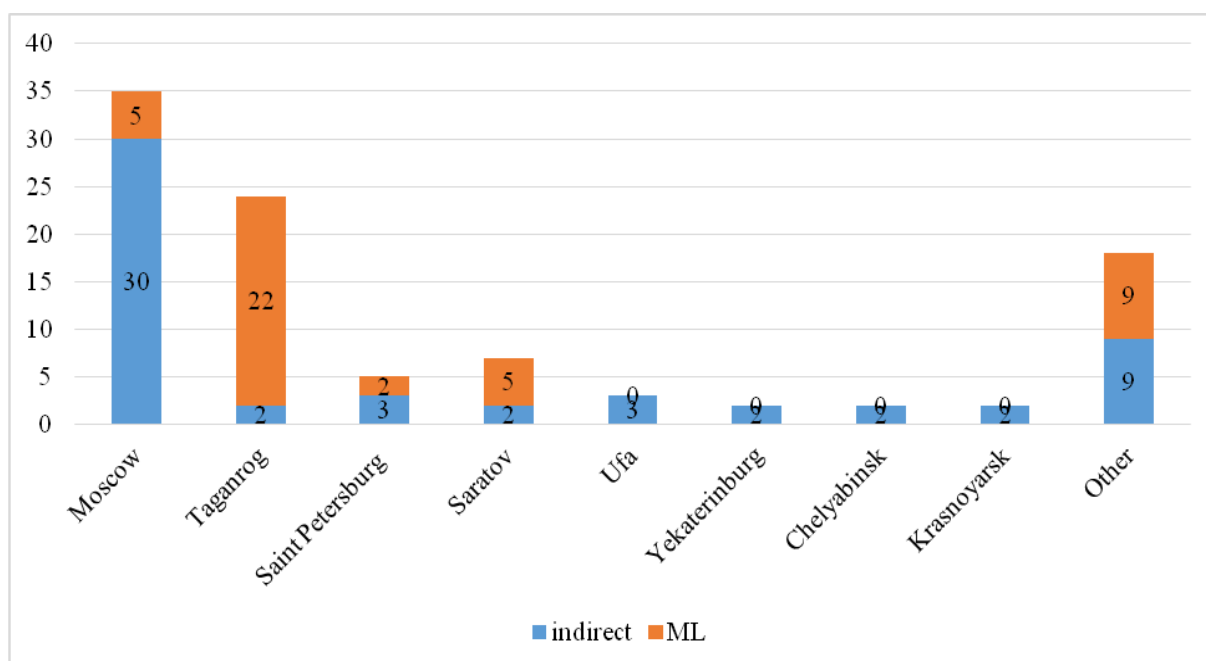


Fig. 9. The authors' places of residence (number of units)

On the Fig. 9, there are cities residents of which authored at least two articles analyzed. Among other reasons, leadership of Moscow can be explained by the fact that many institutions of higher education (e.g., Lomonosov Moscow State University, Higher School of Economics, Russian State University for the Humanities, the Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration, Moscow State Institute of International Relations, to name but a few) are situated in the capital of Russia; additionally, three out of seven journals under consideration are published there. Leading position of Taganrog is largely due to the strongest scholarly school of media literacy education existing there and similarly-named journal.

In this context, it is interesting to find out the percentage of so-called “local” authors – i.e. those whose residence matches address of the journal they publish their own articles in.

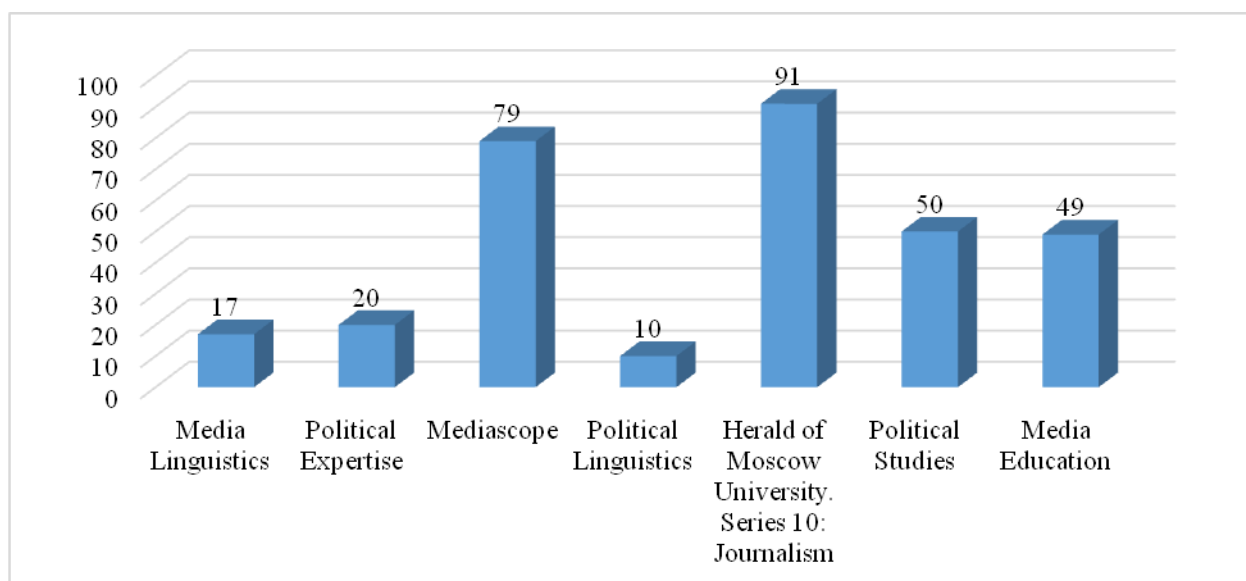


Fig. 10. Correspondence between the authors’ residence and journals’ places of issue (percentage)

As things stand now, nonresidents prevail in *Political Linguistics*, *Media Linguistics*, and *Political Expertise*. Again, it is fair only for articles selected for analysis. I have to admit, if all articles (no matter if they are about media or not) of the journals were considered, the final distribution might be different. However, data presented on Fig. 10 are helpful to understand where chances to find papers of the authors from provincial cities are higher.

The most important thing, though, is the focus of the articles. The whole variety of aspects touched upon was split into several blocks. Taking into account the difference in content of articles belonging to “indirect” and “ML” groups, the blocks were generated separately – for each of two groups.

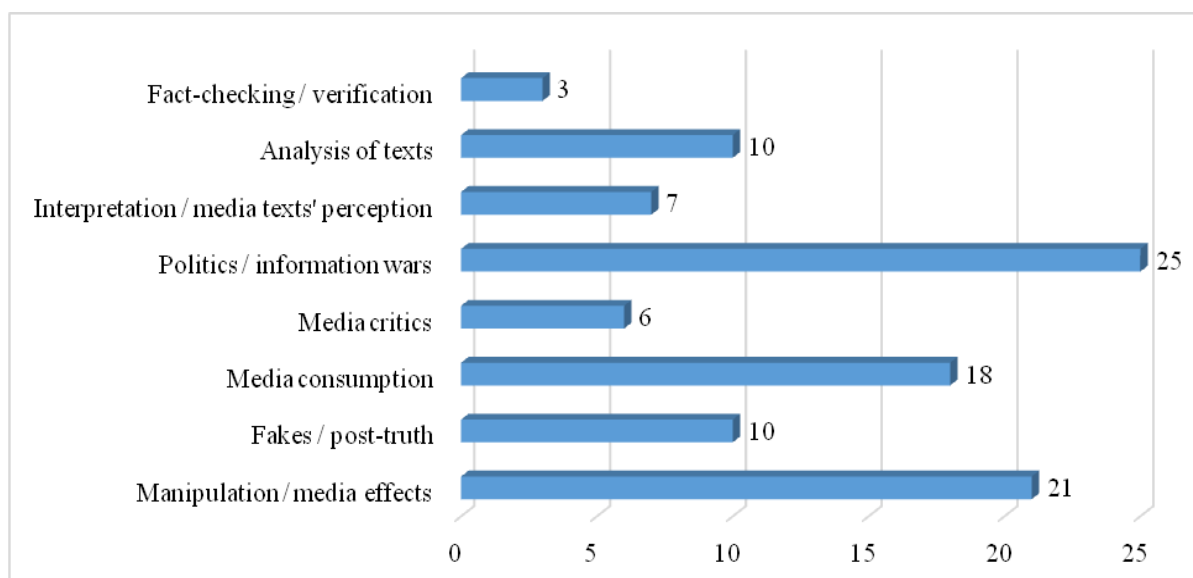


Fig. 11. Content blocks of “indirect” articles (% out of all articles analyzed)

As the Fig. 11 shows, a large portion of “indirect” articles deal with either political aspects of information warfare or ways to manipulate public conscience (25 % and 21 % respectively). Fully realizing the differences between manipulation and just media influence, in this case I decided to combine papers on such issues under one roof as quite often they were treated simultaneously –

within the same article. Contrariwise, despite the clearly manipulative nature of fakes and post-truth, papers centered around these phenomena were singled out of manipulation into separate block, because there were many cases when fake news and post-truth politics were considered on a standalone basis.

Surprisingly, fact-checking / verification became the least recently addressed issue. In other words, compared with other content blocks, ways to withstand multiple media manipulations attract scholars' attention less frequently, although it would seem to be a sphere where science could really benefit everyday life.

Even more surprisingly, fact-checking / verification issue has not been treated in "ML" group articles at all!

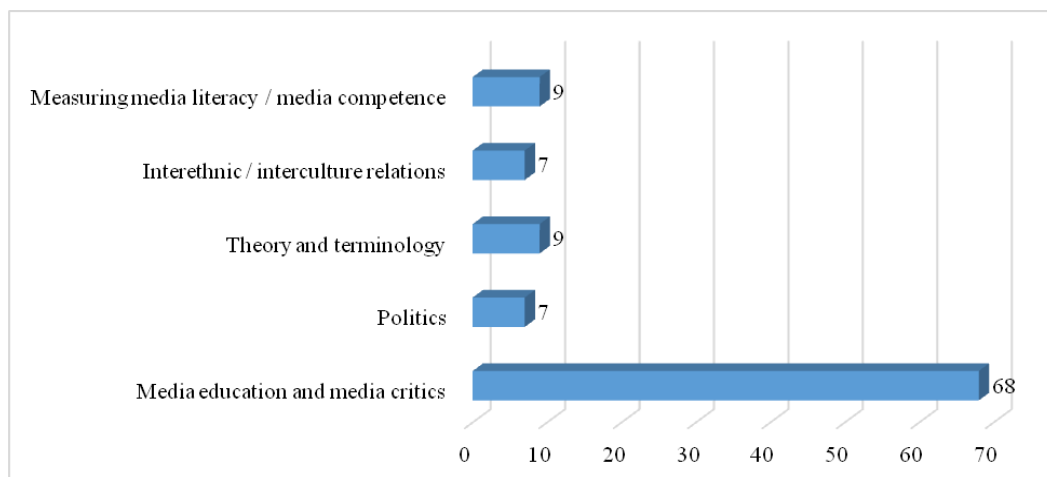


Fig. 12. Content blocks of "ML" articles (% out of all articles analyzed)

Articles on different aspects of media education and media critics lead there by a wide margin. An emphasis is primarily made on specifics of teaching media literacy to various categories of learners. Besides, certain theoretical and terminological aspects are discussed, attempts to measure the maturity level of media competences are made, and the role of media education in harmonization of interethnic and intercultural interaction is shown.

Conspicuous is the fact that, unlike in the "indirect" group, there are not so many papers on political strand of media literacy. However, I believe that (just as fact-checking) this is one of the most pressing issues nowadays because media literacy may well be deemed as a key factor of political culture formation.

Thematic features of the articles are confirmed by the results of keywords' analysis. Having brought together all keywords used in 103 articles, I selected those of them that were mentioned at least twice. Aggregate numbers of cases each of them was used in keywords sections stand before the words in [Tables 1](#) and [2](#).

Table 1. Keywords used in "indirect" articles (number of cases)

20 mass media	3 digital generation
13 media text	3 euphemism
11 political discourse	2 the English language
10 media discourse	2 impact
8 media consumption	2 disinformation
8 fake	2 identity
7 media linguistics	2 interpretation
7 manipulation	2 information technologies
5 manipulative	2 information
5 social networks	2 click bait
4 audience	2 lexical item
4 journalism	2 lie
4 the Internet	2 media education

4 media literacy	2 mediatization
4 news	2 German media
4 post-truth	2 online news
3 Internet media	2 generation Z
3 media competence	2 political communication
3 media critics	2 verbal influence
3 news outlets	2 Russia
3 news consumption	2 mass media language
3 television	

Fully compliant with the logic of dividing articles into two groups, such broad keywords as “mass media”, “media text”, “political discourse”, “media discourse”, “media consumption”, and “fake” appeared to be the most in-demand among authors of “indirect” research.

Table 2. Keywords used in “ML” articles (number of cases)

30 media education	4 mass media
17 media literacy	4 pupils
17 media competence	3 model
10 media	3 society
7 media text	3 students
7 media critics	2 English-speaking countries
6 students	2 interethnic tolerance
6 media culture	2 criteria of media competence
5 Russia	2 critical thinking
4 CIS	2 education
4 mass culture	2 synthesis
4 school	2 Uzbekistan
4 university	2 educational program

As one might expect, more field-specific “media education”, “media literacy”, “media competence”, “media critics”, and “media culture” took places on the top of keywords’ rating in relation to “ML” articles. Also of note is the fact that there were forty-three keywords used more than once within the “indirect” group and only twenty-six – in “ML” papers.

On the whole, allocation of articles according to their content and keywords correlates with the way they are distributed in terms of scholarly classification codes. It should be noted that different journals may use different classifiers. Universal Decimal Classification, State Classifier of Scientific and Technical Information, and codes of State Commission for Academic Degrees and Titles are just most commonly used of them. Having combined adjacent rubrics, I have got the following proportion (see [Fig. 13](#)).

Notice that sometimes certain rubrics are used a kind of by default. For example, almost all articles run by *Media Education* fall into “Public Education. Pedagogy” while papers published, say, in *Herald of Moscow University. Series 10: Journalism* are usually attributed to “Mass communication. Journalism. Mass Media”. However, even given such to a large extent “automated” distribution, final results seem to be quite indicative.

The [Fig. 13](#) shows that the majority of “indirect” articles refer to either journalism and mass media or linguistics and philology whereas “ML” publications – to pedagogy and education. At the same time, there are only seven papers that are “political” by their nature. In my view, this fact is another confirmation that such perspective has not received due regard of academia so far.

When it came to “ML” articles, I also analyzed their geographical focus. For instance, when it was about specifics of media education in our country, it fell into block “Russia”, if it dealt with, say, the US or Canada – into “Far abroad” group. Every time there was no clear territorial orientation, I marked the paper “not applicable”. As a rule, research considering some general issues without apparent reference to exact territory ran into “N/A” class.

Researchers, predictably, addressed the Russian practice and experience of media education most commonly. Quite surprisingly, far abroad appeared to be slightly more popular than Russia’s neighboring countries. Perhaps, the reason is that media education itself was born in the West – so, European and North American countries’ experience is still perceived as a benchmark.

It is also rather interesting to divide papers along age groups they are focusing on. For example, if the paper contained results of questioning students, it fell into “Youth / students” group; if it discussed media education at schools – into “Pupils”, etc.

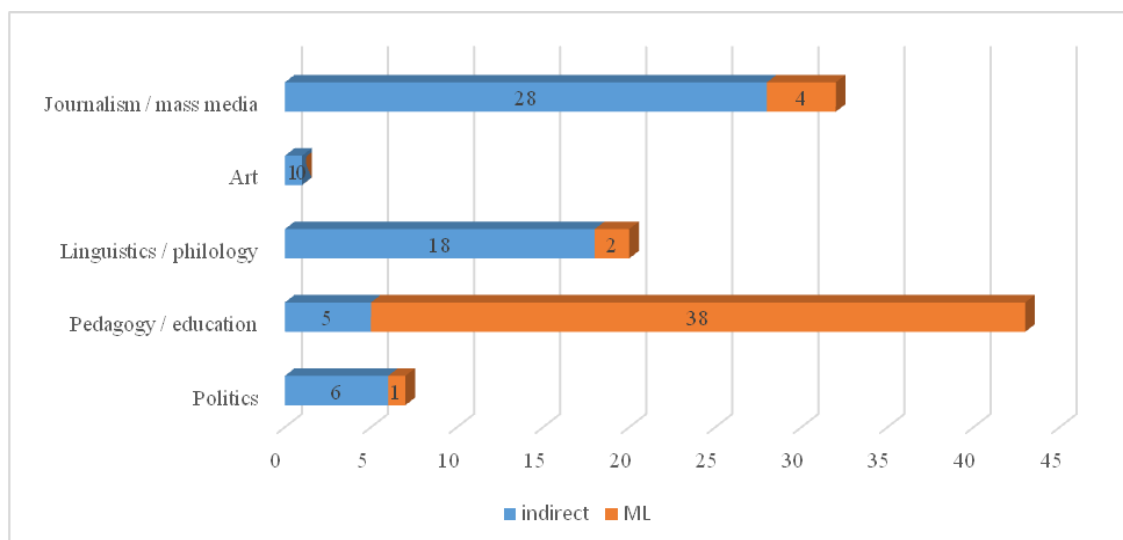


Fig. 13. Scholarly classifiers of the articles (number of units)

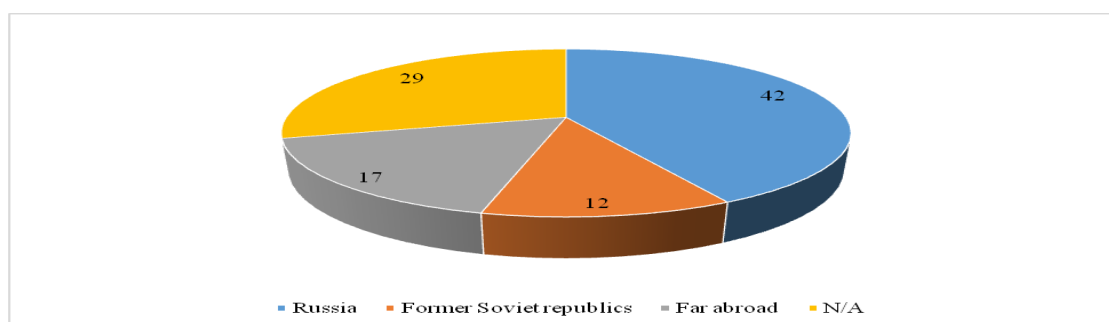


Fig. 14. Geographical focus of the articles (% out of all “ML” articles)

More than a third part of articles did not contain any references to age – in most cases, general issues were considered there. Running second to this were students and youth, third – pupils, and only fourth – grown-ups. Pre-school children have never been mentioned in this context. Personally, I find such age focus rather reasonable as top-priority efforts to form media competence should be aimed at younger generations first. However, older people need it too. Consequently, his age group deserves scholarly attention as well.

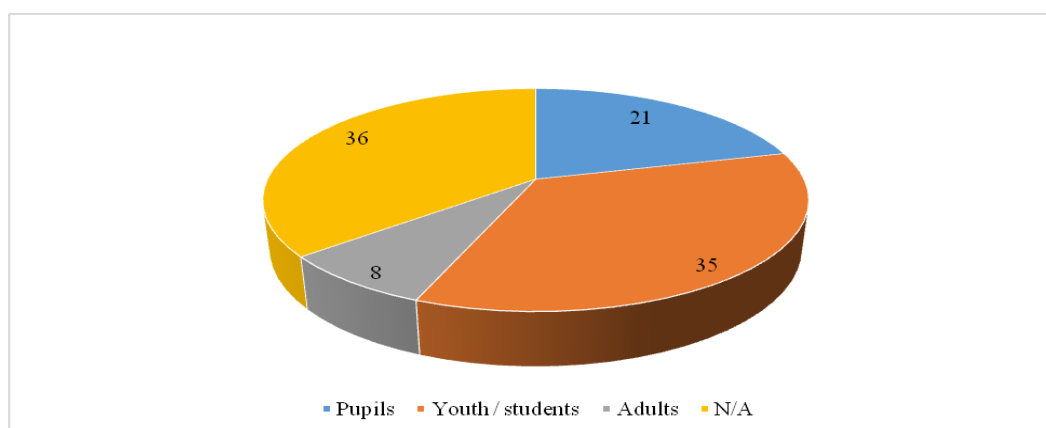


Fig. 15. Key age objects of the articles (%)

One of the most important features of an article is its structure. While analyzing this aspect of the papers selected, I bore in mind generally accepted tradition to divide the text into such sections as introduction, literature review, purpose and objectives of research, hypothesis, methods, results, discussion, and conclusion. Sometimes, articles did not have one (or more) of the parts mentioned but there was the relevant content itself: for example, “literature reviews” was not separated as a certain element; however, in fact the author analyzed his or her colleagues and predecessors’ findings. That was why here I divided papers not into “indirect” or “ML” types but according to the way aforementioned segments were presented: “section” means that there is a separate unit within the article; “in the text” implies that, even though the relevant content does exist, there is no special unit in the paper.

What do the data presented on Fig. 16 mean? Above all, those scholarly journals do not always place exacting demands on the papers’ structure. Far be it from me to assert whether it is good or bad, I just acknowledge the fact that only two elements out of eight – introduction and conclusion – are present in more than a half of articles. Literature review, methods, and results hurdle a 50-percent barrier only if counted together with “in the text” content. At last, hypothesis, discussion, and purpose / objectives seem to be rather exotic than common practice.

As against some other peculiarities analyzed above, structure-related observations may well be generalized beyond the sample: in one way or another, it is fair for all the articles published by the journals (no matter what they are about). Moreover, my research experience tells me that this is true for other editions as well. Again, refraining from making any evaluative judgments, I just suppose that lack of attention paid to structural elements of an article may be one of the main obstacles Russian scholars encounter while trying to become integrated into the world scholarly community. In many foreign journals, hypothesis formulation and discussion are often compulsory elements of research. That being the case, discussion is understood there to be not only an analysis of scholarships on the topic, but more a reflection on some controversial issues, virtues and drawbacks of your own research (with an emphasis on the latter), and prospects of its further development.

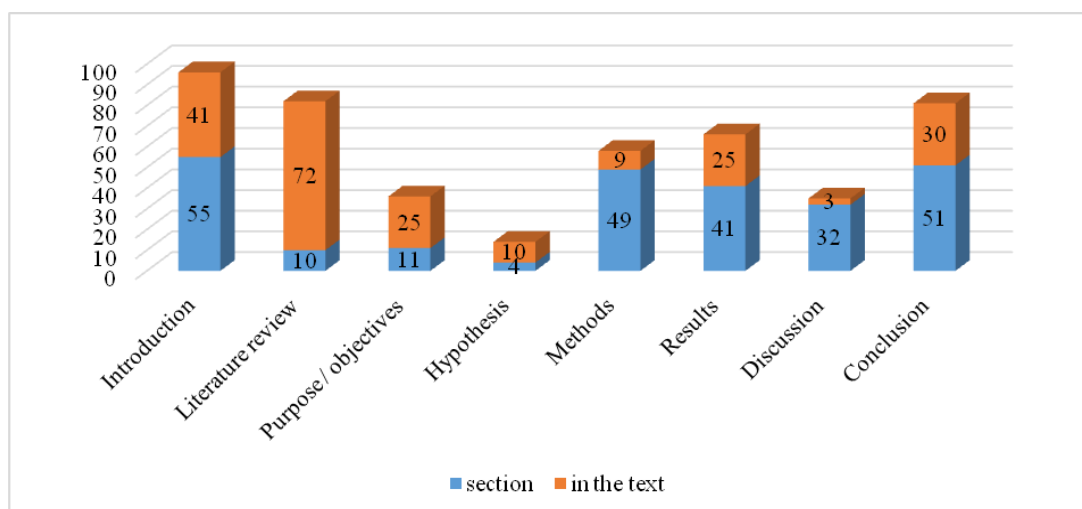


Fig. 16. Structural elements of the articles (% out of all cases)

It seems to me that, in foreign science, much more attention is paid to methods. As far as our sample is concerned, such sections occur in about a half of cases and sometimes are of “ceremonial” nature, which aggravates the situation. To illustrate, let me bring forward results of analysis of the papers’ methodological bases.

Having summing up all references to any of research methods, I have got the following setup (numbers denote how many times certain method was mentioned in all 103 articles):

- 13 questionnaire survey
- 11 content analysis
- 9 generalization
- 9 synthesis
- 8 classification
- 7 comparative analysis

- 5 theoretical analysis
- 4 discourse analysis
- 4 focus-group survey
- 3 analysis of scholarly literature
- 3 analysis of social surveys' results
- 3 data collection
- 2 analysis
- 2 linguistic analysis
- 2 online survey

What does this list imply? Obviously, so-called general scholarly methods (i.e. synthesis, analysis, comparison, generalization etc.) and research tools of human and social sciences (questionnaire and focus-group surveys) prevail. Only content analysis, discourse analysis, and linguistic analysis may pro forma be ascribed to specific methods used primarily within communication and media studies. Several methods at once generate doubts as to whether they are research methods in a strict sense (e.g., classification, theoretical analysis, analysis of scholarly literature, social surveys' analysis, data collection, cognitive linguistics, political linguistics, reviewing, critical re-evaluation, and some others).

It is also specific that (apart from methods) approaches, theories, and paradigms are barely referred to. Generally speaking, I found only two cases of using a theory – uses and gratification theory.

To my way of thinking, this can be an indication of either “ritualization” of methodological section of articles (sometimes one and the same wording could migrate from paper to paper) or insufficient methodological competence of some authors. Anyway, the methods-related sections of articles seem to be one of the most problematic and challenging parts of the papers analyzed.

Besides, I also paid attention to whether “ML” articles' authors used any definitions of media literacy (or, at least, explained what they meant by that) or not. As this phenomenon is relatively new for the Russian science, I deem it rather important for the authors to clarify what media literacy denotes within the framework of a certain study. In total, 45 “ML” papers contained only six explanations how an author understood media literacy or whose definition he or she drew on. To be clear, quite often authors used some definitions but only in rare cases they articulated which of them they actually preferred and why.

I believe that such practice of defining media literacy “by default” requires correction too because sometimes the term may be used in different meanings and this, in its turn, hobbles scholarly communication in the field.

To a large extent integrative towards all other aspects of the articles is their type. Initially, I took as a basis an approach of S.V. Chugrov who distinguished theoretical, empirical, state-of-the-art, polemic, popular scientific, and book review kinds of articles. Later, however, I decided to substitute an essay and abstract work for popular scientific type (as there were no examples of this kind).

Let me briefly explain what each of these types means. Theoretical articles, as a rule, consider some general issues pertinent to media literacy and education; empirical ones usually contain results of so-called “practical” research (i.e. polling, questionnaire, experiment etc). State-of-the-art papers describe the current situation in media education field in a certain country. Polemic publications involve their authors' discussion with scholars having opposing views on the issue. Opinion of a book published earlier is given within the review format.

Lastly, two more types I added myself. Essay is understood here as a piece of writing on a media-related subject when scholars present their ideas arbitrarily, i.e. without formulating a clear purpose, making references, reviewing literature etc. Abstract papers are usually made up of listing approaches, definitions, and classifications existing on a matter, but the author's point of view is not articulated at all. To some extent, abstract papers look like state-of-the-art ones; however, there is no clear goal to thoroughly analyze the current situation – instead, the author just mentions certain scholars' positions on an issue.

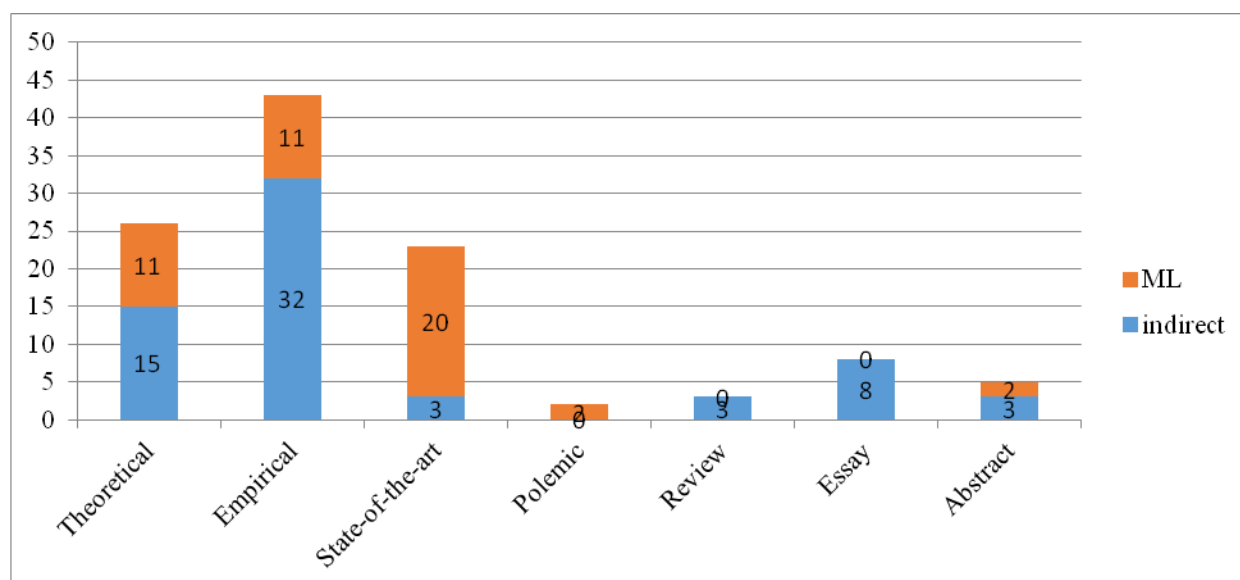


Fig. 17. Types of articles (number of units) (The fact that total number of units is a bit bigger than a total amount of articles is due to the situation when some papers were coded as having features of two types simultaneously)

Data presented on a Fig. 17 show predominance of empirical papers over all other types. Worthy of separate attention is that state-of-the-art articles take the third place (being not far below theoretical publications). Moreover, the bulk of them fall into the “ML” group. I suppose it may be due to the fact that Russian media education scholarly tradition is still lagging behind the European and North American ones – thus attempts to generalize foreign experience in this sphere seem quite reasonable.

Notable about this breakdown is tiny quantity of polemic stories. More than that, both of them were a kind of borderline, i.e. referred to two types in almost equal measure. Put differently, one of their parts contained indirect dispute with other scholar(s) while another bore the marks of state-of-the-art review. At the same time, polemic texts are much more common in the Western scholarships, let alone the rule of debating within discussion sections. One way or another, I find such type of articles not only interesting and ingenious, but essential to further development of the whole media education field of Russia.

Last but not least, literature and scholars most frequently cited. Having selected publications and authors that had been mentioned in references at least twice, I have got the following results (Table 3).

It makes sense that the number of Russian authors and publications cited at least twice in both cases (“indirect” and “ML” articles) is more than foreign ones. Besides, twofold preponderance of the number of foreign authors and publications cited in “ML” articles (82 persons compared with 45 in “indirect” papers; 40 and 19 publications respectively) is also striking. I believe that the reason of such ratio may be the same – a lag in the experience of development of Russian media education; hence the desire to make references to world renowned scholars (whereas this is not so crucial for “indirect” research).

Table 3. The most frequently cited authors and publications (number of cases)

	“Indirect” articles (58 items)		“ML” articles (45 items)	
	Total number	Lay out	Total number	Lay out
Foreign authors	45 persons	3 persons – 6 times each; 2 persons – 5 times each; 2 persons – 4 times each; 12 persons – 3 times each; 26 persons – 2 times each.	82 persons	1 person – 15 times; 1 person – 13 times; 1 person – 8 times; 1 person – 6 times; 1 person – 5 times;

				2 persons – 11 times each; 2 persons – 7 times each; 4 persons – 4 times each; 12 persons – 3 times each; 57 persons – 2 times each.
Russian authors	103 persons	1 person – 23 1 person – 12 times; 1 person – 11 times; 4 persons – 8 times each; 2 persons – 7 times each; 5 persons – 6 times each; 9 persons – 5 times each; 6 persons – 4 times each; 25 persons – 3 times each; 49 persons – 2 times each.	90 persons	9 persons – 10 times each; 15 persons – 5 – 9 times each; 9 persons – 4 times each; 12 persons – 3 times each; 45 persons – 2 times each.
Foreign publications	19 items	4 items – 3 times each; 15 items – 2 times each.	40 items	1 item – 7 times each; 1 item – 6 times each; 1 item – 5 times each; 1 item – 4 times each; 5 items – 3 times each; 31 items – 2 times each.
Russian publications	45 items	1 item – 6 times each; 1 item – 4 times each; 12 items – 3 times each; 31 items – 2 times each.	80 items	1 item – 7 times each; 2 items – 6 times each; 1 item – 5 times each; 7 items – 4 times each; 21 items – 3 times each; 48 items – 2 times each.

If exact names of the most often quoted authors are to be mentioned, within “indirect” articles they are:

among foreign scholars: T.A. van Dijk, N. Howe, W. Strauss (6 times each), M. McLuhan, J. Baudrillard (5 times each);

among Russian scholars: E.L. Vartanova (21 citations), A.P. Korochensky (12), J.M. Dzyaloshinsky (11), A.V. Kolesnichenko, M.M. Nazarov, A.A. Tertychny, A.V. Tolokonnikova (8), D.V. Dunas, T.S. Cherevko (7).

Within “ML” articles they are:

among foreign scholars: D. Buckingham (15), W.J. Potter (13), R. Hoobs, L. Masterman (11), A. Silverblatt (8), C. Bazalgette, U. Eco (7);

among Russian scholars: A.V. Fedorov (124), I.V. Chelysheva, A.A. Levitskaya (40), G.V. Mikhaleva (20), N.I. Gendina (18), A.V. Sharikov (14), A.P. Korochensky (13), J.M. Dzyaloshinsky (11), E.V. Muriukina (10), N.B. Kirillova (9), I.V. Zhilavskaya (8), E.L. Vartanova (8).

As one can see, Moscow residents prevail among most frequently cited authors within “indirect” articles, while representatives of Taganrog media education school of thought (plus scholars from some other regions) dominate among most often quoted authors within “ML” papers. To a large extent, it can be explained by so-called specialization of leading scholarly journals mentioned above.

5. Conclusion

Those were the main structural and content features of the articles sampled. Taking all the aforesaid into consideration, the following inferences may be drawn.

At first, there are two prominent scholarly centers of media education research in Russia. Taganrog research team headed by A.V. Fedorov is the most influential and acknowledged of them. “Media Education”, a specialized journal of the field, is published by scholars belonging to this center. Wider range of issues is considered within Moscow cluster of media-related research (mainly faculty of Journalism Department, Lomonosov Moscow State University, led by E.L. Vartanova). “Herald of Moscow University. Series 10: Journalism” and “Media Scope” journals are published there.

Not only a spectrum of issues analyzed but also the angle they are explored from differentiate these two lines of media education research in Russia. Media educational and media critical approaches are more popular within the first of them, whereas analysis of linguistic ways to affect public conscience and peculiarities of media consumption by different social groups are emphasized within the second one. Basically, such a notional division may be extended to the whole corps of articles.

At second, content analysis of articles induces me to believe that methodology is one of their gravest flaws. Such sections are few and far between and, even if they are present, methods are mentioned in there that were not necessarily used de facto. Preponderance of general scholarly principles, the fact that a range of methods is mentioned “automatically” and migrates from one text to another forced me to record some kind of ritualization when it comes to writing methodological parts of research.

In most cases, there are no strict requirements for the articles’ structure. Such elements as hypotheses, discussion, purpose, and objectives may be found much more rarely than other inalienable parts of research. Along with methodological weakness, this is arguably one of the main hindrances on Russian scholars’ way to world media education community.

Lastly, at third, it is hard to ignore that, contrasted with highly popular pedagogical and linguistic approaches, political science perspective on media literacy to a significant degree takes a back seat. It is not because there are only a few political scientists who focus on these issues; the bigger problem is that political aspects of media education do not attract much scholarly attention. However, it is a fact of life that political science angle becomes to be of vital importance: the scale and consequences of politically motivated manipulation of public opinion explicitly require thorough scholarly interpretation. In particular, there are still no solid and convincing explanations of media effects’ limits, factors of their performance, their political ramifications, and – most crucially – ways to counteract them. I think these are possible directions Russian media literacy research should further develop in.

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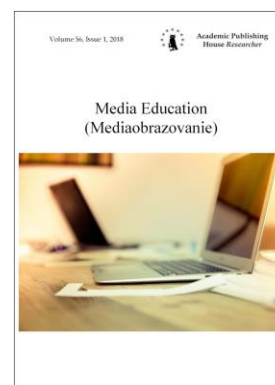
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Digitalization of the Communication Environment as an Incentive for Innovation in Media Education

Galina Melnik ^{a, *}, Konstantin Pantserev ^a

^a St. Petersburg State University, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article discusses research approaches to media developing in the digital era. It also studies the causes of reorganization of the global information space and the change in the content and presentation of information in network media. On the one hand, the paper reveals the contradictions of the functioning of mass media in the digital environment as well as the shortcomings and hazards posed by the content of uncontrolled media. On the other hand, the advantages and opportunities for the development of the media industry are also noted. Modern information and telecommunication technologies have led to unprecedented globalization of journalistic activity, as well as major change in the information staff training.

The article discusses: 1) the impact of quality conversions of the media, influenced by global competition, on the formation of qualifications of media professionals; 2) the influence of the modified concepts of information production on media specialist training system; 3) a change in competencies that contribute to optimization of the relationship “subject of information – consumer”. Media education is developing in accordance with the media industry. Thus, universities are restructuring their work with students in order to teach them how to work in the digital environment. Universities are also searching for resources to update journalism academic programs in accordance with current journalism tendencies. The issue of a multi-skilled or versatile journalist remains debatable. Finally authors come to the conclusion that in contemporary labor market, there is a demand in various specialists, whose profession is to collect and interpret information.

Keywords: digital age, media, social media, social responsibility, media education, competence.

1. Introduction

A change in the concept of news production in the digital environment has opened up new opportunities for reporting on events. This, in turn, requires new researches of news value and raises the question of efficiency of new and old forms of presenting information to an audience (Schepilova et al., 2019; Van der Haak et al., 2012; Vartanova, 2019; Vyrkovskii et al., 2017).

According to the latest studies in media production and media education, modern journalism combines traditional and new technologies in the search, processing and transmission of information, relies on social networks and citizen journalism. The main resources of the Russian Internet are *Vkontakte*, *YouTube* and *Odnoklassniki*.

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: g.melnik@mail.spbu.ru (G. Melnik)

Many Russian newspapers or magazines, have on-line-versions, *Telegram* channels, accounts on *Facebook*, *Twitter*, *Instagram*, and even *Odnoklassniki*. The media master social interaction tools on Internet platforms, providing maximum accessibility to any kind of information. The media have accounts on social networks and instant messengers, often several platforms simultaneously (Amzin et al., 2010; Meijer, 2013). Experts in mass media theory, who observe the work of Russian media, noted new trends in the development of the digital information area. These trends are as follows: a growth in popularity of Smart TV; search of solutions for non-linear consumption of television content; spread of mobile applications; hybridization of various types of texts (MSU) (Vartanova, Tamas, 2018). Internet users' expectations for information content and broadcast channels are getting higher. About 93 % of Smartphone owners use instant messengers such as *WhatsApp* (69 %), *Viber* (57 %) and *Skype* (45 %).

All over the world, the popularity of print media, television and radio is decreasing, while the popularity of online news is growing. Likewise, in Russia, news websites, analytical and official websites are the main source of information for respondents of all age categories (Vartanova, Tamas, 2018). Television is in second place. According to a research conducted by RBC, the number of media-active Russians aged 16–29 is 92 %, and aged 50–54 is 84 %. The Internet media activity growth index is the highest among all media channels (the index is +62 percentage points) (Media..., 2019).

According to the aggregate data of *Roskomnadzor*, *Mediascope*, *Liveinternet*, *Similarweb*, *Brand Analytic* and catalogs of regional publications, there are 25600 online publications in Russia alone. A research "Media Consumption in Russia", conducted by the Deloitte CIS research centre, showed that in 2018, the average media reach of the Russian audience was 62 % (Social..., 2018).

The scientific community is widely discussing the future of the Russian media industry (Goodman, Steyn, 2017; Jandrić, 2019; Vartanova et al., 2015) and new approaches for preparing journalists for work in the digital environment (Nigmatullina, 2018).

Researchers and practitioners admit that the boundaries of the media system and the list of professions demanded by the media industry have fundamentally changed. In the information market, there is a sharp growth in the demand for multi-skilled specialists who are able to collect and "pack" information in different forms and post it on different platforms so that it is easily consumed by the audience (Josephi, 2008; Harlanova, 2019). This requires an update of the journalist training system (Nigmatullina, 2018; Pasti et al., 2012; Vartanova, 2018), as well as effective and efficient teaching. Different approaches to teaching journalists are proposed by the scientific community (Shesterkina, 2016; Tulupov, 2019).

The major issue for the theory of communication and media education is described in an article by V.V. Tulupov: "Is online journalism (and research approaches to it) totally different from traditional journalism, or does it contain problems traditional for journalism theory" (Tulupov, 2019).

Multimedia environment requires review of the components of organizational, creative and production activities of journalists (Urazova, 2011), and consequently new qualifications that will be acquired in the specialized universities.

2. Materials and methods

The analysis of data, derived from sociometry systems that record the state of media production and media consumption and from scientific papers on media education, revealed the factors that define changes in teaching young journalists. Different services and tools, which provide teachers with the possibility to work remotely and offer various ways of remote communication with an audience, were examined. The media resources used in education were analyzed.

To reach the goal and meet the objectives, the current study is based on the classic scientific papers on media education, primarily, the ones of the main ideologist and head of the leading national scientific school A.V. Fedorov (Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2020; Chelysheva, 2006) and innovative works in the field of communication and journalism (Baran, Davis 2012; Burns, 2017 et al.; Tulupov, 2019; Vartanova 2019).

3. Discussion

Photos, videos, “infographics, instantly updating social network ribbons erase the boundaries between verbal, visual, audio and other components” (Kokhanova, 2017; Misonzhnikov, 2017) and change the media profile. Texts are acquiring the properties of rapidity, transmedia, interactivity, multimedia, hypertextuality, mobility, and personalization (Gasnov, 2017). It is now required to create multifunctional media texts that meets these parameters. A creator of texts has to have multimedia skills, i.e. the ability to produce materials for any media (Yakovleva, Fomina 2020). According to K.R. Nigmatullina, a university graduate is also required to be able to examine the audience and control audience’s attention and involvement, create media projects from scratch, know the main ways of monetizing in media, promote texts and media and use computer technologies at all stages from text creation to analytics and editorial content management (Nigmatullina, 2018).

According to S.L. Urazova, “the production of information is based on the categories of producing an intellectual product on the basis of newly generated knowledge, where the main criteria are novelty, informativeness, objectivity and reliability of facts and events” (Urazova, 2011: 133).

With the change in text creation methods, journalists are now required to have multimedia thinking. Multichannel media and metamedia utilize sound, animation, hyperlinks, large electronic archives and various ways of getting feedback from the audience. The process of collecting and processing information in the media sphere is becoming automated. Convergence media combine diverse types of information and information distribution channels. Paper-based media are disappearing. In 2019, mobile platforms accounted for about 25 % of the whole media traffic. Future journalists now have to be able to create texts for mobile applications (Baranova, 2017). The following competencies were included in university academic programs: a journalist is able to use modern devices and information and communications technology in their professional activities, able to use modern communications technology in work, able to create an image that meets the requirements of a channel/program, etc.

Media are currently undergoing major changes, influenced by marketing tools (Bagrin, 2019; Bolshakova, 2012; Bondarenko, Azizov 2014; Neti, 2011; Zlobina, Zavrzhina, 2015), which include: 1) website (online chat; callback widget; analytics); 2) search engine marketing, SEJ and SEO (digital display advertising; SEO (search engine optimization) helps to increase the visibility of a website in the search engine by users’ request keywords); 3) SMM; 4) email newsletters (or email marketing); 5) content marketing; 6) SERM (Danilina, Deinekin, 2014). SERM (search engine reputation management) is aimed at enhancing brand credibility. SMM, which became popular in journalism, helps periodicals to expand their audience by attracting new friends from social networks. Journalist training programs now include disciplines related to understanding the marketing mechanisms of the existence of information.

Social media marketing (SMM) is a new direction in the educational system (Olshansky, 2017). Students acquire skills of attracting audience’s attention to mass media brand and information products. SMM is studied as a set of tools aimed at involving the audience in business activity. Future journalists learn new methods of work with an audience, for example, by using word of mouth (viral marketing). This requires not only efforts to enhance the credibility of a particular media, but also promotion on *Twitter*, *Facebook*, *YouTube*. According to some researchers, online content created by professional journalists is surrounded by Internet blogs, personal online diaries and information platforms of several co-authors, and competes with them for audience reach (O’Sullivan, Carr, 2018). Education is aimed at developing the capability to work in a tough competitive environment, as university graduates have to compete with freelancers, bloggers, and all kinds of leaders. Trendsetters and influencers, who regularly communicate with their subscribers, set cultural trends, increase audience engagement, and interact directly with the source, helping innovators and early adapters tell their story to the masses through social media (Vypryazhkin, 2018). Technologies can replace human in certain areas. Today, robots capable of collecting information on a certain topic can take part in creation of news (Zamkov et al., 2017), and compete with journalists.

Official media and web platforms often cooperate. News from social networks instantly gets into official media, where users see images and eyewitness reports on events in real time. Traditional media are forced to change their working hours because of the competition in the information market. There is a high demand in creative specialists who are able to find new

impulses and ideas in communication with the audience, create new trends and implement them in business projects in the media sphere.

In pursue of audience attention, editors use gamification techniques, offer game products and tests that give basic information about current events, use multimedia features and adaptive web design, and their own news feeds. Often, short video lectures, audio programs and photo galleries are posted on websites in addition to journalistic texts (Pavlushkina, 2018). This increases audience's intellectual curiosity. However, in pursuit of audience expansion, editors use clickbait, i.e. sensationalized headlines, as well as attractive and provocative images to increase the number of views and clicks. The sensational headlines are often misleading and do not match the content. Editorial staff are mostly targeted at frivolous tastes of the audience.

The way people read and consume information is changing dramatically (Krajnikova, 2017: 167-170; Kulchitskaya et al., 2016; Poluehtova, 2016). This change is caused by a sharp increase in information flows over the past two decades. As a result, there seem to be a variety of information in today's media space, but in fact there is information deficit. The mental perception of texts is changing. Readers are losing the sense of quantity, cohesion and coherence. They are experiencing cognitive decline as well as attention, memory, thinking and imagination deterioration.

Marketing tools are becoming important work tools for modern journalists. Therefore, journalist training programs include classes that give students the financial and economic knowledge and raise their awareness of the market (Vikhrova, 2018).

Use of marketing tools gives the media the following advantages and opportunities: "1) targeting, i.e. coverage of the target audience (in terms of geography, time, theme); 2) tracking system, used for observing users' actions on a website and promote a web page, product and marketing in accordance with the results; 3) flexibility (enabling to start, adjust and stop the advertising campaign immediately); 4) interactivity that gives a consumer the opportunity to interact with the seller and the product, explore and sometimes try the product (for example, demo versions or free first chapter of a book), and, if suitable, purchase it; 5) ability to post a significant amount of data (including graphics, sound, special effects); 6) effectiveness of information dissemination and collection; 7) reduction of transformation costs" (Bagrin, 2019; Bolshakova, 2012).

In the digital era, the functions of information sector specialists are also changing. For example, the specialists are acquiring the qualities of multimedia storytellers or information directors, or mastering the genre of talk shows. Universities and centers that train journalists are forced to catch up with information organizations and adapt to market demands.

There is a problem of developing digital media capacity and competence among young specialists. It is no coincidence that formulations of the universal (basic) competence of the digital economy have been developed and included in the standard of St. Petersburg State University in order to implement the "Digital Economy of the Russian Federation" document in educational programs. For example, the competence for bachelor degree programs is formulated as follows: "Able to understand the nature and importance of information in the development of society, use the basic methods of obtaining and working with information, taking into account modern technologies of the digital economy and information security." And for master degree programs: "Able to use the methods of obtaining and working with information in their work, taking into account modern technologies of the digital economy and information security" (Introduction..., 2020).

The following new courses are being developed: "Digital Culture: Technologies and Security" and "Digital Transformations in the Modern Information Society", "Language of Effective Communication in the Digital Society", "Convergence Technologies of Today's Editorial Staff", "Creating Text for Online Media", as well as forms of presenting education materials to students (Fateeva, 2015).

Journalists (and now also bloggers), in an attempt to gain more popularity and increase the number of views, often give unverified, provocative and even dangerous information. In contrast to this tendency to share pseudo-news with a target audience via certain channels, a counter direction called fact check, was formed (countering to fake news). As a result, new disciplines, which aim at teaching students how to spot fake information, are included in university programs.

Thus, modern journalistic education is "a combination of educational, pedagogical, information technologies based on the approaches of personal activity and competency and

functioning as the main mechanism for educating and upbringing a media professional” (Shesterkina, 2016).

According to E.L. Vartanova, based on the media industry trends, it is necessary to develop three following types of technologies in a modern university: “educational” (that is, technology use in education), “pedagogical” (i.e. technology use in pedagogy) and “information and education technologies”. The technological process involves, in her opinion, “the functioning of all the personal, instrumental and methodological tools that are involved in the educational process of journalists” (Vartanova, 2018).

According to K.R. Nigmatulina, a graduate should have the following skills: knowledge of the digital media market; digital skills; design skills for production of complex digital products; skills in promoting and managing digital media projects; knowledge of communication strategies in digital media, etc. (Nigmatullina, 2018).

The question of journalist competence and skills in the convergence era remains open. However, more and more scientists agree that the model of a multi-skilled universal journalist is not excellent. As rightly pointed out by Baranova, “Multimedia projects, for example, the ones that are popular today, are never created by one person. They are produced by different specialists – reporters, professional photojournalists, designers, editors, and everyone does their own thing” (Baranova, 2017).

Recent surveys of respondents from 60 journalism schools from 25 European countries, which are members of the European Journalism Training Association (EJTA), revealed a clear trend in the professional mindset of journalists, identified as a return to basics. N. Drock, the head of the EJTA Journalism Professional Competencies Project, explains this phenomenon as journalists’ longing for information reliability, social responsibility, analytical skills and a sense of importance of information, related to Transparency and Navigation.

4. Results

The results of this study were similar to those of other surveys where journalists claim that they stick to the principles of “being reliable employees, being able to select verified information, work efficiently and proactively, work under time pressure, separate the main and secondary facts, explain and interpret the selected information, being aware of current events, being ready to accept criticism and take responsibility for their materials, have freelance skills” (Kolomiets, 2019).

Webinars and video seminars are gaining popularity, which shows people’s interest in interactive learning, especially during quarantine period. The coronavirus pandemic, which has spread across almost the whole world, has caused a surge in learning how to use technologies and programs for working remotely. Students and teachers have been actively using new interactive platforms for real-time communication and collaboration. The information service market already offers more than a hundred information platforms that give teachers the opportunity to conduct video conferences, round table discussions, meetings, briefings, consultations, chat games, surveys and questionnaires. Free programs and apps for organizing online meetings are available on any operating system - PC, Mac, Linux, iOS and Android. Live streaming service is available on such resources as YouTube. MegaFon telecom operator offers packages for video conferences and webinars. Google has opened free access to Hangouts Meet video conferencing. Meetings between professors and students are also organized on other platforms: *Apache OpenMeetings*, *BigBlueButton*, *ClickMeeting*, *JITSI MEET*, *MONECLE*. During the pandemic, professors and teachers have been promptly mastering multifunctional tools for online education, demonstration and discussion of media content. It is important that in the process of communicating, the participants of the meetings are overcoming psychological barriers in managing the audience and their emotions.

It is essential to note that professional media education is becoming more purposeful and meaningful.

5. Conclusion

Modern information and telecommunication technologies have led to unprecedented globalization of journalism and caused a significant change in the information staff training.

Media education is developing in accordance with the media industry. Universities are restructuring their work with students in order to teach them how to work in the digital era. With new technologies and gadgets, it is now possible to create an interactive (journalistic) model of

media education that uses business and role-playing games, group discussions, design and modeling. This direction of training has proved its efficiency.

However, along with obvious advantages, these trends cause many problems and contradictions that have manifested themselves over the past decade.

The issue of a multi-skilled, versatile journalist remains debatable. In today's labor market, there is a demand in various specialists whose profession is to collect and interpret information. However, some professors and scientists support training of multi-skilled specialists.

At the same time, the professional community understands that in the pursuit of innovative trends and audience interest satisfaction, one still must not forget about the basic professional qualifications that have been developed over decades and have proved their efficiency.

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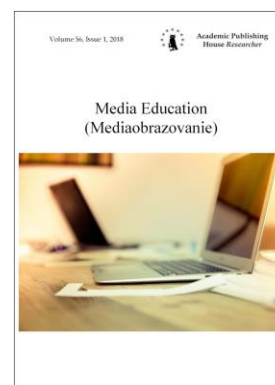
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Digital Storytelling *Vkontakte* as a Device for Media Competence Development of Modern Schoolchildren

Olga Petrova ^{a, *}, Irina Belyakova ^a

^a University of Tyumen, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article addresses the issue of media competence development in teenagers through digital storytelling using a social networking service. It highlights the importance of finding solutions to change passive media behavior of young Internet users. The study of research papers on the active user's position sheds light on the mechanisms stimulating media creativity. The conclusion is drawn that such mechanisms correlate with those of professional journalistic work.

The article studies modern tendencies in media journalism, particulars of multimedia storytelling and creative resources of multimedia formats. The social networking site *Vkontakte* is considered as a suitable platform for creating media projects.

A new methodological guidance on the technology of creating a multimedia article in *Vkontakte* is presented. The article describes major stages and gives methodological recommendations for the project called "A Hero of our Time".

The results of testing the media education technology are commented on. The analysis of questionnaires and multimedia articles helps evaluate changes in the media competence of schoolchildren and outline a number of difficulties. Working with images and ideas and using the technique of multimedia storytelling is believed to develop practice-operational and creativity competences and to influence the idea of media sharing on social networks.

Keywords: media competence, journalism, digital storytelling, hero, social media, site *Vkontakte*.

1. Introduction

The discussions of the issue of developing media competence in schoolchildren have been long and fruitful. Templates of Russian media education (Media..., 2010) have been developed, collections of programs and methodological recommendations on organizing majors at schools are being published, media educators are sharing their research results (Chelysheva, 2014; Fedorov, 2007; ImPRO..., 2015; Iwanicka, 2018; Park, 2017, School..., 2015, etc.). However, the sphere of media education and media pedagogy is one of the most changeable and innovative as it has to constantly adapt to rapid changes in the media environment.

Analysts state that Russians extensively use social networks (in 2018, 47 % of the population had network accounts) and point out that, in 2019, social networks and blogs were gaining more and more credence among young people becoming an important source of news (Internet..., 2019; The study..., 2020). The top three websites most popular with Russian youngsters are *vk.com*,

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: petrova-o-a@yandex.ru (O. Petrova), i.e.belyakova@utmn.ru (I. Belyakova)

youtube.com and yandex.ru. The most popular network among teenagers aged 14-17 is *VKontakte*, vk.com. (The audience..., 2016).

Local researches of the social media users demographics performed in 2017–2019 prove that a high percentage of network content is viewed by teenagers on a daily basis (Atsuta, 2017; Borovlev, 2017; Morozova, Popova, 2019). A similar situation is found in the UK (McDool et al., 2020) and almost all European countries (Šupšáková, 2016).

According to the findings of S. Tsimbalenko's research published in "The media portrait of a teenager in the 2000s" (Tsimbalenko, 2017), in 2017, the leading source of information for Russian teenagers, aged 13-16, was the Internet, not teachers or books (Tsimbalenko, 2017: 21). Analysis of their Internet requests revealed that they search for information, download (study, etc.) materials, interact with each other and read newsfeeds. Recent data provided by the companies studying media consumption habits confirm that the trend continues this year too (Internet..., 2019; Sarimova, 2020).

Rapid development of social media and their becoming more ingrained in teenagers' lives has come to challenge practitioners and theoreticians in media education looking for effective methodological solutions.

Naturally, the problem is not that schoolchildren are increasingly active on social media, as there is little to be done about it in today's digital world. The problem, it seems, is how to make the best use of the new media environment. Researchers have noted a low level of media production on the part of teenagers and their predominantly passive user's/follower's position (Atsuta, 2017; McDool et al., 2020; Tsimbalenko, 2017). "Less than 50 % of the users take part in creating and spreading information on the Internet", concludes A.I. Atsuta, referring to the survey conducted among 550 12-18-year-olds (Atsuta, 2018: 17). As stated by S. Tsimbalenko, the author of a large-scale survey, half of Russian schoolchildren consider themselves to be "ordinary users of the net" (Tsimbalenko, 2017: 35) and only 13 % – "creators" (Atsuta, 2018). According to the data collected by G.U. Soldatova, 11.4 % of teenagers opt for the social role of a creator (Soldatova, 2020). As a result of the extensive empirical research, G.U. Soldatova also comes to the conclusion that children acquire computer skills themselves and cannot boast outstanding digital competences (Soldatova, Rasskazova, 2017).

"Children need media literacy to be able to verify and know what news to trust. Many rarely or never check the source of news stories" (Notley, Dezuanni, 2018).

Threats and resources of social media have become the subject of heated academic and professional debates. The issues in question are those of communication among teenagers, accessibility and influence of dangerous information on the Internet, online education, educational services and the like. Researchers' opinions oscillate from those of imposing rigid regulations to and putting a ban on social networking sites to including them into the educational landscape.

We believe that the only way to tackle this problem is to work on the formation of the media competence in adolescents. In Russia, the concepts of media pedagogy through activity-based teaching methods were elaborated on in the theories of A.V. Fedorov (Fedorov, 2007) and I.A. Fateeva (Fateeva, 2007).

Foreign educationalists treat youth journalism as the best way to build media competence in young children and professional journalists as the best teachers. "As AI and machine learning envelopes our world, this most human of professions [journalism], defined by ethical conviction and honesty, is fundamental to education in our schools and purpose for our world (Smith, 2020).

It should be stressed that in Russia, at the federal level, measures were already taken to stimulate development of the digital media learning environment for schools. In 2015, the all-Russian public-state children and youth organization "Russian Schoolchildren Movement" was founded by the Presidential decree. The aims of the information media section of the organization are based around the UNESCO concept of media and information literacy.

Besides, it is widely accepted that in the digital age, media literacy adds up to information literacy, ICT skills, and creativity. This means being able to handle media messages and information coming from and being transmitted to all sources and platforms. Consequently, "the media literacy takes this series of new communication skills, including the ability to search for, to select, to analyze, to evaluate, to create, and thus pass on information in a variety of formats – via word, image, sound, and, recently, through using the multimedia formats – by integration of all these elements" (Šupšáková, 2016).

The idea of fostering creativity through digital communication skills in schoolchildren as part of their media education is emphasized in (A tool..., 2020; Deuze, Witschge, 2018; Mills et al., 2019; Smith, 2020; Soh, 2017; Stolaki, Anastasios, 2018; Van der Vaart et al., 2018; Witschge et al., 2019). The task of media educators is “to create a space for young people to freely express themselves and exercise their right to obtain information” (Šupšáková, 2016:42).

Presently, we find the social networking site *Vkontakte* as a convenient space for teens' media education projects. It is already involved in the above mentioned social and educational Russian Schoolchildren Movement. Within the network, children create regional, municipal and school groups where they act as coordinators and authors.

Therefore, we think that the social networking site *Vkontakte* is best suited for our project through which we give schoolchildren the necessary tools to engage in creative work in social media and increase their general media competence.

2. Materials and methods

Researchers characterize *Vkontakte* as a media resource with a wide spectrum of multimedia possibilities (Morozova, 2019; Stepanov, 2015). It is known to promptly upgrade its tools to allow for “experimentation with formats and genres” (Stepanov, 2015: 90). In 2017, *Vkontakte* introduced a function of creating articles and long-reads with multimedia content which have become commonplace in modern-day journalism.

We hypothesize that *Vkontakte* is an optimal digital learning environment for developing media competence in schoolchildren. The digital storytelling is a suitable method. The project shall result in a multimedia article posted in *Vkontakte*. It will promote the skills of creative writing, digital storytelling and multimedia. It will also let children achieve a tangible result in the context of the media educational aims.

A number of reasons determined the choice of the media educational technique. First of all, it builds in-demand skills of currently popular occupations: an online journalist and a multimedia storyteller (“a specialist in creating clear-cut and demanded multi-platform media products”), whose popularity will only keep growing in the future, as V. Gatov, an expert in the field of new media, wrote in 2016 (Gatov, 2016: 262).

Secondly, the format lends itself well to the creative purpose. N.F. Hilko's conceptual idea of an audio-visual culture within the framework of creative fulfillment of a personality is still relevant if we analyze resources of the digital multimedia environment. N.F. Hilko considers media creativity as an innovative tactic “with an unusual approach to composition, content and means of conveying information through text and images” (Hilko, 2001: 33). The modern multimedia environment allows for the interconnection of elements belonging to visual, textual, graphic and audio-visual languages (Kiriya, 2010: 18), which opens up a lot of opportunities for the application of expressive means, their combination and hybridization. According to M.M. Lukina, a multimedia article is “a story told with the help of several multimedia means” (Internet..., 2010: 269–170) that extend and develop the story. One of the most popular algorithms of creating a text in the multimedia environment is storytelling – a narrative with its own character, plot and conflict.

Writing such stories is impossible without understanding the structure of text, its composition, and cultural background. For this, one needs to know how to work with photo, video, audio and graphic content, and fundamentals of directing. Thus, immersion in the position of a professional storyteller, combining different languages and tools, helps mold the rational and creative within the media-competent persona.

While writing the methodology section (requirements, tasks, teaching materials, etc.) and evaluation criteria for the final product of the creative projects, we drew upon the existing research papers on storytelling as a multimedia education tool (Kiriya, 2010; Mills et al., 2019; Multimedia..., 2018; Silantyeva, 2016; Simakova, Yenbayeva, 2019; Skvortsov, 2007; Song, 2018; Stolaki, Anastasios, 2018; Šupšáková, 2016; Ureta, Fernandez, 2018).

Summing up the resources, we identified the following mandatory elements of a digital story for our project: 1) hero/character; 2) conflict/problem/changes/inner turmoil; 3) resolution/way out of the situation/action/inducement; 4) empathic effect; 5) place and time of the action; 6) facts, events, and examples. Such format entails reasonable usage of basic multimedia components: “images (photo, illustrations, graphics, caricature, animation, slide-show); video (video illustrations, video materials of traditional genres of TV journalism); audio (podcasts, audio

illustrations, audio text, audio slideshow, audio of traditional genres of radio journalism), infographics (graphic representation of data)” (Dukhan, 2017).

Working on a multimedia story means using a director’s approach. A media coach O. Silantyeva points out that “every element of the project is meaningful and, together with the other elements, it must constitute a complete picture, a coherent story, a multi-sided representation of the event, the subject matter, the person, and the issue” (Silantyeva, 2016: 156).

Our educational digital storytelling project took place in 2019 within the framework of the annual festival of young journalists’ projects named *Medianavigator* which is held by the Department of Journalism at the University of Tyumen. We called it “A Hero of our Time”.

At the end of the project, we conducted a survey of the participants, studied motivation letters attached to their applications, and performed a typological analysis of the multimedia articles that schoolchildren created.

3. Discussion

Analysis of the contemporary research of modern media education showed that in Europe, Asia, and North America educationalists are calling for the development of media competence in schoolchildren. “We media” such as blogs, *Facebook*, *Twitter*, micro-blogs, *YouTube*, *Wikipedia*, and citizen journalism sites have created a participatory media environment. Today’s Net-Generation students are not only media consumers but also media producers” (Lee, 2016).

Having analyzed how social networks influence the young user’s position, Russian researchers and professors in journalism departments agree that once a user is online, s/he is no longer a consumer, but a participant of a communication process and a co-author of the media text, as stated in the collective monograph “Social media as a resource of integrated communication practices” (Social..., 2017: 24). The audience becomes “a media generator and a media creator in the new communicative public sphere” (Multimedia..., 2018: 16).

However, the degree of involvement in creating media content and media writing skills in young users vary.

The media analyst A.A. Miroshnichenko argues that all young users are ‘technically’ entitled to be actual authors and can perform “random acts of journalism” (Ingram, 2011). In reality, though, many of them do not always want to be authors (Multimedia..., 2018: 74). He classifies all young users into two categories of authors: 1) the ‘lazy’ authors with little involvement limited to pushing the ‘like’ button, reposting and writing short comments; 2) the ‘hardcore’ authors actively producing their own original content (Multimedia..., 2018: 74-75).

L.A. Braslavets looks into the notion of civil journalism in relation to social media. In her opinion, social media let ‘the public’ take part in collecting, processing, publishing and spreading important information. L.A. Braslavets divides users into publishers and audience representatives. Publishers perform functions similar to those of journalists working in a traditional editorial office, and occasionally play a role of “an amateur journalist” (Braslavets, 2010).

A.A. Morozova suggests calling users of social networks who create content and help spread it “media makers” (Morozova, 2017). This term underlines originality of the content such media authors produce and can be aptly used to differentiate between them and professional journalists (Morozova, 2017: 79). According to A.A. Morozova, the reasons behind activity of some users are either personal (personal benefits or self-fulfillment) or social (need to inform others or solve social problems) (Morozova, 2017: 79).

I.V. Zhilavskaya defines two types of media activity among youngsters: consuming and creative media activity. Creative activity is revealed through media work and media creativity “thanks to the internal and external resources of a person” (Zhilavskaya, 2013). This process is not arbitrary because young people are motivated by their media-related professional activity or their own media project targeting or already winning over a specific audience (Zhilavskaya, 2013). They are also driven by an appealing topic and a desire to get feedback (Multimedia..., 2018).

However, even the most passive consumers can witness something unusual or “experience an insight” (Multimedia..., 2018:75). Unfortunately, due to their journalistic immaturity i.e. absence of the necessary communicative or critical thinking skills, they are unable to share this experience. They “need to cultivate media literacy to achieve “critical autonomy” and for that they need guidance” (Lee, 2016).

The US Department of State Network worked out guidelines for encouraging young users to generate acceptable, meaningful, and beneficial content in the social media (Be digitally..., 2018). One of their strongest appeal is to create.

According to a well-known Singaporean educationalist K. Soh, “fostering student creativity has become an added responsibility of classroom teachers” (Soh, 2017). It is especially true for the journalism classroom (Archetti, 2017; A tool..., 2020). “Creativity... allows us to gain insight into experiences, motivations and emotions in journalism, allowing us to tell the diverse stories of journalism in a more inclusive way” (Witschge et al., 2019). Creativity “can be flexibly applied in a variety of contexts and can serve as an effective bridge between generations, cultures, socioeconomic classes and people who are divided along habitual lines determined by existing agendas and interests” (Van der Vaart et al., 2018).

To support creativity a variety of digital tools and applications have been designed. Nowadays, digital technologies and social media create an environment conducive to creative journalistic activity from school age. The studies of media researchers and practitioners on the changing mechanisms of authorship in the social media conclude that they correlate with the conventional professional journalistic work. Since the social media environment is open, young writers can and should become involved in participatory journalistic work to gain professional experience and simultaneously actualize their creative potential.

For this purpose we conceived our project. We used a digital storytelling method to develop a media educational technology to involve teenagers in participatory journalism. The participants were given a task to create a multimedia story about any person, a hero of our time. The participants had to comply with professional journalistic standards: identify pressing problems, tell the truth, be loyal to citizens, exercise their personal conscience, and be responsible for the outcome of the project (Fundamentals..., 2000). The finished multimedia text was then posted in *Vkontakte*.

A number of steps were taken to organize schoolchildren’s work on their digital stories during the project.

At the *preliminary stage* we defined the theme “A Hero of our Time”. Its selection was prompted by the current trend of putting the person back at the center of journalism stories, as, for example, was formulated by the information portal *Takiye dela* (translated from Russian as “So it goes”). Not once did the older generation of journalists declare the idea of paying attention to ordinary men with their own struggles and dreams. We did not mean to focus on the genesis or interpretation of the notion “a hero of our time”. What we did was suggest the vector of attention towards the person, not the event. Our research interest was focused on whom teenagers would choose to write about once they went beyond their personal space into the open social media landscape.

Interested schoolchildren submitted their applications and motivation letters. They had to name reasons why they wanted to take part in the project, tell about their previous experience of creating media texts (including those posted online), working for school/college/city media, and share their project expectations. All candidates could familiarize themselves with the project assignments for both preliminary (remote) and in-person stages posted online. By the time applications were submitted, several creative teams had already been formed. Each team chose a person who met the criteria of a modern day hero.

All participants from schools or children’s centers were grouped into production teams (3-4 members). The groups were given a task to choose a person who they could call a hero of our time, collect information about him and creatively process it: prepare a script for a multimedia story, take a series of photos, record an audio or video interview with the hero.

Teenagers were given instructions regarding collection and processing of preliminary data; provided with remote consultations; recommended multimedia storytelling resources; and offered guidelines on using copyrighted Internet materials and the digital tools of the article editor in *Vkontakte*.

The *main stage* was in person and took place on campus. It included workshops on audio and video content production and a role play called *A Multimedia Burger* (developed by A.A. Andreeva). The main aim was to teach students how to structure a multimedia article.

At the *final stage*, teenagers learned to use the digital tool of an article editor in *Vkontakte*, create multimedia texts and publish them on the social networking site. All their works were evaluated by experts who analyzed the quality of the articles, page views, reposts and readers’ comments.

Each production group was supervised by 2nd-4rd-year university students majoring in journalism. They were in charge of the creative process and technical support such as providing internet access, consulting on the digital tools offered in *Vkontakte* as well as stylistic editing and proofreading.

Thus, at each stage schoolchildren developed skills raising the level of their media competence.

4. Results

To evaluate the media activity and competence of our participants we studied their motivation letters and personal network accounts. In the motivation letters, they described their media experience and expectations for the project. In total, we received 30 group applications from 50 schoolchildren, aged 13-17. The majority of participants were from Tyumen, Tyumen region, and the town of Shadrinsk in Kurgan region.

Twenty-two teenagers mentioned that they had some previous experience in creating their own media projects for their school media centers or talent shows. Ten students took part in designing their school accounts or worked for a creative association in *Vkontakte* or *Instagram*. Four participants reported having their own blog in social media “to share [their] own ideas on different issues in posts”, “to post photos and write short notes”.

The opportunity to try their hand at multimedia journalism was one of the major reasons for participation in the festival. In their applications, twelve students admitted that they would want to build a career in journalism, four students – in blogging. Others wrote that they “want to feel the taste of journalism”, “experience the profession firsthand”. Those who had already had experience of working with multimedia information were eager to put their learned skills to test and get experts’ approval. Twenty-one students mentioned in their applications that they would want to learn something new and gain hands-on experience.

Participants expressed their wish to acquire/perfect/master their skills in the field of journalism and develop professionally. Four respondents linked the festival with career orientation events implying that it would help them make their career choice. The others, however, expressed no doubts in terms of their future career. Most schoolchildren referred to multimedia production in terms of self-development and creativity. They wrote about their motivation and expectations in a positive tone using such words as “develop”, “take it to the next level”, “get new ideas”, etc. Some of the reasons for partaking in the festival were media literacy related. Three respondents wanted to learn to assess, verify and make acceptable use of information. Some reasons were media text related. Four people wanted to learn how to write texts, shoot reports, and produce media projects. Experiencing positive emotions was important for six teenagers. Eight respondents expected to get acquainted with some interesting people, both peers and journalists. Twelve teenagers were motivated by the task itself and wanted to tell about a hero of our time. Young people referred to the heroes from their projects as ordinary people doing their duties, inspiring and surprising everyone with their moral courage.

The review of the applications has shown that the participants had some media experience and were eager to test their competence in media work, they were striving to learn more and acquire new skills. They thought of the work they were to do as an opportunity to convert their creative ideas into a reality and viewed the task as part of professional journalistic practice.

Since our media technology is mostly aimed at social media, we tracked media activity of the festival participants in social networking sites. We applied random sampling to 15 personal accounts and analyzed them according to the following parameters: original content, usage of multimedia formats, appeal to socially important issues. The greatest part of the participants’ content was photo reposts, videos, texts from groups about fashion, psychology, animals and humor. They never touched upon important social issues. Original content was only found on the pages of schoolchildren who are members of creative media associations. Five teenagers reposted texts or audio tracks they themselves took part in creating. The greatest amount of content was repetitive in its format and no multimedia approaches were used. Thus, even those festival participants who had media background demonstrated a rather low level of practical-operational and creative mediacompetence in social media. These data correlate with the results of the research into media behavior of adolescents by A. Atsuta and S. Tsimbalenko ([Atsuta, 2017](#); [Tsimbalenko, 2017](#)) and with the results of the motivation letter analysis.

Analysis of questionnaires and media projects. At the final stage of the project, the participants posted 18 multimedia articles and answered the questionnaire. The first block of the questionnaire dealt with their work prior to the festival on ideas of heroism and heroes. The second block was based on the motivation letter analysis. We intended to find out if their attitude about the journalistic work experience they expected to gain changed. Thirty-three questionnaires were analyzed altogether.

In most cases, it was school teachers (7) who became heroes of the posts as well as coaches and instructors (4) of creative and sport organizations who work with the students, and one family member. They are all characterized by being committed, initiative, understanding, and capable of creating an atmosphere conducive to creativity. The characters of six posts are people outside the family and friends circle; they are pet shelter owners, fashion designers, peers, etc. They are featured as self-made people who achieve success thanks to their own talent and hard work. According to psychologists, they are typical role models for teenagers. As pointed out by I.S. Kon, teenagers “find their role models not in the people closest to them but in the people from outside the circle of those they know well” (Kon, 1989). “An ideal guide”, in such cases, is the one who is “understanding, responsive and kind-hearted” in the first place (Kon, 1989). Another factor that influenced the choice of a hero was realization of its importance for society. It is confirmed by the answers to the question “What kind of people should be featured more often in mass media and on the Internet?”. The respondents answered: people changing jobs, doing something good, having high moral values or those who work hard and reach their goals.

The images of heroes in the schoolchildren’s posts are archetypical. The heroes are Creators: they founded a dance club, a football club for underprivileged teenagers, a youth organization etc. Some heroes are Curators: they preserve traditions and history; they possess knowledge and experience. The story is usually structured as a description of some events or work the heroes are passionate about. It is always something that helps solve a social issue: e.g. assisting in rehabilitation of schoolchildren with deviant behavior, helping stray or abandoned animals, instilling patriotic values in teenagers, getting children involved in creative activities. The character is associated and disclosed through his/her doings. Another type of story development is based around problem resolution. In this case, the hero is usually facing a problem, e.g. lack of experience, no support or compassion, difficult and demanding work. Overcoming these problems, the hero reaches his/her goals and changes him/herself. For example, s/he finally achieves recognition and inner satisfaction, wins an award or gets some good results, or it may even be that his/her students achieve success.

The structure of the articles is rather simple. In the first case, it runs as follows: exposition (the first meeting and the author expounding heroism) and rising action, then climax (description of an event with a sketch/report/photo or a series of photos/video report or a video clip); and resolution (the author summarizing the ideas on heroism). In the second case, the exposition and rising action are usually followed by an interview/video interview or an audio recording of a story, and photos. Two of the articles had an interactive element at the end (a survey), with the authors trying to engage their audience not only emotionally but also technically.

Not all the participants managed to do the task properly. Some creative teams were not able to step outside the traditional genre of paper and TV journalism and either prepared a biography interview, described their character or ran a questionnaire with the follow-up comments.

Half the posts (9 stories) contained multimedia elements of one type i.e. photos or a series of photos. Seven teams included two multimedia elements, i.e. photo and video (6 projects) and photo and audio (1 project). Two of the posts had three elements. i.e. photo, video and a questionnaire. One post had infographics apart from photo and video. All the posts got feedback in the form of likes, reposts and comments. The number of viewings ranged from 300 to 5500; the articles were viewed not only by the festival participants but also other *Vkontakte* users. The posts evoked emotional responses. Most of the authors reposted their articles on their own pages.

Most schoolchildren reported to have had no difficulty choosing a hero for their posts. Twenty-one respondents (69 %) say their attitude to the people they had chosen changed after they gathered more information. Their respect has grown even higher as they discovered some new personal qualities: “Irene turned out to be open and sociable”, “He appeared to be a fun person”, “I realized that not everyone could be dedicated to their job so much”, “He is an interesting personality”. Eight respondents did not change their attitude to the heroes because they had already known them for a long time. Four people were unsure of what to say.

The questionnaire run among the team leaders (university students majoring in journalism) showed that schoolchildren used the new information they had learnt during workshops and games to analyze the material they had collected and to introduce some changes into the structure of the article. They also inserted multimedia elements after being prompted to do so. Besides, some teenagers were struggling with the digital tool of the article editor in *Vkontakte*.

In reply to the question “How has your idea of the profession of a journalist changed after the festival?”, thirteen respondents said that journalistic work was tough but they were still interested: “I realized that it is a cool thing to do but not as easy as it seems”, “I realized that it is not an easy job but no doubt an interesting one”. Two of the respondents used to think of a journalist working with paper format only: “I realized that a journalist is more than a person writing articles”, “I’ve always thought it is so easy to just sit and write something. But once I started making the project, I realized that it was not easy”. Eleven schoolchildren wished to continue working in the field of journalism, while the other nine replied briefly that their idea of journalism did not change.

5. Conclusion

The festival participants delved into professional work while trying to find a hero for their posts and preparing material about them. This process formed a stable motivation in the participants to tell about the chosen character and receive feedback. Working on their projects, schoolchildren learnt the importance of addressing the human dimension of journalism and media work.

The results of the survey show that collecting information about the characters and talking to them face-to-face not only brought up the issue of heroism from the social point of view, but also drew attention to regular people, someone teenagers see every day – school teachers, managers of creative studios and sport organizations. Despite the controversial image of the teacher created by the Russian mass media, the presentations were not in any way affected by it. Teenagers portrayed their role models as dedicated and committed people capable of overcoming all difficulties. By the end of the project, they discovered an array of new, sometimes unexpected, character traits and qualities in their heroes.

Most heroes were creators of something new. The theme “A Hero of our Time” has become an inspiring creative concept. We modeled a situation “the very essence of which was creatively stimulating” (Hilko, 2001: 257).

Analysis of the multimedia articles showed that most participants used techniques of multimedia storytelling: the articles had characters, a plot, narrative devices when the author’s text intermingled with the character’s direct speech either in a text, audio or video format. Implementation of multimedia elements to construct their stories made teenagers search for new ways to approach their material and find original director’s solutions for text, photo and video combinations, and include such interactive elements as a questionnaire.

Our participants learned how to create original content in *Vkontakte* using its default tools which were developed to meet the needs of modern media environment and journalism. The project revealed for them ways to incorporate journalistic work into the familiar social media environment.

Testing of the media educational technology of creating a multimedia article in a social network identified several challenges:

- difficulty in preparing infographics and audio materials (podcasts, audio illustrations, audio text, etc.); unlike photo and video, such formats were used only a few times;
- a tendency to use the conventional paper-based approach to organizing material, i.e. photo+text;
- taking an easy route when selecting a hero for the project by merely picking them from a circle of friends;
- using stale stereotypes about heroism, the static character of the hero’s inner world, and poor use of standard Russian language affected the general impression produced by the projects.

The festival did live up to the participants’ expectations, the schoolchildren mastered new types of media production and were given a chance to fulfill their creative potential. Working with images and meanings in addition to the application of multimedia storytelling techniques helped them get a glimpse of the complexities of the modern media text and the profession of a journalist.

All things considered, the suggested technology stimulated creativity and provided an active user’s/“influencer’s” experience in social media, thus increasing the level of media competence in schoolchildren. Immersion in the work with images and meanings and the use of multimedia

storytelling techniques enriched participants' understanding of contemporary media texts and journalism. Journalistic career remained an attractive choice for many participants.

In addition to teenagers' engagement in school centers for multimedia journalism or media projects of traditional formats, we should ensure their beneficial active social media behavior with the goal to enhance media competence and create conditions for self-actualization and socialization. It is important to accept the dynamic development of the social media and Internet environment and design media education technologies taking into account features of teenagers' media behavior.

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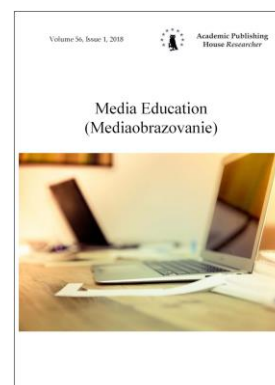
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Trump and Muslims During US Presidential Elections 2016: A Sentiment Analysis of Muslim Community on Twitter

Umar Raza ^a, Mohsin Hassan Khan ^{b, *}, Shema Bukhari ^c

^a International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan

^b University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

^c University College of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain

Abstract

The events after 9/11 have changed the conditions, especially for Muslims living in the US. They have been victimized and stereotyped as negative individuals to the extent of being liars and bigots. These semantic and religious sentiments and prejudice have been pervasive at all levels, ranging from public to private, political, and media platforms. These strong sentiments have penetrated the political campaigns in the US, thus creating Islamophobia. Traditionally, the presidential election Campaigns focus on the diversity and address every group and member of the society. The same practice was anticipated in 2016 Electoral Campaigns, but Donald Trump chose a different path. He focused more on anti-minority rhetoric with a particular focus on Muslims. Since the Muslim expats are the second-largest expat community after Jews, in the US, Trump's speeches were considered a direct insult. As a result, the Muslim community reacted vehemently towards such antics. The current study focuses on Muslim sentiments towards Trump's hate speeches. The medium explored is Twitter, where Muslims vent out their sentiments. In addition to the private accounts, the twitter accounts of Muslim representative organizations have been used. The research on the tweets has done through quantitative content analysis. The results reflect the substantial use of words against Trump's speech and his intended policies. The dominant emotions reflected in the tweets were anger, fear, and sadness. Some measures are also suggested after the research for conflict resolution of the effects of such speeches.

Keywords: US Elections of 2016, Donald Trump, Sentiments, Islamophobia, Twitter.

1. Introduction

Being a multi-cultural society, the United States has people from different parts of the world, with different ethnicities, religions, and races (Caputi et al., 2006). The most significant part of the population is Expats, of course, making the backbone of society (Isaacs, 2007). The research has shown that Muslims are the second-largest minority in the US after Muslims – 0.9 % and 1.9 % respondents (Pew Research, 2015). Jefferson (Jefferson, 2017) identified in his research, different people belonging to different communities have been enjoying the facilities and amenities given to them in America, for many years. Although the country is considered all-embracing but lately, religious differences have given rise to insecurity and frustrations, which were not there previously.

The events after 9/11, have seen an escalation in hate-related incidents against Muslims in the US. Many are living under constant fear and anxiety, as has been shown in researches that it is

* Corresponding author

E-mail address: mohsin18516@gmail.com (M.H. Khan)

easy and possible to air (increase) hate-related sentiments, whereas it becomes impossible to decrease them. The US Justice Department in 2001 reported that the hate crimes against Muslims have increased to 1600 %. CAIR—Council on American—Islamic Relations – registered around 2647 complaints in 2006 alone. The Muslim American Public Squares (2004) and Pew Research (Pew Research, 2007) conducted some interviews with Muslim expats in the US regarding the treatment and the issues they face. The results showed that the Muslims' behavior had remained the same, united, and more or less not interested in politics.

Historically, Muslims have enthusiastically taken part and interest in the US General Elections. Figures show that more than one million Muslims cast their votes in the 2016 elections (Farivar, 2016). At the same time, the Muslims were the target of Trump's false accusations during his electoral campaign by uttering statements like; 'Muslims are the significant risk for world peace or Muslims are terrorists', etc. (Trump's Speeches, 2016). To worsen the situation further, an executive order was issued for the travel ban to the US. The travel ban was explicitly for the Muslim countries, including Syria, Iraq, Iran, Sudan, Libya, Somalia, and Yemen (Kertscher, 2017).

Considering all the circumstances, the 2016 presidential elections have proved to be the most controversial and confrontational election campaigns in the history of the US. The results were shocking even for Americans (Nuruzzaman 2017). Many studies have shown that the results came as a surprise to many national, international politicians, analysts, including the members of Trump's party (Gabriel et al. 2018). The Republican candidate Donald J. Trump won the historic race of 2016 elections against the ex-secretary of the State and Democratic nominee, Hillary Clinton, by 77 electoral college votes (Lilleker 2016).

The 2016 election campaigns have gone down the history as to be speckled with extraordinary and biased political rhetoric, extreme outbursts discriminatory and stereotypical tones, and anti-Muslim abusive discourse (Nuruzzaman 2017). Trump even promised his followers that he would ban Islam during the campaigns, and later, he tried to ban Muslims' entry in the US (Husain 2018). Trump's speeches raised many controversies and outrage in and out of the country during that period. The situation worsened to the extent that after the San Bernardino attacks in 2015, Obama himself requested Americans for tolerance and justice towards the Muslim community (Tesler, 2018). He reiterated the fact that America is at war against terrorism and not Islam. But Obama's plea for patience and solidarity with Muslims was met with Trump's presentation of his proposal on Muslim ban, the very next day. Ironically, the leaders of his own party, including Paul Ryan, Mitch McConnell, and even Mike Pence, criticized his proposal for 'Muslims Ban.'

P.L. Francia (Francia, 2018) argued that while making the comparison between Trump and Hilary Clinton's campaigns, it became clear that former Secretary Clinton focused more on real issues at hand, including abortion, foster parenting, education, and economic policies for the country whereas Trump focused on various controversial issues, including immigrant, terrorism, security and of course trade (McCaw 2016). It is significantly noted that he concentrated on Muslims as a grave issue for the Americans while endorsing his political agenda. Such a technique actually played with the cognition of the general public, which resulted in unpredictable election results.

With this background, the current study focuses on Trump's discursive strategies and the creation of rhetoric about Islamophobia. Such rhetoric is based on the dichotomous binaries of the self and other, where the other is de-legitimized. N. Kazi (Kazi, 2017) in his study, argued the whole idea of Muslims as terrorists emerged in the wake of 9/11 events and continued in the subsequent years. K. Powell (Powell, 2018) emphasized the fact that after 9/11, the anti-Muslim and Islamophobic sentiments have increased, and media has fanned these negative sentiments through framing as Trump raised anti-Muslim sentiments in his 2016 election campaign which resulted in becoming a hot topic for debates. Therefore, the researchers in this study are attempting to explore how Trump succeeded in presenting himself as Islamophobe, in, actually positive terms.

The Muslims reacted severely and expressed their anger in strong terms against President Trump's speeches. The expats in the US also voiced their strong opinions against this injustice, as they were targeted unjustly without considering their emotions and sentiments (Diamond, 2016). These emotions varied from being sad, fear to anger. These emotions are being reviewed in their traditional perspective (James, 1884) where emotions are categorized as flexible retort arrangements (Frijida, 1986).

In this research, the study of emotions has proved vital as it helps in understanding the inherent human behavior during conflict-resolution. Moreover, it facilitates the understanding of

people's behaviors regarding the particular phenomenon in society (Halperin, 2008). Study of emotions also helps in understanding the psychological as well as a physical phenomenon in an organization (Lewin, 1951). Therefore, the attempt is made to analyze idiosyncratic types of emotions with a focus on fear, joy, hate, and anger as expressed by the Muslims and different originations operating in the USA; through their Tweets.

2. Discussion

Pew Research (Pew Research, 2017) studied and revealed that about 3.45 million Muslims are dwelling in the US. The rate was increased from 0.9 % up in 2014 to 1.2 % in 2017, and in the future, it might turn into the first most significant minority in the USA by intersection the Jews and this figure may escalate to 8.1 million by 2050. This is simply because of immense migrations to the country. Report additionally demonstrated that 23 % of the entire Muslim populace in the US has been changed, which also includes 8 % dark, 6 % from those religions which are not affiliated, the proportion from Catholicism was 4 % and 3 % among all changed over from serious Protestantism. More people have accepted Islam as a religion, as 65 % consider it as an essential part of life in contrast to Catholics, whose proportion is 58 %. The research also shows that about 23 % of Native-American converted to this religion.

D. Masci (Masci, 2016) researched and found out that the average Muslim American family income is compatible with the general American public. Numerous Pakistani Muslims are professionals, particularly in the fields of medicine and physicians. The ratio is almost from 2.7 % to 5 %. This is followed by engineers, scientists, and financial analysts, including many entrepreneurs (Abu-Ras et al., 2012; Curlin et al., 2005). There are about 15000 doctors who are practicing in the USA (Shafqat et al., 2007). Muslims enjoy excellent financial stability, with an average Muslim household income equals \$ 50000 or more annually. This number is comparable to 44 % of other nationals and Muslims being 45 % of this population. Muslims have shown a high level of expertise in their respective fields. The figures have shown 19 % of Muslim households with an annual income of \$ 100000 and higher (America Gov., 2008).

USA Today reported about a mosque in Michigan in 2006, stating that every Muslim belonging to any sect can attend and pray here. The mosque went through renovations and reconstruction in 2005 with the mission to accommodate the ever-increasing number of Muslims in the region.

M. Waller (Waller, 2003) found that a large number of prisoners who had sent to prison for various crimes converted to Islam. It was interesting to notice that 15 % to 20 % of prison population consists of Muslims from approximately 350000 in total. Most of this population came to prison as non-Muslims, but after conversion, they made up 80 % of those who converted to Islam although many established connections with radical Islamic groups outside but experts showed that overall radicalization has almost nothing to do with these highlighted groups (US Department of Justice, 2004).

Despite being an essential part of the USA economy, the whole blame of the September 11, 2001 incident was solely put on the Muslims. Various media reports, governmental reports declared and blamed Muslims as being responsible for that attack. Osama bin Laden was declared as the mastermind behind this incident. President Trump later stated that Muslims cheered the event while watching it in their homes. However, Muslims around the world and particularly in the US, lived in constant fear of some sort of retaliation and hatred from all fronts.

The US Justice Department (US Department of Justice, 2012) documented almost 20 cases of violence and discrimination against Muslim expats. The Journal of Applied Social Psychology published research reflecting on the cases of hate crimes against Muslims rapidly increased after 9/11. The number of hate crimes increased from 354 to 1501, just within the year of 2001 (Oswald, 2005). Many Arab institutes also became the victims, resulting in deaths in some cases (Nieves, 2001; Siddiqui, 2005).

A survey in 2017 showed that Muslims were living in a perpetual state of fear after 9/11. Almost 19 % of them categorically stated that they were being discriminated. 15 % said that they had to live with the tag of being a terrorist. 13 % indicated that they were being ignored by the public in general. 12 % were being stereotyped. The survey also found that 54 % of Muslims believed that anti-terrorism policies by the government have just escalated the problems in isolating and discriminating Muslims. 76 % of Muslims showed their concerns about extremism

anywhere in the world whereas 61 % raised their concerns about the radicalizations in the USA (Pew Research Center, 2017).

The Muslim women who wear the hijab were also targeted and became victims of hatred. There had been a various incident where women were being harassed to the extent of physical harm in public places like grocery stores (Rehab, 2011). In one of the extreme events, a woman who was dropping her child to school was shot dead for wearing the headscarf (Shah, 2011). In 2017, a research showed that 51 % of Muslim women who were wearing headscarves showed serious concerns over hate crimes (Pew Research, 2017).

Moreover, when it comes to Twitter in Politics, Ott (2017) argued that Twitter now increasingly getting fame among public and news media adheres to the trends of Twitter. Moreover, these trends might possibly lead to the wrong information. Twitter, unlike to Television, involved every person who has an interest in the story this not necessary about its authentication. Finally, he said that Twitter ruined the Journalism.

Tait (Tait, 2016) elucidated that Twitter is particularly informal as people don't follow grammar here because of its words limitation so it clearly implements respect. Twitter disperses the conversation producing a perspective in which public don't contemplate how their interactions will affect others. Despite the brevity imposed by this media tool, Twitter use is extensively used in a wide variety of circumstances and, according to A. Mollett et al. (Mollett et al, 2011: 1), 'thousands of academics and researchers at all levels of experience and across all disciplines already use Twitter daily'. A. Mollett et al. (Mollett et al, 2011: 1), stressed that Twitter is the platform that limits the text due to brevity restrictions but it has provided an opportunity in varied circumstances, to reach out to a larger audience. It has become a tool for free exchange of ideas both at national and international level. It has proved useful especially for those individuals who are interested in some particular topics.

K. Crawford and M. Finn (Crawford, Finn, 2015) considered Twitter as an important tool of communication when users can share personal information publicly, in an effort to find assistance and support during crisis events. Due to the brevity of twitter and the research has shown that this social media platform is more effective when it comes to sharing information whether only facts or emotional catharsis. This results in creating trends in the world of internet.

Islamophobia

Islamophobia is a term that alludes to fear of Islam or mostly interpreted as 'hatred towards Muslims. G. Evolvi (Evolvi, 2018) stated that this term has its origins back in seventh century that was based on Orientalists views of Arab world. But in the USA, this term became popular and most controversial after 9/11. Conversely, H. Bazian (Bazian, 2018) stated that Islamophobia began from 'Clash of Civilizations', thus linking it to Huntington's idea of 'Islamic Extremism'. It has actually created an unprecedented hatred towards Muslims globally. P. Waikar (Waikar, 2018) claimed that Islamophobia has become a special form of discrimination and racism. Similarly, this term highlights various forms of discrimination, prejudices, hatred and racism by Westerners (Drabu 2018). Global media and global politics have created the image of Muslims as terrorists and negative to an extent of creating a negative stereotype. N. Islam (Islam, 2018) mentioned that Islamophobia has become a term to be used as an excuse for associating negativity with Muslims and Islam. M. Semati (Semati, 2010) argued that Islamophobia is used just to create and have fear of Muslims and their faith. The whole discourse has become too complicated and widespread as a set of passing judgments against this faith by the Westerners. Therefore, islamophobia is considered as a negative concept of Muslims and Islam.

R. Terman (Terman, 2017) in his study claimed that the US has been highlighting the idea that Muslims in general are extremist and sexist in nature. There is rapid growth in the misconceptions and anxiety about Islam; in the eyes of Westerners especially when it comes to their concepts of civility, equality and tolerance. Muslims are considered savages, misogynists, not-so-civilised and a greater threat to values of America (Maroney, Gross, 2013). In one of Pew Research reports, it is stated that after 9/11, American's views are less favorable towards Muslims as compared to other minorities. Moreover, N. Lajevardi and K.A. Oskooii (Lajevardi and Oskooii, 2018) declared that the Muslims and Islam have procured a significant media and political attention as being negative. Almost 37 inner groups and 32 outer groups have been found whose only purpose is to promote, highlight and engage in activities in fanning Islamophobia in the US (Saylor, 2014).

Since 2016, when the presidential campaign started, Muslims found themselves at the center of many debates. Trump stressed on complete ban on Muslim immigrants as was reiterated by Ted Cruz who was the Republican nominee for the 2016 elections. Such statements became more vehement at the wake of Brussels attacks. N. Kazi (Kazi, 2017) asserted that islamophobia became the trademark in 2016 presidential campaign and elections. Trump's Muslim immigrants' ban received immense support from his followers, although some of his party leaders frowned upon such statements. NihadAwad – executive director of CAIR – showed in a report of the Council on the American–Islamic Relations; that the fear and anger towards Muslims have shifted from public to mainstream media and politics.

Throughout the Presidential Elections of 2016, Trump kept on discussing and spreading negative sentiments against Muslim. He was often seen targeting his Democratic opponents when it came to the issues of Muslims. At the same time, Dr. Ben Carson (a Republican candidate) also claimed that Islam was inconsistent with their constitution all together (Kazi 2017). Louisiana Governor Bobby Jindal became part of the political rat race by saying; “*Let's be honest, Islam has a problem*”. C. Considine (Considine, 2017) stated that Islamic law or, shariah, became another controversial topic of debates during the campaign which resulted in many states introducing anti shariah bill.

Even the Democratic candidate, Hilary Clinton did not hold back her anti–Muslims sentiments. She was the supporter of Afghan, Iraq, Syria and Libya wars, in the past. The Orlando massacre at a gay night club, Clinton urged the Americans to return to 9/11 spirit. Such urging was associated with the institutional stereotyping of Muslims, other immigrant, Arabs, south Asians under the umbrella of Islamophobia (Tolan 2016). Such 9/11 spirit consisted of increase in hate and violent crimes against Muslims in particular, and the implementation of Patriot Act.

Ironically, she condemned Trump's explicit islamophobia saying that Muslims deserve better. She argued that Islamism and radical Jihadism are a threat to peace and not the Muslims is general. During one of the debate sessions she replied to one American Muslim mother that the statements by trump and Ted Cruz were completely against American values and considered them shameful acts (Kazi 2017).

3. Materials and methods

Theoretical Framework

The current study has used Social–Psychological theoretical framework, as it helps in focusing on those aspects of sentiments which have theoretical basis; along with their development, symptoms and causes & effects. Sentiments are a refined form of organized feelings in a social set up; thus reflecting one's mental attitude towards a certain emotion.

Emotions have strong tendency that they can even dictate certain cultural values, therefore they establish a connection between feelings and reactions to those feelings (Arnold, 1960; Frijda, 1986).

Different emotions have provided a broader spectrum for human behavior and its analysis

Conceptualization of Emotions

Fear. Fear can elicit an extreme reaction in humans resulting in terrible or phobic behavior. In the presence of threat or danger, for example. An individual may show helplessness, worry or distress. Self–control and protection are natural consequences.

Sadness. Sadness can render an individual as hopeless and inactive. One develops a negative approach towards the surroundings resulting in disappointment or even guilt.

Anger. Anger is also considered a powerful emotion, initiating an aggressive reaction from the sufferer. This can result in illogical and biased reactions from the individual. An angry reaction was shown by Muslims towards Trump's policies and vice versa.

Joy/Happiness. Happiness is associate with the generation of positive outcomes and reactions form a person. In this research, 'happiness' is shown by those Americans who supported Trump's policies and rejoiced in his victory.

Operationalization of Emotions

Fear/Security. This emotion results in the defensive mode and the individual takes steps to ensure his safety. For example, ISNA on March 21, 2017 wrote a tweet “Poll: American Muslims are worried about their safety – and getting more active in their communities”. This tweet reflects fear by Muslims who have concerns about their safety.

Sadness. Sadness is a sentiment manifesting the emotions like powerlessness, insecurity and negative approach towards everything. Sympathy and empathy towards others are also part of sadness. AICongress tweeted on March 28, 2017, “It’s time to hear from a community that’s often talked about but rarely given a chance to speak.” This tweet shows sadness as Muslims are not given many opportunities to express themselves.

Anger/Hate. This is another powerful emotion reflecting aggressiveness, rage hate or jealousy as its consequences. ‘Muslim Advocates’ tweeted “Anti-semitism and bigotry is unacceptable. Gorka should step down & should have never been hired in the first place”.

The highlighted parts of the tweet are reflective of hate or anger as Muslims are showing reactions in their behavior.

Joy/Happiness. Happiness is a creative and positive behaviors showing excitement, enthusiasm etc.

Other. This category includes the emotions which are not categorized in the above list.

AICongress@aicongress on Mar 21 tweeted “Hijab Day is a great way to teach people about Muslim women and who we really are,” said Rawag, noting that the”. The message concerns Muslims but it is not directly addressed to Trump. That is why this tweet is categorized in ‘Other’.

P. Shaver et al. (Shaver et al., 1987) developed this model to categorize different emotions in their appropriate behaviors. The current study adopts this model owing to its uniqueness. As the current study is based on the text, that is, the Tweets; therefore, this model fulfills our research requirements. This Hierarchical Model of Emotions has facilitated in making a Code definition sheet.

Table 1. Shaver (1987) Hierarchical Model of Emotions

<i>Hierarchical levels</i>		
<i>Superordinate</i>	<i>Basic</i>	<i>Subordinate</i>
<i>Positive</i>	Love	(1) adoration, affection, love, fondness, liking, attraction, caring, tenderness, compassion, sentimentality; (2) arousal, desire, lust, passion, infatuation; (3) longing [3 groups; 16 terms; 12 % of the total]
<i>Positive</i>	Happiness	(1) amusement, bliss, cheerfulness, gaiety, glee, jolliness, joviality, joy, delight, enjoyment, gladness, happiness, jubilation, elation, satisfaction, ecstasy, euphoria; (2) enthusiasm, zeal, zest, excitement, thrill, exhilaration; (3) contentment, pleasure, pride, triumph; (4) eagerness, hope, optimism; (5) enthrallment, rapture; (6) relief [6 groups; 33 terms; 25 % of the total]
<i>Negative</i>	Anger	(1) aggravation, irritation, agitation, annoyance, grouchiness, grumpiness; (2) exasperation, frustration; (3) anger, rage, outrage, fury, wrath, hostility, ferocity, bitterness, hate, loathing, scorn, spite, vengefulness, dislike, resentment; (4) disgust, revulsion, contempt; (5) envy, jealousy; (6) torment [6 groups; 29 terms; 22 % of the total]
<i>Negative</i>	Fear	(1) alarm, shock, fear, fright, horror, terror, panic, hysteria, mortification; (2) anxiety, nervousness, tenseness, uneasiness, apprehension, worry, distress, dread [2 groups; 17 terms; 13 % of the total]
<i>Negative</i>	Sadness	(1) agony, suffering, hurt, anguish; (2) depression, despair, hopelessness, gloom, glumness, sadness, unhappiness, grief, sorrow, woe, misery, melancholy; (3) dismay, disappointment, displeasure; (4) guilt, shame, regret, remorse, alienation, isolation, neglect, loneliness, rejection, homesickness, defeat, rejection, insecurity, embarrassment, humiliation, insult; (5) pity, sympathy, [5 groups; 37 terms; 28 % of the total]

Research Methodology

The current research has employed quantitative content analysis to analyze Muslim community emotions in the USA; by using their Tweets. For that tenacity, those organizations are

selected that are being representatives of this community's rights. Subsequently, two main political parties of the United States, are also partaking in this research. A code definition sheet is made that comprise of five categories associated with emotions that entails:

(i) Fear/Security; (ii) Sadness; (iii) Anger/Hate; (iv) Joy/Happiness; (v) Other.

The population of the study consists of the US political parties and Muslim Representative Organizations listed below.

Firstly, 42 Muslims Representative Organizations are chosen. During the study, it was found that some of these organizations do not have official twitter accounts; thus, for the sake of validity, the official Twitter account links were cross-referenced and verified on the official websites (the ones that are being updated regularly). Investigation revealed that 29 out of 42 accounts are properly updated and practically working for Muslim rights in the region. To balance the facts and narrative, twitter accounts of 4 American Political Parties are also used in this study.

In a constructive approach, the researcher has categorized the Muslim Representative Organizations in [Table 2](#). These organizations are subcategorized based on their specific dimensions: 'Muslim Rights', Muslim Education/Religion' and 'General political.' These categories were largely based on their official mission statements.

Table 2. Sampled Muslim Organizations

<i>Muslim Rights</i>	<i>Educational/Religion</i>	<i>General Political</i>
Adam Center	Al-Maghrib	Universal Muslims Association of America
Council of American-Islamic Relations	International Institute of Islamic Thoughts	American Islamic Congress
Diyant Center of America	Islamic Circle of North America	American Islamic Forum for Democracy
Inner City Muslims Action Network	Islamic Circle of North America	Center for Islamic Pluralism
Muslims American Public Affairs Council	Islamic Society of Boston	Muslims for American
Muslims Legal funds of America	Islam in Spanish	Hizb-ul-Tarar
Muslims Reforms Movements	Latino American Dawa Organization	Islamic Society of North America
Muslims for Progressive Values	Michigan Muslim Community Council	Minaret of Freedom Institute
Peaceful Families Project	Muslim Students Association	
Muslim Advocates	Muslim Urban Professionals	
Muslim Voices	Muslim Protagonist	

On the other side the Following American parties has been selected for the analysis: Conservative Party; The Democrats; Working Families Party; Republican Party.

Sample Size for the Study

When it comes to sampling, the researchers have selected the tweets from January 1, 2016, to March 31, 2017, because in this period, American election campaigns, and exchange of power were done. The uniqueness of this period was that, Mr. Trump, whose campaigns based on anti-Islam and became the next president of the US dramatically.

The researchers further, categorized the data and separated Emotion-based tweets from the routine-based tweets. For further understanding, see [Table 3](#).

Inter-Coder Reliability Test

The researcher did a pilot Study to test the coding sheet's reliability. For that, the researcher selects about 50 tweets and code them per instruction in code definition sheet. After that the researcher train the 2 coders and give the same tweets to them for coding. There was the little difference come in the coding process. After that, the researcher analyzed the code definition sheet and check it to the supervisor. Then, some refinements were made in that code definition sheet.

Table 3. Sampled Tweets

	<i>Organization</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>
1.	Diyntat America	154	23
2.	Muslim Reforms Movement	67	20
3.	Muslim Advocates	105	84
4.	Peaceful Families	35	7
5.	Inner City Muslim Action Network	461	87
6.	CAIR National	3105	1732
7.	Muslim Voices	1282	412
8.	Muslim Legal Funds	875	285
9.	Muslim Progressive Values	458	72
10.	Muslim American Public Affairs Council	921	289
11.	Adams Centers	19	2
12.	Muslim Protagonist	15	2
13.	Muslim Student Association	128	32
14.	Muslim Urban Professionals	67	6
15.	Islam in Spanish	501	37
16.	Islamic Society of Boston	278	33
17.	Islamic Circle of North America	131	33
18.	International Institute of Islamic Thoughts	142	22
19.	Almaghrib	389	20
20.	Michigan Muslim Council	79	6
21.	Latino Muslims	833	178
22.	Islamic Pluralism	46	1
23.	Islamic Society of North America	914	94
24.	American Islamic Congress	105	55
25.	American Islamic Forms of Democracy	169	30
26.	Minaret Freedom	27	5
27.	Universal Muslim Association of America	42	9
28.	Muslims for America	45	22
29.	Hizb-ul-Tarar	127	9
30.	Conservative Party	237	66
31.	The Democrats	1581	362
32.	Working Families Party	642	149
33.	Republican Party	1027	136
	<i>Total</i>	<i>15007</i>	<i>4320</i>

After that, the retesting of coding sheet was made. At the end, the researcher used the statistical formula of inter-coder reliability (Holsti, 1969). That is:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2M}{N_1 + N_2}$$

The results after using this formula was 0.8 which shows that, the inter-coder reliability was sufficient for this research.

4. Results

Interpretations

Table 4 explains the variance in diverse types of American organizations' sentiments that they have expressed on twitter. Firstly, Findings show that fear is high in Muslim rights organization, which is almost 24 %. Moreover, the fear in "Muslim Educational, Muslim Political" is 16.9 % and 18.2%, respectively. Secondly, the sadness is on the peak in Muslim Educational with 39.2 % leading to Muslim Political, which is on 37.8 %.

Table 4. *Sentiment Type by Type of Organization*

<i>Type of Sentiments</i>	<i>Type of Organizations</i>				<i>Total</i>
	Muslim Rights	Muslim Educational	Muslim Political	US Political Parties	
Fear	24.0 %	16.9 %	18.2 %	1.4 %	19.3 %
Sadness	28.5 %	39.2 %	37.8 %	16.0 %	27.8 %
Anger	43.0 %	22.3 %	26.2 %	42.2 %	40.2 %
Happiness	0.8 %	1.1 %	0.9 %	15.3 %	3.2 %
Other	3.8 %	20.4 %	16.9 %	25.1 %	9.4 %
<i>Total</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>

Nonetheless, Muslim rights having a low value of 28.5 % and US political Parties are on 16.0 %. Thirdly, the Anger element is on top of Muslim Rights and US political organizations with a value of 43.0 % and 42.2 % separately. Fourthly, the happiness sentiment is almost not shown by any Muslim Organization, while only 15.3 % of this sentiment expressed by US political parties. Finally, anger is on the highest point with 40.2 % while; sadness is on 27.8 % leading to fear, which is on 19.3 %. However, other categories having almost 9 % of emotions and Happiness containing 3 % portion overall.

Table 5. *Type of Sentiments by Organizations Differ by Religious Categories*

<i>Type of Sentiments</i>	<i>Type of Religious Categories</i>		<i>Total</i>
	Muslim expats	Non–Muslim Americans	
Fear	22.9 %	1.4 %	19.3 %
Sadness	30.1 %	16.0 %	27.8 %
Anger	39.8 %	42.2 %	40.2 %
Happiness	0.8 %	15.3 %	3.2 %
Other	6.3 %	25.1 %	9.4 %
<i>Total</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>

Interpretation

Table 5 illustrated that how sentiments articulated by organizations are differed by some religious categories entailing Muslim Expats Organizations and Non–Muslims Americans. To commence, the information shows that anger is on top in both organizations with 39.8 % in Muslims Expats organizations in America and 42.2 % in Non–Muslim American Organizations. Moreover, the sadness is on the second number with 30.1 % in Muslim and 16.0 % in Non–Muslim organizations. Furthermore, the fear is also high in Muslim Expats with 22.9 % following by fear in non–Muslim organizations that is 1.4 %. In addition to this, the Happiness is far greater than in Non–Muslim of America which is 15.3 % whereas Muslims are on 0.8 %. On top of that, in another category, the Non–Muslims having high points with 25.1 % while Muslims expressed other emotions very less that are on 6.3 %. Lastly, the table shows that, Negative Emotions—fear, sadness and Anger—are on peak. As, “Anger” is on topmost with 40.2 % emotions which is very high by contrasting to any other emotion. While sadness is on 27.8 %. Then, the fear is on third, with about 19.3 % of emotions. “Other” category emotions are on fourth no with 9 % of emotions. Lastly, the “Happiness” containing about 3 % of emotions.

Table 6. *Type of Sentiments by Different Muslim Organization*

<i>Type of Sentiments</i>	<i>Types Muslim Expats Organization</i>			<i>Total</i>
	Muslims Rights	Muslim Educational	Muslim Political	
Fear	24.0 %	16.9 %	18.2 %	22.9 %
Sadness	28.5 %	39.2 %	37.8 %	30.1 %
Anger	43.0 %	22.3 %	26.2 %	39.8 %
Happiness	0.8 %	1.1 %	0.9 %	0.8 %
Other	3.8 %	20.4 %	16.9 %	6.3 %
<i>Total</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>	<i>100.0 %</i>

Interpretation

Table 6 shows the types of sentiments expressed by the different kinds of Muslim Organizations. The findings have been recorded in this table is that how different sorts of sentiment uttered by Muslims Expats are differ by organization types. However, it has been shown in table that, again anger is on top in all with 43.0 % in Muslim Rights while it is almost halved in Muslim Educational with 22.3 % and in Muslim Political Organization, it slightly increased and logged on 26.2 %. Secondly, sadness is elevated in Muslim Educational with 39.2 % and in Muslim Political it is on 37.8 %. However, with a small decrease in Muslim Rights it is on 28.5 %. Thirdly, the negative emotion—fear—is on leading in Muslim rights organization with 24.0 % while it is low in Muslim educational with 16.9 % with a slight high in Muslim political organization with 18.2 %. Fourthly, none of Muslim organization is happy as figures shows 0.8 %, 1.1 % and 0.9 % individually. Finally, in total, anger is high with almost 39 % leading to sadness that is 30.1 % and fear is on 22.9 %. Notwithstanding, the happiness is 0.8 % and other emotions are nearly 6.3 % by all Muslim Expats Organizations.

5. Conclusion

This research has a greater focus on the sentiments of Muslims in the US as a minority. Since emotions/sentiment study proves to be an essential part of conflict resolution; therefore, such studies help in planning ahead of a calamity at national levels. Such studies help the states or organizations to come up with productive strategies to resolve the conflicts. The study concludes with some future suggestions for American political leadership.

Firstly, the results show a high frequency of anger in the tweets of all the organizations. Generally, Muslims are feeling the emotion of sadness and fear at the same time concerning their future in the USA. Simultaneously, opposition political parties have used this scenario in their favor by showing sympathy towards Muslims as opposed to Trump. For example, reflected that conflict resolution is highly dependent on emotions. (Halperin, 2010; Verkuyten, 2004) also explained that specific emotions like sympathy and fear are relevant when making policies related to immigrants.

Secondly, emotions of hatred and fury are reflected in the tweets of organizations, whether they are Muslim expats or non-Muslim organizations. The reason being the minorities will suffer equally by the repulsive speeches. This could also be harmful for the stability of government. For instance (Halperin et al., 2004), concludes that anger is the most powerful emotion that can assist in developing constructive or destructive towards inner group.

After few days of oath-taking, an executive order was issued by Trump ordering the ban to travel from six Muslim countries to the USA. His actions were condemned by many organizations including many civil society institutions. There was also condemnation for the appointment of National Security advisor who was famous for his anti-Muslim sentiments. These actions were received with protests entailing negative consequences on the travel ban (Mindock, Kumar, 2017).

The Bridge Initiative Project on Islamophobia revealed that five years before starting his campaign for the presidency; Trump stressed that USA is at war with the Muslims on The Late Show on 4th September 2010. Later, when he announced for his candidacy, he announced that he would look into closing mosques all around the country in 2014. He continued with his tirade of spiteful comments in an interview after the Paris attacks in November 2015, urging the Americans to “*watch and study the mosques*”. On 17 November 2015, yet again, Trump tweeted that, “*Refugees from Syria are now pouring into our great country. Who knows who they are? Some could be ISIS. Is our president insane?*”

The series of spiteful comments continued on Muslims which included: he would implement a database to track Muslims, some mosques will be put under surveillance. He also claimed that some Muslims cheered 9/11 incident. At a campaign rally in South Carolina, Trump even announced that he had already issued a statement for a ‘Muslim ban.’ In March 2016 during an interview with Fox News, he was seen mentioning that they were at war with radical Islam. He tried to align the UK in his feelings towards Muslims during the incidents in the UK. During the March interview with Fox News, he claimed, “*27 percent Muslims around the world are very militant.*” And in May 2016, Trump was seen saying that Muslim ban was just a suggestion because it was unprecedented; again, in an interview with Fox News (Hamedy 2018). All the above quoted statements and sentiments are a clear reflection of the Islamophobic policies of future president of the US.

Some analysts believed that Trump would change his rhetoric after becoming the president, but the world witnessed that the 45th President of the USA continued his anti-Muslim sentiments, policies and statements. He started the office by signing an executive ban for 7 Muslim countries, including Syria, Iraq, Libya, Iran, Somalia, Yemen and Sudan for 3 months (Husain 2018). Six weeks after the first ban, there was a revision that the ban was lifted for Iraq. Ironically, the District Court of Hawaii and the Federal Court in Maryland of the USA issued an order to stop the new executive order to ban Muslims. On 24 September 2017, he presented a different version of the 'Muslim Ban' by adding these countries in the list: Chad, Venezuela, North Korea, Somalia, Libya, Iran, Libya, Syria and Yemen.

All the above-mentioned Tweets, interviews and policies are a clear indicator that Muslims were naturally going to protest (Halperin, 2010; Verkyuten, 2004). Their voices needed to be heard by the government to develop productive policies. Not just for Muslims but for other minorities also.

In conclusion, it is safe to say that the reactionary aggressive behavior of Muslims and Native Americans towards Trump was at its peak and justified. Such aggressive behaviors can lead to anarchy and other lawless reactions in any country if such policies continue to be implemented. Fear has been the result of such aggressiveness, which can easily result in many undesirable consequences. The development of emotions like sadness or empathy, which are the natural consequences of Trump's political antics, can make the victim fall prey to "laziness" thus reducing the productivity to a considerable level. It has also been predicted by the experts that such incriminatory policies towards minorities can prompt them to leave the country for better and peaceful options. Moreover, it has been observed and noticed that such 'strict' policies have not brought about any considerable changes in the country's economic or social status. Therefore, moderation remains the best policy to adopt. Due to globalization, it has become essential to understand that minorities in any country play a vital role in its functioning at various levels. No government can be considered just if they keep on blaming or criticizing a part of their population. The political leaders are prompted to develop a more sympathetic and diplomatic behaviors towards the minorities. This will give a sense of security to them and make them function as a vital organ in the progress of the country.

The past decade has seen Donald Trump as a prominent Republican Party politician who is vehement in voicing his opinion against Islam and Muslims. Since the initial days of a political career, he has been expressing his personal prejudices against Muslims at large. Therefore, the whole study and discussion can be summed up by stating that Trump has employed anti minorities, especially anti-Muslim rhetoric, to climb the ladders of his political career. This has helped him secure a favorable position in the eyes of populist anti-Muslim Americans. His statements are loaded with biases and discrimination. His campaign with the slogan, "Make America Great Again" was mostly based on the politics of hatred, negativity and misinformation.

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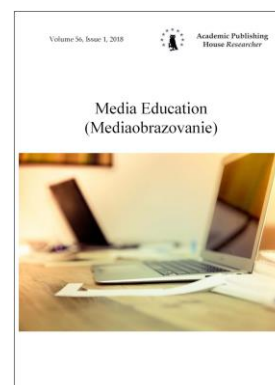
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Sketches for the Speech Portrait of a Media Critic: Kirill Razlogov

Lyudmila Seliverstova ^{a, *}, Lyudmila Buzinova ^b, Anastasia Levitskaya ^c

^a Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

^b Moscow International University, Russian Federation

^c Taganrog Institute of Management and Economics, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article attempts to analyze the linguistic identity and describe fragments of the speech portrait of the eminent Russian media critic Kirill Razlogov. A comprehensive linguo-pragmatic analysis of speech means – carriers of pragmatic meaning, united by one type of discourse – media critical discourse, allows, through the interpretation of its individual elements (pragmatic meanings and meanings, updated by the author of the texts, K.E. Razlogov) to reveal their individually and conventionally conditioned features of positioning in relation to the objects and subjects they represent (including the recipients of the text), to analyze the main dominants of the critic's evaluation of various fragments of reality, to diagnose his individual personality qualities.

The proposed hierarchical model of the language personality is regarded in a multi-stage approach to its study – from a concept to the language, from the language to speech (discourse), from speech to national pragmatics, and national communication. In this sense, the category of “the media critic's linguistic personality” is considered as a universal intercultural concept with a nuclear and peripheral zone. The nuclear characteristics include common signs of the speech activity of the media critic: high professionalism, linguistic culture, dedication to the profession, straightforwardness, openness, courage. At the peripheral level, there are characteristics of a linguistic personality, within the signs of media communication are manifested: emotiveness and expressiveness. At the level of verbalization of positive and negative emotions, the following emotionally expressive dominants are distinguished: the prevalence of a critical attitude to reality, the relative incontinence of discourse manifestations of emotion, external indifference of behavior, dependence on contextual background, openness/straightforwardness. Speech behavior of K.E. Razlogov is distinguished by persistence and perseverance, prudence, constancy, tact, a tendency to underestimate the level of awareness and interest of the reader.

Keywords: linguistic personality, speech portrait, speech behavior, pragmalinguistics, media critic, speech strategy, concept.

1. Introduction

Each detail in a person adds a mark to the portrait of his personality ... A personal model is manifested in every person's misconduct, in the way he looks at people, in his handshake, in the manner of speaking, wrote R. May (May, 2016: 32). This article attempts to analyze the linguistic personality and describe fragments of a speech portrait of Prof. Dr. Kirill Razlogov, president of the

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: lselectostova@sfedu.ru (L.N. Seliverstova), l.buzinova@mmu.ru (L.M. Buzinova), a.levitskaya@tmei.ru (A.A. Levitskaya)

Guild of Film Critics of Russia, Director of the Russian Institute of Cultural Studies (1989–2013), the author and host of television programs about the cinema. Together with Yu.S. Alysheva, we will understand the speech portrait as “a set of certain qualities of a linguistic personality, formed on the basis of the leading communicative properties of the speech. These qualities are, as a rule, a reflection or, rather, an embodiment in speech of the psychological properties inherent in the speaker and are manifested by a certain set of multilevel language means” (Alysheva, 2013: 8).

According to the anthropocentric paradigm, the focus of modern linguistic research is a person – a native speaker, a speaking, thinking personality. Researchers pay special attention to a linguistic personality – a personality that manifests itself in speech activity and in speech behavior, has a combination of knowledge and ideas, realizes itself in communication, intentionally and because of established speech habits, chooses a particular communication strategy in a particular act of communication, a set of language means, meanwhile actualizing certain pragmatic sense and meanings, the interpretation of which allows one to go beyond the text into the pragmatic field of discourse, in the present research – media critical discourse.

The choice of the linguistic personality of a media critic as an object of study is not accidental. Media critics play an important role in society, as they are called upon to analyze relevant creative, professional, ethical, legal, economic and technological aspects of media information production and consumption, thereby raising the level of media competence and analytical thinking of a wide audience. In this regard, it seems important to consider the individual characteristics of a particular linguistic personality, in this case, the linguistic personality of K.E. Razlogov, as a prominent representative of a professional group of media critics.

2. Materials and methods

The study was conducted using experimental methods. An objective pragmlinguistic experiment was conducted in the framework of the scientific direction of hidden pragmlinguistics (Matveeva, 2013: 168-180). This method allows not only to consider the formal structure of pragmatic meaning and to study its relation to objects, but also to analyze the meaning of linguistic means in relation to subjects using a language – senders of a media text. Another experiment was to identify connotative semes manifestations of linguistic units, including the allocation of nuclear (integral seme), the detection of connotative background and the implementation of identification projection (Buzinova, 2018: 396).

The materials for the study were the texts of K. Razlogov. The study of the speech behavior of the media critic was carried out according to several speech strategies of the author's hidden influence on the message recipient: strategies “Participation / non-participation of communicants in a speech event”, strategies “Confident / uncertain speech behavior of the text's author in a speech event”, “Shaping the attitude of the text's recipient to the speech event by evaluating it” and the speech strategy “The satisfaction / dissatisfaction of recipients' pragmatic expectations with the text”.

Media criticism texts can be considered as a tool for influencing the wide audiences. Primarily they characterize the sender of the text, that is, our research interest is directed not only at the content of communication, but also its form, the way a media critic behaves due to established habits in the communication process, his speech behavior, and his intentional speech activity.

3. Discussion

In linguistics, the term “linguistic personality” first appears in the 1930s of the last century in the works of J.L. Weisberger (1927), who believed that “... language represents the most universal cultural heritage. No one speaks a language solely because of his own linguistic identity; on the contrary, this linguistic knowledge grows due to belonging to the linguistic community” (Weisberger, 2004: 81). The same term was used by V.V. Vinogradov in the book “On Prose Fiction” in 1930. The linguistic personality in this regard is the native speaker, who, gaining a certain social experience, is able to act adequately in society, owning a certain set of linguistic means. It should be noted that the tendency to learn the language through the prism of the “speaking” person can be traced in linguistics much earlier, from the beginning of the XIX century. This is evidenced by the work of V.von Humboldt (Humboldt, 1985), E. Sepira (Sepir, 1993), Baudouin de Courtenay (Baudouin de Courtenay, 1963), E. Benvenist (Benvenist, 1974), and others.

The concept of “linguistic personality”, as a dynamic, developing phenomenon, is one of the central in modern linguistics. This concept came into scientific use to a large extent thanks to Yu.N.Karaulov and his book “Russian Language and Language Personality” in 1987 (Karaulov,

2014). There are various approaches to the study of a linguistic personality: a theoretical and epistemological model of a linguistic personality by Yu.N. Karaulov (*ibid.*), a typology of a linguistic personality, developed in accordance with the types of speech culture by O.B. Sirotinina and V.E. Goldin (Goldin, 1993), a linguistic personality as a basic national cultural prototype of a native speaker by V. I. Karasik (Karasik, 2002) and others. A wide range of works is devoted to the analysis of the linguistic identity of specific personalities, for example, writers Astafyev, Shukshin, Rasputin (Bashkova, 2018), certain age and social groups: high school students (Aniskina, 2001), TV presenters (Kancher, 2002), musicians (Sedykh, Bykanova, 2016), etc.

In the above works, the problem of the study of the linguistic personality is associated with the issues of the functional analysis of texts regarding the use of systemic means of the language to reflect the world outlook of the text's author and to achieve certain goals, i.e. with questions of speech activity and partially speech behavior. In this case, the last two concepts are usually mixed or identified.

In the present work, we consider it necessary to distinguish between these concepts, since speech behavior characterizes the sender of the text along with social behavior, is developing throughout life, due to a number of social characteristics - place of birth, environment, education, upbringing, age, gender, professional activity and etc. Whereas the speech activity is the activity of the sender of the text on the motivated, purposeful choice of language tools in specific conditions of the speech act for an optimal impact on the recipient (Matveeva, 2009).

The traditional and most common ways of representing a linguistic personality are level models of a linguistic personality. We consider the linguistic personality, taking into account the manifestation of individual characteristics, as well as from the point of view of typological characteristics that are characteristic of the bearer of a particular ethnic culture in professional media criticism discourse. Relevant in this case is the consideration of the linguistic personality from the point of view of its readiness to create speech acts, create, understand, interpret, and perceive speech work (Bogin, 1982: 1).

Based on the structure of the language, on the communicative properties of a person, on the unequal development of personality, G. Bogin models the level structure of a linguistic personality: the first level is the level of correctness; the second is the level of internalization; the third is the level of saturation; the fourth is the level of adequate choice; the fifth is the level of adequate synthesis. In accordance with the researcher's concept, "a linguistic personality, (1) having mastered the high-frequency means of direct nomination accepted in society, proceeds to (2) internalization of speech, which opens up the path to (3) lexical and grammatical knowledge and, further, to (4) a peculiar freedom of choice of means of expression from among many potential substitutes. Achieving this freedom allows a sophisticated linguistic personality (5) to operate with the whole text in such a way that the form of the text is optimally reflected in the content, acts as a meaningful form" (Bogin, 1982: 2, 9-10).

Developing a level model of a linguistic personality, Yu.N. Karaulov emphasizes that "a linguistic personality is a person expressed in a language (texts) and through a language, it is a personality reconstructed in its main features on the basis of linguistic means" (Karaulov, 2014: 38). He suggests the idea of a three-level model of the structure of a linguistic personality, in which a system-structural or verbal-semantic level (which shape the language units - words), linguistic-cognitive or thesaurus (units that are ideas, concepts, stereotypes in the focus of the world picture) and motivational-pragmatic or motivational (based on the activity-communicative needs of a linguistic personality: goals, motives, aspirations, intentions) (Karaulov, 2014: 51, 61).

Considering the language personality of the TV presenter in the framework of the rhetorical ethos M.A. Kancher identifies three levels of the linguistic personality: 1) stylistic (units are linguistic means and methods of their use, preferred by the person), 2) communicative-pragmatic (units are strategic and tactical moves) and 3) linguistic and cultural (units are national-cultural speech scenarios, norms and patterns of speech use, related with a worldview of personality) (Kancher, 2002: 11).

In this paper, we rely on the concept of A.P. Sedykh (Sedykh, 2005), which involves the identification of dominant signs of the linguistic personality at four levels of functioning: cognitive, ideological, emotionally expressive and ethnocultural; and complement it by an analysis of speech behavior at the level of hidden pragmatics. This approach allows to conduct a comprehensive linguistic-pragmatic analysis of the linguistic personality, namely, to analyze pragmatic intentional (as part of speech activity) and unconscious, actualized due to the habits (as a manifestation of

speech behavior) meanings of linguistic means in relation to the subject of speech activity, i.e. the media critic K. Razlogov.

It is necessary to emphasize that a comprehensive linguistic-pragmatic analysis of the linguistic personality does not contradict a three-level understanding of the linguistic personality of specialists who approach the study of this phenomenon from different viewpoints — linguodidactics (V. Karaulov), hermeneutics (G. Bogin), psycholinguistics (A. Leontyev), linguopersonology (I. Bashkova).

4. Results

Quantitative data on speech preferences of K.E. Razlogov, obtained during an objective pragmalinguistic experiment, are presented in the table. Correlation of the so-called individual speech indices (ISI) with the average speech genre indices (ASGI) allows us to diagnose some personal qualities of the media critic. For transparency, the diagnostic indicators are highlighted in gray.

Table 1. Speech behaviour of K. Razlogov in research and publicist texts

Speech Strategies		Participation/ not participation of addressees in the speech event			Shaping the receiver's attitude to the speech event by evaluation			Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction of pragmatic expectations of the text's receiver		
		Personal dimension	Social dimension	Object dimension	Positive attitude dimension	Negative attitude dimension	Neutral attitude dimension	Dimension of sufficient information	Dimension of insufficient information	Dimension of redundant information
Research article	ISI (%)	22.2	16.8	61	12.2	26.8	61	44.2	24.8	31
	ASGI (%)	15.6	13.3	71.1	23.4	18	58.6	42.9	23.2	33.9
Journalistic article	ISI (%)	16.2	16.8	68.6	14.2	29	56.8	43.4	21.4	35.2
	ASGI (%)	15.4	13.9	70.7	16	37.5	46.5	44.7	26.5	28.8

In the texts of research (academic) articles according the strategy “Participation/non-participation of communicants in a speech event”, the diagnostic indicators are personal (22.2 %, exceeding the ASGI 15.6 %) and the subject dimension ones (61 %, below the ASGI 71.1 %), which can be correlated with demonstrativeness (Leongard, 2000: 76), the ambitiousness of the sender of the text, the desire to dominate (Cordwell, 2000: 193), and self-sufficiency (Maslow, 2001: 401). The obtained quantitative data allow us to think that K.E. Razlogov relies on himself, self-confident, able to take responsibility for his words and deeds. Apparently, he is ambitious, persistent and persistent in achieving his goals, does not like to depend on anything, so he aspires to do everything himself.

According to the strategy “Shaping the receiver's attitude to the speech event by evaluation” in his academic articles, indicators of the positive attitude dimension (12.2 % below ASGI – 23.4 %) and the dimension of negative attitude (26.8 % above the ASGI – 18 %) indicate a person’s inclination to focus on negative aspects first, to evaluate shortcomings, and only then think about the positive signs of the world around him. In the texts of the journalistic genre of K.E. Razlogov most often choses the actualizers of the neutral attitude dimension (the ISI – 56.8 % significantly exceeds the ASGI – 46.5 %) and thereby takes a neutral position in relation to the described event, not expressing emotions in speech. A neutral assessment correlates with such personal qualities as discretion, constancy, serenity, slowness, tact. Thus, the speech portrait of K.E. Razlogov is rather contradictory, which can be explained by the diverse topics of the articles used for the analysis and the changeability as a quality inherent in this person. To support the latter conclusion, we quote E.V. Kabikova and N.N. Letina: “realizing the function of a scientist, K.E. Razlogov applies his organizational and journalistic skills, which makes his research more complete and closer to real

life. At the same time, his connection with journalism leads to increased emotionality of many of his academic texts and simplifies the language of presentation ... Carrying out various functions, ... K. E. Razlogov applies skills and knowledge that are the result of a kind of symbiosis of the roles of a scientist, manager and journalist” (Kabikova, 2013: 219-220).

According to the strategy “Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction of pragmatic expectations of the text's receiver” K.E. Razlogov reveals the dimension of redundant information, which means that in the texts of the journalistic genre he targets at an unprepared reader and underestimates the level of the audience's awareness of the issue.

To identify the features of a linguistic personality through the prism of professional nomination, the basic is the functional-pragmatic principle, according to which the analysis was carried out at the cognitive, ideological, emotionally expressive and ethno-cultural levels.

The concept of “media criticism” was considered as relevant to this study. The universal features of this concept are updated at the level of the following phrases in the articles of K.E. Razlogov:

- “... *the young branch of science and educational practice is in the process of becoming and searching for its own specificity and place in culture*” (Razlogov, 2012: 4);

- “... it makes people understand how mass communication is used in societies, *to master the ability to use media* in communication with other people, providing a person with knowledge of how to *analyze, critically interpret and create media texts ...*”;

- “... *part of the textbook of Professor A.V. Fedorov – the main enthusiast of media education in our country*” (Razlogov, 2005: 68).

According to the results of the generalization of the semasiology of linguistic material, the concept of “media criticism” is foregrounded with a small number of semes, which are the basic components; it has a stable semantic component “development”; it possesses a structural (frame) attribute “problematic”.

The ideological aspect in media criticism can be interpreted by the personal ideology in the views and positions of the individual. As a representative of any ideology, a politically labeled term is put forward – an ideologeme (Malysheva, 2009). The articles of K.E. Razlogov contain negatively marked ideologemes, such as “hopeless struggle”, “personality cult”, and positively marked ideologemes, such as “collective leadership”, “democracy”, “education”, “freedom”, “citizen rights”. The system of views in the field of politics, the chosen political course have a significant impact on the media in general and media criticism in particular. In his articles K.E. Razlogov touches upon ideological positions that are verbalized by stable verbal complexes within the framework of media critical discourse. Thus, the development of moral values, the realization of the rights and freedoms of the individual are foregrounded in the following statements:

- “Media education is an *integral part of the rights of any citizen* of any country in the world to *freedom of expression and the right to information* and is an instrument *for supporting democracy*” (Razlogov, 2005: 69);

- “... *support of the most talented scientists and orientation to relevant and promising areas of research*” (Razlogov, 2014b).

These statements reflect the democratic values of society, based on the key semes of “law” and “faith”. The struggle reflects an ideological position embodying the strengthening of the speaker's position, the desire to directly move towards the goals. The connotation background is contingent on the expectations of citizens who dream of a better future for their country.

The longing for quality education, for a developed society can be traced, for example, in such statements:

- “... *to make the teenage movie audience not to entertain itself, but to work for free at exhibitions and in concert halls ...*” (Razlogov, 2012: 159);

“A teacher, by definition, is considered to be a bearer of a higher culture than a pupil or student, not to mention the uneducated fellow citizens and the more so the “uncivilized” tribes. His opinion, his *tastes* are correct, he *must instill* them in others, *cultivate* them (the theologian would say - *convert to his faith*)” (Razlogov, 2012: 156-157);

- “... it's not children and teenagers who *need to be taught*, but their *parents, grandfathers and grandmothers*, including, not least, managers of culture events and projects who continue to *hopelessly fight mass “anti-culture”* in the capital and regions (Razlogov, 2012: 156).

The semantics of the italics phrases are concentrated around the basic seme “necessity”. Due to the indicated semantic components, the ideological orientation to inculcate in the modern

generation cultural values, increase efficiency and develop the motivation for self-education is manifested.

The criticism of prevailing stereotypes is highlighted in the following statements:

- "Aesthetic education is a *myth of our culture*" (Razlogov, 2005: 70);

- "*The era of enlightenment gave rise to the illusion* that the European "culture for the educated" ("reading and writing public" in the Russian tradition) is (or will be as a result of an educational project) a unifying beginning for all people worldwide" (Razlogov, 2012: 157).

The semantics of the above statements with the lexemes "myth", "illusion" forces K.E. Razlogov think about moral guidelines in society. The central seme "deception" is revealed on a denotative level and manifests a rather distorted perception of reality, based on a substitution of values.

Emotionality is a general property of speech, and can serve as a basic element for identifying its national-cultural characteristics. In speech, an emotional image is created mainly on the basis of the normative semantics of linguistic means. The current study proposes the analysis of lexical units in a media discourse, according to emotional segments corresponding to basic emotions: joy, anger, sadness and fear. The objectives of our study did not include a comprehensive reconstruction of the content of emotional concepts, but a partial analysis of language tools has been nevertheless performed.

The first unit consists of expressions that have a stable component of "joy", coupled with good mood, pleasure, enthusiasm, inspiration, for example:

"*The provocation was successful, the passions got heated, and irritation, as a source of creativity, did not disappear, but escalated ...*" (Razlogov, 2012: 156).

"*The only good news* is that cultural studies are in a good company of genetics and cybernetics, semiotics and even sociology, which in Soviet times developed secretly within the framework of philosophical sciences. The experience of then "pseudosciences" proves that the *desire of people for knowledge cannot be so easily destroyed*" (Razlogov, 2014b).

The considered expressions have a stable component "joy" associated with the achievement of a specific result, satisfaction and enthusiasm from this result: *the provocation was a success; passions are heated; I am glad*. The connotative background of statements is distinguished by a positive orientation precisely because of the contextual enrichment of statements.

Sadness is a negatively colored emotion and is characterized by a wide field of intensity, depth, and duration. It occurs when a person is upset, sad, or dissatisfied with any aspect of their life. Sadness is antonymous to joy and is close in meaning to grief, a state of mental bitterness, despondency, misery, and melancholy. These lexemes are united by the general term "emotional stress". Let us look at some examples:

"*The tragedy* of the creative intelligentsia is not that high culture *disappears* – it will not go away as long as its bearers are alive and they are capable of spiritual reproduction. The *tragedy* is that the power of creators (in the traditional sense of the word) now extends not to culture in general (where businessmen rule)" (Razlogov, 2012: 158).

"All the *wealth of fine art* that I would like to convey to them, *was left out*" (Razlogov, 2005: 71).

"*The crisis of modern education* is actually determined by the different speed of introduction of different generations to mass culture" (Razlogov, 2005: 74).

As we can see, the emotion "sadness" is verbalized within the framework of the actualization of the semes "sadness" and "regret" in language expressions: *culture disappears, wealth was left out, the crisis of modern education*. The connotation background is formed by the concept field "futility", which is associated with the existing conditions. The "tragedy" lexeme in the first example increases the emotiveness of the utterance. The connotative background is saturated with the components of the meaning of a theatrical production: drama, expressiveness, conflict.

Fear can be attributed to a "personal" emotion that is associated with the expectation of real or imagined danger or trouble for oneself, loved ones, and society as a whole. The reasons for fear may include: a sense of threat, bureaucratic pressure from the system, conflicting demands, and so on. But in this case, we mean a psychosomatic manifestation of an emotion that is an innate reaction. Let us analyze the lexical ways to verbalize the emotion "fear":

"There has long been *no single Eurocentric vertical here*, but there are many fundamentally equal cultural communities with their mores, customs, traditions and – *Oh, the horror!* – aesthetic preferences" (Razlogov, 2012: 157).

“When the first stage of this study was completed, its organizers *were horrified* that the majority of young people *knew only two* pieces of Art: one was “Barge Haulers on the Volga”, because it was in the school textbook, and the other “Morning in pine forest”, because it is depicted on candy wrappers” (Razlogov, 2005: 71).

“... that a generation of aging critics harmonized their mental life under the difficult conditions of the Soviet system, *mainly with the help of vodka*, and a modern teenager *uses glue* for the same purpose in conditions of democratization and the market. *Sniffing glue*, he enters the very state in which the film “Night Watch” is perceived as an organic work, because its internal logic is the *logic of being high*. And in a state of *semi-drug intoxication* one perceives it adequately. So what should be done? *To teach critics to smell glue?*” (Razlogov, 2005: 72).

“*I’m afraid* that the idea of global unification was also formed within the framework of a culture of corruption, which dictated the promotion of a yes-man as the head of financial flows – an effective manager who would easily *distribute kickbacks* as ordered by his supervisors” (Razlogov, 2014b).

Highlighted phrases are united by the key seme “hopelessness”. As we can see, the central seme is foregrounded on a connotative background, reflecting the Russian situation in modern education and science. Using such speech patterns in the media critical discourse, K.E. Razlogov aims to bring to the listener an idea of the need to look for new ways of educating young people, developing science, promoting cultural values. The sender's “dosed” manifestation of anger reflects the inner need to express the corresponding emotions.

The verbal complexes “*their death*”, “*a direct victim of stress*”, “*passed away*”, “*the advanced age of academicians*” more clearly demonstrate the indignation of the media critic in relation to the ongoing optimization in the education system:

“V.L. Rabinovich was not the only *direct victim of stress* caused by optimization. The first *to die* was the director of the State Research Institute of Restoration A.V. Trezvov. I would not write about it, if not *for the advanced age of academicians*, who would soon face similar “optimization”. Maybe their *demise* would be a blessing for the “optimizers,” but for the prestige of our country, it’s definitely not” (Razlogov, 2014b).

This statement in a connotative sense has a vivid negative metaphoric characteristic. It traces the indignation and rejection of the actions of the responsible government officials, since they entail “death”.

A media critic, a professor, as a representative of an elite culture, must be able to restrain external and internal manifestations of anger, be able to control himself, to know the norms of cultural behavior. Therefore, the texts of K. Razlogov convey a “veiled” expression of angry manifestations:

“Therefore, every person who is engaged in cinema as a science *is forced to* simultaneously *engage in a kind of prostitution*, that is, sell what he knows and can do in the forms that the consumer in the broad sense is ready to buy, from the reader and the film industry to the government and show business” (Razlogov, 2014a: 172).

“I think that the confidence of the “new barbarians”, who are ready to head anything, that all this science is just profanity, grew out of the experience of their own careers. After all, the scientific community *without complexes handed out* academic degrees to deputies and government officials, or even made them members of the Russian Academy of Sciences, which, however, did not save the latter” (Razlogov, 2014b).

“They knew from their own experience that all this was *bullshit*, since they have not written dissertations and articles, have not read books, and had absolutely nothing to do with science. It really didn’t occur to them that someone was engaged in scientific research, wrote texts himself, defended his discoveries under the conditions of well-known conservatism prevailing in culture and science” (Razlogov, 2014b).

In these contexts, the key seme “unscrupulousness” and the connotative potential of slang vocabulary are implemented. The use of such phrases is based on the pragmatism of combating the current situation. Incompatible concepts are foregrounded in a single context, which is one of the dominant techniques of Russian national rhetoric.

National markedness of discourse is an integral part of the simulated structure of the linguistic personality of the media critic. Among the ethnocultural indices of the linguistic personality we include paroemiological and phraseological units, catchphrases, proverbial foundation of the national language, precedent texts used in speech by native speakers,

in particular, by media critics. The collected empirical material allows us to identify three relevant thematic groups of statements, presented in the media discourse of K. Razlogov.

The first group of statements is united by the theme “education” and “media education”. Here are some examples:

“And media education is precisely the *form of education* that is most consistent with the current situation in the world, when the *multiplication of information, the accelerated change* of new and newer technologies lets *the younger generation overtake the older one on the path of progress*” (Razlogov, 2005: 75).

“The crisis of modern education is actually determined by the *different speed of familiarization* with the mass culture of different generations” (Razlogov, 2005: 74).

The above texts contain some mathematical terms and phrases that are united by the key seme “movement forward”. The connotation component of the above statements is enriched due to the context and the conceptual field associated with the central national idea of the “accelerated process”, due to the development of media education as a science.

The second group of statements is united by the theme “culture”.

“For some reason, screen culture at some stage *turned into an appendix to feature films*, where the focus was on feature films lasting about an hour and a half, intended to *entertain* more or less respectable public, - this is a rhetorical and historical issue” (Razlogov, 2014a: 168).

“The new managers of the culture sphere have declared all scientific activity in the research institutes *a profanity*. I emphasize: this was done not out of spite, but in the full confidence of the “new barbarians” that it was really so. Everything, that new officials could not understand, was declared *useless, and even absolutely harmful trouble*” (Razlogov, 2014b).

The material under study demonstrates the presence in semantics of phrases of the key seme “fall”, which reflects the “negative” attitude of the media critic to the current state of the culture in society. The considered speech manifestations reflect the emerging situation, which requires a qualitative change.

The third group consists of statements containing “an assessment of the policy of the country's leadership and government departments”. Consider examples that reflect the views of K. Razlogov regarding the problems of domestic policy of the state and their solution in relation to science and education:

“Naturally, these *draconian measures* ran into a protest of the Institutes' staff, and the *clash of two cultures* clearly showed itself at a significant meeting of the Public Council under the Ministry of Culture, which had been planned as *a blessing of reforms*, but turned into a *defeat of zealous managers*”.

“Each leader always has the need to *free himself from significant “ballast”*, which is impossible without a *blessing from above*. Experienced scientists could conduct such an operation less traumatically, if not for people, then, in any case, for science”.

“They preferred a *more “bloody” option*, but visible to the country's leadership”.

“Why did the *main blow hit* the Russian Institute of Cultural Studies (RIC)?” (Razlogov, 2014b).

The semantics of the selected lexical units are concentrated around this “thoughtlessness”, “fraud”, “administrative frames”. The connotations manifested by collocations and expressions are “mastered” by the majority of representatives of the Russian scientific society, who in real life are facing all forms of injustice. For politicians, these are “thoughtless reforms,” and for the common man, new problems that only complicate life.

5. Conclusion

A comprehensive linguopragmatic analysis of speech means – carriers of pragmatic meaning, united by one type of discourse – media critical discourse, allowed, through the interpretation of its individual elements – pragmatic meanings and meanings, foregrounded by the author of the texts, K.E. Razlogov, to reveal their individually and conventionally conditioned features of positioning in relation to the objects and subjects they represent (including the recipients of the text); to analyze the main dominants of the media critic's evaluation of various fragments of reality, to diagnose his individual personality qualities.

The proposed hierarchical model of the language personality is regarded in a multi-stage approach to its study – from a concept to the language, from the language to speech (discourse), from speech to national pragmatics, and national communication. In this sense, the category of

“the media critic's linguistic personality” is considered as a universal intercultural concept with a nuclear and peripheral zone. The nuclear characteristics include common signs of the speech activity of the media critic: high professionalism, linguistic culture, dedication to the profession, straightforwardness, openness, courage. At the peripheral level, there are characteristics of a linguistic personality, within the signs of media communication are manifested: emotiveness and expressiveness. At the level of verbalization of positive and negative emotions, the following emotionally expressive dominants are distinguished: the prevalence of a critical attitude to reality, the relative incontinence of discourse manifestations of emotion, external indifference of behavior, dependence on contextual background, openness/straightforwardness. Speech behavior of K.E. Razlogov is distinguished by persistence and perseverance, prudence, constancy, tact, a tendency to underestimate the level of awareness and interest of the reader.

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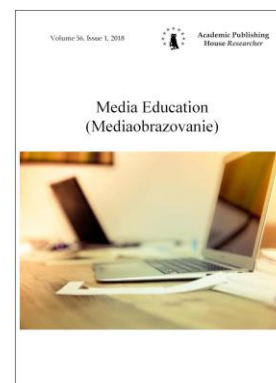
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Suggestive Impact of Linguocultural Phenomena in Media Communication

Olga Verbitskaya ^{a,*}

^a Irkutsk State University, Russian Federation

Abstract

This article considers the level of development of contemporary mass communication means and the specificity of their all-round impact on a person. Media culture influences society values, different social groups' way of thinking. However, in the conditions of mass introducing of informative and computer technologies, not only positive but also negative methods of mass communication impact both on a separate individual and on the society on the whole are being extended. Media culture is a unique social institution of information age, and such landmark fragment of American conceptosphere as linguocultural type (LCT) "the Hollywood Star" is media culture product and is analyzed in this work from conceptual, figurative and evaluative aspects. The specific trait of this linguocultural concept consists in its involvement into historical and cultural context, the ability to associate with verbal, symbolic and event-trigger phenomena known to all members of linguistic and cultural community. The work reveals verbal and semiotic characteristics of LCT under review, analyses its ethnocentric essence. Close attention is paid to psychological, linguistic and discursive aspects of suggestion of audiovisual means of mass media, to their communicative role. On the basis of linguocultural signs their suggestive impact on mass consciousness is shown in the process of media communication. The conclusion is drawn that subjective senses of the media culture products are actualized at the level of intellectual, evaluative and ideological text's implications.

Keywords: linguocultural type, manipulative potencies of mass media, suggestive informational impact, media discourse.

1. Introduction

The recourse to the study of mass media impact on public consciousness within linguistic and cultural studies at present moment is an urgent and perspective task in the context of permanent globalization and due to the fact that the main channel of mass information spreading are electronic mass media. Mass media are social institution established for collection, processing and dissemination of information on massive scale. These include the press, publishing houses, radio, television, films, videos and sound recording, and Internet. Mass media is used for a broad and comprehensive messaging, throughout society. Their product, the information is addressed not to the individual but a large audience. In modern society there is an increasingly growing penetration of the mass media in all spheres of life. Definition of the press as "the fourth power" (along with the legislative, executive and judicial one) rightly applies to all media indicating their importance in the system of power relationship. It's closely connected with the role they play in the formation, operating, evaluation of public opinion, the political consciousness of the citizens, their value

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: verba-helga@mail.ru (O.M. Verbitskaya)

orientations and preferences. Due to the omnipresent media culture the system of spiritual reproduction is being transformed. Taking into account all above said, we consider the study of media influence on people's minds of utter importance.

2. Materials and methods

Numerous monographic explorations and articles by Alexander Fedorov, the main expert in the field of media literacy education in Russia (Fedorov, 2007; 2009; 2011; 2019), served as materials of our research, the works by Russian media pedagogues were used for the same purpose (Barsukova, 2012; Fedorov, Levitskaya, 2017; Ivanova, 1999; Lukasheva, 2017). The tasks of analysis are consideration, precision, and concretization of the notion "linguocultural type", its essence, nature, definition of suggestive impact executed by media culture as a phenomenon of information age.

Research methods which allowed to analyze the state of domestic scholars' views in the area of media education and linguocultural studies are the following: semiotic, descriptive, comparative, discourse analysis, the method of targeted selective observation, dictionary definitions analysis, terminological unification etc. The author also resorted to the methods of decoding stylistics during authentic text interpretation (Kukhareno, 1987).

3. Discussion

As a preamble, it would be appropriate to mention such an important sphere of human activity as art. On the one hand, artistic works themselves perform an independent communicative function and significantly affect the non-verbal communication of people, and on the other hand, the basis of many types of art (such as stage performance, ballet, music, cinema, and especially fine art) is precisely non-verbal communication. And if a word is addressed to human consciousness, the rational-logical sphere, then art, first of all, appeals to the emotional-figurative sphere of a person and his/her subconscious. Many scholars underline that on this important psychophysiological regularity, the huge suggestive power of media culture is largely based upon (Jolls, Johnsen, 2018; Petranová, Hossová, Velický, 2017; Tayie, 2008).

A logical question arises – to what degree are we actually free and autonomous? To what point do we always consciously manage our mental process, our attitudes, our behavior, our actions and emotions? Maybe most of our decisions are influenced by outside? It is not so difficult to do this and, by no means, it is not always reached through tough coercion, but sometimes due to a gentle, deliberate shift of the focus of our attention, of our thought process, our beliefs, and judgments in the direction which someone needs – and respectively, your actions there too. It is quite possible to quietly persuade us imperceptibly, to convince us discreetly – in short – to manipulate us. Experts say that, unfortunately, humans are suggestible creatures. And there can be no doubt about that. Each person is exposed to daily manipulations in various areas of life. And not only through words and pictures, that is, visually and cognitively, but also through latent impact on any sensory organs.

How it is frighteningly simple to bypass the controlling authority of the human brain has been described by the psychologist Daniel Kahneman in his book "Thinking, Fast and Slow" (Kahneman, 2011). Kahneman says that the most reliable way to make people believe even the falsest statement is to repeat it often. Moreover, these repetitions must be multiple, because in this case they are absorbed by the brain as thoroughly memorized knowledge, and as a result, is accepted by consciousness as the truth. Manipulative techniques are so sophisticated and veiled that it is very difficult to spot them (Hobbs, 2011; Seoki, 2016). When reading these lines, many people have an association with the advertising business. We unwittingly catch mass consciousness stereotypes which fill all the space around us (Kačínová, 2018). An aggressive stream of specially designed advertising and imposed emotional states constantly flows to the mass recipient through news and advertising fragments (Munoz-Leiva et al., 2015).

An example of this widely used manipulative technics is the endless discussion by all the news channels of the coronavirus epidemic (COVID19), which puts the viewers in a slightly zombified state of mind in which we are all now. Thus, our reaction to events is controllable. Any advertisement is designed in such a way that it imperceptibly, in the background, shifts a person's internal priorities from what he/she wants to what the advertiser needs (Robinson, 2017). In this connection, further in our study we will talk about such significant fragment of the American conceptsphere as "the Hollywood Star". The relevance of the problem under consideration also

lies in the fact that, despite the impressive number of works devoted to the study of the problem of the linguocultural character “the Hollywood Star”, the problem of the impact of this American national concept on the mass consciousness is not sufficiently investigated.

Linguocultural type (LCT) is a recognizable image of a representative of a culture, typified on the basis of sociocultural criteria, as well as certain specific characteristics of verbal and non-verbal behavior (Karasik, 2005). It should be noted that in terms of its cognitive essence, the linguocultural character can be considered a kind of concept, since it is localized in the mind as a complex multi-level mental formation. Following V.A. Maslova, we propose to consider the concept of “mentality” not as philosophical, scientific or aesthetic systems, but the level of social consciousness at which thought is not separated from emotions, from latent habits and methods of consciousness (Maslova, 2004).

When studying the linguocultural type, priority is given to establishing “the cultural and diagnostic significance of the typed personality for understanding the corresponding culture” (Karasik, Dmitrieva, 2005: 10). Since we are dealing with a generalized image of a representative of Hollywood show business and cinema, this image is determined by the deduced value orientation to the propaganda of lifestyle in American society.

Based on the studied theoretical material, LCT “the Hollywood Star” is presented by us as a model person, that is, a sociocultural type that is imitated or opposed by representatives of the same culture. It should be noted that the main characteristic of any model personality is the establishment of value guidelines for behavior (Karasik, 2005). Consequently, the value component of LCT “the Hollywood Star” that we are analyzing represents certain value dominants of an individual belonging to a certain linguocultural society in any period of being, and is reflected in the culture of a native speaker. It must be emphasized that the axiological aspects of LCT are its pivotal element, its basic component and, at the same time, a striking carrier of ethnocultural information. This element is objectified in the aggregate of a generalized, stable idea that meets some needs, interests, intentions, goals, plans of a linguistic personality (Huseynov, 1998) “primary, higher principles” (Petrov, 2009: 30), which force people to act in a certain way by defining typed behavior. Also, outwardly, values act as properties of an object or phenomenon, however, they are inherent in it not by nature, not simply because of the internal structure of the object itself, but because it is involved in the sphere of human social life and has become a carrier of certain social relations.

Based on the above said about the axiological parameters of the linguocultural type “the Hollywood Star”, we confirm that everything that has value potential always has an impact on society, on its mapping of the world, on public consciousness. And after V.P. Shestakov we attribute the film industry, show business and everything that is associated with these social phenomena called “mass culture”, which expands the cultural values of celebrities not only within the United States, but also in the cultures of other countries to a greater or lesser extent on the strength of its originality. Why is this happening? For the sole reason that any culture has a “tendency to generalization, to adaptation and assimilation of other forms of culture” (Shestakov, 1988: 54).

LCT “the Hollywood Star” itself has a powerful hypnotic effect on the minds and public consciousness.

So, in confirmation, we find the response of the frantic desire of an individual to Hollywood “goods” in illustrative artistic material:

1. *“I wanna make money, I wanna live in glamour,
I wanna have a big house, I wanna drive a sports car.
But you know that I don't got it, probably never have it
God was playin' a joke when he made me
I don't have any money, I don't even have a job
I'm not a movie star, and I'll probably never be.
I wish I was a hunk, I wish I was muscular
Why can't I be good looking, why can't I be taller?
I wish my teeth were white, and wish my butt was tight
I wish I had a big chest, you know I wish I was the best.
And you know that I don't got it, probably never have it
God's got a sense of humor, just look at me”* (Calibretto, 2008).

2. *“Why don't I look like that woman (from Penthouse magazines)? And then it struck me.
The truth is, that woman doesn't even look like that woman. Her body has been painted to create*

hollows and shadows and curves. Her gravity-defying breasts: supported by transparent sticky tape. The photos: air-brushed to remove any wrinkle, dimple, pimple, crinkle" (Lette, 2007: 179). At the syntactic level, a contrast is revealed (that woman – I) and (that woman – that woman, the women on the cover are opposed to themselves, their real image and quasi-real).

3. "...Frieda had known that one day he (Toby) was going to become a famous and important man» (Sheldon, 1997: 26). «'...God meant you to be a big man, Toby. You'll go to New York, and when you're a famous star, you'll send for me' " (Sheldon, 1997: 30).

The model under consideration embodies the full range of such values of American society, as riches (material/tangible wealth), glory (fame), chance (success), possibility of self-realization (self-actualization), public position (condition /social status), all that combines in itself the American dream. Taken separately these elements of the valued picture of the world do not carry the negative coloring, but their pragmatic meaning varies from neutral to the negative sense. Also, some dominants correspond to status descriptions of the Hollywood star, so it is necessary to add to all above-mentioned characteristics publicity, the idea about a star as about the mass product of consumption, dependence on the Hollywood hierarchical system, the notion about the work of stars. Analyzing the valued constituent of model, we examine its status descriptions: pernicious habits (bad habits), depravity (perversity), corruption (venality), external beauty and youth (beauty and youth) (Seliverstova, 2007).

On an extensive empirical material, we conduct a parallel between the concept "American Dream", and typecast "the Hollywood Star". It is no coincidence that Hollywood is metaphorically called the Dream Factory, that is the place where the American dream is created as a product of mass production: "*Hollywood ...was the film capital of the world, a magnet for the talented, the greedy, the beautiful, the hopeful and the weird. It was the land of palm trees and Rita Hayworth and the Holy Temple of the Universal Spirit and Santa Anita. It was the agent who was going to make you an overnight star; it was a con game, a whorehouse, an orange grove, a shine. It was a magical kaleidoscope, and each person who looked into it saw his own vision*" (Sheldon, 1997: 55). The concept of "Hollywood" is not just a toponym, it is a state of mind, a mental picture, giving birth to a large number of associative images: a vicious night life, cinemas, unusual, bright, flashy lights and stuff.

On the whole, the concept of "American Dream" is used to describe a kind of nation wide ideology that unites Americans. A star career is nothing but embodiment of the American dream into reality: "*The word "Hollywood" had become a lode-stone for miracles, a trap that seduced people with wonderful promises, siren songs of dreams fulfilled, and then destroyed them*" (Sheldon, 1997: 77). The italicized word "Hollywood" in this example is suggestive graphical tool of the author, which implies anaggravated perception of the word "Hollywood" that has a hypnotic effect on dreamers.

4. Results

Taking into consideration all above-mentioned, we find it appropriate to oppose the objective (typical) symptoms and subjective (stereotypical) characteristics of the studied type. So, on the one hand, the objective signs represent categorical features, allowing to speak about the hallmarks of Hollywood stars, it is possible to do typecasting. On the other hand, the subjective symptoms reflect a standardized view about celebrities, which is not inherent in all stars in the film industry, the world of entertainment and show business. In other words, our research is based not only on the typecasting of the celebrities' image, but, in a sense, on standard views about the image of the star itself, its lifestyle and modeling moral character of the linguistic and cultural type "the Hollywood Star".

A huge number of interpreted songs about Hollywood, the Mecca of cinema, contain one major thought, embodying a negative value judgment. The considered image of the conqueror of Hollywood appears before us as a victim of star fever, as vicious (wanton/ vicious), ambitious (arrogant/high-flying), venal (venal/mercenary), lying (false, fake), as in many literary works: Charles Bukowski "Hollywood", Jackie Collins "American Star", Hemy Denker "The King Maker", Edmin Gilbert "The Beautiful Life", Sidney Sheldon "A Stranger in The Mirror", etc. For example, one of many songs about the thirst for a Hollywood life is presented in the work of Michael Jackson "Hollywood Tonight", manifesting the American dream of fame, popularity and riches:

*Lipstick in hand
 Tahitian tanned
 in her painted on jeans
 She dreams of fame
 She changed her name
 To tinsel town
 To one that fits the movie screen
 She's headed for the big time, that means
 (chorus)
 She's going Hollywood
 She's going Hollywood tonight (3 times)
 It's true, that you, may never ever
 Have that chance again
 (that chance again)
 West bound greyhound
 To tinsel town
 Just to pursue her movie star dreams
 She's giving hot tricks to men
 Just to get in
 When she was taught that that's not clean
 She's headed for the big time, that means
 (chorus)
 She's going Hollywood
 She's going Hollywood tonight (3 times)
 It's true, that you, may never ever
 Have that chance again
 (that chance again)
 [Spoken words:]
 She gave up her life, to follow her dreams
 Left behind everything, for the movie scene
 Nothing more she could want,
 When she was taught that that's not clean
 She wanted Hollywood, she wanted it bad
 Now that she got her dream, she became a star
 It all looked so good, but only good from a far
 Imprisoned in every paparazzi's camera,
 Every guy wished they could
 She's going Hollywood
 She's going Hollywood tonight
 She's going Hollywood ...
 She's going Hollywood tonight" (Jackson, 2006).*

The anaphoric use of the pronoun "she" not only in this song, but also in many similar ones creates an implication of precedence – a subtext in which a part of events and facts is hidden. Analyzing the text of this musical composition, we focus on repeatable word combinations: 'the movie screen', 'the big time', 'dreams of fame', which characterize the principal heroine's dream of the song – the world of Hollywood, and represent an associative series of nominative units describing Hollywood Star typecast. We observe a similar associative array not only in this song, but also in a great deal of other ones:

1) "It feels so good to be in Hollywood,
 Hollywood, Hollywood, Hollywood.
 I am gonna find my star on the walk of fame
 Everywhere I go everybody knows my name.
 It feels so good to be in Hollywood" (Scherzinger, 2006).
 "I'm leaving this place and I'm never
 looking back again my friend.
 Cause I'm going to Hollywood.
 I'm chasing my dreams again.

*I'm going to Hollywood,
and I'll never be the same"* (Scherzinger, 2006).

2) *"She gave up her life to follow her dreams left behind everything, for the movie scene"* (Hollywood undead, 2011). Returning to Michael Jackson's song, it should be noted that its refrain carries only one meaning, "if you have a goal, then there is the means to achieve it" and the multiple repetition of one sentence reinforces the meaning of the substantive "chance". Attributive unit of "tinsel – tinsel, sham, to cheat" in the song is a predicative combination "to tinsel town" (literally: to cheat city). "She dreams of fame" (first verse) (Jackson, 2006) – creative self-realization is inferior to the vanity; "She's giving hot tricks (second verse) to men Just to get in [there]". – "Hot tricks" is a slang set phrase with clearly negative connotations, meaning sexual immorality of the inhabitants of Hollywood. The listener is faced with the manifestation of willingness to moral and moral fall only in order to "to get in", to achieve its goal; "She changed her name (the first verse), She gave up her life (recitative), Left behind everything (recitative)" (Jackson, 2006).

These lines are interpreted as the rejection of the previous life. The birth of a new personality is expressed by predicates in the past tense. The meaning of the utterance *"When she was taught that that's not clean"* (Jackson, 2006) is expressed through the passive voice, implying a certain impact on the consciousness of the heroine from the outside, and any other person would like to occupy her place. The negation phenomenon is "not clean" (the end of line) gives the feeling of a direct assessment of the song's author. The negative particle "not" reinforces the idea of the utterance at the grammatical level.

The way to fame and fortune full of dirt and monstrous cynicism, it is fraught with moral degradation. The tremendous influence of Hollywood is felt through advertising a glamorous lifestyle, great fees and luxury: *"I wanna be popular, I wanna be a movie star, I wanna be noticed, I wanna go far. I wanna make money, I wanna live in glamor, I wanna have a big house, I wanna drive a sports car"* (Calibretto, 2008). As we can see from the above example, semiotic characteristics such as huge mansions, limousines with personal drivers, cruises and travels, unnecessarily huge expenses are all indispensable attributes of a Hollywood star's lifestyle – all that chic life implies. *«All American boy with big dreams of glamour life Bright lights and boogie nights. The hype is everything could be yours if the price is right grab your nothing and hold it tight. The first chance you get your heading out to the west this decision is one you won't regret move to the place where everybody knows: Like Hollywood, Los Angeles, California»* (P.O.D. "Hollywood", "Live Las Vegas", 2020).

Artists appeal to the image of Hollywood through the epithets (adjectives and substantivized adjectives): *popular, famous, and glamor* (romantic halo), *magic, enchantment, luxury, chic*. In this connection it's very curious to read the autobiography by a brilliant Irish actor, the Hollywood star, Gabriel Byrne, where he depicts his perception of the great of this wonderful world of real theatre. It is hard to believe that this iconic person used to be one of us and the stellar world was unattainable for him at the beginning of his actor's career: *"Besides the picture houses of the town, I was drawn inevitably to the theatres. Some of them overwhelmed me, made me feel inferior, as if I had no right to be there. An upstart from Walkinstown. At any moment, a stern-faced usher might come and ask me what my business was and escort me shamefaced to the doors. My heart always beat faster as I climbed the carpeted steps of the Gate. MacLiammoir, Edwards, Orson Welles, James Mason and other luminaries glaring at me from photographs with undreamt of elegance and haughty inaccessibility"* (Byrne, 1994: 73). He lived in a slightly altered state of mind due to this magic impact of mass culture world: *"So I divided my solitary nights crossing the lines between fantasy and reality, moving from picture-house to theatre as the mood took me, feeling alone but part of a crowd, enchanted and seduced by shadows, in love with unattainable actresses and imitating my favourite actors. I could never have believed that one day I would appear on these very stages and come to know these people I had worshipped from afar and be proud to call them colleagues, and in some cases dear, dear friends"* (Byrne, 1994: 75).

Back to our analyzing the text of the song by Michael Jackson in the context of stylistic organization, it is necessary to note that the song genre is obviously marked by the use of such stylistic device as the distant repetition: *"She's headed for the big time, that means"* (Jackson, 2006).

The hidden meaning of the text implies the obsession of the heroine's idea of becoming popular. *"She wanted Hollywood, she wanted it bad"* (Jackson, 2006) – a repetition within the

syntactic structure also characterizes the generalized image of “she” as a woman, mesmerized by the career of a movie star.

At the lexical level the woman’s desire is actively enhanced by the use of the adjective “bad” acting as an emotional intensifier. Like Jill Castle, the heroine of many songs not just wants, she madly wants to conquer Hollywood: *“She gave up her life to follow her dreams left behind everything, for the movie scene. Nothing more she could want. She was determined to follow her plan. She wanted Hollywood, she wanted it bad. Now that she got her dream, she became a star. It all looked so good, but only good from a far. Imprisoned in every paparazzi’s camera, every guy wished they could”* (Gilbert, 1996: 33).

The path of the heroine’s generalized image is defined by the plan for the conquest of Hollywood, and her obsession with fame is expressed on the grammar level of the text through the use of infinitive form of the verbs “to pursue”, “to follow” and a compound predicates in the sentences beginning with “wanna be”, “wanna have”, “want to live”. “Movie star dream” is coming true, but in the overwhelming majority of cases the recipient does not find the confirmation of optimistic denouement.

In this article, we draw an analogy with the content of American performers’ songs with the work by a well-known American writer Sidney Sheldon. His famous novel “A Stranger in the Mirror”, which touches upon the theme of Hollywood conquest, as well as possible reveals the essence of American values. Here we find such characteristics as: availability of talent, fame, success, material possessions, viciousness, willingness to go over corpses to achieve one’s goals: *“After that first experience, the rest was easy. Jill began to work regularly at all the studios... expect at Disney, where sex did not exist* (Sheldon, 1997: 193). LCT under question most often chooses the path of least resistance to realize its dreams, thereby losing its human dignity. An integral part of Hollywood life style, undoubtedly, is maintaining a perfect appearance (attributive unit LCT) through sport, diet, and plastic surgery. Like stars who are obsessed with the idea of eternal youth, the average man in the street of the USA is also chasing an ideal appearance, which leads to not always positive results, and sometimes to the tragedy of the individual or the absurdity of the situation: *“It all began with Barbie. The Breast Yearning, that is. Ever since I was a little girl, I wanted to grow those two pneumatic melons which adorned my favourite plaything* (Lette, 2007: 177). *“Looking back, it seems bizarre that I wanted to grow up to look like my dolly; do little boys grow up wanting to look like a piece of Lego? ... There are logical drawbacks to a Barbie role model? A bit of moulded plastic between the legs for starters* (Lette, 2007: 178). *“Jogger’s Nipple is an unknown ordeal to women like me. Sleeping on your stomach, something Louise could only achieve by digging two holes side by side in the sand at Bondi”* (Lette, 2007: 179).

One of the invariable characteristics of celebrities is a chic (glamorous) appearance. It’s quite difficult to endure high competition on the Olympus of show business, so it’s quite natural for Hollywood to afford a little surgery: *“In a very reasonable attempt (it’s Hollywood, after all) to stay youthful – and keep Ashtonl – it looks like 43-year-old Demi Moore has gone under the knife to lift her aging knees! <...> Demi had reportedly already shelled out more than \$ 100,000 on cosmetic surgery (including breast implants and liposuction) in the quest for a perfect body!”* (Star, 2006: 42).

The obsession with plastic surgery and the amount of money that the stars spend annually on the beauty industry are understandable, because the celebrities live “inside a camera”. Not only old age scares screen stars, but, as a result of it, the lack of demand from the audience. To be forgotten is to lose: *“Everything seemed geared for a big beauty race and unless you ran fast you would lag behind. More and more women were pressing, straining to win that race: the hair, the eyes, the lips, the skin, the race for the youngest skin, the slimmest bodies, the firmest bosoms, the tints and shades, even the dimension of heels you wore”* (Hollywood undead. The song “Bad town” 2011: 92). Hollywood stars are directly manipulated in their turn and forced to improve their looks by their producers and film-directors about what G. Byrne tells in his diary: “February 23rd

Today R said, ‘Can I say something personal?’ and I said sure. He told me not to get offended, that I had a good face, but I would have to get something done with the wrinkles round my eyes. I asked him what he was talking about and he said he knew this guy in LA who would do a good job for me. He is only twenty-one, if he doesn’t cut this out I tell him, he’ll be in some mess by the time he’s forty. He really thought he was helping me. Later he apologized. I said to forget it” (Byrne, 1994: 105).

Competition in Hollywood resembles a real race for the slenderest bodies. It is especially difficult for a woman to survive in these conditions. High demands are put forward to her looks: *"She looked in the mirror and received Time's message: Hurry. Seeing her reflection was like looking back into layers of the past. There were still traces of the fresh young girl who had come to Hollywood seven endless years ago. But the fresh young girl had small wrinkles near the edges of her eyes and deeper lines that ran from the corners of her nose to her chin, warning signals of time fleeting and success ungrasped, the souvenirs of all the countless dreary little defeats. Hurry, Jill, Hurry!"* (Sheldon, 1997: 191-192).

Women as a result of such propaganda have horror of their wrinkles, feel shy of their age. Unfortunate women turn to plastic surgeons who pull on their skin, make all kinds of face-lifts and injections that dull facial emotions. Thus, in the pursuit of beauty women forget the fact that all artificial things are imperfect and they eventually turn into creepy dolls. The following fragment illustrates the above: *"Jill sat in front of her dressing table and studied her face in the mirror. She saw a barely perceptible wrinkle at the corner of her eye and frowned. It's unfair, she thought. A man can completely let himself go. He can have grey hair, a pot belly and a face like a road map, and no one thinks anything of it. But let a woman get one tiny wrinkle..."* (Sheldon, 1997: 199).

The concept of "ideal appearance" is one of the most topical and longed-for value orientations in American society. Hollywood stars aren't allowed to have flaws, they are idols, no matter what sacrifices they do (the rejection of traditional family values, from the perception of yourself of who you are from the very birth's moment in the name of career): *"Every human blemish, weakness, and flaw was banned as stars were fabricated with the help of props and plastic surgery: Gable with his pinned-back ears and false teeth; Alan Ladd perpetually on boxes to make him appear as tall as the women in his films; Errol Flynn's bobbed nose; Fonda's face-lift and a toupee* (Star, 2006: 42)". *"Women in Hollywood are afraid of getting older. When you are a celebrity, you live inside a camera,"* explains Alex Kuczynski, the author of *Beauty Junkies: Inside Our \$ 15 Billion Obsession with Cosmetic Surgery* (Star, 2006: 42).

On the one hand, the stars themselves are victims of stereotypes of beauty, but, on the other hand, due to the blind race for perfect forms and proportions of the body they serve themselves as a propaganda of unhealthy lifestyles. So, in addition to alcoholism and drug addiction in the circles of "the chosen", excessive recourse to plastic surgery and various diets (which are triggers of such common in Hollywood disorders like bulimia and anorexia, various disorders of the gastrointestinal tract) has led the stars themselves, and their stupid followers among ordinary people, to undesirable and sometimes disastrous consequences. But reality proves again and again that plastic surgery is a sign of success of those who reached the top of social ladder:

"The doors opened and we saw the party, heard the band playing "Moonlight Serenade". Two party-going couples stepped into the elevator. They looked like real estate people: the men silver-haired and distinguished looking, the women pretty and slightly tacky. One woman said, "She's smaller than I thought.

"Yes, tiny. And that...was that her boyfriend?"

"I guess. Wasn't he the one in the video with her?"

"I think that was him".

One of the men said, "You think she had her boobs done?"

"Hasn't everybody?"

The other woman giggled. "Except me, of course".

"Right, Christine".

"But I'm thinking about it. Did you see Emily?"

"Oh, she did hers so big."

"Well, Jane started it, blame her. Not everyone wants them big" (Crichton, 1992: 43-44).

By the way, if we mentioned all sorts of surgical interventions in women's appearance, let us express our purely personal point of view. In our humble opinion, when plastic surgery helps injured people after accidents and in the end the surgeon contributes to recover from trauma, restores patients' faces – it is noble and necessary, and absolutely understandable. But when a woman uses the services of a surgeon solely in order to come close to Hollywood standard, it is extremely unwise. In the domestic "show business", the slang word "mukla" appeared, which carries negative connotations and serves to nominate a limited woman who has the main attributes of a "doll" image, such as rhinoplasty, silicone bust and face, brown skin color, grotesque makeup, etc. Instead of developing their inner world, the beauty of the soul, broadening their horizons, such

women turn into miserable creatures filled with silicone. It's one thing to correct somebody's appearance defects and that's a whole different kettle of crawdads to turn into silicone monsters, which happens today as a result of the negative impact of the media.

Hollywood is periodically accused of promoting the image of an extremely slender celebrity ("extreme skinny celebrity"). Images of thin stars flooded the covers of magazines, instilling a new ideal of beauty and encouraging adolescents to exhaust themselves with diets and exercise. The problem of obsession with weight and appearance in general led to a series of protests among the stars themselves: *"I'm so tired of people being obsessed with their weight," she [Kelly LeBrock] sighs. "I'm going to be making movies that are important because frankly, I'm sick and tired of all these Hollywood actresses who can't even frown. I love my lines; they are a part of my life. And it's just a great feeling to be empowered within, without having to be gorgeously fabulous ... I'd rather be happy and fat than slim and stupid. I took my kids out of a very bad place"* (Hello, 2005: 19).

According to most examples, a stellar career tends to awaken in people not their best qualities, such as, for example, rudeness, being scandalous, debauchery, moral licentiousness: *"However he learned not to provoke Joan when she was in such condition in restaurants, at receptions, in the streets of Beverly Hills, where the whole city could hear them. Career rise made her more boisterous, more prone to heated scenes, during which words alien to the image of a pure innocent girl kept raining down"*(Denker, 1980: 108).

Hollywood lets fantasies go free, gives birth to hopes and fears, making dreams come true and breaking hearts. Fame, money and Hollywood are inextricably linked in the minds of Americans in a single associative chain. On the strength of their genre specific songs are supposed to have a lot of metaphors, as they paint vivid images of Hollywood where the country's wish fulfillment or frustration takes place. Country of illusions and the great American Dream, where dishonest business, alcohol and immoral lifestyle flourish. That is the face of Hollywood, drawn by Fitzgerald: *"Fitzgerald died before he completed this mastery study of Hollywood in its heyday. From the daily routine of business, alcoholism and promiscuity of this never-never land, he draws a bitter-sweet love affair and bids his own final, poignant farewell to the Great American Dream"* (Fitzgerald, 1965: 84).

This picture of Hollywood continues to evolve in songs – "painted faces", "sun burnt skin", "fixed expressions", "smiles worn thin", "caught in the blink of neon of Hollywood", "bending battles", "maneuvering schemes", "false expressions", "washed up dreams", "everybody makes belie". As it becomes evident from the song "Hollywood" of the group Aerosmith, in Hollywood nothing is strange, the only criterion by which people are evaluated is "being cool": *"Don't be mesmerized what goes on here ain't no surprise as long as you'll be cool in Hollywood"* (Aerosmith, 2020).

Hollywood style of clothing and behavior are designed to impress the mass recipient by its theatricality and elegance, creating mesmerizing visual effect: *"Looking up, I saw that the man wearing the trousers was dressed entirely in black: black shirt, black tie, black satin jacket. He had white hair and a dramatic Hollywood manner"* (Crichton, 1992: 111).

Summing up the above-mentioned information we will note that the stars of Hollywood were and still are "heroes and heroines" of American culture as they embody all hopes and aspirations that every American secretly wants to implement. And mass interest for the lifestyle of stars and the power of entertainment industry, which are observed in the United States now, once again confirms the relevance and importance of the explored typecast for the American national consciousness.

In conclusion, it is necessary to say that we live in the world of pseudo-and false ideas, in the world of so called plastic values. Businessmen from show business constantly attack psychologically immature youth with false ideals. TV, glamour magazines, internet sites are permanently programming millions of girls and women by questionable notions of beauty. From morning till night people are inspired by glamorous lies. Every single day unnatural and weird standards of beauty are being created, and they are completely unacceptable from the point of view of common sense, for thinking people. The notorious glamorous life which is increasingly imposed on society, has nothing to do with happiness. On the example of analyzed LCT and its imitators, we have seen that behind the glossy facade of Hollywood success there is malevolent fate, broken hearts, and tragic premature death. The worst thing about this manipulation of public consciousness that the viewer sincerely believes television glossy lies. Millions of beautiful women

are exposed to false standards of beauty imposed by the media. Such propaganda causes them an inferiority complex. Unfortunately, the LCT “the Hollywood Star” penetrated in Russian conceptosphere too, forcing millions of our compatriots to change not only their appearance, but also the “price list” of their values. Thus, the investigation of LCT “the Hollywood Star” leads to the conclusion that it occupies a special niche in the American national picture of the world. This concept is embedded in the collective consciousness and is cultivated with the help of new technologies. Distinct accentuation is aimed at the symbol of feminine sex appeal, which serves as an ersatz of genuine physical attractiveness. Nowadays civilization has thrown the camouflage on the audience’s susceptibility to mass media audiovisual effects, and more often than in past centuries, the masses have the opportunity to communicate only with the dazzle paint image, skillfully woven mask, not a real individual. The true beauty of a woman is her personality. The true beauty of a woman has nothing to do with the glamorous environment, as was proved by the authors of analyzed works.

To summarize, we would like to quote the opinion of A.V. Fedorov, who expressed his point of view in the interview, taken by M. Tselykh, that today “it is media education which is the key to understanding the contemporary information society, the urgent need of every person to be media competent, otherwise media illiterate person will be not only an easy victim of multiple media manipulations, but she/he would not be able to fully enter the differentiated world of media culture”(Tselykh, 2019). We fully share this view and we are firmly convinced that media education should be the main vector of training for all human sciences.

We would like also to give a brief overview of the current state of the skill to use video in the classroom. We also want to encourage those English teachers who are hesitant to integrate songs into the syllabus to find a niche that suits their particular needs best. The efficacy of using songs and music for teaching purposes is now widely recognized by foreign language teachers. Songs are said to easily lodge in our short-and long-term memory, and we are all familiar with “the song stuck in my head” phenomenon. Moreover, mere repetitiveness – either within a song or of the song itself – doesn’t seem artificial; songs, part and parcel of our life, accompany us almost everywhere in our daily routine, so it is but natural to bring them in the classroom.

It cannot be denied that songs often contain poor quality language, including incomprehensible accents, bad and unusual grammar and slang. But a media competent teacher will be always able to do the option of a proper choice which, apart from the “language correctness”, a great variety of topics to be selected to meet the demands of practically any audience. Some songs supply examples of everyday language, ranging from conversational to more complex, involving complicated philosophical reasoning. And the choice here cannot be separated from the underlying topic, so that you can extend teaching beyond the boundaries of the language proper to sustain culture, beliefs, patriotic feelings. Songs also prove to be an invaluable source of teaching material bringing up “taboo” topics which for this or that reason seldom appear in print and are to be dealt with delicately. Dealing with the song proper, students are engaged in performing tasks (often parallel, like “listen and find”) connected with the detailed exploitation of the song. Listening to answer comprehensive questions of different types, or to take phonetic dictation, as well as gap-filling exercises are quite common. At this stage visual aids might be a regulating factor for different levels of students’ preparation. The final stage of follow-up activities commonly involves practicing the productive skills of speaking and writing. Watching musical video clips in the classroom and the ensuing chorus singing is a valuable aid for removing mental barriers against language learning some students might have – it contributes to break the routine and assists in overcoming shyness and boredom, and in establishing the atmosphere of interest and cooperation.

5. Conclusion

The electronic media are relatively young, but its impact is extremely strong. It changes our language, stimulates our emotions, alters our state of mind, gives food for thinking, and influences our ideas, values and attitudes. The mass audience of mass media are programmed to buy, consume, vote, contribute, believe and support other beliefs, policy and interests – interests which may be commercial, political, charitable, philosophical or educational. Sometimes, its interests will coincide with your own, sometimes they won’t. Some of the media output had long lasting value and worth; some is not only cheap superficial stuff, but physically, emotionally and intellectually harmful, it can disturb the recipient’s mentality as it was proven by our investigation. This article

is a sort of warning and appeal to media literacy which will prevent the viewers from negative impact on their minds and bodies, from moral and physical degradation.

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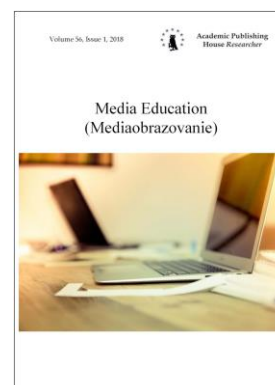
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Mass Media in the System of Countering the Ideology of Terrorism in the Global Dimension

Sergey Vorontsov ^{a, *}, Andrey Goloborodko ^b, Alexander Ponedelkov ^c, Olga Kravets ^b

^a Russian Academy of National Economy and Public Administration under the President of the Russian Federation, Russian Federation

^b Anton Chekhov Institute, Russian Federation

^c Russian Academy of National Economy and Public Administration under the President of the Russian Federation, Russian Federation

Abstract

The article presents the authors' point of view concerning the issues of values and the role of the media in anti-terrorist propaganda; on the basis of expert assessments it explores the nature of propaganda activities of terrorist organizations in order to identify effective measures of the system counteracting terrorism threats, assesses the danger of the ideology of terrorism to society, considers measures to counter terrorist propaganda. In connection with the need to improve the effectiveness of countering the spread of terrorist ideology in the media space, the authors formulated some proposals for organizing the fight against the ideology of terrorism.

In the course of the study, the authors formulate the following conclusions: countering the ideology of terrorism is a basic component of Russia's national security system. Today, not only the Russian Federation, but the world community as a whole, is facing a new challenge to global security – the need to protect modern means of communication from their rapid transformation into propaganda weapons of fundamentalist terrorist groups. Media content is one of the most dangerous aspects of modern terrorism. The media is the most efficient and effective way to influence the mass understanding of terrorism. In this regard, the key goal of all subjects of informative counteraction to terrorism is to create a system that provides coverage of acts of the terrorist nature only from unfavorable positions. In the field of counter-terrorism, the results of media activities can have both a positive effect that helps society and government agencies in the fight against this threat, and, on the contrary, an extremely negative one. An important area of discrediting terrorist and extremist organizations in society is changing the way national security is ensured in the media sphere, first of all, preventing actions of a propaganda nature. Today, it is very important that the media become a powerful means of fighting terrorism and preventing it.

Keywords: mass media, media space, ideology of terrorism, anti-terrorist propaganda, information security, measures of counteraction.

* Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: raven_serg@mail.ru (S.A. Vorontsov), goloborodko2009@mail.ru (A.Yu. Goloborodko), ponedelkov@skags.ru (A.V. Ponedelkov), olgakravets@list.ru (O.V. Kravets)

1. Introduction

Recently, terrorism has entered the media space, where it has become a radical form of political protest. The ideology of extremism and terrorism is a direct threat to the national and international security of the country, damaging the physical, mental and social health of people.

According to the Russian National Security Strategy, the activities of terrorist and extremist organizations aimed at forcible change of the constitutional order of the Russian Federation and destabilizing the work of State authorities are among the main threats to State and public security (Presidential Decree..., 2015). Security refers to the ability of civil society to develop itself in conflict, uncertainty, risk and the realization of this ability and opportunity in reality (Vorontsov, 2013).

Recently, one of the goals of terrorist and extremist organizations in the media space is to provide media coverage of ideology and terrorist acts committed at the global level. The media, as the most powerful source of information for the masses, are seen by them as an essential channel for transmitting their frightening "messages" to society and putting pressure on authorities.

Reflecting on this content, it is important to note that today, first of all, the main purpose of the campaign should be to consider the formation of an anti-terrorist world view in society to provide the population with immunity to various attempts of involvement in terrorist activities, a sharp reduction of the social support of terrorists and their intermediaries, and condemn of the use of terrorist methods under any ideological principles.

And here the key role is assigned to media resources, the application of their capabilities in the system of counteracting the ideology of terrorism.

2. Materials and methods

The authors' study is an attempt to analyze, based on the expert assessments, the specifics of propaganda activities of the ideology of terrorism in the information society.

Given the high relevance of the issues raised, the authors aim to study the driving force of the terrorist propaganda in the media space and the effectiveness of the measures of the system to counter threats of the terrorist nature.

The main material for this article was the field of foreign and domestic books, monographs, articles, to some extent related to the study of the peculiarities of counteracting the ideology of terrorism: K. Ferguson (Ferguson, 2016), A. Glazzard (Glazzard, 2017), S. Hoffman (Hoffman, 2002), M. Innes (Innes, 2014), A. Kundani (Kundani, 2009), G. LaFree (LaFree, 2017), B. Lee (Lee, 2019), J. Marthoz (Marthoz, 2017), J. Martin (Martin, 2017), A. Singh (Singh, 2016), G. Weimann (Weimann, 2000; 2004; 2014), S. Vorontsov, A. Goloborodko, A. Podedelkov (Vorontsov, Goloborodko, Ponedelkov, 2018; 2019), R.V. Golubin, S.I. Grachev (Golubin, Grachev, 2007), S.A. Zelinsky (Zelinsky, 2008), V.M. Maslennikov (Maslennikov, 2015), O.V. Severtsov (Severtsov, 2016), S.V. Sidorova (Sidorova, 2009), V. Tsyganov (Tsyganov, 2004), and a questionnaire developed on the basis of the Comprehensive Plan to Counter the Ideology of Terrorism in the Russian Federation for 2019-2023 years.

Basic methods of research were: comparative analysis of problems of this topic, analysis of discussions of scientists about the system of counteracting the ideology of terrorism, survey, comparison, synthesis, generalization, specification, abstraction.

3. Discussion

Professor of the University of George Washington on J. Post calls terrorism "media-phenomenon" and believes to consider it as a specific form of the psychological foyer, implemented through mass media. It is through the media that terrorists gain unlimited opportunities to influence power and public opinion, to carry out mass information attacks, which in turn is a prerequisite for success in information aggression, which is the main component of almost any terrorist act at all stages of its implementation. "Media-terrorism" generates and stimulates chaos, The destruction of social stability, the strengthening of an atmosphere of "paralyzing pessimism," the rise of social tensions and conflicts, disrupting the normal functioning of the structures of power, undermining public confidence in the actions and intentions of the authorities (Tsyganov, 2004: 25).

Besides, Jean-Paul Marthoz, in his study, holds the view that *"terrorism is not a new phenomenon. Many countries have suffered for decades from groups, both internal and external, including both State and non-state actors, using violence against civilians as a political strategy.*

In many cases, the local population grew stronger and more resilient, which proved that cruelty, in the long run, could not be matched by progress in unity and common values. In this context, the media play a crucial role in providing reliable information and informed opinion. During a tense climate of crisis, when the population is on edge and passions break out, this is becoming increasingly important. The relationship between terrorism and the media is complex and has serious consequences. At worst, the symbiotic relations are perverted as the terrorist groups invent violence shows to continue drawing the attention of the world and mass media providing wall-to-wall coverage because of the huge interest of audience" (Marthoz, 2017).

We fully share the opinion of the famous expert on mass media, philosopher, cultural scientist H.M. McLuhan, who noted that the rapid development of modern information technologies leads to the fact that the content of communication recedes into the background, becomes in many ways random, situational, and the means of its implementation acquire increasing possibilities of manipulation of people's consciousness, "zombieing" (McLuhan, 2003). In this context, H.M. McLuhan raises an important problem related to the ability of mass media to manipulate humans.

S.A. Zelinsky continues H.M. McLuhan's ideas about the media as "an expansion". He notes that all forms and means of communication are an "extension of the human body", complementing and improving its functions, primarily vision and hearing. The effectiveness of mass communication is determined not only by the goals and objectives of influencing readers, listeners, viewers of transmitted messages but also by the conformity of their content and form with the constant information needs of people (Zelinsky, 2008).

At the same time, S.A. Zelinsky underlines that the media can be used for propaganda purposes. The target audience can be governments, organizations, groups and individuals. According to S.A. Zelinsky, *"the media is the most powerful tool used by the ruling class to manipulate the masses. They form opinions and viewpoints, define what is normal and acceptable"* (Zelinsky, 2008). Thus, the media acts as an intermediary between the real life of man and society, moral priorities.

These ideas are also reflected in the works of G. Weimann, the author of numerous studies on the social influence of the media, political campaigns and new media technologies; analysis of the contemporary media content (Weimann, 2000; 2004; 2006; 2014). The author emphasizes: *"Terrorists have solid reasons for using special networks"*.

First, these channels are by far the most popular among target audiences, which can make terrorist organizations part of the mainstream. Second, social media channels are easy to use, reliable and free. After all, social media allows terrorists to reach their target group and actually "knock on their doors" – as opposed to older website models where terrorists had to wait for visitors to come to them (Weimann, 2014).

It is no secret that recently terrorist organizations use the Internet very actively to organize and attract new members (LaFree, 2017).

Thus, the study of the Russian language media content by Russian scientists showed that in recent years the propaganda of Islamists on the Internet, including the Russian-speaking segment, has made a sharp leap in qualitative and quantitative terms. *"In fact, Russia has faced a national security threat of a very different type: militants who went to fight in Syria on the side of Islamists have entered a community that is largely different from the Wahhabite underground operating in the North Caucasus. This phenomenon is widely manifested on Internet sites"* (Vorontsov, Goloborodko, Ponedelkov, 2018).

In addition, *"for the first time Islamist international terrorist organizations began to carry out mass and professional propaganda in Russian social networks, using a wide and almost uncontrolled toolkit of "new media"* (Vorontsov, Goloborodko, Ponedelkov, 2018). Undoubtedly, all this poses a threat to the political stability and national security of the Russian Federation, both in the short and medium term.

In turn, it should be emphasized that terrorism is often viewed through the conceptual framework of globalization theory. Researchers argue that globalization, even if it is a terrorist attack, creates resistance to those countries that are at the forefront of globalization. Some scholars view terrorism as a defensive reaction, as a movement against global forces that are changing the culture and economic order of society (Hoffman, 2002: 104). Certainly, here we speak about the most resonant and large-scale operations of terrorist activity.

We dare to state that today the world community and the Russian Federation are faced with a new challenge to global security – the importance and need to protect modern media from their rapid transformation into propaganda weapons of fundamentalist terrorist groups. Media content is one of the most dangerous aspects of modern terrorism. Its ideologists quickly adapt to the changing situation, effectively use the real problems of the modern world, international and internal conflicts, and crises, and carry out active propaganda. The proliferation of high-speed mobile Internet access and the emergence of social networks that are not protected by barriers have contributed to increased propaganda by terrorist organizations, using the media as the most powerful tool for spreading their ideology.

Let us note that the above-mentioned material proves the negative influence of the information component on terrorist activities and the use of the media by organizers and mediators of terrorist acts as an effective means of popularizing their crimes and achieving their goals. Therefore, one of the priority tasks of the State and society concerning the media in the field of preventing extremism and terrorism is to minimize their use by terrorist organizations.

Further we prefer to talk about the positive role of media in the system of prevention of the terrorist ideology. In our view, the media are the most powerful tool for the effective prevention, detection and suppression of terrorist manifestations.

According to R.L. Syukiyanen (Syukiyanen, 2005: 109), the ideological aspect is one of the basic components of the fight against extremism and terrorism.

A considerable number of works of foreign scientists are devoted to the study of aspects of counteracting the ideology of terrorism, which are focused on the development of a system of prevention of terrorist acts based on political design or formation of attitude of the community to it (Kundani, 2009; Singh, 2016), introduction of human rights and tools in and the boost of interaction between the media and public policy (Howard, 2014; Innes, 2014; Lee, 2019).

Domestic researchers L.N. Pankova, Y.V. Taranukha, studying the ways of preventing extremism and terrorism, suggest that *"television, radio, print publications and other types of traditional media, which have a significant audience, are the most suitable channels for alerting citizens about the threat"* (Pankova, 2010: 247). Today, the State is actively cooperating with the media to organize the prevention of the spread of terrorism and extremism in society. According to M.V. Seslavinsky, the following main forms of interaction are forums, conferences, special courses on coverage of extreme situations for journalists. Quite reasonably, the author claims that today *"the main role of the media in the prevention of terrorism is recognized, and this potential is actively used, especially in terms of public warning and educational work"* (Seslavinsky, 2014: 64).

However, there was no balance between the key factors of public policy. It is understood that this threat cannot be tackled without joint actions. It is necessary to continue to search for the formats convenient for both sides, for example, one of the recommendations of experts in this field is the establishment of a permanent information centre to respond to terrorist threats. In this center there can be a pool of rapid response to terrorist attacks, *"which would include representatives of news agencies of TV channels and other representatives of mass media, they would regulate and coordinate coverage of terrorist events directly from the center"* (Golubin, Grachev, 2007: 223).

So, the content analysis confirms that the topic of information support of anti-terrorist activities and the use of media potential in this direction is one of the most important in the discussion about publicity of state policy in the field of counter-terrorism. In our view, if the abyss between mass media begins to widen, the delicate link between the State and society will begin to diminish, which will inevitably lead to very negative consequences.

The above-mentioned studies reveal the essential characteristics of terrorism, the role of the information capabilities in the modern world, which can both promote and counter terrorism, and propose some measures to combat terrorism in all its manifestations. At the same time, we have found that today there are no detailed studies on the use of media content in the counter-terrorism system, proposals to state structures and mass media on the organization of information counter-terror are not fully systematized, modern research is fragmented and debatable, only indicating an overall picture of the existing problem, which indicates a lack of scientific development. It is very important that the media become a powerful tool for combating and preventing terrorism.

4. Results

In order to identify the specifics of propaganda activities of terrorist content and to determine effective measures of systemic counteraction to terrorist propaganda the Laboratory of problems of increasing the efficiency of State and municipal management of the South-Russian Institute of Management, branch of RANEPA (Rostov-on-Don), carried out a sociological study in the form of a survey in August – September 2019.

The study covered 25 regions of the Russian Federation: St. Petersburg, Rostov region, Moscow region, Astrakhan region, Volgograd region, Kurgan region, Saratov region, Sverdlovsk region, Smolensk region, Chelyabinsk region, Yaroslavl region; Altay Krai, Kamchatka Krai, Krasnodar krai, Stavropol krai; Republics – Adygea, Bashkortostan, Dagestan, Ingushetia, Kabardino-Balkan, Karachai-Cherkessia, Karelia, Komi, North Ossetia-Alania, Tatarstan.

About 200 experts were interviewed in Rostov region, 53 % of whom are employees of the authorities of the subject of the Federation and local self-government; 15 % – researchers, teachers of universities and schools; 8% – members of public organizations and employees of mass media, culture, non-governmental organizations; 2 % – members of religious organizations; 1 % – representatives of large and medium-sized businesses; 21 % – law enforcement officials and veterans.

According to the period of work, experts are distributed as follows: up to 5 years 24 % of experts, from 5 to 10 – 29 %, from 10 to 20 – 24 % , 20 to 30 – 8 %, over 30 – 15 %.

By the age under 25 years, 1 per cent of experts; 26 to 30 – 4 %; from 30 to 39 – 11 %; 40 to 49 – 28 %; 50 to 59 – 35 %; from 60 and older – 21%.

The wording of the questions and the answer options are presented in the wording proposed by the experts.

We consider it appropriate to present below the most significant aspects of the sociological survey, which assesses the effectiveness of promoting the ideology of terrorism.

1. Given that the Comprehensive Plan set out as a priority the explanation of the essence and danger of the ideology of terrorism, the question was of practical interest: do experts themselves know what the ideology of terrorism is?

The results showed that an overwhelming number of experts (96 %) know or rather know the content of this negative phenomenon (Fig. 1).

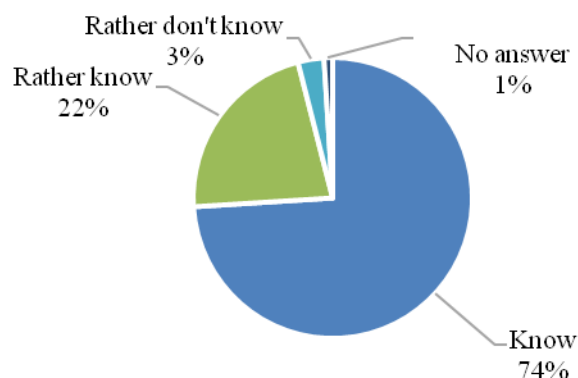


Fig. 1. The results of expert assessments in the context of understanding the essence of the ideology of terrorism

2. Is there a problem of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism in modern Russia? The results of the survey showed that the vast majority of experts (51 %) believe that this problem exists. The results are shown in more detail in Fig.2.

3. The expected consensus of experts was shown in assessing the danger of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism to society. Thus, 96 % of the participants of the study believe that this activity is dangerous, 3 % believe that it is more dangerous. Only 1 % of experts chose the answer "rather not dangerous".

4. With regard to the objectives pursued by the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, 49 % of the experts pointed out the intimidation of the population aimed at undermining existing power, initiated by Russia's geopolitical opponents.

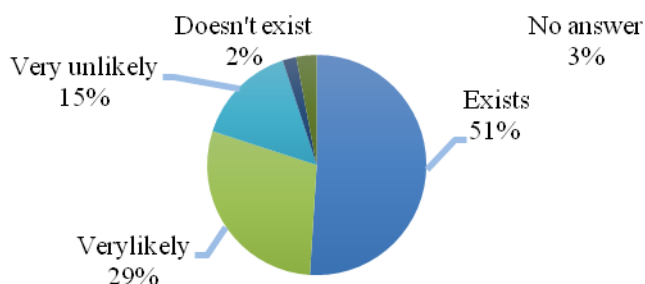


Fig. 2. The results of expert assessments in the context of understanding the existence of the problem of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism

28 % of the experts believe that the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism is aimed at the violent achievement of political aims by the supporters of extremist organizations.

16 % of the survey participants believe that the purpose of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism is to intimidate the population, and it is organized by the supporters of religious extremist organizations.

It is worth a deeper study that 6 % of the experts see the violent achievement of political goals by the supporters of radical opposition as the goal of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism. The phenomenon presented by the Ukrainian "Maidans" as an instrument for the overthrow of the constitutional order are not yet fully understood by society. The results of the survey are shown in Fig. 3.

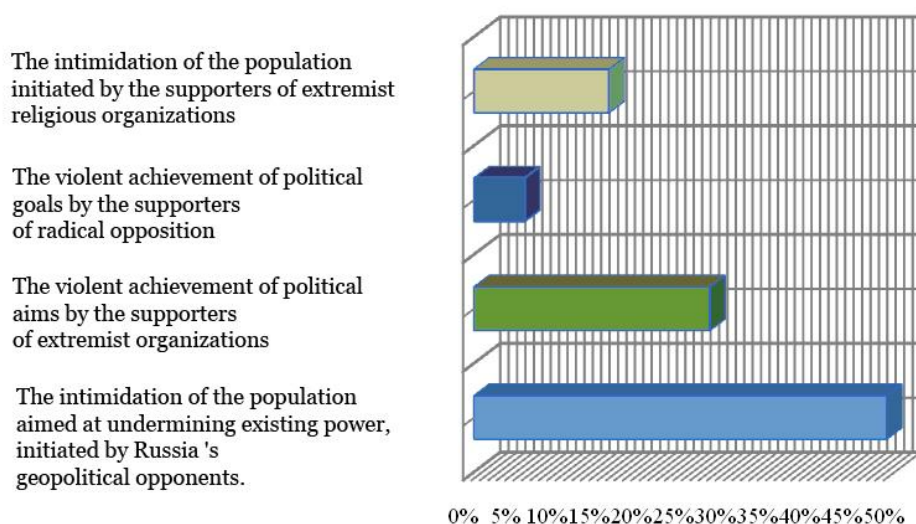


Fig. 3. The results of expert assessments in the context of defining the objectives of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism

5. Analyzing the characteristics that fit the definition of the content of the concept of "propaganda of the terrorist ideology" as the first rank position, experts pointed at "violence" (82 %), on the second position - "commitment to extreme views" (61 %), closes the three leading characteristics – "violation of the law" (60 %).

The choice of such characteristics of terrorist propaganda as the revolutionary movement, which experts put on the 4th position (48 %), draws attention. This fact, in our view, is a cause for concern, as the media, in publications on terrorist and extremist manifestations, often use the term "revolutionaries," political prisoners", etc., romanticizing the appearance of offenders, which can contribute to the involvement of marginalized children in the ranks of terrorists. The obtained data are reflected in Fig. 4.

6. Ranking hypotheses about the driving forces of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, most experts put radical Islamic groups outside Russia at the first rank (88 %), 59 % of experts see foreign intelligence agencies as the driving force for propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, 58 % – radical Islamic groups located in Russia.

The view of 20 % experts is noteworthy that the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism is driven by mentally unstable individuals, who, according to the experts, are more than political opponents of the regime (19 %).

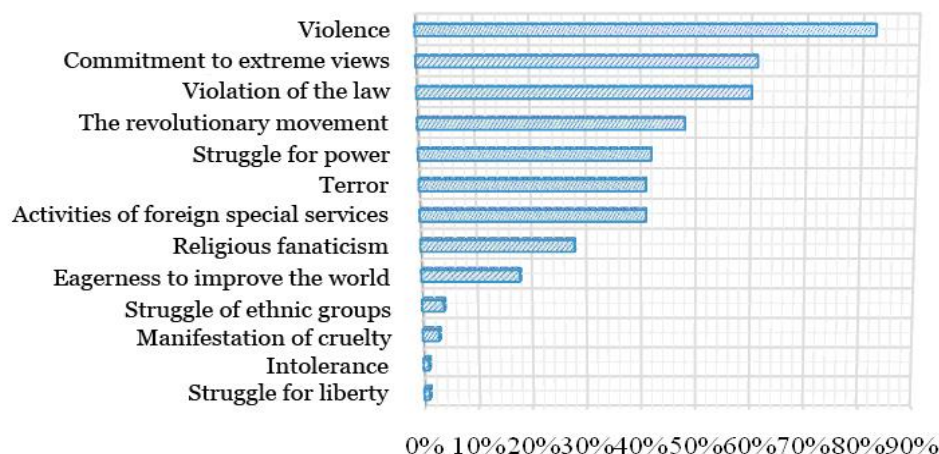


Fig. 4. The results of expert assessments in the context of the analysis of the concept of "propaganda of the ideology of terrorism"

7. Among the subjects of opposition to the propaganda of terrorist ideology 95 % of experts put on the first rank position the FSB bodies of Russia, on the second position - the National Anti-Terrorism Committee (89 %), then the bodies of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Russia (60 %). Thus, the participants of the survey see as the main subjects of counteraction to propaganda of the ideology of terrorism the power structures engaged in the fight against terrorism, as well as coordination of anti-terrorist activities.

State authorities (43 %) and local self-government bodies (29 %), which by definition should be the leading subjects of opposition to the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, are not such in the assessments of the experts.

At the same time, 56 % of the experts are aware of the role and place in countering the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism of anti-terrorist commissions in subjects and municipalities.

8. Assessing the dynamics of propaganda for the spread of terrorist ideology in Russia, most experts believe that the situation remains stable (30 %), there is a tendency to decrease slightly (21 %), or significantly decrease (7 %).

27 % of experts noted the growth of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, but it is not large, 5 % of experts believe that there is a significant increase in this threat. The obtained data are shown in Fig. 5.

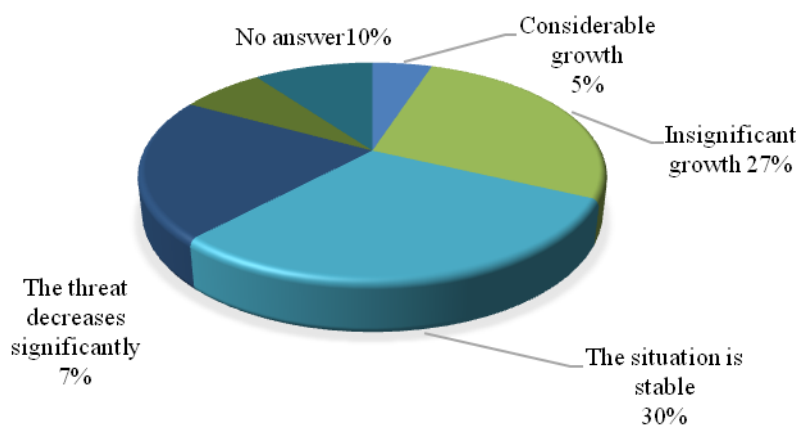


Fig. 5. The results of the expert assessments in the context of assessing the dynamics of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism

9. In assessing the effectiveness of countering the propaganda of terrorism in the country, the region and the municipality, the experts noted that this work is not always carried out effectively (59 %, 49 %, 47 %, respectively). The experts pointed to the insufficient level of this work respectively: 16 %, 15 %, 15 %.

The experts are convinced that the work to counter the propaganda of terrorism in the country, the region and the municipality is carried out very effectively (21 %, 29 %, 31 %).

10. 61.0% of the experts involved in the sociological survey believe that the powers of the authorities in the country, in the subject and in the municipality correspond to the solution of the tasks to counter the ideology of terrorism.

This opinion of most experts suggests a significant improvement in the legal basis for the process of countering the ideology of terrorism in recent years. At the same time, 19 % of experts believe that the available powers to solve this task are insufficient.

11. The views of the experts were also markedly divided on the question of the conformity of the amount of budgetary financing of units of authorities in the subjects and in the municipalities to solve the problems of countering the ideology of terrorism.

Only 19 % of experts are satisfied with the amount of budget funding, 22 % believe that the established funding does not fully correspond, and 22 % believe that the allocated funds do not correspond to the qualitative solution of the tasks to counter the ideology of terrorism.

12. Experts were more unanimous when answering the question: "Do you feel safe from terrorist threats?" So, 8 % of experts feel completely protected from terrorist threats, 62% of respondents chose the option "I think so" Not sure about their security against terrorist threats 19 % of experts and 3 % feel completely unprotected.

According to the experts, the vulnerability of the individual, society and the State to the terrorist threat is due to:

- liberal views;
- existence of the national, religious problems having importance for the State and society and connected with its self-assessment, spirituality, fundamental values, traditions and customs;
- lack of the uniform state platform (ideology) combining efforts of all population of Russia and bodies of the state (municipal) power in achievement of strategic objectives;
- social and economic problems, stratification of society, social inequality;
- imposing the religious ideas on the population;
- the growth of aggression from any human rights organizations financed from abroad which gains more and more hidden character;
- the indifference of bulk of the population to possible terrorist threat;
- education shortcomings of family, inefficient work on education of youth;
- the use of new information technologies by terrorists.

13. Quite categorically the experts assessed the possibility of any circumstances justifying the person spreading the ideology of terrorism. Thus, 76 % of experts completely reject this possibility and 19 % chose the answer – rather not. 2 % of the respondents are ready to justify such a person if the life of his family members depends on these actions, or there is a threat to the life and health of loved ones. No expert is prepared to justify those who spread the ideology of terrorism. 3 % found it difficult to answer. The obtained data are shown in Fig.6.

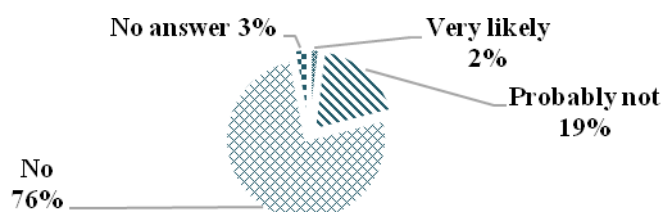


Fig. 6. The results of expert assessments in the context of the possibility of justifying a person spreading the ideology of terrorism

14. In answering the question whether the experts considered the persons spreading the ideology of terrorism to be criminals, 82% of the experts answered affirmatively, 15 % chose the option "very likely".

15. 92 % of experts believe that the activities of the persons spreading the ideology of terrorism should be suppressed by law enforcement agencies, and 6 % of experts chose the option of answering "very likely".

16. The views of the experts were divided when answering the question: is it permissible to restrict the rights and freedoms of citizens at the sake of public security in order to counter the ideology of terrorism?

Thus, 66 % of the experts agree with the right of the State and society to protect themselves from propaganda of terrorist ideology using methods that restrict the rights and freedoms of citizens in cases established by law. 19 % of experts disagree. 4 % of experts believe that:

- restrictions can be allowed only under strict control from prosecutor's office, court and civil society, excepting the use of these restrictions in favor of these or those political forces;
- everything depends on what measures the rights and freedoms and what objectives at the same time will be really achieved, will be limited, and not just be declared;
- restrictions are admissible with appropriate control from supervisory authorities of those structures which will limit the rights and freedom of the citizens.

17. The answers of the experts on the level of their awareness of the problem of countering the ideology of terrorism are of practical interest in order to form an idea of the real situation in this field.

Thus, 47 % experts, probably representing anti-terrorist commissions, believe that they have sufficient knowledge of the real situation in the field under consideration. Contrary to them, 47 % experts are convinced that there is not enough information to draw reasonable conclusions about the real situation of countering the ideology of terrorism. 3 % of experts noted that they did not have the necessary information.

18. In our opinion, it should be positively estimated that 68 % of experts got acquainted with the "Comprehensive Plan to Counter the Ideology of Terrorism in the Russian Federation for 2019-2023". At the same time, 32 % of experts rated this document as ineffective, and 65 % are convinced of the effectiveness of the measures included in the plan.

It is noteworthy that the number of the experts who consider the plan ineffective coincides with the number of the experts who are not familiar with the document.

19. The lack of awareness among experts on countering the ideology of terrorism has prompted them to rank the channels for receiving information on this issue.

To the first rank position experts put television (83 %), on the second, on the significant distance – social networks (61 %), on the third – newspapers and magazines (51 %). Also, among the sources of the information search, experts mentioned meetings with the representatives of law enforcement agencies, broadcasts of radio stations and conversations with the immediate environment.

20. It is worth noting that in the last 3 years 66 % of the experts did not participate in the work of programs of professional development of state (municipal) employees on the issues of counteracting the ideology of terrorism, 15 % (apparently, employees of ATC) participated repeatedly, 19 % – once. It seems that given the persistence of terrorist threats and challenges in the foreseeable period, this work should be intensified. The obtained data are shown in Fig. 7.

21. According to the experts, the main spread of propaganda of terrorist ideology, is realized via the Internet (99 % is the first rank item). For the second rank, the experts put channels of religious propaganda (this is Islamism), implemented with the assistance of persons trained abroad (87 % and 80 %).

A significant place (74 %) in the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism was given by the experts to the media opposition to the authorities, to which the attention of supervisory bodies should be drawn. Of course, it cannot be a matter of introducing censorship, but the level of self-censorship of journalists, as well as the level of counter-propaganda, should be significantly increased.

22. Of clear interest is the opinion of the experts on the motives of Russians adjacent to the activities of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism in their country.

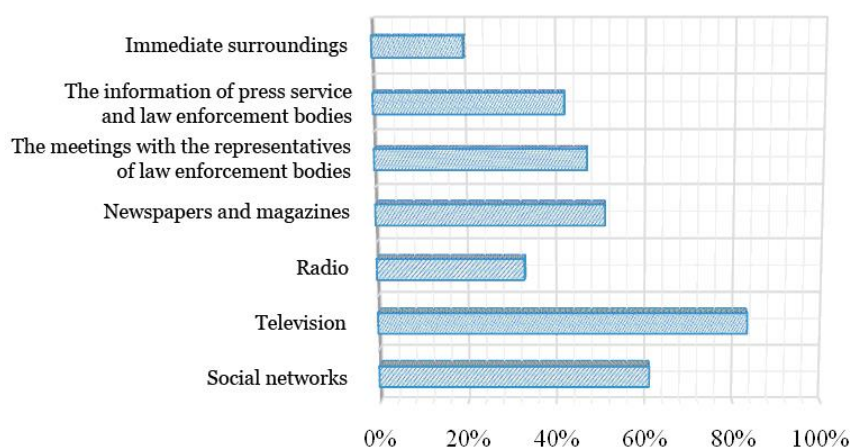


Fig. 7. The analysis of expert assessments in the context of participation in advanced training within the framework of countering the ideology of terrorism

According to the experts, in most cases this is influenced by mercantile considerations (the first rank position is 85 %). The second most important motive, indicated by the experts is the ideological confrontation to the existing power.

In a number of cases, the experts believe, Russians participated in the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism under the influence of injustice of power, mainly in the field, as well as due to the sense of hopelessness.

Of particular note is the opinion of the experts (51 %) that the convergence of activities to promote the ideology of terrorism is due to the desire of some young people to "become famous". At any cost, apart from the Herostrat complex, they have no other ways reach television screens and news reports.

23. Answering the question, who does effective opposition to the ideology of terrorism in the conditions of modern political processes in Russia depend on most? – The experts gave first priority to the state (92 %). The second position was taken by the media (60 %), which form public opinion. This is followed by the population, public organizations, religious figures and politicians.

24. Given the "vitality" of the ideology of terrorism, it is interesting to study the reasons of, according to the experts, the citizens' interest in the ideology of terrorism.

The experts highlighted the decline in living standards as the main reasons; social and economic problems; social tension and pessimism; lack of permanent work and low earnings; criminalization of different spheres of life; "Islamic factor" and subversive activities of foreign terrorist organizations; ineffective work on the ideological education of young people; shortcomings in family education.

25. The opinion of the experts on possible areas of increasing opposition to the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism in the region, which should be given priority, is of great interest.

The experts among these directions put the improvement of interaction of civil society with law enforcement agencies (49.9 %) in the first position. The second most important direction experts see improvement of the whole system of education of young people and work with families (44 %). The third position takes the increase of influence of civil society (39 %).

Thus, the experts see the ways to strengthen opposition to the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism not in strengthening the power component implemented by law enforcement agencies, but in the implementation of civil technologies, in improving educational work with young people, in improving preventive work with persons exposed to the ideology of terrorism, in forming an anti-terrorist consciousness in the population.

26. Among the priority measures that need to be taken to reduce the vulnerability of young people to the influence of the ideology of terrorism, the experts mentioned the intensification of work in the information space, including on social Internet networks (60 %), systematic anti-terrorist educational, cultural and educational activities on the basis of educational organizations (59 %), implementation of measures aimed at the formation of religious, inter-ethnic tolerance, including through the organization of youth interregional educational forums (48 %).

The proposals include involvement of young people in practical work on the preparation and implementation of anti-terrorist projects deserve attention; involvement of religious leaders and

reputable politicians with young people, despite their opposition; development of the system of training of young personnel involved in countering terrorism, information confrontation on the Internet, system organization of scientific seminars, trainings, advanced training courses on the basis of educational organizations of higher education.

27. Assessing the types of ideology of terrorism that pose the greatest danger, the experts put to the first rank-and-file position the ideology of radical Islam (87 %), followed by ideology related to attempts to inspire "color revolutions" (61 %) and right-wing radical, fascist and racist ideology (40 %).

28. It should be highlighted that 93% experts are ready not only to advise, but also to assist, as citizens, law enforcement officials in countering the propaganda of the ideology of terrorism. The obtained data are shown in Fig. 8.

29. Among the reasons that reduce the effectiveness of work to counter the ideology of terrorism, the experts pointed out the insufficient interaction of state structures and public organizations, ineffective international cooperation, formalism, insufficient professionalism of responsible persons, the low level of responsibility of officials for failures.

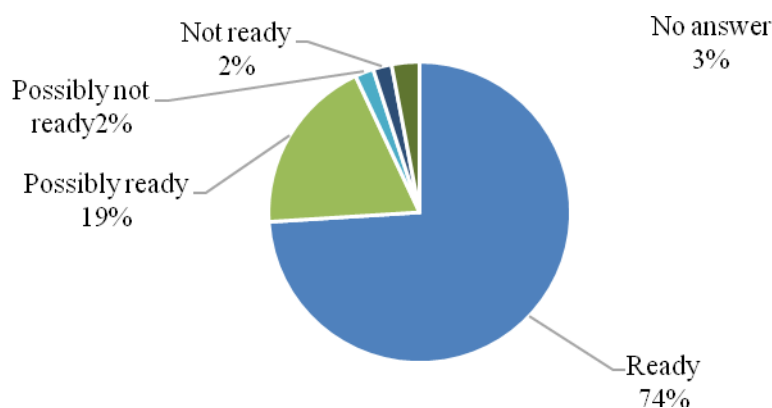


Fig. 8. The analysis of expert assessments in the context of assistance in countering the ideology of terrorism

Thus, the results of the survey make it possible to understand the reasons and conditions contributing to the radicalization of various groups of the population, especially young people, to analyze new organizational forms of propaganda of the ideology of terrorism, to determine the reserves not used by federal executive bodies, authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation and local self-government bodies in the organization of counteracting the ideology of terrorism.

We believe that the materials of the sociological study can be used to raise the level of the activities aimed at countering the terrorist ideology; to improve personnel, analytical, organizational, technical and financial support of preventive work in the field of anti-terrorist activities.

5. Conclusion

The main conclusions of the research are the following:

1. To date, not only the Russian Federation, but the world community as a whole, have faced a new challenge to global security – the need to protect modern media from their rapid transformation into propaganda weapons of terrorist groups. Media content is one of the most dangerous aspects of modern terrorism.

2. Terrorist and extremist organizations are trying to ensure the widest possible media coverage of their activities in order to intimidate the population, gain publicity and propagate extremist ideology.

3. Today, the media are the most effective means of influencing mass consciousness and the fight against terrorism. In fact, they are weapons in a ruthless and uncompromising war imposed on humanity by the international forces of terrorism. These weapons are as dangerous as they are effective. Therefore, the competent use of media resources can ensure significant success, and the wrong – serious harm.

In this regard, the most important task of addressing all issues of informative reduction of terrorist threats is the creation of a mechanism to ensure that terrorist activities are covered exclusively by negative positions, regardless of what they try to conceal and disguise.

4. An important direction of discrediting terrorist and extremist organizations in society is changing the approach to ensuring national security in the media space, especially the prevention of propaganda acts of terrorism. It is very important that the media become a powerful tool for combating terrorism and for preventing it.

5. In assessing the results of the activities to prevent propaganda of ideology by terrorists, a sociological study was carried out, the results of which suggest that the state authorities and local self-government have managed to reduce the level of terrorism compared to previous years, but the threat of committing crimes of this nature remains mainly due to the spread of ideology of terrorism.

6. In these circumstances, the effective fight against terrorist and extremist activities is impossible without the establishment of a State system to counter information, including a theoretically sound concept and a practically proven methodology adapted to regional characteristics.

7. One of the priorities of the State policy of ideological fight against extremism and terrorism should be working with the younger generation and young people. In view of the fact that today young people are one of the basic objects of aspirations on the part of adherents of new ideologies in order to increase the number of their followers.

8. In this regard, it is necessary to develop and legally establish rules for the coverage of terrorist acts in the media. Improving the legal regulation of public relations in the field of information security should become one of the priority areas of State policy. Today, Russia has all the necessary resources to ensure its information security.

As some recommendations for organizing a system of anti-terrorist propaganda, we can propose: development of the necessary directions of State policy for the implementation of measures to improve foreign policy; organization of Russian missions abroad in order to eliminate the dissemination of unreliable information about the foreign policy of the Russian Federation; improving the quality of information support for activities to prevent violations of the rights of Russian citizens and legal entities abroad; forming a positive image of executive authorities and employees of various specialized units engaged in activities in the framework of the fight against terrorism; boost of motivation on the part of the civilian population to assist in fighting terrorist threats; enhancing the use of media content in the counter-terrorism system; establishing a mechanism for law enforcement agencies to interact with users of social networks and the Internet in general. This will successfully organize the work on collection, synthesis and analysis of monitoring results of social networks, blogosphere and forums, which, in turn, will help to identify the most acute problems, contradictory situations affecting public opinion, causing protests, contradictory attitudes and aggressive attacks.

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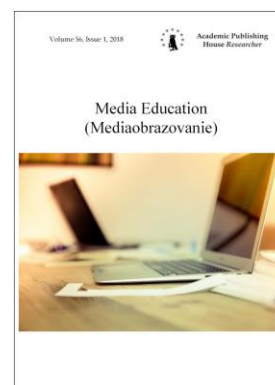
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Interview

“I Played a Major Role in the Destroyed Movie ‘*Moment of Truth*’ (‘*In August of 1944*’)”

Alexander Ivanov ^{a, *}

^a The Creative workshop “Center Bozij Dar”, Moscow, Russian Federation

Abstract

Alexander Ivanov's acting career was quite short – from 1974 to 1986. During this time, he played roles in two dozen films (*Goal Choice*, *Pseudonym: Lukach*, *Close Distance*, *Life is Beautiful*, *Sashka*, *From the Life of Alexander Blok*, *Red Bells*, *The File of a Man in the Mercedes*, etc.). But his main role in the film adaptation of the famous novel by Vladimir Bogomolov *In August of 1944... (Moment of Truth)*, alas, has remained unknown to the audience...

There are almost no memories of the details of the shooting process of this unfortunate destroyed film at the moment. The existing publications, as a rule, are reduced to describing the conflict between the film director V. Žalakevičius (1930–1996) and the writer V. Bogomolov (1926–2003).

The performer of one of the three main roles in this film – Alexander Ivanov – agreed to give this exclusive interview.

Keywords: Alexander Ivanov, interview, films, role, *Moment of Truth*.

1. Introduction

Alexander Ivanov's acting career was quite short – from 1974 to 1986. During this time, he played roles in two dozen films (*Goal Choice*, *Pseudonym: Lukach*, *Close Distance*, *Life is Beautiful*, *Sashka*, *From the Life of Alexander Blok*, *Red Bells*, *The File of a Man in the Mercedes*, etc.). But his main role in the film adaptation of the famous novel by V. Bogomolov *In August of 1944... (Moment of Truth)*, alas, has remained unknown to the audience...

In March 2020, the channel "Film History" published a small note entitled "*In August of '44.../Moment of Truth (USSR, 1975): a film that will never be seen by viewers*" (Fedorov, 2020) that 400,000 people have read.

There are almost no memories of the details of the shooting process of this unfortunate destroyed film at the moment. The existing publications, as a rule, are reduced to describing the conflict between the film director V. Žalakevičius (1930–1996) and the writer V. Bogomolov (1926–2003).

2. Interview

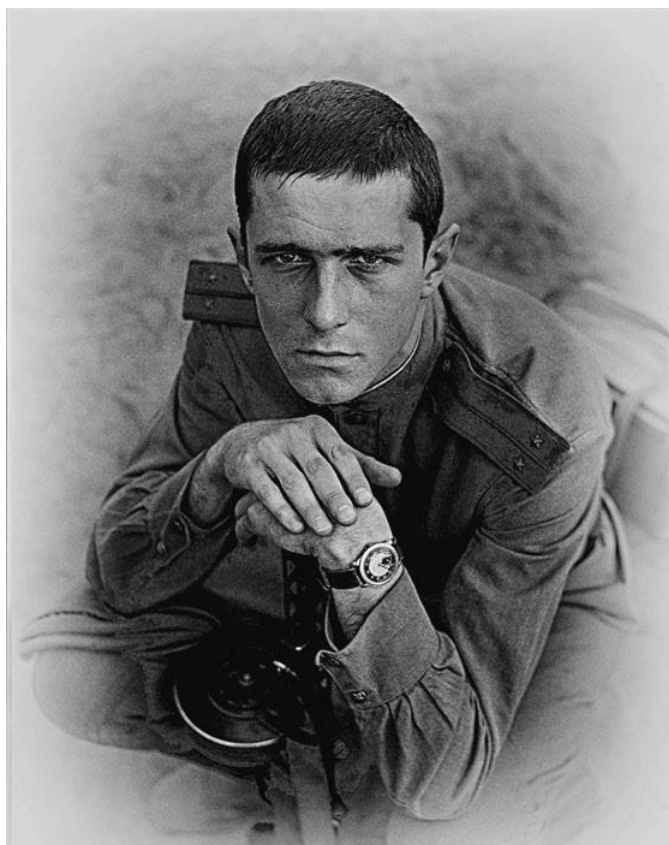
The performer of one of the three main roles in this film – Alexander Ivanov – agreed to give this exclusive interview.

– *How did you get to the shooting of the film "Moment of Truth"?*

I'll start a bit from a distance. After graduating from school in Krasnodar with a gold medal, I entered the Moscow Institute of Oil and Gas Industry, participated in the institute amateur activities. Studying there in the third year, I accidentally learned that that the crew of the TV series *Walks in the Tormerents* needs extras. So I was on the set for the first time and even played a small episodic role. And so after the end of filming a former classmate of famous Russian actor and film director Sergei Bondarchuk – Adiba Shirakhmedova – came to me and invited me enter to the State Institute of Cinematography, because this year in the studio of Sergei Bondarchuk there were vacancies, and the maestro was looking for talented guys... So, quite unexpectedly for myself, in the fall of 1973, I was on the entrance exams for the additional actor's set in the Institute of Cinematography. Successfully passed the creative competition and was accepted for the first year. For insurance the first month I even combined studies in two universities, but then finally decided, making a choice in favor of State Institute of Cinematography.

I was completely involved in the learning process... And then one day I was again found by Adiba Shirakhmedova, who then worked as a second director at famous Soviet film director V. Žalakevičius, and offered me to read the script of the film based on the novel *In August 1944...* and at the same time pay attention to the role of Lieutenant Andrei Blinov. I chuckled – overnight – read and the script, and then the novel, which was then very popular, and, of course, caught fire desire to play in this film.

Soon the tests were scheduled: Žalakevičius himself gave me the lines, and in the end he chose me to play Lieutenant Blinov. And Adiba Shirahmedova persuaded Sergey Bondarchuk (who was not only a Master, but also the head of the department in the State Institute of Cinematography) to give me a one –year free schedule for filming in the film *Moment of Truth*, which was filmed mainly in Lithuania (Vilnius, Druskinikai) and at the field site "Belarusfilm" in Smolevichi.



Alexander Ivanov as Lieutenant Blinov
(the author of this photo and their owner is a talented artist and photographer
Alexander Samoylov)

– Have you seen the previous films of V. Žalakevičius before the shooting of "Moment of Truth"?

Yes, I've seen Žalakevičius' films, especially his picture *Nobody Wanted to Die* (1965), made a strong impression on me, and as I understood later, *Moment of Truth* was shot in this truthful, tough, ascetic, male style. In my opinion, it turned out even stronger than in *Nobody Wanted to Die*.

– How did V. Žalakevičius conduct rehearsals with you? What were his requirements for acting? How, in general, were the shootings held?

At the time of filming I was twenty years old, and the director's efforts all sought to portray the truth of life. Look at the faces of the Russian boys in old photographs who went to the front from the school bench. Don't they look like boys? The war has put off its tragic imprint. The costume – makers, makeup artists and prop guys did a great job. We've prepared a worn – out, "sighted" uniform. The plan was to focus on old photos from the war years, not the statutory rules.

For example, in the scene of the group's first exit into the woods there was a "ritual" of preparation: our trio gave to driver Khizhnyak documents enclosed in caps, a belt with a buckle and an automatic rifle. In the right pocket was placed "Walter", behind the trouser belt "Nagan", and in the left pocket of the TT, which on the slang of the individuals was called "mallet" – as an effective striking weapon in the hand-to-hand weapon. In addition, we have always been in good physical shape – with us almost daily engaged in sambo and tactical techniques of counterintelligence veteran detective Colonel Blinkov, who was a consultant on the shoot. I asked him once: "Why the TT, it's not a sighting weapon?" He replied that, firstly, it's a statutory weapon for officers and, secondly, it's an indispensable close combat weapon. Everything was done on a very serious level, not as an example of the current war movie fiction.

Imagine – the first exit of the film crew for life, in the forest. Fog, five o'clock in the morning, sunrise is just beginning. And here is a one-and-a-half meter, at the wheel of which – driver Khizhnyak (B. Brondukov), goes to the field, stops ... Body tarpaulin is reclining, from there jumps Alekhin (S. Shakurov) and commands: "Lieutenant Blinov! Follow me!" I'm running after him. The glade is empty. I look around – nobody, I say: "Captain Alekhin! Captain Alekhin!" Silence... And suddenly strong hands from behind intercept my throat and begin to choke me... I resist, my hand breaks down, and the camera shoots my face, pressed to the ground, on which you can see the bushes of ripe strawberries, specially planted props... And so the camera slowly slides on my face, strawberries and passes on the hand of the hero Shakurov. And then his close – up and calm voice: "Quiet, Lieutenant, the forest does not like noise"... Thus, the entire scene was built by the director in action, and played the phrase of my character, addressed to Tamantsev: "Why don't you like this forest? Berries all around, mushrooms"...

Closer to the finale was another key scene – the director asked to shoot an episode of the military combing of the forest to release the guys from the military school – blush, muzzle. They were in new military uniforms sitting at a long wooden table, and from the edge sat and ate his porridge my character – skinny, tightened "wolf". And then Colonel Polyakov (Nikolai Trofimov) came out of the staff tent, called: "Lieutenant Blinov!" and sent him back to the woods with Alekhin and Tamantsev, when from the general was already given a command to start a army operation ...

Here V. Bogomolov made a comment to Žalakevičius about the behavior of my character, who, having received an order from the colonel, turns around not by statute. I psychologically justified the behavior of my character in this scene by the fact that he had previously felt as if suspended from the final operation to catch saboteurs, was in an anxious wait. And suddenly – such a chance! And Blinov in a joyous impulse allowed himself to forget about the statute for a second...

In general, the preparatory period in *Moment of Truth* was quite long. At first we shot scenes of passages through the streets of Vilnius, it helped us to enter the atmosphere of the film and gradually psychologically prepared us for shooting in key episodes. Because of the filming of the entire "Lithuanian" expedition Žalakevičius did not fit into the schedule, artists sometimes had to paint the yellow leaves of trees to take the autumn look and give the opportunity to stretch the filming period on nature until autumn ...

I was hot back then, doing martial arts, trying to do everything myself. And one day – during the shooting of the jump from the second floor window to the passing "Dodge" – twisted his leg, and was mercilessly scolded by Žalakevičius for giving up the understudy.

V. Žalakevičius all the time emotionally charged us actors, he explained the role is no longer words (as is known, he spoke in Russian with a Lithuanian accent), but gestures, plasticity. He was an outstanding director who saw every frame in all its imagery, including acting speech, mimics, plastics, composition, light and color. He always knew exactly what he wanted to achieve from all the participants in the filming, and was able to convey his vision to each of us. When he and I looked at the film's working materials on the editing table, he made me very precise comments on the nuances of my role, seeking from me a full "empathy" in the character's character.

– *How did your relationship develop with the director and the actors on the set? After all, many of them were already celebrities, and you at that time were a very young actor.*

V. Žalakevičius treated me very warmly, in Vilnius he introduced me to the creative elite there – cinematographers, artists, sculptors ... The actor's ensemble *Moment of Truth* was outstanding. In terms of acting I learned a lot from Sergey Shakurov, Anatoly Azo, Nikolai Trofimov, Borislav Brondukov. Almost all summer of 1975 we spent together, became friends. In relation to me, a novice actor, from their side there was absolutely no arrogance of the masters. We talked on equal terms.

It turned out that B. Brondukov was then filmed in two films at the same time – in *Moment of Truth* and in the film by Emil Lotyanu *Tabor goes into the sky*, so he had to constantly in Vilnius to move from one film set to another... And we went to him visit and watched as they sang and danced gypsies ...

– *It is widely known that writer V. Bogomolov was dissatisfied with the film footage shown to him: "And these are counterintelligence?! Unshaven, in dirty uniforms... The officers' uniforms aren't ironed, the cloaks are stale, and the boots are dirty. ... I won't put my name under this film. Change the names of the heroes... Well, do what you want!" Moreover, he wrote a letter to the director of the film studio "Mosfilm" N.T. Sizov: "Dear Nikolai Trofimovich! 1) I do not object to the continuation of the studio's work on the film adaptation of "Moment of Truth" of V. Žalakevičius or with the invitation of another director (as suggested by the studio), provided that the main idea of the novel, the system of images and prevent stunned and westernized characters. 2) As I told you 16.02.1975, repeated and confirmed the day before yesterday in a letter to the Chief Editor of the Soviet Goskino D. Orlov, I agree to any use of the material shot last year by the studio without mentioning my name in the credits and mentioning my novel".*

– *What can you say about it? In particular, about "westernization of characters"? Did you know during the filming of the conflict between director and writer?*

Yes, I learned about this conflict when shooting was stopped, although I had not met with V. Bogomolov himself. Of course, we can say that in *Moment of Truth* there was a kind of "westernization", to put it in modern language, because Žalakevičius (as opposed to the director's version of M. Ptashuk) tried to get away from literalism in his interpretation of the novel, putting its pages into action. But, for example, Nikita Mikhalkov was easily allowed to take off a real western in *He's his own among strangers*. And the hard truth of *Moment of Truth* caused rejection... Well, for example, in the final of the film there was a frame, when the camera was shooting Alekhin lying with his head punctured (the German saboteur was trained to beat on the slaughter), and the flies were already coming down on the blood, and it was not clear whether he was alive or not... Yes, it is hard, but it is true...

In my opinion, Žalakevičius saw in the characters certain prototypes, namely: Alekhin – as if a famous chess player – analyst, master of calculations of different variants and moves. Tamantsev, Taman... – a hero, a stately, confident, powerful. Blinov is a rookie, for whom much is new... Through mistakes and miscalculations young, green, but on the move gaining experience, which led him to the final junction, where he shot the main enemy. And all in all, three heroes, each unique, but together – power. And there wasn't much to look at from the westerns – it was deep and our way...

– *Have you seen the film materials?*

– The shooting of the film was already virtually completed. And even more. There was only one staff scene left to shoot with General Egorov and something else in the *Mosfilm* pavilion, and after B. Babkauskas died they were looking for a double actor. It was time for this – the set was being built on *Mosfilm*. That's where it all started... And the film in draft was almost ready. Deadline for the film was in a hurry, because everything that was filmed in Vilnius and Druskininkai had to be remade, because of the chemical failure of some film footage. Žalakevičius' friends from the Lithuanian Film Studio joined in. By that time the group had already moved to the *Belarusfilm* field in Smolevichi. And at night I moved from Lithuania to Belarus and back, as all the passages of Blinov in the city by director A. Grikevičius (1935–2011) and operator D. Pečiūra. Because of the outgoing time, the expedition was brought a mounting table and sent an editor, and V. Žalakevičius was mounting all the material on the way out. I watched the material on the assembly table with the director, there was also a review of the defective material so that I could take into account the shortcomings of the filming.

We returned to Moscow with the film almost ready. I missed a year of classes and immediately plunged into my studies waiting for a call to sound...

– *How and when did you find out that shooting the film was stopped? What was the reaction of the film crew?*

Our entire crew was set up to get the best results, everyone was confident that we were involved in the production of an outstanding piece of art. And when we were told in the autumn of 1975 that the shooting of *Moment of Truth* had been put on hold (that was the wording at first), it certainly upset everyone...

– *Have you had any friendships with the director and participants since 1975?*

Alas, somehow everything fell apart ... We were already looking forward to the future success of *Moment of Truth* – festivals, meetings with the audience and so on. And then were so upset that even to speak and remember our "dream project" was painful... It probably separated us... True, with actress Elena Safonova, we then met again and again at Institute of Cinematography, where she entered the acting department ...

– *Have you seen a film adaptation of Bogomolov's novel of 2001?*

– I tried to watch it, but immediately realized that M. Ptashuk's film turned out to be illustrative, verbose, in my opinion, much worse than that of Žalakevičius. And the cast, to put it mildly, was inferior to our...

– *Did you realize then that the role of Lieutenant Blinov could be your big acting hour?*

Of course I did. And I was filled with pride and joyful expectation when in 1975 with my own eyes I saw on the wall of one of the central cinemas of my native Krasnodar advertising poster *Moment of Truth* with my photo as Lieutenant Blinov. Of course, if this film was released on the screens of the country in 1976, it would have been a triumphant success. And my acting biography would certainly have been different...

– *And what happened after you graduated from Institute of Cinematography?*

Unfortunately, S. Bondarchuk – in contrast to S. Gerasimov – almost did not practice shooting his students in their own films, although once I took off with his master in a small episode in the film I. Talankin *Goal Choice*, and then he invited me to a small role of Commandant of Winter in his *Red Bells*, where my partner in one of the scenes was Franco Nero ...

Thus, on the course I was the first to get the main role, but as a result, on the defense of my diploma in 1977 was shown only in the play (the role of Gaev in *The Cherry Orchard*) without film

work. But after the blow of the ban on the movie *Moment of Truth*, I did not break, played in the theater – studio of the Cinema Actor, worked in the cinema, on dubbing.

I had another acting chance – shooting in a film dedicated to the centenary of Alexander Blok (*And the eternal battle... From the life of Alexander Blok*, 1980, directed by D. Barshchevsky – A.F.). I starred in the title role, a lot of hope for this work, expecting that this picture will be an event. But, unfortunately, the film turned out to be directed, illustrative and did not cause any public resonance...

And then I left *Mosfilm* (the last film with my participation was shot in 1986) and went to work in the Russian Orthodox Church. At first I worked as a church gardener, then I started to do ecological landscape design for the improvement of Moscow churches and the Holy Trinity Sergius Lavra. These works have been awarded at the Best Yard in Moscow competition. Then I was able to recreate the traditions of making lamps from colored glass, porcelain and bronze: now my works are available in almost all Christian churches around the world, including in Jerusalem and Athos. I have been awarded orders of the Russian Orthodox Church, medals and certificates of various exhibitions of ecclesiastical art for my ecclesiastical services, so it is possible to consider that in the ecclesiastical environment I have self –realized ...

(Alexander Fedorov asked questions to Alexander Ivanov)

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Filmography of Alexander Ivanov

- 1974. Target selection
- 1975. In August of '44.../ *Moment of Truth*
- 1976. Pseudonym: Lukac
- 1977. Dialogue
- 1978. Close range
- 1979. Here on my land
- 1979. Life Is Beautiful | La Vita è bella
- 1980. And the eternal battle... From the life of Alexander Blok
- 1980. I wish you success
- 1981. Front in the enemy rear
- 1981. Sashka
- 1982. I saw the birth of a new world
- 1982. Red Bells
- 1983. Hurricane comes unexpectedly
- 1983. Karastoyanov Family
- 1985. Inconvenient person
- 1985. There lived a brave captain
- 1986. A lone bus in the rain
- 1986. Dossier of a man in a Mercedes
- 1986. End of Operation Resident