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LECTURE 1 TRADITIONAL MASS MEDIA: TYPES, FUNCTIONS, PECULIARITIES

1. The concepts of mass media and communication.
2. Key functions of mass media.
3. Print mass media. Audiovisual mass media. Peculiarities of print mass media and audiovisual mass media.

1. The concepts of mass media and communication

A medium (plural media) is a carrier of something. Common things carried by media include information, art, or physical objects.

A medium may provide transmission or storage of information or both. By metonymy, the industries, which produce news and entertainment content for the mass media are often called "the media" (in much the same way the newspaper industry is called "the press").

Mass media is communication that reaches and influences a large number of people. Mass communication is characterized by the transmission of complex messages to large and diverse audiences, using sophisticated technology of communication. Mass media refers to the institutions that provide such messages: newspapers, magazines, television, radio, film and multimedia Web sites. The term also is used for the specific institutions of mass media, such as radio networks and television stations, movie companies, music producers, and the Internet.

Communication (from Latin "communis", meaning to share) is the activity of conveying information through the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, visuals, signals, writing, or behavior.

Here are some distinguishing characteristics of mass communication.

• The source of mass communication message generally is a person or group operating within an organizational setting. Examples of these sources are news reporters, television producers and magazine editors. Likewise, the source generally is a multiple entity, and the
resulting message is the work of several persons. For example, producers, writers, actors, directors and video editors all work together to create a television program. Publishers, reporters, editors, copyeditors, typesetters, graphic designers and photographers together produce a magazine article.

- Mass media messages are sophisticated and complex. Whereas the message in interpersonal communication may be simple words and short sentences, mass media messages are quite elaborate. Examples of mass media message are a news report, a novel, a movie, a television program, a magazine article, a newspaper column, a music video, and a billboard advertisement.

- Channels of mass media, also called mass vehicles, involve one or more aspects of technology. Radio, for example, involves tape machines, microphones, devices that digitize sound waves, transmitters that disseminate them, and receiving units that decode the sound waves and render

- Regulation of mass media and various

- Audiences generally are self-selected people who tune in to a particular television or who read a particular magazine. Mass audiences also are heterogeneous, meaning that they are both large and diverse. They actually are made up of groups of people with dissimilar background, demographics, and socio-political characteristics; they are spread over a vast geographic area.

- Feedback is minimal in mass media, and no real give-and-take is practically possible. Message flow typically is one-way, from source to receiver. Traditionally, feedback has been minimal and generally delayed. A newspaper reader could write a letter to the editor; a television viewer might respond to a survey. With the Internet, new possibility are being found to increase feedback, but it remains limited.

- Like other forms of mediated communication, noise exists in the mass context. Noise may be semantic, environmental or mechanical.

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users)
3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols).

Communication is viewed as a conduit; a passage in which information travels from one individual to another and this information becomes separate from the communication itself.

Communication is a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Mass communication is the study of how individuals and entities relay information through mass media to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate to newspaper, magazine, and book publishing, as well as radio, television and film, as these mediums are used for disseminating information, news and advertising. Mass communication differs from the studies of other forms of communication, such as interpersonal communication or organizational communication, in that it focuses on a single source transmitting information to a large group of receivers. The study of mass communication is chiefly concerned with how the content of mass communication persuades or otherwise affects the behavior, attitude, opinion, or emotion of the person or people receiving the information.

Therefore, every care should be taken to make communication effective. There are certain preconditions to make successful mass communication. These preconditions are:
1. Understanding: The communicator himself must have clear understanding of the massage to be conveyed

2. Thinking: The communicator must also thoroughly think over the using of words, timing and manner of communication to make the message cognitive, attractive, and acceptable.

3. Consistency: there must be consistency between actions or behaviors of and the message sent by the communicator.

4. Follow up: to have an idea about the attitudes, feelings, reactions or understanding of the audience, the communicator is needed for arranging follow-ups.

So the mass media are focusing on presenting current news to the public include print media (newspapers, magazines); broadcast media (radio stations, television stations, television networks), and increasingly Internet-based media (World Wide Web pages, weblogs).

2. Key functions of mass media

Basic functions of mass communication can be divided into three classes: informing, persuading and entertaining.

1. Informing: The most important function of mass communication is dissemination of information to the public primary through news media-electronic and print. Information diffused through these channels (media) is about new events, products, changes in policies, ideas, philosophies and so forth. Mass media are particularly effective to spread current information having news values.

2. Persuading: Persuasion is another function of mass media. Because of its having persuasive potential, both electronic and print media are used for advertising products, services, business, charities, or for political campaign.

3. Entertaining: Entertainment is the most common function of mass communication. When used for entertainment, the mass media publicize such programs as are pleasurable to the consumers or at least they provide the audience with some sort of escape of diversion from anxieties of daily life. For example, Newspapers for this purpose may include comics, crossword puzzles and the like. Televisions may show situation comedies, drama, variety shows, etc. Radio entertainment primarily consists of music, talk shows, etc.

The mass media are capable of facilitating short-term, intermediate-term, and long term effects on audiences. Short-term objectives include exposing audiences to new concepts; creating awareness and knowledge; altering outdated or incorrect knowledge; and enhancing audience recall of particular advertisements or public service announcements (PSAs), promotions, or program names. Intermediate-term objectives include all of the above, as well as changes in attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of social norms. Finally, long-term objectives incorporate all of the aforementioned tasks, in addition to focused restructuring of perceived social norms, and maintenance of behavior change. Evidence of achieving these three tiers of objectives is useful in evaluating the effectiveness of mass media.

As education tools, media not only impart knowledge, but also can be part of larger efforts (e.g., social marketing) to promote actions having social utility. As public relations tools, media assist organizations in achieving credibility and respect among public health opinion leaders, stakeholders, and other gatekeepers. Finally, as advocacy tools, mass media assist leaders in setting a policy agenda, shaping debates about controversial issues, and gaining support for particular viewpoints.
3. Print mass media. Audiovisual mass media. Peculiarities of print mass media and audiovisual mass media

Print mass media Book
A book is a collection of sheets of paper, parchment or other material with a piece of text written on them, bound together along one edge within covers. A book is also a literary work or a main division of such a work. A book produced in electronic format is known as an e-book.

Magazine
Magazines are another type of popular culture print media. They usually cater to a specific type of audience who are looking for information based on a particular subject. Magazines cover various topics like current affairs, business, finance, consumers, gadgets, self-help, luxury, lifestyle, beauty, fashion, entertainment, travel, etc. The frequency of magazines can be weekly, fortnightly, bi-monthly, quarterly, half-yearly, or yearly. These magazines are the best forum for advertisers as they have a niche readership.

Magazines fall into two broad categories: consumer magazines and business magazines. In practice, magazines are a subset of periodicals, distinct from those periodicals produced by scientific, artistic, academic or special interest publishers, which are subscription-only, more expensive, narrowly limited in circulation, and often have little or no advertising. Magazines can be classified as:

- General interest magazines (e.g. Frontline, India Today, The Week, The Sunday Times etc.)
- Special interest magazines (women's, sports, business, scuba diving, etc.)

Newspaper
A newspaper is a publication containing news and information and advertising, usually printed on low-cost paper called newsprint. It may be general or special interest, most often published daily or weekly. The first printed newspaper was published in 1605, and the form has thrived even in the face of competition from technologies such as radio and television. Recent developments on the Internet are posing major threats to its business model, however. Paid circulation is declining in most countries, and advertising revenue, which makes up the bulk of a newspaper's income, is shifting from print to online; some commentators, nevertheless, point out that historically new media such as radio and television did not entirely supplant existing.

A newspaper is a lightweight and disposable publication (more specifically, a periodical), usually printed on low-cost paper called newsprint. It may be general or special interest, and may be published daily, weekly, biweekly, monthly, bimonthly, or quarterly. Newspapers are available in daily and weekly formats, and local, regional, and national publications exist.

A newspaper carries all kinds of communication related to a variety of topics like politics, socialism, current affairs, entertainment, finance, stocks, etc. Apart from this, it also includes topics, which are in lighter vein like cartoons, crosswords, Sudoku, movie reviews, book reviews, puzzles, crosswords, etc. This captivates the imagination and interests of readers, from all age groups.

Newspapers are an important platform of mass communication as they reach every nook and corner of the world where electronic media fails to reach. It plays a pivotal role in providing authentic firsthand information, building opinions, updating the knowledge of the reader, and serves as a good platform for advertisers to promote their products. However, with the emergence of Internet, which updates information every second, and is just a click away, the popularity of newspapers has reduced
General-interest newspapers are usually journals of current news on a variety of topics. Those can include political events, crime, business, sports, and opinions (editorials, columns, or political cartoons). Many also include weather news and forecasts. Newspapers increasingly use photographs to illustrate stories; they also often include comic strips and other entertainment, such as crosswords.

Newspaper writers use special techniques or news style to win the reader’s confidence and attention. According to I.R. Galperin: It is a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community speaking the language as a separate unity that basically serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader. Primary function is to impart information, to influence public opinion on political and other matters (brief news items and communiqués, press reports, purely informational, advertisement and announcements, editorials).

**Audiovisual mass media**

**Television**

Television is a powerful medium for appealing to mass audiences – it reaches people regardless of age, sex, income, or educational level. In addition, television offers sight and sound, and it makes dramatic and lifelike representations of people and products.

**Radio**

Radio also reaches mass and diverse audiences. The specialization of radio stations by listener age, taste, and even gender permits more selectivity in reaching audience segments.

**Internet Media**

With the advent of Internet, we are now enjoying the benefits of high technology mass media, which is not only faster than the old school mass media, but also has a widespread range. Mobile phones, computers, and Internet are often referred to as the new-age media. Internet has opened up several new opportunities for mass communication which include email, websites, podcasts, e-forums, e-books, blogging, Internet TV, and many others which are booming today. Internet has also started social networking sites which have redefined mass communication all together. Sites like Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube have made communication to the masses all the more entertaining, interesting, and easier!

**Mobile Phones**: Mobile phones have become a boon to mankind. It has made communication possible at any time, and from anywhere. Nowadays, a smart device like a mobile phone is not only used for interaction, but also for other technical utilities like operating pumps from remote locations, etc. You can also get alerts of your monetary transactions on a mobile phone. About a decade ago, who would have thought of having Internet on mobiles? Today, we can stay in touch with the whole world via Internet on our mobile phones.

**Computers**: With the invention of computers, the impossible has become possible. We virtually get information about everything from pin to piano with the help of computers. It has added speed and multimedia to the information, which was earlier available only in the print format. In addition, anyone can voice his or her opinions through computers. Computers have added a new breakthrough in the mass media by combining human intelligence with the innovative technology.

**Internet**: This is the most important device of the new age media. The discovery of Internet can be called the biggest invention in mass media. In earlier days, news used to reach people only with the morning newspaper. However, today, live updates reach us simultaneously as the events unfold. For example, the royal wedding of Kate Middleton and Prince William was watched live on the Internet by millions of people around the world.
Internet has inspired interaction and connectivity through its social networking medium. It has become one of the core means of mass communication. We cannot think of leading our lives without it. Let us see how Internet impacts mass communication through the following mediums.

**Emails:** Emails or electronic mails have drastically reduced the time it took for drafting and sending letters, or mails. Electronic mails have also facilitated lesser usage of paper.

**Websites:** Internet has a plethora of websites dedicated to various people, companies, brands, causes, activities, etc. The most significant utility of these websites is for providing information, search engines, downloads through libraries, and interaction through the social networking sites. Because of these websites, carrying out e-commerce transactions has also become easy.

**Podcasts:** Podcasts are mediums of mass communication that include short video or audio files. They can be seen and heard on mobiles, computers and portable media instruments. They are engaging devices of communication.

**eForums:** eForums are bulletin boards on websites where people start threads on topics. These are usually hosted on a website. These forums are open platforms to discuss a range of topics right from which wall color is appropriate for a baby girl's room to the research on the God particle. People give their opinions and share their experiences on various topics.

**eBooks:** There are a number of websites which have hosted eBooks and online libraries. The main benefit of having eBooks is that you don't have to carry bulky books. You can read them on your eBook readers, mobiles, computer screens, or other devices. You can even adjust the font size to suit your requirements.

**Blogging:** A blog is a space on the Internet where a single person or a group of people record their information, opinions, photos, videos, etc. It is an interesting and free platform to talk about any topic. Interaction happens in the form of comments or feedback.

**Internet TV:** It is also known as online TV. It usually has an archive of programs. You have to choose the program you wish to view from the list. You can either view the programs directly from the host server, or download the content on your computer. It is an effective means of communication.

**Facebook:** It is the most popular social networking website. Facebook has several applications which people utilize. It is the best platform to meet old friends, or make new ones. Advertisers also like this forum for communicating about their products.

The advent of the World Wide Web and the massive increase in Internet users offers public personnel opportunities and challenges. The Internet is a global system of interconnected computer networks that use the standard Internet protocol suite (TCP/IP) to serve billions of users worldwide.

It is a network of networks that consists of millions of private, public, academic, business, and government networks, of local to global scope, that are linked by a broad array of electronic, wireless and optical networking technologies. The Internet carries an extensive range of information resources and services, such as the interlinked hypertext documents of the World Wide Web (WWW) and the infrastructure to support email.

Unlike TV or radio, which are available in nearly all households, Internet access requires some technical skill, as well as the resources to purchase hardware and Internet subscription services.
Mass media enjoys a very prominent role in our lives. There are various effects of mass media on the society. Media tends to influence and it is obvious, there are positive as well as negative influences.

**Mass media positive influences**

The wide reach offered by mass media is phenomenal. It can target a global audience. In terms of newspapers and magazines, it can reach a specified target group. Besides, it is easily accessible. For example, information is available easily because of this wonderful Internet technology.

The Internet is such a medium that it can give many options for the kind of information required. Television, movies, Internet and the radio are some of the best forms of entertainment. They can be used for educational purposes in an effective manner.

**Mass media negative influences**

Now and then, the information reported may not be authentic from every angle. Therefore, there may be a misinterpretation of a situation. News can be manipulated to influence the minds of the audiences. For example – a particular political party may manipulate reports in their favor, which would indicate the political control in the media. Media bias can occur due to various issues. A journalist or an editor may give personal preference to an issue. A particular event or a celebrity may receive undue importance and set wrong ideals before the youth. It may present an ostentatious lifestyle, which may inculcate wrong ideals amongst youngsters. Unnecessary sensationalism of an issue may project wrong information to the public. Wrong interpretation of news may even blow things out of proportion. This would create further unrest in any place or even violence in case of extreme situations. At times, a particular event or news item may receive too much attention simply because of the lack of important news. This would again present a wrong idea before the public.

**LECTURE 2 STYLISTICS OF JOURNALISTIC GENRE**

1. Journalistic genre variations.
2. Journalistic style as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means and distinctive properties of journalistic language.
3. Primary functions of journalistic style.

**1. Journalistic genre variations**

*Feature journalism*

Newspapers and periodicals often contain *features* written by journalists, many of whom specialize in this form of in-depth journalism.

Feature articles usually are longer than straight news articles, and combined with photographs, drawings or other "art." Typographic effects or colors highlight them. Writing features can be more demanding than writing straight news stories, because while a journalist must apply the same amount of effort to accurately gather and report the facts of the story, the reporter must also find a creative and interesting way to write the article, especially the lead, or the first one or two paragraphs of the story.

*Sports journalism* covers many aspects of human athletic competition, and is an integral part of most journalism products, including newspapers, magazines, and radio and television news broadcasts.
Sports journalism in has traditionally been written in a looser, more creative and more opinionated tone than traditional journalistic writing; the emphases on accuracy and underlying fairness is still a part of sports journalism. An emphasis on the accurate description of statistical performances of athletes is also an important part of sports journalism.

Science journalism is a relatively new branch of journalism, in which journalists' reporting conveys information on science topics to the public. Science journalists must understand and interpret very detailed, technical and sometimes jargon-laden information and render it into interesting reports that are comprehensible to consumers of news media. Many, but not all, journalists covering science have training in the sciences they cover, including several medical doctors who cover medicine.

Investigative journalism, in which journalists investigate and expose unethical, immoral and illegal behavior by individuals, businesses and government agencies, can be complicated, time-consuming and expensive. It requires teams of journalists, months of research, interviews (sometimes repeated interviews) with numerous people, long-distance travel, computers to analyze public-record databases, or use of the company's legal staff to secure documents under freedom of information laws. Because of its inherently confrontational nature, this kind of reporting is often the first to suffer from budget cutbacks or interference from outside the news department. Investigative reporting done poorly can also expose journalists and media organizations to negative reaction from subjects of investigations and the public, and accusations of gotcha journalism. When conducted correctly it can bring the attention of the public and government problems and conditions that the public deem need to be addressed, and can win awards and recognition to the journalists involved and the media outlet that did the reporting.

Gonzo journalism is a type of journalism popularized by the American writer Hunter S. Thompson. Gonzo journalism is characterized by its punchy style, rough language, and ostensible disregard for conventional journalistic writing forms and customs. Gonzo journalism attempts to present a multi-disciplinary perspective on a particular story, drawing from popular culture, sports, and political, philosophical and literary sources. It is a style of journalism that is written without claims of objectivity, often including the reporter as part of the story via a first-person narrative. Gonzo journalism disregards the strictly edited product favored by newspaper media and strives for a more personal approach; the personality of a piece is equally as important as the event the piece is on. Use of sarcasm, humor, exaggeration, and profanity is common. Gonzo journalism has been styled eclectic or untraditional. It has a good deal in common with on-line journalism.

'Celebrity' or 'People' journalism is another area of journalism that grew in stature in the 20th Century is 'celebrity' or 'people' journalism, which focuses on the personal lives of people. Primarily celebrities are movie and stage actors, musical artists, models and photographers, other notable people in the entertainment industry, as well as people who seek attention, such as politicians, and people thrust into the attention of the public, such as people who do something newsworthy. Celebrity journalism differs from feature writing in that it focuses on people who are either already famous or are especially attractive, and in that it often covers celebrities, to the point of these journalists behaving unethically in order to provide coverage. Paparazzi, photographers who would follow celebrities incessantly to obtain potentially embarrassing photographs, have come to characterize celebrity journalism.
2. Journalistic style as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means

The newspaper – one of the most typical of the media and propaganda. There is massive and the recipient, and author.

Thus, journalistic communication includes such features, which relate to the manifestation of intelligence speech. These stylistic features are:

1) documentary character, manifested in the objectivity and presentation factually proven that in terms of style can be defined as a vividly documented, factual accuracy of expression; documentary factual accuracy is manifested in termination of speech, limited metaphor of terms (other than the standard), the wide use of jargon;

2) self-restraint, formality, emphasizing the importance of facts, information, and these features are implemented, the character of speech, peculiar phraseology and so forth;

3) certain generality, abstraction and conceptual presentation as a result of analyticity.

Actually, the newspaper correspondent and a specific act not on behalf of any one person or small group of individuals, but as a rule, express the position of millions of adherents. In this regard, one of the characteristic stylistic features of journalistic, especially newsprint, speech is a kind of collectivity, as expressed in a special importance and functioning of the linguistic units.

Today's journalistic style has the following characteristics:

- Compact, usually short sentences, every word selected and placed for maximum effect.
- Short paragraphs, each complete in itself and capable of being removed without destroying the sense of the story.
- Conciseness, directness and simplicity through elimination of unnecessary words and phrases.
- Factualness without editorial opinions and dogmatic expressions.
- 'Strong' verbs and nouns preferred over hackneyed words and expressions.
- Observance of grammatical and word usage rules.

Journalistic style is a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means serving the purpose of informing, instructing and, in addition, entertaining the reader. As a result, of this diversity of purposes, newspapers contain not only strictly informational, but also evaluative material – comments and views of the news-writers, especially characteristic of editorials and feature articles.

There are some distinctive language peculiarities of the journalistic style. They are the following:

- special political and economic terms;
- non-term political words, e.g., officials, hostages, kidnappers, protest, breakdown, regime, local terror cells, popularity rating, emergency anti-terror funding. A characteristic feature of political vocabulary is that the borderline between terms and non-terms is less distinct than in the vocabulary of other special fields. The semantic structure of some words comprises both terms and non-terms, e.g., crisis, agreement, progressive, nationwide, unity;
- lofty, bookish words including certain phrases based on metaphors and thus emotionally coloured: war hysteria, escalation of war, overwhelming majority, a storm of applause, post attack clean-up, global hunt for terrorists, a shot of power;
- newspaper clichés, i.e., stereotyped expressions, commonplace phrases familiar to the reader, e.g., public opinion, free markets, long-term agreements, a melting pot, to cast a veto.
over, crucial/pressing problems, zero tolerance, political correctness, to go postal (extremely hostile);

- abbreviations including: abbreviated terms – names of organizations, public and state bodies, political associations, industrial and other companies, various offices, etc. known by their initials are very common; e.g., EU (European Union), UNO (United Nations Organization), WTO (World Trade Organization), EEC (European Economic Community);
- neologisms are very common in journalistic vocabulary, in the early 21st century, neologisms relating to computers and the Internet outnumber all others, for example, cybersickness (a feeling of illness caused by using a computer for long periods of time), keypal (someone with whom one regularly exchanges e-mail), online auction, access provider, MP3, PDA (Personal digital assistant), animatronics;
- foreign words are traditionally used in journalistic style, others have recently come from the areas of new technology;
- complex sentences with a developed system of clauses;
- syntactical complexes: verbal constructions (infinitive, participial, gerundial) and verbal noun constructions;
- specific word order – five-w-and-h-pattern rule: (who-what-why-how-where-when)
- attributive noun groups (e.g. leap into space age);
- emotionally colored words and elements to help create a clearer mental picture for the reader;
- the third person narration;
- use of direct speech or indirect speech which is attributed to someone other than the reporter;
- use of passive verbs but usually only when someone who is being quoted wants to distance themselves from an issue and to show their objectivity about an issue;
- the past tense to denote that something has taken place so mostly;
- punchy style – it must grab the reader's attention so often uses: short rather than long words, active verbs, relatively short sentences, concrete rather than abstract vocabulary;
- sentences written in full (no elision) or elliptical sentences;
- stylistic devices.

3. Primary functions of journalistic style

Journalism is the practice of investigating and reporting events, issues and trends to the mass audiences of print, broadcast and online media such as newspapers, magazines and books, radio and television stations and networks, and blogs and social and mobile media.

So journalistic style is a very complex phenomenon because of its tasks and conditions of communication.

One of the most important functions of journalism is to communicate the recent news. So, journalistic style is based on four primary functions of communication:

(a) **The referential (also denotative or cognitive) function**, focused on the referent or context referred to by the text, and in journalistic style the referential function is often associated with an element whose truth value (true or false status) is being affirmed (or questioned), particularly when this truth value is identical in the real universe and in the assumptive or reference universe that is taking it on.

(b) **The expressive or emotive function**, focused on the sender, the sender's emotions or attitude towards the referent, consisting in the ability to express the writer’s
emotional state and his subjective attitude toward designated objects and phenomena of reality. The main characteristic of the expressive function is that it is speaker-reflexive. This function is crucial in changing the emotional status of an audience for or against someone or something.

(c) The appellative (cognitive, persuasive or vocative) function, focused on the orientation of the text towards the receiver when mass media messages evoke favorable cognitive responses and change attitudes.

(d) The phatic function, serving primarily "to establish, to prolong, or to discontinue communication between sender and receiver, to check whether the channel works, to attract the attention of the interlocutor or to confirm his continued attention. The phatic function is also responsible for the establishment and maintaining of social relations. We often use language for no other reason than simply to express our willingness to be sociable. No factual content is involved. In this sense, language can act as a form of social bonding that links people together. Phatic language fulfils important contact uses. It helps us negotiate the start and end of exchanges whether in spoken or written form.

Thus, journalism is rich and expressive style. As fiction, it has considerable power to influence, uses a variety of trails, rhetorical figures, the multiple lexical and grammatical means.

LECTURE 3

REPORTING

1. Reporting as news presented by reporters for newspapers or radio or television.
2. Fairness and accuracy in reporting.
3. Peculiarities of the genre, story types, the job of a reporter.
4. The language of reporting: linguistic and stylistic peculiarities.
5. Digital and investigative reporting.

1. Reporting as news presented by reporters for newspapers or radio or television. Fairness and accuracy in reporting

Journalistic writing is closely associated with the practice of reporting the news. News reporting is a type of journalism, typically written or broadcast in news style. Most news is investigated and presented by journalists or news reporters, and can be distributed to various outlets via news agencies. News is often reported by a variety of sources, such as newspapers, television, and radio programs, wire services, and web sites.

A reporter, or a journalist, investigates and delivers news stories. He or she conducts interviews, observes events and does research to get all the facts about a story after getting a lead or tip. Either the reporter writes up the story, which will be published in a newspaper, or on a website or reports, the story on air on a television or radio broadcast. Reporting news might include:

- interviewing sources to get more information about a story;
- reading documents, doing research in print and online sources;
- videotaping stories;
- writing stories;
- taking photographs.
There are two types of reporting: enterprise reporting and investigative reporting.

Enterprise reporting involves stories not based on press releases or news conferences. Instead, enterprise reporting is all about the stories a reporter digs up on his or her own, what many people call “scoops.” Enterprise reporting goes beyond merely covering events. It explores the forces shaping those events. Enterprise reporting consists of graphs, texts, tables, Web pages and emails, all of which are used to get information from executives to a company’s decision-makers to keep the organization running. Effective and efficient enterprise reporting is an asset, the better to deliver information from point A to point B as quickly and as safely as possible.

For instance, we have all heard stories about recalls of faulty and possibly dangerous products related to children like cribs, toys and car seats. However, when a team of reporters at the Chicago Tribune looked into such recalls they discovered a pattern of inadequate governmental regulation of such items.

Investigative reporting is a form of journalism in which reporters deeply investigate a single topic of interest, often-involving crime, political corruption, or corporate wrongdoing. An investigative journalist may spend months or years researching and preparing a report. Investigative journalism is a primary source of information.

Most investigative journalism is conducted by newspapers, wire services and journalists. Practitioners sometimes use the terms "watchdog journalism" or "accountability reporting."

An investigative reporter may make use of one or more of these tools, among others, on a single story:

- Analysis of documents, such as lawsuits and other legal documents, tax records, government reports, regulatory reports, and corporate financial filings
- Databases of public records
- Investigation of technical issues, including scrutiny of government and business practices and their effects
- Research into social and legal issues
- Subscription research sources such as LexisNexis
- Numerous interviews with on-the-record sources as well as, in some instances, interviews with anonymous sources (for example whistleblowers)
- Data from government agencies documents

There are three basic qualities, which characterize a good reporting – it must be fast, fair and accurate:

- Speed comes from increasing knowledge, confidence and experience.
- Accuracy comes from constant attention to details and from hard work in finding, checking and re-checking details.
- Fairness – Fairness includes two parts: Objectivity, which is not forcing your own personal opinions on the news. The opposite of objectivity is subjectivity. Even if you are not able to put it into words, you may have a natural understanding of fairness if you care about other people and are sensitive to their needs.

2. Peculiarities of the genre, story types, the job of a reporter

Reporting is characterized by a stable unity of content and form, ensuring its journalistic effectiveness. It is type of journalism that provides a readable and vivid account, with all essential details, of an eyewitness event or one in which the author has taken part. The manner of presenting reporting depends on the means of mass media – press, radio, or television – for which the material is intended.
Reporting is one of the activities of journalism. To some extent, the history of journalism can be called the history of the establishment, development and improvement of reporting. It is one of the first genres of the print journalism. But over the centuries the media have changed, and the reporting in newspapers is just one of many genres today; reporting is the most important genre on television. It is observed in the newscasts.

Everyone watches daily news. And the basis of this news are reportages. The entertaining nature of television requires the entertainment genres above all. However, no interviews, no correspondence, no note, no comment can give the viewer entertainment, as a reporting does. In addition, if the reporting is thematic, this genre is not a purely informational, but rather it is a link between information, artistic and analytical genres, the event-report is a genre full of information. Event reporting can more quickly convey all the most fresh and relevant information to the viewer, but also it can offer people to evaluate events from a journalist’s point of view. It is priority of event-reporting. Of course, the genre of event-reporting has imitations. Someone could say that this reporting provides only a review of the event. However, event-reporting combines the best qualities of all genres of information.

Reporting gives information like other genres. However, the essential difference is the fact of the presence of a reporter, a man with his point of view.

A reporter is a type of journalist who researches, writes, and reports information to present in sources, conduct interviews, engage in research, and make reports. The information-gathering part of a journalist's job is sometimes called "reporting," in contrast to the production part of the job such as writing articles. Reporters may split their time between working in a newsroom and going out to witness events or interview people. Reporters may be assigned a specific beat or area of coverage.

Due to the availability of technology, they can report breaking news more quickly than traditional media journalists can. Notable examples of reporting journalism are major world events are, the Arab Spring and the Occupy Wall Street movement.

Nowadays, reporters are closely connected with broadcasting journalism; they broadcast, or publish news by electrical methods, instead of the older methods, such as printed newspapers and posters. Broadcast methods include radio (via air, cable, and Internet), television (via air, cable, and Internet), and, especially recently, the Internet generally. Such media disperse pictures (static and moving), visual text and/or sounds.

Scripts for speaking to be broadcast tend to be written differently from text to be read by the public. For instance, the former is generally less complex and more conversational. Radio and television are designed to be seen and heard sooner and more often than is a daily or weekly newspaper.

Television, radio and increasingly online journalism are all in one way or another live broadcast mediums, and as such they need to create a sense of liveness – being ‘on location’ at the right time in order to get proper images, backgrounds and earn public reliability. Broadcasting reporting is divided into fixed and non-fixed reporting. Fixed reporting is broadcasting at the time of action and carried out by means of mobile television station. Informational value requires fixing. According to the types audio reporting can be divided into synchronous and dumb. Synchronous reporting contains natural sounds and speech event participants. Dumb reportage can hear only the voice of the announcer while he is reading the narration.

Broadcast "stories" (articles) can be written in "packages", "readers", "voice-overs" (VO), "news bulletins" and "live coverages".
Packages will usually be filmed at a relevant location and edited in an editing suite in a newsroom or a remote contribution edit suite in a location some distance from the newsroom. They may also be edited in mobile editing trucks, or satellite trucks, and transmitted back to the newsroom.

A "reader" is an article read without accompanying video or sound. Sometimes a "digital on-screen graphic" is added.

A voice-over, or VO, is a video article narrated by the anchor.

A "news bulletin" or a "newscast" are television programs lasting from seconds to hours that provide updates on world, national, regional or local news events. Television news is very image-based, showing video of many of the events reported. Television channels may provide news bulletins as part of a regularly scheduled news program. Less often, television shows interrupted or replaced by breaking news ("news flashes") provide news updates on events of great importance. Newscasts consist of a reporter being interviewed by an anchor, known as a 'two-way', or by a guest involved in or offering analysis on the story being interviewed by a reporter or anchor. There may also be breaking news stories, which will present live rolling coverage.

Live coverage will be broadcasted from a relevant location and sent back to the newsroom via fixed cable links, microwave radio, production truck, satellite truck or via online streaming. Roles associated with television news include a technical director, floor director, audio technician and a television crew of operators running character graphics (CG), teleprompters and professional video cameras.

So reporting is the genre of journalism, which is very specific. In addition, the genre is characterized by an impartial coverage of events and implies that the reporter is an eyewitness or participant described.

3. The language of reporting: linguistic and stylistic peculiarities

Different types of writing require different levels of formality. A report is generally an analysis, evaluation or description based on research. Reports are generally written in a formal style.

While reporting journalists should keep in minds some certain rules, they should speak appropriately following the basic rules existing in oral speech:

- Use of passive voice
- Few personal pronouns
- Neutral verbs are used, i.e. non-emotive verbs
- Use of bias-free language (bias-free language means using terms that treat people with respect. Sometimes it means leaving out certain kinds of words altogether, such as not describing someone's physical characteristics when doing so serves no purpose)
- Adapt to cultural diversity (successfully dealing with diversity requires empathy, patience, compassion and education)
- Avoid offensive humor
- Avoid profanity and vulgarity
- Avoid deliberately and especially hate speech (speech that attacks a person or group on the basis of race, religion, gender, or sexual orientation)

Reporting requires some common speech specific features, which in this context consists of all the information that the reporter and receiver of the communication must both possess, in advance, in order for the communication to be successful. They are the following:
• Standard English – a form of speech that lays claim to a grammatical 'correctness' and clear pronunciation. This is sometimes called 'BBC English'. Non-standard English are forms, dialects or idiolects that differ from this in word choice, expression and pronunciation.
• Dialect – a particular variation of spoken language shared by an identifiable group of people.
• Sociolect – spoken language shared by a particular social group (e.g. lawyers, doctors, young people).

In addition, reporters normally present hard news stories in inverted pyramid style so the most important information is at the beginning. It states only facts without giving comments, presents up-to-the minute, concise information about current events and delivers the facts and only the facts – the who, what, when, where, why, and how of an event. It is free of personal opinions and biases.

The language is basic, precise but effective, words can be used with precision to make clear what has happened and still convey the awful consequences without needing to resort to labels. It should be objective or accurate.

4. Digital and investigative reporting

Digital reporting is based on digital communication, transmitted at a distance by technological means, particularly through electrical signals or electromagnetic waves. Digital technology can help journalists find stories as well as getting those stories heard.

Digital journalism is journalism based on the Internet. Technological innovations, which previously allowed the mass distribution of news and information to large audience is now giving that power to individuals.

Digital journalism is creating a new media landscape for the 21st century, with low barriers to entry, computer networking technologies, and new writing genres such as blogs. Freed from the necessity of large investments in distribution and production equipment, individuals and grass-root organizations have pioneered various new journalistic styles and practices and generated new communicative forms such as YouTube and hyperlocal geographically-based websites. It consists of several service components such as voice, video and text.

It is important to consider how digital technologies have changed greatly digital reporting. New language styles and forms that have arisen under the influence of the Internet and other New Media, such as Short Message Service (SMS) text messaging. Since the beginning of Human-computer interaction (HCI) leading to computer-mediated communication (CMC) and Internet-mediated communication (IMC), experts have acknowledged that linguistics has a contributing role in it, in terms of web interface and usability. Today reporters widely 'multimodal talk' – any kind of conversation that is not face-to-face. It means texting on mobiles or smartphones. It also means tweeting, emails and all kinds of online chat services.

Digital reporting uses multimodal talk, forms of written and spoken language. Some specific features of multimodal talk are the following:
• Turn-taking: speech is never like the clear, crafted dialogue of films or novels. There are false starts, interruptions and repetition. People talk over each other, finish each other's sentences or mishear other people. Unlike face-to-face conversations, multimodal interactions obey strict rules of turn taking, as lines cannot appear at the same time. Often this means communicators have more time to construct their responses. In chat rooms,
however, it can be difficult to follow the different threads of conversation as everyone types at once, but the contributions appear in sequence.

- Speed: even in quick, one-to-one forms of communication, most people still talk faster than they type. In order to improve the speed of response in 'multimodal conversations', people use short forms, for example:
  - Constructions, (e.g. 'uni' for 'university')
  - Clippings ('goin' for going or 'hav' for 'have', 'tmrw' for 'tomorrow').
  - Abbreviations such as acronyms or initialisms for physical reactions ('LOL' for 'laughing out loud').
  - Letter and number homophones (words that sound the same as others) are also ways of speeding up typing ('B' for be or 'gr8' for 'great').
  - Spelling can therefore become 'phonetic' – spelt according to how it sounds (EEK, woooow), rather than how it is represented in Standard English: 'Coupla' for 'couple of' 'Nuff' for 'enough';'Gotta' for 'got to'; 'Dya' for 'do you';'tonite' for 'tonight'.
  - Tone – personal and personalized forms of spelling and expression dominate multimodal conversations. Emails often do not begin with the formal address of the letter (Dear Sir or Madam). They instead begin with 'hi' or 'hello', even to people we may not know that well.
  - Emoticons – one way of communicating non-verbal signals is through small images called emoticons. These express a writer's mood or signal a change to the meaning of plain text (for example – ';)' is a winking grin used to show someone is not serious or is sharing an in-joke). Emoticons are a way of preventing multimodal statements from being ambiguous. Emoticons are a way for multimodal talk to compensate for not having any non-verbal communication. Emoticons – symbols used to express facial or emotional reactions. The range of emoticons increases all the time. Emoticons offer a softer, cartoon-like quality to gestures and can make multimodal conversation less confrontational or aggressive.
  - Raised volume: writing in capital letters can signify shouting in an aggressive way.

The structure of digital reporting texts has some specific peculiarities including:

- Short texts and short paragraphs.
- Scanability (articles with two or even three levels of headlines – a general page heading plus subheads and sub-sub-heads when appropriate; meaningful rather than "cute" headings telling the user what the page or section is about; highlighting and emphasis to make important words catch the user's eye; colored text for emphasis).
- Hypertext structure: information splitting into coherent chunks to focus on a certain top.

Multimodal conversations have developed a completely new form of communication. Thus success of multimodal talk depends how well communicators or reporters know and apply these basic rules of digital communication.

Besides digital journalism allows for connection and discussion at levels that print does not offer on its own. People can comment on articles and start discussion boards to discuss articles. Before the Internet, spontaneous discussion between readers who had never met was impossible. The process of discussing a news item is a big portion of what makes for digital journalism. People add to the story and connect with other people who want to discuss the topic.

Journalists use email, online print, and video, and partnership with offline print media to get some stories. These modern means are successfully applied in investigative reporting, a
type of journalism when reporters intensely investigate a single interest topic, a lot concerning offense/crime, business illegal behavior, or political corruption.

Investigative reporting is becoming more affective thanks to new digital technologies. Digital archives of media such as audio and video recordings not only help to preserve language documentation, but also allows for global dissemination through the Internet.

Investigative journalists need all the skills of general reporting, but especially:
- an alert mind to recognize story ideas and important facts which people are trying to hide;
- an ordered mind to make notes, file information and fit lots of facts together;
- patience to keep digging for information;
- good contacts throughout society;
- courage to withstand threats from people you are investigating.

Thus, an investigative report is one that reveals new findings based on the work and research of the reporter. An investigative story, even when it is published, often requires some transparent finessing to establish a sense of trust and credibility in the reporting process that took place – especially with controversial or sensitive topics. Digital media tools come in handy here as these are useful for opening a dialogue about the story after it is published.

If an investigative story has connections with another country, a reporter should contact a news organization in that country and agree to work on the investigation together, sharing information and ideas. In such case, digital means of communication are of importance.

Investigative reporters must take special care when writing stories. There are the core rules, which investigative reporters should follow:
- sticking to facts, reporters should stick to facts, which they can prove are true;
- avoiding personal comment; keeping simple language; avoiding vague words.

Investigative reporting for a newspaper, radio or television station must be accurate, and it must be fair, but it does not have to be boring.

**LECTURE 4**

**TYPES AND STRUCTURE OF NEWSPAPER STORIES**

2. Editorials, commentary and criticism articles.
3. Advertisements and announcements.
5. Soft news stories: features or human interest stories. Specific language features of soft news stories.
6. Newspaper article structures. Traditional news structure.

**1. Hard news stories: brief news items, communiqués and press reports**

*Hard News* is a brief and simple chronicle of current events/incidents and is the most common news style on the front page of your typical newspaper. Newspapers normally write hard news stories, such as those pertaining to murders, fires, wars, etc. in inverted pyramid style so the most important information is at the beginning. Busy readers can read as little or as much as they desire.
The function of a *brief news item* is to inform the reader. The narration is telling stories or informing about events in chronological order.

It states only facts without giving comments, presents up-to-the-minute, concise information about current events and delivers the facts and only the facts – the *who, what, when, where, why,* and *how* of an event. It is free of personal opinions and biases. Hard News language is basic, unemotional, and to the point.

The writer is invisible, never adding his or her personal feelings or reactions to the article. In fact, many articles are unsigned, with only a dateline at the beginning of the first paragraph to indicate the city where the event took place. They are characterized by an impersonal and direct style:

- Short, telegraphic information about story captured in headline
- Focusing on circumstances
- Using action verbs
- Using saying verbs
- Using adverbs: time, place and manner.

The same style is typical for *press reports* (media for providing actual information to the public) and *communiqués*, official reports on international negotiations, an international agreement, important events in the domestic affairs of a country (including conferences, meetings, and decisions), or the course of military operations.

2. **Editorials, commentary and criticism articles**

*Editorials, commentary and criticism articles* offer a first-person opinion or a stated opinion of the newspaper, e.g. editorials and op-eds.

*Editorials* express an opinion rather than attempting to simply report news. *Editorial articles* that contain the views of the editorial board of the newspaper and of other journalists who write for the paper. An editorial is an article that presents the newspaper’s opinion on an issue and it is usually unsigned. Often a newspaper is known for having a certain political slant, for example favoring a certain political party. This slant, or viewpoint, is clearly expressed in editorials.

Much in the same manner of a lawyer, editorial writers build on an argument and try to persuade readers to think the same way they do. Editorials are meant to influence public opinion, promote critical thinking, and sometimes cause people to take action on an issue. Editorials are always printed on their own page of the newspaper, and are always labeled as editorials. They are often about current events or public controversies. Like all journalists, editorial writers need to present facts and reasons for opinions. Often, humor can be an effective tool to persuade a reader.

One of the most popular kinds of editorials is the *editorial cartoon*, a drawing that pokes fun at someone or something currently in the news. A good political cartoon can say in one drawing what an editorial might take 1,000 words to say – and it can make us laugh in the process.

Many newspapers have columnists who are experts in certain areas or writers whose opinions are respected. Most newspapers try to balance their editorial pages with columnists who have different points of view.

*The language of editorials* gives opinions. This is done in a number of ways – through adjectives and adverbs, through sarcasm and satire, and through very direct criticism or praise. That is one reason editorials can be fun to read.
Op-eds (opinion editorials) are articles that run opposite the editorial page. Opinions are not limited to the editorial pages. They can appear in other parts of the paper, such as sports, movie reviews and even the comics.

They are a response to current editorials and topical subjects with a catchy title that may not emphasize the central message. Political op-eds are the most common, but they do not have to be limited to politics. They must reflect items that are current and newsworthy. For newspapers, the Op-Ed is the page opposite the editorial page. It may contain letters to the editor or other opinion pieces.

They state the subject under controversy clearly and try to persuade a middle-of-the-road readership by mainstreaming idea, citing various sources. Most people know that editorials reflect the viewpoint of the newspaper.

However, an editorial is more than opinions. The editorial writer must include information – statistics, details, examples – to support their opinion. To make the editorial even more effective, the writer must present arguments and then challenge the arguments of other with different opinions. The writer makes an appeal to the reader to accept the position expressed by the newspaper.

Therefore, the language is rather argumentative and characterized by the following features:

- The argument is written in the timeless present tense.
- If predictions are being made the tense might change to the future.
- The writer uses repetition of words, phrases and concepts deliberately, for effect.
- Verbs are used when expressing opinions, e.g. I think they are the best! We believe students should not be stopped from eating junk food.
- Strong effective adjectives are used.
- Thought provoking questions are used. These may be asked as rhetorical questions. (Rhetorical questions: a question asked only for effect, not for information, e.g. Would you give your pre-schooler matches to play with?) Written in the timeless present tense.
- Use of pronouns (I, we, and us) is used to manipulate the reader to agree with the position argued. E.g. We all know that smoking causes cancer so we do not smoke.
- Use of emotive language or words that will appeal to the reader's feelings, e.g. concern, unreasonable, should.
- Use of passive voice or verbs in which the subject is acted upon and not doing the action. This helps structure the text, e.g. We would like to suggest that an enquiry be held into the running of the steel mills. Water is being polluted.
- Conjunctions that can exemplify and show results – they are usually used in concluding statements to finalize arguments.

3. Advertisements and announcements

The function of advertisements and announcements is to inform the reader, influence his mind, making him acquire the advertised product. There are two types of them: classified and non-classified. The information is arranged according to the subject matter: births, marriages, deaths, business offers, personal etc.

Newspaper ads are a genre unto themselves. They use graphics and design elements to attract a reader’s attention.

They use white space and type fonts as part of their message.
The language of advertisements as a particular style of discourse is a complex blend of national, social, economic and linguistic traditions, which work together with the addressees' expectations.

As the function of advertisement and announcement is to inform the reader, there are two basic types of advertisements and announcements in the modern English newspaper: classified and non-classified (separate).

In classified advertisements and announcements, various kinds of information are arranged according to subject matter into sections, each bearing an appropriate name.

As for the separate advertisements and announcements, the variety of language form and subject-matter is so great that hardly any essential features common to all be pointed out.

4. Specific language features of hard news stories
Specific language features of hard news stories tend:
• to be impersonal to make it appear objective (to distance the reporter from the story) hence:
  • written in the third person;
  • use of direct speech or indirect speech which is attributed to someone other than the reporter;
  • some use of passive verbs but usually only when someone who is being quoted wants to distance themselves from an issue and to show their objectivity about an issue;
  • nouns and noun phrases are used rather than personal pronouns; ☐ to be punchy – it must grab the reader's attention so often uses:
    • relatively short sentences and words – adjectives and nouns are ☐ often strung together to make the writing shorter and snappier, so you get expressions like there:
      1. The result of behind-the-scenes policy.
      2. Top changes at Treasury.
      3. A worldwide burst of anger.
      4. Cash cutback threat.
      If you try to re-write these phrases, you will discover just how economically they are written:
        1. The result of the policy which was not obvious and open.
        2. New changes in the upper level of the Treasure Dept.
        3. A burst of anger from all over the world.
        4. A threat to reduce expenditure.
  • some use of clichés which the whole audience understands;
  • acronyms and abbreviations, immediately recognizable by the reader. (If they are not, they are spelled. For example, Lawrence City Commission (not “LCC”)); ☐ to be written in the present tense; ☐ to have:
    ✓ technical, scientific, political and economic terms;
    ✓ active verbs (rushed, scurried, flew, crashed, blew, dashed, buried, languished, mired etc.) that provide interest to the writing; they replace blah, boring, vague verbs (Jeb ran into the burning igloo. Jeb rushed into the burning igloo.);
    ✓ linking verbs are used, e.g. is, are, has, have, belong to, to give coherence;
✓ concrete rather than abstract vocabulary;
✓ descriptive language that is factual rather than imaginative e.g. color, shape, size, body parts, habits, behaviours, functions, uses.

5. Soft news stories: features or human interest stories. Specific language features of soft news stories

Longer articles, such as magazine cover articles and the pieces that lead the inside sections of a newspaper are known as features.

**Feature articles** are rather long (+/– 1500 words) with reflective tone, often humorous or entertaining. They always carry the writer’s byline. A feature article is an article that is about "softer" news.

Feature articles differ from straight news in several ways.

Foremost is the absence of a straight-news lead, most of the time. Instead of offering the essence of a story up front, feature writers may attempt to lure readers in. A news story provides information about an event, idea or situation. The feature does a bit more – it may also interpret news, add depth and color to a story, instruct and entertain. They rather entertain than focus on news value.

They intend to inform, teach, or amuse the reader on a topic. The topic centers on human interests accompanied by personal comment.

They may include conventions found in fiction such as dialogue, plot and character. A feature's first paragraphs often relate an intriguing moment or event, as in an "anecdotal lead". From the particulars of a person or episode, its view quickly broadens to generalities about the story's subject.

The section that signals what a feature is about is called the **nut graf** (the paragraph in a story that tells readers what the story is about and why they should care) or **billboard**. Billboards appear as the third or fourth paragraph from the top, and may be up to two paragraphs long. Unlike a lead, a billboard rarely gives everything away. This reflects the fact that feature writers aim to hold their readers' attention to the end, which requires engendering curiosity and offering a "payoff." Feature paragraphs tend to be longer than those of news stories, with smoother transitions between them.

*A feature article* is an umbrella term that includes many literary structures: personality sketches, essays, how-to's, interviews and many others. The writer is often visible though expressed feelings, biases, reactions, and opinions and may even, on occasion, appear as I narrator.

The language of feature articles is less restricted and more imaginative, it contains:

- **Action verbs**: Action verbs provide interest to the writing. *For example, instead of The old woman was in his way try.* – *The old woman barred his path.* Instead of *She laughed.* – *She cackled.*
- Written in the first person (I, we) or the third person (he, she, they).
- Connectives, linking words to do with time.
- **Specific nouns**: Strong nouns have more specific meanings, e.g. *oak* as opposed to *tree*.
- **Active nouns**: Make nouns actually do something, e.g. *It was raining.* – *Rain splashed down.* There was a large cabinet in the lounge. – A large cabinet seemed to fill the lounge.
• Careful use of adjectives and adverbs: writing needs judicious use of adjectives and adverbs to bring it alive qualifying the action and providing description and information for the reader.

• Use of the senses: Where appropriate, the senses can be used to describe and develop the experiences, setting and character:
  ✓ What does it smell like?
  ✓ What can be heard?
  ✓ What can be seen – details?
  ✓ What does it taste like?
  ✓ What does it feel like?

• Imagery:
  Simile: A direct comparison, using like or as or as though, e.g. The sea looked as rumpled as a blue quilted dressing gown. The wind wrapped me up like a cloak. Metaphor: An indirect or hidden comparison, e.g. She has a heart of stone. He is a stubborn mule. The man barked out the instructions.

  Onomatopoeia: A suggestion of sound through words, e.g. crackle, splat, ooze, squish, boom.

  Personification: Giving nonliving things (inanimate) living characteristics, e.g. The steel beam clenched its muscles. Clouds limped across the sky. The pebbles on the path were grey with grief.

  Rhetorical questions: Often the author asks the audience questions, knowing of course there will be no direct answer. This is a way of involving the reader in the story at the outset, e.g. Have you ever built a tree hut?

  • Variety in sentence beginnings. There are a several ways to do this e.g. by using:
    ✓ Participles: "Jumping with joy I ran home to tell mum my good news."
    ✓ Adverbs: "Silently the cat crept toward the bird."
    ✓ Adjectives: "Brilliant sunlight shone through the window."
    ✓ Nouns: "Thunder claps filled the air."
    ✓ Adverbial Phrases: "Along the street walked the girl as if she had not a care in the world."

  • Conversations/Dialogue: these may be used as an opener. This may be done through a series of short or one-word sentences or as one long complex sentence.

  • Personal Voice: It may be described as writing which is honest and convincing. The author is able to 'put the reader there'. The writing makes an impact on the reader. It reaches out and touches the reader.

  • Most features are complex and therefore involve more than one theme. However, one is most prominent. To decide which theme is most prominent one should ask the questions: What is this story really about? What is the main point in the story? What is the central concept described in the story? To answer these questions, use the following guidelines:
    • Actions or developments are paid more attention than the context in which they occur.
    • Headlines or section heads are used as clues only: a story in the business section is more than likely to include information relating to business, but it should not necessarily be coded as “business” for theme.
6. Newspaper article structures. Traditional news structures

There are three traditional news structures: the inverted pyramid, the narrative or storytelling and the hourglass.

The most popular structure for news stories is the inverted pyramid. In the inverted pyramid, the information is arranged in descending order of importance. The most important material is placed at the beginning of the story, and less important material follows. Succeeding paragraphs explain and support the lead.

The inverted pyramid is popular because it still serves readers well. It tells them quickly what they want to know. It also serves to identify and rank the most important elements of the story. The structure of a general news article can be pictured as a triangle or an inverted pyramid.

The inverted pyramid is a metaphor used to illustrate how information should be arranged or presented within a text. The triangle's broad base at the top of the figure represents the most substantial, interesting, and important information the writer means to convey. This type of writing came about in newspapers in the days of the telegraph, the whole story took long to transmit, and starting with the main information ("The battle was lost, 940 killed") was more important for getting on press immediately than the details ("Our soldiers crossed the bridge at dawn with fresh supplies..."). This format will allow the less important information to be more easily cut out of the article to fit a fixed size (number of words, printed size, etc.).

This structure enables readers to quit reading at any point and still come away with the essence of a story. It allows people to enter a topic to the depth that their curiosity takes them, and without the imposition of details or nuances that they would consider irrelevant. A similar style could be used for web pages, mainly for the last reason – knowing that not all readers will read the entire story.

However, the inverted pyramid has big disadvantages. Although it delivers the most important news first, it does not encourage good writing. Many times stories do not have an ending crafted by the writer; they simply end. There is no suspense. Reporters tend to lose interest, time and energy. Writing in the second half of the story is casual at best, and poor at worst.

One alternative to the inverted pyramid is narration or storytelling.

Narration uses scenes, anecdotes and dialogue to build to a climax. People are prominent in the story, and they are responsible for the action. The story has a beginning, middle and end. Quotations sound like real speech. The words and actions of the characters reveal motives.

A third story structure, the hourglass, combines some of the best elements of both the inverted pyramid and the narrative. It consists of three parts: a top, which tells the news quickly; the turn, a nimble transition; and the narrative, a chronological retelling of events. The hourglass works well with police stories, courtroom dramas and other incidents that lend themselves to chronological narration. The hourglass has several advantages: readers get the news high in the story; the writer gets to use storytelling techniques; and it encourages a real ending.

In general, the structure of a typical news article contains five parts:

1. Headline or title that will entice the reader to read the story further.
2. Byline: this tells who wrote the story.
3. Lead: first paragraph is one of the most important elements of news writing is the opening paragraph of the story.

4. Body includes explanation (put in second, third, fourth paragraphs) that gives details, contains quotes that are objective (written in 3rd person) enough and can answer any important questions a reader might have after reading the headline and the lead paragraph.

5. Conclusion, last paragraph wrapping the content up.

LECTURE 5

MODERN NEWSPAPER ARTICLE HEADLINE

1. Definition and concept. The function of headlines. Logical sentence structure of headlines.

2. Language features of newspaper headlines: very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech.

3. Headline punctuation (the comma, the colon, single quotation marks).


1. Definition and concept, the function of headlines, logical sentence structure of headlines

The key functions of a headline are to attract the reader’s attention and, certainly, to persuade the reader to buy the newspaper. The headline has the capacity to represent a story, and to give the reader the overall picture of the current news. The reader can skim the headlines and have a general impression of the news of the day.

A headline is text at the top of a newspaper article, indicating the nature of the article below it. Headlines are usually written in bold and in a large letters. Most newspapers feature very large headlines on their front page, dramatically describing the biggest news of the day.

A headline may also be followed by a smaller secondary headline, which gives a bit more information, or a subhead (also called a deck or nutgraf in some areas). Words chosen for headlines are often short, giving rise to headlines.

The main function of headline is to inform the reader briefly, of what the news is to follow about. The headline should report the topic and perhaps the main fact, accurately. It should also present the information in an interesting way so that the reader is encouraged to read the article itself. It should hook the reader with a funny, clever, or surprising statement. It should be begun with a question or provocative statement.

Thus, newspaper headlines are important because they reflect the content of the whole issue or reported event. The headline is a textual negotiator between the story and the reader.

The kinds of news that appeal to readers of one newspaper may differ widely from those of a competitor. But all headlines include one or more of the following elements that attract a reader’s interest: newness or unusualness, personal relevance or consequences, and emotions.

Sometimes one headline is not enough to summarize the important information, so a second headline, in smaller letters, called subhead line, is added below the first. There are two types of headlines:
1. Sentence headlines are very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech:

   *Police rescue 12 divers as launch sinks off Bali*  
   *Pen manufacturers still see good future for luxury pens*

Phrase headlines:

   *Getting in touch with the spirit*  
   *Heroism and cowardice at the “Top of the World” Reward for tracing suspect*

Effective headlines usually involve logical sentence structure, active voice and strong present-tense verbs.

A headline tells the truth: the journalist writes facts that are, to the best of his/her knowledge, true. It is simple and direct without exaggeration, generalization or long words.

A careful journalist only states things that he/she can prove to be true, and will ‘cite’ the source of any uncertain information.

Proper names or abbreviations are not used in headlines unless the name or abbreviation is well-known enough to be recognized immediately.

Faddish or commercial slogans are not used unless they fit especially well with the content and tone of the story.

Thus, a headline sentence is basically a group of words, which are tied together and convey an idea, event or description. It is normally not a complete sentence, and tries to summarize the main idea or subject of the article. The words in a sentence have a certain order and rules regarding ways to either expand or shorten it. As with any good writing, good headlines are driven by good verbs. A good headline captures the essence of the story without dulling. The value of a headline should not be underestimated. Headlines are important constituents and elements of a newspaper.

2. **Language features of newspaper headlines**: very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech

The main function of the headline is to inform the reader briefly, about what is the news. Sometimes headlines show the reporter’s or paper’s attitude of the fact reported. In most of the English and American newspapers, sensational headlines are quite common. The function and the peculiar nature of English headlines determine the choice of language means used. Headlines also contain emotionally colored words and phrases as the italicized words: *Crazy waste of you?* Effective headlines usually involve logical sentence structure, active voice and strong present-tense verbs.

**Language features of newspaper headlines**

Headlines are very short sentences or phrases and have a variety of patterns:

- Full declarative sentences
- Interrogative sentences
- Nominative sentences *Atlantic sea Traffic* and elliptical sentences – *Off to the Sun.*

They often consist only of key words, without articles, auxiliary verbs: *A woman walks on moon. More wage cuts. Holiday Hotel Death.*

- Conjunctions are often replaced by a comma, as in "Bush, Blair laugh off microphone mishap."
- Complex sentences.
- Headlines including direct speech.
Headlines often contain strings of three, four or more nouns; nouns earlier in the string modify those that follow: *Furniture factory pay cut row.*

**Let us cover their major language peculiarities in detail:**

- **First,** headlines in English language newspapers are usually short and they thus tend to leave out all the *inessential words,* such as articles (*Frock man find gold in river*) and auxiliary verbs, and to be as generally economical as they can (*Smoking ban forced on Italy’s cafes*). Because of that, headlines use: **short words** wherever possible: deal, cost, ban, hit, get, and clash; **compound-noun phrases** instead of a longer clause: for example, – *Japan Leadership Struggle* for – *The Leadership Struggle in Japan,* “Bridge Cost” for – *The Cost of the Bridge* and Bank Girl Killer Clues for – *Clues to the Killer of the Girl who Worked in a Bank:* **abbreviations** that are not acceptable in stories are acceptable in headlines.

Sometimes, of course, the very briefness of headlines makes them ambiguous. What about *Prime Minister Moves to Cut Down Expenditure* – When the Prime Minister did not change his place of residence but made a move politically. Here’s what some of the headlines mean:

1. “Car Import Curb „Would Hit Britain”” – Controls on the import of cars would make Britain suffer.
2. Action Man Sinatra Dies – Sinatra, who was a man of action, has died.
3. Agricultural Policy to be Discussed – The policy of Agriculture will be discussed.
4. Charged After Clash – Twenty five people were accused by the police of criminal behaviour after a fight.

- **Second,** newspaper headlines generally **use the simple tenses of verbs,** and the present simple tense is very frequent for immediate past information: *Japan Leadership Struggle Hots up*, “Bridge Cost Soars”, “Miners Ban Overtime”, “Police Get Bank Girl Killer Clues” and “Action Man Sinatra Dies”.

The present tense gives the subject a sense of freshness and immediacy, making it more interesting to read.

Past tense (often in passive voice) is used for past perfect, and the infinitive form is often used to express the future: *Agricultural Policy to be Discussed*, “Two Presidents to Meet in September.

In addition, the passive form is employed where the action is more important than the agent is: “25 Charged after Clash”. Using the passive voice makes the report sound more formal. By putting the object of the verb at the beginning of the sentence, they take our attention away from the subject. Therefore, although ‘Five men were arrested’ and ‘Police arrested five men’ have the same meaning, the reporter is focusing on the result of the action instead of the people doing the action. News reports often use the passive voice to avoid saying directly that someone has done something. In this way, they try to remain impartial.

Present tense headlines are sometimes written in the passive voice (*Westchester Mayor is stabbed by angry voter*). It is important not to confuse the present tense passive voice in an elliptical headline – when an auxiliary verb is omitted (passive: Mayor stabbed at midnight = Mayor is stabbed at night. active: Mayor stabbed someone at night).

Headlines often use **infinitives** to refer to the future: *PM to visit Australia. Hospitals to take fewer patients.*
3. **Headline punctuation (the comma, the colon, and single quotation marks).**

Specific punctuation marks in headlines: headlines are usually printed in large letters at the top of the story.

- **The comma:**
  - takes place of *and*
  - is used with its normal function of separating words in a list: *Massive, Mobile UN Force*
  - separating phrases: *After deadline, the war began*
- **The colon:**
  - is used after a word or phrase to explain it – *Washington prediction: slow growth, no recession*
  - Following a name, tells what a person said without quoting their exact words (*Junkie: I’ll take test*)
- **Single quotation marks** tell what a person said, using their exact words. The whole headline (or subheadline) can be a quotation or just a few words. The speaker can be named in the headline or not:
  
  ‘*The liberation of Kuwait has begun’ President Bush*
  
  *Lincoln: ‘The war has begun’*

- **Inverted commas** are inserted to show that a fact or an event is quoted or reported:
  *‘Car Import Curb ’Would Hit Britain’.*

- **Double quotation marks** can also be used sometimes to indicate that a word is special in some way: *Women Achieved “equality”*  
  Periods are used only for abbreviations.

4. **Figurative language, stereotypes and exaggeration in headlines**

**Figurative language** is language that uses words or expressions with a meaning that is different from the literal interpretation. When a writer uses literal language, he or she is simply stating the facts as they are. Figurative language, in comparison, uses exaggerations or alterations to make a particular linguistic point. Figurative language is very common in poetry and used in mass media and headlines writing as well.

There are many different types of figurative language used in headlines.

For example:

- **Simile**: A simile is a comparison that often uses the words like or as: *“Runs as Fast as the Wind”* or *“The Human Torch Burns Like a Candle on a Cake”*
- **Metaphor**: A metaphor is a comparison made between things which are essentially not alike: *“The Team Captain is a Rock”, “Mike Tyson is a Lion in the Ring”*
- **Metonymy**: *The Speaker Addressed the Chair*
- **Personification**: when something that is not human is given human-like qualities, this is known as personification: *“The Dish Ran Away with the Spoon”*
- **Hyperbole**: exaggerating, often in a humorous way, to make a particular point is known as hyperbole: *“The Mile-High Ice Cream for Dessert.”*
- **Onomatopoeia**: when you name an action by imitating the sound associated with it, this is known as onomatopoeia. One example of onomatopoeia would be to say, *“The Bees Buzz”*
- **Idiom**: An idiom is an expression used by a particular group of people with a meaning that is only known through common use. One example of an idiom would be to say, *“I’m just waiting for him to kick the bucket.”* Many idioms that are frequently used are also considered clichés.
Alliteration refers to a group of words that start with the same consonant sound. An example of alliteration is “Carefully Counted Coins,” where the “C” sound is repeated throughout the phrase.

Stereotypes are as old as human culture itself. They reflect ideas that groups of people hold about others who are different from them. Reporters for daily newspapers or news shows often have to research, write and present a story in one working day. They may not have time to present several sides of an issue. They may need a quick, convenient, prepackaged image. For example: China Court Sentences Drunk Driver to Death.

This rather shocking headline graced an AP story implying that the Chinese justice system was now in the habit of executing citizens for what, in the United States, is generally a misdemeanor offense. Many who saw this headline likely read no further. It simply further confirmed what they already had been told countless times by the media about the Chinese government’s widespread abuse of its citizens.

Media stereotypes contain fixed expressions, proverbs or idioms to simplify notions about others. For example, “Better Late than Never” “Whose End of Tongue is Sharp, the Edge of His Head Must be Hard”, “Theory Dominates Practice”.

Media stereotypes are inevitable, especially in the advertising, entertainment and news industries, which need as wide an audience as possible.

Stereotypes act like codes that give audiences a quick, common understanding of a person or group of people – usually relating to their class, ethnicity or race, gender, sexual orientation, social role or occupation. Producers use them to reach wide audience and to make their messages as easy to understand as possible. However, stereotypes can be problematic. They can:

• reduce a wide range of differences in people to simplistic categorizations
• transform assumptions about particular groups of people into "realities"
• be used to justify the position of those in power
• perpetuate social prejudice and inequality

Readers get their first or only impressions from headlines, so many authors in order to intensify effects of stereotypes apply exaggeration to sensationalize headlines. It has many forms. Sometimes it involves the deliberate underemphasis on a lack of quality or a lack of facts, buried by a stream of unrelated or useless information.

Lecture 6

Stylistic-Linguistic Analysis of Newspaper Article

1. Informational structure within the text – theme and rheme. Logical structure and cohesion. Pragmatic aspects of newspaper articles.
2. Newspaper language as the main carrier of the message. Newspaper article tone: sarcastic, ironic, pessimistic, optimistic, and humorous.
3. Sentence structure analysis.
4. Lexico-semantic analysis: meanings generated by lexical items.
5. Phonological aspect: rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, assonance, transliteration, homophones.
6. Figurative language analysis: metaphoric feature, personification, simile, paradox, synecdoche, rhetorical questions.
1. Informational structure within the text – theme and rheme. Logical structure and cohesion. Pragmatic aspects of newspaper articles

*Information structure* within the text describes the way in which information is packaged, often focusing on the ways in which topic-comment structures are used to make particular parts of information stand out as particularly salient in relation to others.

Text structure is the domain of language structure and language study that is concerned with notions such as topic and comment, theme and rheme, focus and background, etc. *Topics* are the old information (information already known by the speaker and listener) in a sentence. *The focus* is the new information (information not already known by the speaker and listener) in a sentence.

Text structure refers to how the information within a written text is organized. A text might present a main idea and details; a cause and then its effects; and/or different views of a topic. In order for a paragraph to be easy to read, the information in it must flow easily from one sentence to the next.

Recognizing common text structures can help understand the meaning of the text. There are a variety of structures to organize the information for readers:

- description (Sensory details help readers visualize information.)
- sequence (Texts reveal events in a sequence from beginning to end. Words that signal chronological structures include: first, then, next, finally, and specific dates and times.)
- problem and solution (The text introduces and describes a problem and presents solutions.)
- cause and effect (The text describes events and identifies or implies causal factors.)
- comparison and contrast (Authors use comparisons to describe ideas to readers. Similes, metaphors, and analogies are used in compare/contrast organizational structures.)

Thematic structure and the use of the cohesive devices: reference, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Thus, text has two properties: coherence and cohesion. Coherence property
is to give the sensation that one speaks of the same thing. Cohesion property is a group of mechanism to connect the parts of a text.

There are three types of cohesion:

- Grammatical cohesion – conjunction, reference, substitution and ellipsis
- Lexical cohesion – repetition of words, synonymy, antonymy
- Structural cohesion given-new information and theme-focus organisation, parallelism

Text is a semantic, syntactic and pragmatic structure constituted for several levels of organization.

The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence. Pragmatics looks at how context affects meaning, as the intended meaning of an utterance is often different from its literal meaning. Texts include the following functions: communicative function, inducement function, criterion function and appealing function. According to this fact, there is a need to analyze pragmatic aspect of type of newspaper articles defined by the interrelation between language expression and addressees of communication.

Pragmatic aspect is a complex of intralinguistic and interlinguistic peculiarities that influence the communicative act forming and the choice of language units.

Thus, newspaper articles through their text contexts influence human behavior and the social rules. Journalists skilfully use the theory of speech acts. They do all their best to attract the readers’ attention to some social problems and then they influence and frame their opinions through the content and the language of newspaper articles. The language employs different formal devices for realizing some pragmatic purposes.

For example, expressive newspaper article headlines interest and attract the readers. Then logical or grammatical and lexical links within a text as well as language expressive means and stylistic devices influence the opinions and behavior of the readers.

Text function of news articles focuses on pragmatic aspects such as purpose or communicative effect and takes into account the situational conditions of communication interaction.

Therefore, there are some differences in structures of general news articles and other type of media articles (features, commentaries/criticism stories). In the "objective", "hard news" report the author's "voice" is constructed as impersonal full of facts and data but not as of a human individual.

In general, the structure of a typical news article text contains five parts:

1. Headline or Title that will entice the reader to read the story further.
2. Byline: This tells who wrote the story.
3. Lead. First Paragraph is one of the most important elements of news writing is the opening paragraph of the story.
4. Body that includes explanation (put in second, third, fourth paragraphs) that gives details, contains quotes that are objective (written in 3rd person) enough and can answer any important questions a reader might have after reading the headline and the lead paragraph.
5. Conclusion, last paragraph wrapping the content up.

2. Newspaper language as the main carrier of the message. Newspaper article tone: sarcastic, ironic, pessimistic, optimistic, and humorous

The news message is a general free format message between the journalist and the audience.
Messages differ in a number of topics is constantly in the center of public attention, and vocabulary related to these topics, gets journalistic color.

Among these is constantly being covered in the first place should be called a policy, information about the activities of government and parliament, elections, party events, the statements of political leaders. The texts on this subject is regularly encountered such words and phrases like: a faction, a coalition candidate, leader of the bill, the Democrats, the opposition, federalism, conservative, radical, campaigning, parliamentary hearings, a lively debate, the second round, the electoral headquarters rating policy, the lower house, the trust of voters, deputy's inquiry, a parliamentary investigation, public consent.

The economic theme is also important for journalistic message and its coverage is impossible without words such as budget, investment, inflation, auction, arbitration, audit, raw materials, licensing, bankruptcy, monopoly, joint-stock company, natural monopolies, the labor market, customs duties, the stock price.

The articles on topics of education, health, social protection, journalists use the following words: variation in education, government support, teachers' salaries, distance education, the unloading of school programs, student exchanges, agreement on scientific cooperation, informatization of education, compulsory medical insurance, medical insurance policies, drug benefits, diagnostic center, a living wage, child benefits, consumer, shopping, living standards, the calculation of pensions, working pensioner.

Messages of accidents, natural disasters, accidents are common words: hurricane, typhoon, earthquake, flood, hostage taking, bombing, shooting guard, a car collision with a train, rescue, fire fighting, environmental devastation.

The message of war correspondents contain the words: Action, explosives, land mines, mining, sniper, clash, shelling, bombing, combat flight, severely wounded, civilian casualties, destruction of houses.

Messages on international topics can be easily distinguished by the following words and combinations: negotiations for a peaceful settlement, official visit, multi-stakeholder consultations, the world, the tense situation, the strategic partnership, European integration, the peacekeeping force, territorial integrity, global issues.

Thus, newspaper language is the main carrier of the message. Each message has its particular style defined as the characteristic manner of expression employing various language aspects and among them are the following stylistic features:

1) documentary character, manifested in the objectivity and presentation factually proven that in terms of style can be defined as a vividly documented, factual accuracy of expression; documentary factual accuracy is manifested in termination of speech, limited metaphor of terms (other than the standard), the wide use of jargon;

2) formality, emphasizing the importance of facts, information, and these features are implemented, the character of speech, peculiar phraseology (cliché) and so forth;

3) a certain generality, abstraction and conceptual presentation because of analyticity and often in tandem with the figurative concrete expression.

The message may be expressed directly or explicitly and implicitly, when the write of the article is invisible. However, his/her intention may be read between the lines of the article with the help of imaginative use of words: metaphor, metonymy, especially the impersonation. Here is an example of metaphor: "And suddenly the thunder of guns split the silence".

The tone may be subjective or objective.
Fiction and personal essays are usually written with a subjective tone. A subjective tone uses words that describe feelings, judgments, or opinions. The details are likely to include experiences, senses, feelings, and thoughts. Subjective tone is personal, biased, emotional, and often informal.

The tone of a writer towards a subject or issue is clearly seen from his choice of words. The writer’s diction presents his attitude and actual feelings to his readers. The tone could be sarcastic, ironic, pessimistic, optimistic, humorous, or that of anger and acceptance.

The author’s attitude is expressed through the words and details he or she selects.

The following statements each express different attitudes about a shabby apartment. Six different tones are used: optimistic, bitter, tolerant, sentimental, humorous, and objective.

1. *This place may be shabby, but since both of my children were born while we lived here, it has a special place in my heart.* The tone is sentimental. “It has a special place in my heart,” expresses tender emotions.

2. *This isn’t the greatest apartment in the world, but it’s not really that bad.* The tone is tolerant. The words “not really that bad” show that the writer accepts the situation while recognizing that it could be better.

3. *If only there were some decent jobs out there, I wouldn’t be reduced to living in this miserable dump.* The tone is bitter. The writer resents a situation that forces him or her to live in a “miserable dump.”

4. *This place does need some repairs, but I’m sure the landlord will be making improvements sometime soon.* The tone is optimistic. The writer is expecting the apartment to be improved soon.

5. *When we move away, we’re planning to release three hundred cockroaches and mice, so we can leave the place exactly as we found it.* The tone is humorous. The writer claims to be planning a comic revenge on the landlord by returning the apartment to the terrible condition it was in when the tenants moved in.

6. *This is the apartment we live in. It provides shelter.* The tone is objective. The writer does not express feelings about the apartment. He simply states facts.

The objective tone is impartial. It does not show any feelings for or against a topic; therefore, it is unbiased or neutral. Often objective tone uses higher-level words and avoids pronouns such as *I* and *you*, creating a formal tone.

3. Sentence structure analysis

The analysis and deconstruction of a sentence is a vital skill in understanding language. Sentence analysis is not always easy but it is an essential tool in understanding how language works. Sentence analysis is often referred to as "Grammar" but the latter is a sometimes imprecisely used word for "a systematic account of the rules governing language" (Crystal).

Analysis of a particular sentence will demonstrate that you have some understanding of the meaning of grammar, of what a rule is, of what is accepted usage and how to interpret meaning and its significance.

Sentences are composed of discrete units combined by rules. These rules explain how speakers can store infinite knowledge.

Different possible semantic readings of a sentence can often be ascribed to different possible syntactic analyses, and hence syntactic analysis provides an important basis for the enumeration of possible interpretations. For instance, the two possible readings of:

*The explosives were found by a security man in a plastic bag.*
Thus, the phrase 'found by a security man in a plastic bag' may be read as found by a security man in a plastic bag or found by a security man in a plastic bag.

A possible analysis is that if we look at this example we know the meaning of the individual words, but the sequence as a whole does not make sense. Only through the context in which these sentences appear, we can know which of the two possible meanings is intended.

The network of relations between the words of a sentence is called its structure. There are many different aspects, which influence the structure of a sentence. A very important one is word order. Nevertheless, a difference in word order does not always imply a difference in meaning. Sometimes it simply entails a difference in emphasis: John ran away. A way ran John.

A detailed sentence structure analysis can serve to eliminate possible interpretations, syntactically, semantically and pragmatically. There are five steps for sentence structure analysis; they are the following:

1. Reading the sentence and finding the subject and predicate. Think of the subject as the doer of the sentence and the predicate as a description of what is being done. The predicate contains a verb or verb phrase that explains what the subject of the sentence is doing.

2. Identifying the most important additional elements in a sentence. The simple sentence above might be written as "I write sentences on a piece of paper." This contains not only the subject and predicate, now it contains a prepositional phrase as well, which further adds detail. The prepositional phrase "on a piece of paper" tells readers where something is done. Now the sentence answers the questions who, what and where.

3. Identifying clauses. Some clauses contain their own subject and verb. These can be separate sentences, interrupted by periods or semicolons. They are called independent clauses. A clause dependent on another part of the sentence is typically set off by commas.

4. Identifying modifiers in the sentence. In the example sentence, "I write sentences on a piece of paper," the word blue could be added before the word "paper." Blue modifies the word paper, telling us something more about the paper. Always check to make sure the modifier is as close to the object it identifies as possible.

5. Identifying problems with sentence structure. Incomplete sentences and misplaced or dangling modifiers can muddy a clear sentence. For instance, recast the example sentence as "On a piece of paper, I write." The first problem is starting the sentence with a prepositional phrase. By placing the phrase here, the reader may be led to believe the subject of the sentence is a piece of paper.

4. Lexico-semantic analysis: meanings generated by lexical items

Story-telling within a mass media text focuses on meaning that may be produced by its structure and choice of words. The second draws on semiotics and focuses attention on signs and sign systems in texts and how readers might interpret (decode) those signs.

Thus, lexico-semantic analysis deals with the conventional meaning of words and sentences based on the essential concepts of semiotics and semiology that words and images are signs that ‘stand for’ or ‘signify’ something else beyond their obvious manifest meaning and relate to one another to form codes or code systems – collectives of signs that produce certain meanings.

There are two approaches for analyzing meaning generated by lexical items:

One is based on stylistic potential, lexis offers enormous possibilities of selection – stylistic variation is then to a very large degree a matter of the words used.
The other – on differentiating between denotative and connotative meanings.

For stylistic purposes, Galperin (1977) presents the system of stylistic classification of English vocabulary, which consists of three overlapping layers:

1. (unmarked) neutral layer – being the most stable level it forms the bulk of English vocabulary, its ‘common core’, includes field-nonspecific words, is the source of polysemy and synonymy and renders itself for the word-formation processes,

2. (marked) literary layer consisting of a) common literary words (used esp. in writing and polished speech), and b) special literary words, which include terms and learned words (terminology of sciences), poetic words (highly elevated vocabulary), archaic words (obsolescent, obsolete, archaic proper), barbarisms and foreign words (foreignisms), literary/terminological coinages (including nonce-words),

3. (marked) colloquial layer contains words which have lively spoken character: a) common colloquial words, b) special colloquial words which include slang (e.g., college slang, rap slang, military slang), jargonisms, professional words (e.g., journalese), dialectal words, vulgar words, colloquial coinages.

The neutral layer along with the overlapping areas of common literary words and common colloquial words form the Standard English vocabulary.

Another avenue to approach semantics of lexemes which is relevant for the study of style is differentiating between denotative (referential, cognitive, notional, conceptual) and connotative (associative, emotive, expressive, social, stylistic) meanings. However, it may be difficult to disassociate these two meanings from each other: it is impossible to imagine absolutely neutral denotative meanings deprived of any associative potential.

Moreover, some words have connotations built into their meanings (e.g. darling, honey, mistress, spinster). These are exploited esp. in fiction, poetry, but also in journalism, advertising, political propaganda, since connotations are evoked also by rhythm, repetition, sound instrumentalization, etc.

A special type of connotative meanings are figurative (non-literal) meanings, esp. metaphorical meanings. Based on this, there are some literary or rhetorical devices known as tropes (figures of speech, forming the inventory of poetic and rhetorical devices since the Classical times): simile (behave like an ass), metaphor (waste one’s time); dead metaphors (a field of study), metonymy (The speaker addressed the chair) and synecdoche (there wasn’t a soul around).

In relation with the words, the structure of the sentence also depends on the individual meaning of the words or word-groups making up the sentence. It is necessary to know the features of the categories as constituents of the sentence (the word-level, the phrase-level, the clause-level).

5. Phonological aspect: rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, assonance, transliteration, homophones

The analysis of connected speech identifies the constructional units on the phonetic/phonological plane which are either segmental – phones (realizations of abstract phonemes) and syllables (basic rhythmical units), and suprasegmental (prosodic), which result from three types of sound variation (modulation): temporal (speed/rate, pause, rhythm), force (loudness, stress, emphasis) and tone (pitch, tune) modulation. Since the majority of the segmental phonological variation is offering no stylistically relevant options (it is primarily engaged in the differentiation of meaning, i.e., phonemes function as minimum functional units capable of distinguishing meaning), it is stylistically neutral.
The sound symbolism (i.e., a nonarbitrary connection between phonetic features of linguistic items and their meanings) is exploited also in non-poetic language (e.g., occurrence of close vowels in words denoting smallness: petite, teeny-weeny, open vowels in words denoting largeness: large, vast).

Several poetic devices based on the sound instrumentation of text and are often utilized in mass media discourse.

Journalists exploit this language potential for creating a certain atmosphere or mood, for example:

- rhyme – a repetition of similar sounds in two or more words, most often at the end of lines in poems and songs;
- rhythm – the meter of spoken language and poetry;
- alliteration – the repetition of a particular sound – safety and security;
- assonance – the repetition of vowel sounds to create internal rhyming within phrases or sentences, and together with alliteration;
- consonance – a combination of sounds that are pleasant to most people and that serves as one of the building blocks of verse;
- transliteration – representing the phonemics of the original: it only strives to represent the characters accurately;
- paronomasia based on homophones including words that have exactly the same sound (pronunciation) but different meanings and spelling (hour – our) or words that have the same sound and spelling, but different meanings (bear – the animal; bear – to carry).

These phonetic and phonological features used for expressive purposes. Some suprasegmental phonemes, besides having a grammatical function (segmentation of syntactic units, indicating their pragmatic function), are open to stylistic exploitation, e.g., melody (tune, intonation), stress (prominence) and pause, while others have mainly stylistic function – rhythm, tempo (rate, speed), voice intensity (loudness) and timbre (voice quality: rich, soft, harsh, hoarse).

6. Figurative language analysis: metaphoric feature, personification, simile, paradox, synecdoche, rhetorical questions

To achieve an effect of objectivity in rendering some fact or event, most of information in newspapers is published with little or no subjective modality. Nevertheless, the position of the paper becomes clear from the choice not only of subject matter but from figurative language analysis.

A special type of connotative meanings are figurative meanings are metaphorical meanings. They are based on some literary or rhetorical devices known as tropes (figures of speech, forming the inventory of poetic and rhetorical devices since the Classical times):

- Simile – a direct comparison, using like or as or as though (The sea looked as rumpled as a blue quilted dressing gown. The wind wrapped me up like a cloak.).
- Metaphor – an indirect or hidden comparison, transference of names based on the associated likeness between two objects, on the similarity of one feature common to two different entities, on possessing one common characteristic, on linguistic semantic nearness, on a common component in their semantic structures ("pancake" for the "sun" (round, hot, yellow); "silver dust" and "sequins" for "stars").
- Personification: a metaphor that involves likeness between inanimate and animate objects giving nonliving things (inanimate) living characteristics ("the face of London", "the pain of ocean").
• Metonymy – the figure of speech in which a term denoting one thing is used to refer to a related thing (The speaker addressed the chair).

• Synecdoche – in which a term for a part of something is used to refer to the whole of something, or vice-versa (there wasn’t a soul around).

• Epithet – stylistic device based on the interplay of emotive and logical meaning in an attributive word, phrase or even sentence used to characterize and object and pointing out to the reader, and frequently imposing on him, some of the properties or features of the object with the aim of giving an individual perception and evaluation of these features or properties foregrounding the emotive meaning of the word to suppress its denotation meaning – expresses characteristics of an object, both existing and imaginary ("formidable waves", "heart-burning smile"; "destructive charms", "glorious sight", "encouraging smile").

• Paradox: a statement that seems to be self-contradictory or opposed to common sense. On closer examination, it mostly reveals some truth. The child is father of the man. It is awfully hard work doing nothing.

Giving some emphasis to their articles journalists also apply syntactical stylistic devices:

• Repetition, a powerful means of emphasis – adds rhythm and balance to the utterance:
  ✓ anaphora (sentences or verses begin with the same word)
  ✓ epiphora (the repetition of a word or words at the end of successive verses)
  ✓ anadiplosis (repetition in the first part of a clause or verse of a prominent word from the latter part of the preceding clause or verse)
  ✓ symplecos (the simultaneous use of anaphora and epiphora)
  ✓ epanalepsus (the last word of a sentence is repeated at the beginning of the next: All for one, one for all)
  ✓ epanodos (identical word used at both ends of sentences, Boys will be boys)
  ✓ paronomasia (using similar words, recurrence of the same syllable or word: Amen ... Ah men!)
  ✓ polyptoton (repetition of forms of the same lexeme: When better automobiles are built, Buick will build them);

• Rhetorical question: an utterance in the form of a question which pronounces judgment and also expresses various kind of modal shades of meanings, as doubt, challenge, scorn, irony and so on. This is a way of involving the reader in the story at the outset: When public money brings windfalls to a few, why should the state not take a share?

• Stylistic inversion, a construction which involves the inversion of subject and verb

• Climax: a figure of speech in which a series of words or expressions rises step by step, beginning with the least important and ending with the most important (= climactic order). The term may also be used to refer only to the last item in the series (Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested)

• Anticlimax: the sudden fall from an idea of importance or dignity to something unimportant or ridiculous in comparison, especially at the end of a series: The bomb completely destroyed the cathedral, several dozen houses and my dustbin.

Thus, linguistic expressive means, which are systematically identified and categorized lie at the core of stylistic variation of newspaper writing, as its concern is the achievement of cognitive and communicative effects. They are widely used by journalists to attract the attention to some ideas and social events.
1. Advertising texts as forms of discourse. Four functions of advertising: AIDA

At the root of the word ‘advertisement’ is the Latin verb ‘advertere’, meaning ‘to turn towards’. While it is undoubtedly true that adverts are texts that do their best to get our attention, to make us turn towards them, we would not want to say that everything we pay attention to is an advert. For example, road signs such as the ‘speed limit’ one on the list above try to get our attention as an essential part of their function, but we do not perceive them as advertising anything. Often, though, our classifications are more a question of degree than of absolutes.

Advertising is a form of communication for marketing and used to encourage, persuade, or manipulate an audience (viewers, readers or listeners; sometimes a specific group) to continue or take some new action. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behavior with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological advertising is common.

Advertising messages are viewed via various traditional media; including mass media such as newspaper, magazines, television commercial, radio advertisement, outdoor advertising or direct mail; or new media such as blogs, websites or text messages. Therefore, today we can speak about advertising discourse.

Advertising is a form of discourse in the sense that it has influenced not only the structure of language and the modality of life style, but also the content of routine daily acts of communicative exchanges. Often theorists use text and discourse interchangeably; others define discourse as spoken words only, and text as written words. In both instances context is seen as a separate function. Discourse in the sense used for advertising is “text and context together, interacting in a way which is perceived as meaningful and unified by the participants” (Vivian Cook 2003). According to him discourse analysis examines the context of communication as well, it means who the participants of communication are, why they communicate and in what kind of situation and what relationship is between them. He also mentions that discourse analysis must consider combination pictures and music with language if added to its meaning (Cook 2003: 3).

Thus, V. Cook focuses on terms ‘context’ and ‘text’. Text is separated from context and context includes items mentioned below:

- Substance: the physical material, which carries or relays text.
- Music and pictures.
- Paralanguage: voice quality, gestures, facial expressions and touch (in speech), and choice of typeface and letter sizes (in writing).
- Situation: the properties and relations of objects and people in the vicinity of the text, as perceived by the participants.
Co-text: text which precedes or follows that under analysis, and which participants judge to belong to the same discourse.

Intertext: text, which the participants perceive as belonging to other discourse, but which they associate with the text under consideration, and which, affects their interpretation.

Participants: their intentions and interpretations, knowledge and beliefs, attitudes, affiliations and feelings. Participants are usually described as senders and receivers.

The advertisement text provides information about the product, and more importantly, provides anchorage for the image. Under the general category of text, there may be descriptive information about the product, other text that serves the purpose of catching the reader's attention, as well as (typically) short phrases that act as a kind of slogan, and finally the name of the company and/or the name of the product. We also look at the physical properties of the text (size, font, etc.).

There are two types of advertisement texts: classified and non-classified. In classified the information is arranged according to the subject matter: births, marriages, deaths, business offers, personal etc. Non-classified ads are not categorized. Some sites have a list of non-classified ads that has a list of random products.

Newspaper ads are a genre unto themselves. They use graphics and design elements to attract a reader's attention. They use white space and type fonts as part of their message. Their strength, however, lies in their use of precise language. Because most newspaper ads use few words, those words must be exact.

Ad creators design ads following a formula with the acronym AIDA. The letters in the acronym stand for:
- Attracting attention – usually with graphics, white space and type font.
- Creating Interest – with language and art.
- Creating Desire to have the product – with effective descriptive language.
- Creating a need to Act – with persuasive language.

The language of advertisements as a particular style of discourse is a complex blend of national, social, economic and linguistic traditions, which work together with the addressees' expectations.

Besides, copywriters apply some advertising techniques to persuade people to buy the products demonstrating their uniqueness. Among them, we can figure out the following:
- Avante garde (It refers to something that are experimental or innovative.)
- The suggestion that using this product puts the user ahead of the times e.g. a toy manufacturer encourages kids to be the first on their block to have a new toy.
- Facts and figures
- Statistics and factual objective information are used to prove the superiority of the product e.g. a car manufacturer quotes the amount of time it takes their car to get from zero to 100 k.p.h.
- Weasel words (A weasel word is an informal term for equivocating words and phrases aimed at creating an impression that something specific and meaningful has been said, when in fact only a vague or ambiguous claim, or even a refutation has been communicated.)

“Weasel words" are used to suggest a positive meaning without actually really making any guarantee e.g. a scientist says that a diet product might help you to lose weight the way it helped him to lose weight. □Magic ingredients
The suggestion that some almost miraculous discovery makes the product exceptionally effective e.g. a pharmaceutical manufacturer describes a special coating that makes their pain reliever less irritating to the stomach than a competitor’s.

- **Patriotism**
  The suggestion that purchasing this product shows your love of your country.

- **Diversion**
  Diversion seems to tackle a problem or issue, but then throws in an emotional distraction. *E.g., a tobacco company talks about health and smoking, but then shows a cowboy smoking a rugged cigarette after a long day of hard work.*

- **Transfer**
  Words and ideas with positive connotations are used to suggest that the positive qualities should be associated with the product and the user *e.g. a textile manufacturer wanting people to wear their product to stay cool during the summer shows people wearing fashions made from their cloth at a sunny seaside setting where there is a cool breeze.*

- **Plain folks**
  The suggestion that the product is a practical product of good value for ordinary people *e.g. a cereal manufacturer shows an ordinary family sitting down to breakfast and enjoying their product.*

- **Snob appeal**
  The suggestion that the use of the product makes the customer part of an elite group with a luxurious and glamorous lifestyle *e.g. a coffee manufacturer shows people dressed in formal gowns and tuxedos drinking their brand at an art gallery.*

- **Bribery**
  Bribery seems to give a desirable extra something. We humans tend to be greedy. *E.g., Buy a burger; get free fries.*

- **Testimonial**
  A famous personality is used to endorse the product *e.g. a famous basketball player (Michael Jordan) recommends a particular brand of skates.*

- **Wit and humor**
  Customers are attracted to products that divert the audience by giving viewers a reason to laugh or to be entertained by clever use of visuals or language.

- **Simple solutions**
  Avoid complexities, and attack many problems to one solutions. *E.g., Buy this makeup and you will be attractive, popular, and happy.*

- **Cards-stacking** (Card stacking is a propaganda technique that seeks to manipulate audience perception of an issue by emphasizing one side and repressing another.) The propaganda technique of Card-Stacking is so widespread that we may not always be aware of its presence in a commercial. Basically, Card-Stacking means stacking the cards in favor of the product; advertisers stress is positive qualities and ignore negative. For example, if a brand of snack food is loaded with sugar (and calories); the commercial may boast that the product is low in fat, which implies that it is also low in calories. CardStacking is such a prevalent rational propaganda technique that gives us only part of the picture.

- **Glittering generalities** (A glittering generality is an emotionally appealing word so closely associated with highly valued concepts and beliefs that it carries conviction without supporting information or reason.)
The glittering generalities technique uses appealing words and images to sell the product. The message this commercial gives, through indirectly, is that if you buy the item, you will be using a wonderful product, and it will change your life. This cosmetic will make you look younger, this car will give you status, this magazine will make you a leader – all these commercials are using Glittering Generalities to enhance product appeal. Bandwagon (a popular activity, effort, cause, etc., that attracts growing support)

Bandwagon is a form of propaganda that exploits the desire of most people to join the crowd or be on the winning side, and avoid winding up the losing side. Few of us would want to wear nerdy cloths, smell differently from everyone else, or be unpopular. The popularity of a product is important to many people. Even if most of us say we make our own choice when buying something, we often choose well-advertised items- the popular ones. Advertising copywriters must be careful with the bandwagon propaganda technique because most of us see ourselves as individuals who think for themselves. If Bandwagon commercial is to obvious, viewers may reject the product outright.

2. Structure of advertising
The basic advertising structure includes:

- **Headline** – is the theme and center of advertisement. It is usually in the most conspicuous position of advertisement to attract the attention of consumers. A headline functions as the main title of the text, often written in a larger font than the rest of the text. Headline is the first thing most readers look at, even before the picture. If it does not grab their attention, through arousing curiosity or making an offer, the ad will fail. Headlines usually have the largest font size.

  The headline has several functions:
  ✓ it gives news
  ✓ it reinforces the brand
  ✓ it attracts attention
  ✓ it attracts a target market
  ✓ it increases curiosity
  ✓ it arouses emotions calls to action

- **Subhead line** – this optional device often occurs right below the headline. The subhead line uses a few words that clarify, reinforces or explains the headline. The goal is to provide a smooth transition into the body copy.

- **Body** is the text in the advertisement that provides support and details about the product or the current offer. Often the body copy will use present tense, singular. Use Active verbs. Vary the sentence length. Involve the audience.

- **Tagline** – the brand slogan that has been used for years.

- **Logo** – brand symbol and/or words

3. Advertising language as a special kind of language. Features of morphology. Syntax. Rhetorical devices used in English advertising

The wide use of advertising has created a special style of English – advertising English whose unique characteristics, simple language and important attraction makes it different from other kinds of languages.

In order to send information, advertising English must be vivid, usual, emotional, and attractive. In what follows, we will analyze some features of advertising and the way in which morphology, syntax and rhetorical devices are used in English advertisements in order to convey the message to the buyer.
The function of advertising is to provide information, attract consumer, and promise quality. Therefore, advertisement must contain impelling language, and for this, it must use popular and oral language, easy to understand and memorize.

The following features characterize advertising language:

1. **Simple and formal language**
   
   For example: “I couldn’t believe it, until I tried it!”, “I’m impressed! I’m really impressed!”, “I love it!”, “You’ve gotta try it!” The former is an advertisement of a microwave oven. The words in it are very simple and oral. It uses the slang “gotta”, which means “got to” in American English, to give an impression that this advertisement comes from the real life.

2. **Short sentences** for impact on the reader. This impact is especially clear at the beginning of a text, often using bold or large type for the "Headline" or "slogan" to capture the attention of the reader.

3. **Misspelling and Coinage**
   
   In some of advertisements, there are some words misspelled on purpose, or some suffixes or prefixes added to the common words. Although the new words still keep the original meanings, they are quite different from the original words in spelling, which will make the advertisement more interesting and attractive.
   
   E.g., First of all, because now Yoplait is thicker. Second of all, because it’s creamier. Third of all, because it is still 100% natural and really very good for you. Fourth of all, because to me Yoplait tastes better than all the other Yogurts. And fifth of all, because...well, just because ....”
   
   In addition, some prefixes or suffixes like “super-”, “ex-”, “-er”, “-est” …etc, are often used to stress the high quality of the product.

4. **Avoidance of negatives**
   
   Advertising normally emphasizes the positive side of a product.

5. **Loanwords**
   
   The most frequently used loanwords are French and Spanish. E.g. Perrier…with added je ne sais quoi. The meaning of je ne sais quoi is “I don’t know what”. The purpose to use this simple French is to show the French flavor of this drink. The loanwords in some advertisement are good methods to express the exoticism of the products.
   
   E.g., Experience Fiesta through the eyes of real people. The meaning of the word Fiesta is “party”.

6. **Use of verbs**
   
   The most frequently used verbs and phrasal verbs are: try, ask, get, take, let, send for, use, call, make, come on, hurry, see, give, come, remember, discover, serve, introduce, choose, and look for. It has been noticed that these verbs are particularly used in beauty industry advertisements:
   
   **Our eye shadows, liners, brow products and mascaras will get you gorgeous in a glance.**
   
   Moisture Wear Make-up. It gives life to the look and feel of your skin. Moisturewear Blush. It brings radiance to the look of your skin
   
   Good look and young skin are always the things that a woman pursue. The use of the verb give will make this product end up with big sale. Similarly, the word bring is also very appropriate. Radiance of skin is the thing that almost every woman wants and needs.

7. **Use of Adjectives**
The purpose of advertising is to publicize products; therefore, it is necessary to describe many aspects of the product such as size, color, nature, and quality. During this process, adjective plays a vital role.

The most frequently used adjectives are: new, crisp, good/better/best, fine, free, big, fresh, great, delicious, real, full, sure, pure, easy, bright, clean, extra, safe, special, rich.

E.g., Light. Crisp. Refreshing.

8. Neologisms
They may have novelty impact, e.g. Beanz Meanz Heinz, Cookability, Schweppervescence, Tangoed, Wonderfuel.

9. Simple sentences
It will get better effect to use simple sentences than compound sentences, because the readers will lose interest in reading complex sentences, e.g., Maybe she’s born with it. Maybe it’s Maybelline.

10. Interrogative and imperative sentences – Interrogative sentences are quick and effective to get the readers’ response, e.g., Do you want the good news or the good news? First the good news: use head & shoulders regularly and you can have 100% flake free hair. Moreover, the good news? Well, head & shoulders is also a great way to achieve beautiful-looking hair that feels soft, silky and manageable.

The imperative sentences have a meaning of claiming, calling and commanding, similarly the goal of advertising is to persuade consumers to buy a product or service:

Run with us! or Just do it!
Join us in sharing the simple pleasures in life that motivate and inspire you.

11. Minor Clause
Minor clause contains simple elements emphasizing the key words. It could not only reduce the length and cost, but also disseminate information more effectively: Goodyear. We discover, you explore.

12. Rhetorical devices are used to make the thought more striking and effective. A fresh rhetorical device appeals to the imagination, creates mental pictures and makes the speech or writing impressive and interesting. Due to this, advertisers often use various rhetorical devices to increase the readability and appeal of an advertisement and to get consumers’ interest of buying the product.

• Personification – Personification is a figure of speech in which a thing or abstraction is represented as a person. The use of personification in advertising will endow the product with human emotion, and will make them amicable to consumers, e.g. Kleenex says bless you.

• Simile and Metaphor
Simile is a figure of speech comparing two unlike things, often introduced with the words “like”, “as”, or “than”, e.g. Lightweight, extra caring formula for dry and damaged hair. Power hold and a soft touch like Cashmere.

Metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another to suggest a similarity or analogy between them. Metaphors can be used visually in the picture or verbally in the headline and/or copy. Since the nature of metaphors involves expressing and experiencing one thing in terms of another unexpected object, consumers exposed to a metaphoric headline or picture in an ad will search and tap into their existing knowledge and perceptions of the conventions and context.
of the metaphor so as to comprehend the message, e.g. *Go for the Gold!* or *The brightest star in electronics.*

- **Pun** is a play on words, or the usually humorous use of a word in such a way as to suggest two or more of its meanings or the meaning of another word similar in sound, e.g. *American Home has an edifice complex.*

- **Repetition**
  In some advertisements, repetition is used to stress certain information, e.g. *Designed to test limits, designed to be noticed*

- **Rhyming** is one of the best techniques for bringing in the brand name is to make the slogan rhyme with it. An ad slogan is better if it reflects the brand’s personality. By this kind of rhyming, the brand name is highlighted. E.g., *The flavor of a Quaver is never known to waver.*

- **Alliteration** can help the slogans achieve the strong beating rhythm needed to make it a repeatable sentence, e.g. *Functional... Fashionable... Formidable.*

- **Hyperbole** – exaggeration, often by use of adjectives and adverbs.

- **Euphemisms**: "B.O" for "body odour" (in itself a euphemism for "smelly person").

Thus advertising language as a special kind of language is very different from common language. It has its own features in morphology, syntax, and rhetorical devices. The function of advertisement is to persuade and attract consumers, to interest them in the propagated product. Therefore, in order to successfully promote the sales of their products, the advertisement makers spare no efforts to work hard on the content and do their best to draw the attention of consumers through syntactic and rhetoric.

**LECTURE 8**

**PERSUASIVE WRITING**

1. Persuasive writing in mass media practice and its purposes.
2. The logical structure of persuasive writing.
3. Basic persuasion techniques.
4. Persuasive writing characteristics.

1. **Persuasive writing in mass media practice and its purposes**

   Persuasion is intentional communication that seeks to influence people on the basis of both emotional presentations and rational arguments without the use of coercion, manipulation or propaganda. Persuasive writing is a fixture of modern life – found in advertising, newspaper editorials, blogs, and political speeches. The principle function of newspaper style is a pragmatic function, or, as some linguists call it, a persuasive function.

   It is aimed to change the readers’ attitude or behaviour.

   This is usually done not through logical argumentation, but through emotionally charged statements and choice of language means that are the most appropriate for the purpose.

   It may seem obvious, but the media writer must keep in mind that the writing is done for an audience – usually a mass audience. The writing will be read or heard by many people.

   The media messages most concerned with persuading us are found in advertising, public relations and advocacy. Commercial advertising tries to persuade us to buy a product or service. Public relations (PR) "sells" us a positive image of a corporation, government or
organization. Politicians and advocacy groups (groups that support a particular belief, point of view, policy, or action) try to persuade us to vote for or support them, using ads, speeches, newsletters, websites, and other means.

These "persuaders" use a variety of techniques to grab our attention, to establish credibility and trust, to stimulate desire for the product or policy, and to motivate us to act (buy, vote, give money, etc.).

Persuasion can be used to:

- change or neutralize hostile opinions;
- crystallize latent (or already existing positive) opinions and positive attitudes;
- conserve favorable opinions.

Persuasive writing is one of the most commonly used writing types in the world. A persuasive writing should be:

- convincing;
- not too long nor too short – readers tend to lose their interest quickly when they read a long-winded essay;
- written from a reader’s perspective;
- support ideas with facts and quotes;
- state a clear conclusion.

The most common forms of persuasive texts include essays, editorials, letters to the editor, opinion articles, feature articles, interviews and speeches. Learning the language of persuasion is an important media literacy skill. Once knowing how media messages try to persuade readers to believe or do something, they will be better able to make their own decisions.

Writers intend readers to agree with them – to share their point of view. This means that they use language, stories, evidence and arguments to manipulate your responses. Persuasive writing is also based on opinion and evaluation of an author. This is usually expressed by forms of evaluation and especially by the language means for expressing evaluation.

An important issue concerning evaluation in newspaper style is wide usage of quotations. By using a direct quotation without any remarks, the author seemingly does not express any evaluation. The second way of quoting is to include only part of an actual utterance. This way of evaluation is the most spread within newspaper-publicist style as it is the most expedient. The third method is the absence of quotation, only reported speech is present. Words of an original speaker can be interpreted by the author of the article from his point of view.

Another way of introducing evaluation is the use of stereotypes. Stereotype fills a certain niche in individual’s “picture of the world”, that is why it can easily be decoded. Political leaders and editorial writers have special liking for stereotypes as the use of them can help to strengthen their personal position with positive stereotypes and weaken the opponent’s position with negative stereotypes. Thus, for instance, in “Curing the Political Disease of Terrorism” the president of the USA says: “To subordinate every ambition of the American people to combating the disease of terrorism, with no end in sight, would be to hand Osama bin Laden a victory of the first magnitude.” (Bush, The Financial Times, 2003), “Hopes that US President Barack Obama would breathe new life into a peace process with Israel have ‘evaporated’” (The Independent, 2009).
2. The logical structure of persuasive writing

It is important to note that the primary purpose of an argument is to persuade; therefore, persuasion is what sets an argument apart from a mere explanation. Almost every type of persuasive writing focuses on the presentation of an argument. Whether writing a newspaper article or a political science essay, the writer is required to present an argument in a clear and organized manner as well as a counter-argument. Thus, the structure of a persuasive writing includes:

- The Introduction
  This section introduces the topic of the essay, offers any background information, which might be necessary for clarity, and clearly indicates the position that will be defended.

- The Argument
  This section advances the best argument (defense) for the paper's position. Thus, the section should consist of a single argument, which supports the position in the introduction.

- The Counter-Argument
  This section advances the best counter-argument against the paper's position. It presents the counter-argument as completely and as possible. In essence, it defends the opponent's position.

- Response
  This section responds to the counter-argument. It should respectfully and fairly respond as to avoid fallacy.

- Conclusion
  This section is a logical ending. It must pull together all of the parts of your argument and refer the reader back to the focus you have outlined in your introduction and to the central topic. This gives writing a sense of unity.

3. Basic persuasion techniques

The aim of persuasive writing is to create a particular effect on readers, which means that their emotions are targeted as well as your use of logic and reason. The writer might use some basic persuasion techniques such as:

1. Association. This persuasion technique tries to link a product, service, or idea with something already liked or desired by the target audience, such as fun, pleasure, beauty, security, intimacy, success, wealth, etc. The media message does not make explicit claims that you will get these things; the association is implied. Association can be a very powerful technique. A good ad can create a strong emotional response and then associate that feeling with a brand (family = Coke, victory = Nike). This process is known as emotional transfer. Several of the persuasion techniques below, like Beautiful people, Warm & fuzzy, Symbols and Nostalgia, are specific types of association.

2. Bandwagon. Many ads show lots of people using the product, implying that "everyone is doing it" (or at least, "all the cool people are doing it"). No one likes to be left out or left behind, and these ads urge us to "jump on the bandwagon." Politicians use the same technique when they say, "The American people want..." How do they know?

3. Beautiful people. Beautiful people uses good-looking models (who may also be celebrities) to attract our attention. This technique is extremely common in ads, which may also imply (but never promise!) that we will look like the models if we use the product.

4. Bribery. This technique tries to persuade us to buy a product by promising to give us something else, like a discount, a rebate, a coupon, or a "free gift." Sales, special offers,
contests, and sweepstakes are all forms of bribery. Unfortunately, we do not really get something for free – part of the sales price covers the cost of the bribe.

5. Celebrities. (A type of Testimonial – the opposite of Plain folks.) We tend to pay attention to famous people. That is why they are famous! Ads often use celebrities to grab our attention. By appearing in an ad, celebrities implicitly endorse a product; sometimes the endorsement is explicit. Many people know that companies pay celebrities a lot of money to appear in their ads (Nike’s huge contracts with leading athletes, for example, are well known) but this type of testimonial still seems to be effective.

6. Experts. (A type of Testimonial.) We rely on experts to advise us about things that we do not know ourselves. Scientists, doctors, professors and other professionals often appear in ads and advocacy messages, lending their credibility to the product, service, or idea being sold. Sometimes, “plain folks” can also be experts, as when a mother endorses a brand of baby powder or a construction worker endorses a treatment for sore muscles.

7. Explicit claims. Something is "explicit" if it is directly, fully, and/or clearly expressed or demonstrated. For example, some ads state the price of a product, the main ingredients, where it was made, or the number of items in the package – these are explicit claims. So are specific, measurable promises about quality, effectiveness, or reliability, like “Works in only five minutes!” Explicit claims can be proven true or false through close examination or testing, and if they’re false, the advertiser can get in trouble. It can be surprising to learn how few ads make explicit claims. Most of them try to persuade us in ways that cannot be proved or disproved.

4. Persuasive writing characteristics

In persuasive writing, a writer takes a position for or against an issue and writes to convince the reader to believe or do something.

Persuasive writing, also known as the argument essay, utilizes logic and reason to show that one idea is more legitimate than another idea. It attempts to persuade a reader to adopt a certain point of view or to take a particular action. The argument must always use sound reasoning and solid evidence by stating facts, giving logical reasons, using examples, and quoting experts. As a rule, persuasive writing has an introduction, a body, and a conclusion, which may vary in length.

The introduction always includes a thesis statement of some kind to orient the readers, so that they know what to expect. It has a "hook or grabber" to catch the reader's attention. Some "grabbers" include:

1. Opening with an unusual detail: (Manitoba, because of its cold climate, is not thought of as a great place to be a reptile. Actually, it has the largest seasonal congregation of garter snakes in the world!)

2. Opening with a strong statement: (Cigarettes are the number one cause of lighter sales in Canada!)

3. Opening with a Quotation: (Elbert Hubbard once said, "Truth is stronger than fiction.")

4. Opening with an Anecdote: An anecdote can provide an amusing and attention getting opening if it is short and to the point.

5. Opening with a Statistic or Fact: Sometimes a statistic or fact will add emphasis or interest to your topic. It may be wise to include the item's authoritative source.
6. Opening with a Question. (*Have you ever considered how many books we'd read if it were not for television?*)

7. Opening with an Exaggeration or Outrageous Statement. (*The whole world watched as the comet flew overhead.*)

The introduction should also include a thesis or a focus statement. It is one sentence in length. This is the foundation of an article and it serves to guide the entire writing.

The body contains the main facts that support the argument of the paper. The body should provide evidence to support the opinion offered in the thesis statement in the introduction. The body should consist of at least three paragraphs.

Each paragraph is based on a solid reason to back your thesis statement. Since almost all issues have sound arguments on both sides of the question, a good persuasive writer tries to anticipate opposing viewpoints and provide counter-arguments along with the main points in the essay. One of the three paragraphs should be used to discuss opposing viewpoints and a counterargument.

The following ways for supporting arguments:

- **Facts** – powerful means of convincing, facts can come from your reading, observation, or personal experience.
- **Statistics** can provide excellent support. Statistics should come from responsible sources with citing.
- **Quotes** – direct quotes that support one’s position are invaluable.
- **Examples** enhance the meaning and make ideas concrete. They are the proof.

In the conclusion, the author restates the major points and tries to leave on a high note, impressing readers with the validity of the ideas in the paper. The functions of conclusion are the following:

- It restates the thesis or focus statement.
- It summarizes the main points: the conclusion enables readers to recall the main points of your position. In order to do this they can paraphrase the main points of the argument.
- It contains a personal comment or call for action.

The conclusion may suggest or predict what the results may or may not be in the situation discussed or in similar situations.

In addition, persuasive writing has some certain features; it is based on the use of:

- **Mainly the present tense.**
- **Logical and cause and effective connectives**:
  - Firstly, secondly, lastly, finally, consequently, surely, obviously, moreover, therefore, furthermore.
  - Emotive language: descriptive, emphatic, feeling words that appeal to the emotions: wonderful, beneficial, amazing, excellent, unjust, perfect, highly recommended, practical, only course of action, sensible, the best way, useful, the only path.
- **Emotive sentence starters**:
  - Most people would agree that...
  - Only a fool would think that... A sensible idea would be to...
  - Doesn’t everyone know that...?
  - The REAL truth is that...
  - The fact is that...
  - EVERYBODY knows that...
Surely you would agree that...

Here are two reasons why...

This clearly shows that...

We can see from the evidence that...

Technical language.

• Rhetorical and thought-provoking questions for effect.
• Imagery – the words or phrases a writer selects to create a certain picture in the reader's mind.
• Anecdote – a short story told to illustrate a point.
• Quotation – use words of a well-known individual.
• Personal voice and high modality: I like, I think, I believe, I do not believe, I urge you, you should, shouldn’t, we should, could, must, must not, we need to, we will.
• Repetition – words or phrases are repeated so that they stick in the reader’s mind.
• Figures of speech: simile, metaphor, alliteration, personification and hyperbole.

All these language characteristics are typical for persuasive mass media texts with the help of which journalists express their opinions and try to convince others. Learning how to create systematic and ordered persuasive texts empowers readers to express an opinion, be involved in decision making and be critical users of English language.
II. ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

2.1 ПЛАНЫ СЕМИНАРСКИХ ЗАНЯТИЙ

Workshop 1

*Modern information and telecommunication resources*

1. Print mass media: books and recordings; magazines and newspapers.
2. Internet, mobile satellite radio and TV transmitting. How do television and radio identify their target audiences?
3. Why is television still one of the best live media? How do we share our television experiences?
5. Advantages of telecommunication resources.
6. Telecommunication speech peculiarities.
7. New vocabulary of digital communication.

*References:*

Workshop 2

*Stylistics of journalistic genre*

1. Journalistic genre variations.
2. Journalistic style as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means.
3. Distinctive properties of journalistic language.
4. Primary functions of journalistic style.

*References:*

Workshop 3

Reporting

1. Reporting as news presented by reporters for newspapers or radio or television.
2. Fairness and accuracy in reporting.
3. Peculiarities of the genre, story types, the job of a reporter.
4. The language of reporting: linguistic and stylistic peculiarities.
5. Digital reporting.
6. Investigative reporting.

References:

Workshop 4

Types and structure of newspaper stories

2. Brief news items and communiqués.
3. Press reports (parliamentary, of court proceedings, etc.).
4. Editorials, commentary and criticism articles.
5. Advertisements and announcements.
7. Specific language features of soft news stories.
8. Newspaper article structures.

References:

Workshop 5

Modern newspaper article headline

1. Definition and concept. The function of headlines. Logical sentence structure of headlines.
2. Language features of newspaper headlines: very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech.
3. Headline punctuation (the comma, the colon, single quotation marks)
4. Figurative language.
5. Stereotypes.

References:
Workshop 6

Printed page aesthetics and newspaper design

1. News design as the process of arranging material on a newspaper page, according to editorial and graphical guidelines and goals.
   2. Typography.
   3. Color.
   4. Photos.
   5. The interrelation of language, image and layout.

References:

Workshop 7

Press advertising

1. Advertising texts as forms of discourse.
2. Four functions of advertising: AIDA.
3. Structure of advertising.
4. Advertising language as a special kind of language.
5. Features of morphology.
7. Rhetorical devices used in English advertising.

References:
Workshop 8

Radio ads peculiarities

1. Sound symbolism concept.
2. Prosodic features: intonation, stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style.
3. The effect of noise, music and songs.
4. Attention-seeking strategy in radio ads.
5. Topic change and turn-taking.

References:

Workshop 9

Advantages and disadvantages of ads

1. Negative and positive aspects of advertising as the process of commercial promotion of goods and services.
2. Positive aspects of advertising as the process of commercial promotion of goods and services.
3. Psychological manipulation for changing perception or behavior of others through underhanded, deceptive, or even abusive tactics.

References:
Workshop 10

Press and invasion of privacy. Media etiquette

1. The right of the individual to a private life.
2. Victims of unfair media coverage.
3. Information not for publication.
4. The ethics of journalism.
5. Rights and obligations of journalists.
6. Fairness, balance and accuracy in reporting.

References:
III. КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ

3.1 ПРОМЕЖУТОЧНЫЙ КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ (КСР)

3.1.1 CONTROLED SELF-WORK OF STUDENTS

TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. THE STRUCTURE OF TV NEWS: NEWS PROGRAM LANGUAGE FEATURES
   Traditional news structures. Language and style of TV news. Social, political and economic roots of TV news language.

2. CURRENT NEWS WRITING: LIVE REPORTING

3. INFORMATION INTERVIEW AS FORM OF SCREEN DIALOGUE
   Interview structure. Interview as just a talk with someone about a specific topic. Rules for interview conducting. Specific language features: open-ended questions to invite lengthy answers; leading questions, back up questions, specific information and terminology. Vox-pop style.

4. STYLISTIC-LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF NEWSPAPER ARTICLE
   Informational structure within the text – theme and rheme. Logical structure and cohesion. Pragmatic aspects of newspaper articles.
   Newspaper language as the main carrier of the message. Newspaper article tone: sarcastic, ironic, pessimistic, optimistic, and humorous.
   Sentence structure analysis. Lexico-semantic analysis: meanings generated by lexical items. Phonological aspect: rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, assonance, transliteration, homophones. Figurative language analysis: metaphoric feature, personification, simile, etc.

5. PSYCHOLOGICAL-LINGUISTIC AND NON-VERBAL TECHNIQUES OF TV ADS
   Advertising psychology: motivation theory (daily decisions are governed by drives, over which persons have little conscious control) and consumption (material objects as a system of meanings, through which persons express themselves and communicate with each other).

6. DEFORMATION, APPROPRIATION AND THE PROBLEM OF FALSE LIGHT

Freedom of speech as governmentally-acknowledged right of people. Types of defamation — slander and libel. Information as a matter of public interest and concern. Legal balance between free speech and censorship.

7. COPYRIGHT LAW IN PRESS

International copyright norms. Copyright protection of creative communication works and intellectual property. Plagiarism as a crime. Problems of copyrighting in mass media.

8. MASS MEDIA AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public relations as the practice of managing the flow of information between an individual or an organization and the public. Mass media as a means of public relations for shaping positive images of organizations and nations. Public relations as the art and science. Methods and tactics. The sphere of public relations use. Typical activities and common techniques.

9. PUBLIC SPEECHES

Public speaking as a form of communication. The purposes of public speaking: motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply ethos. Public speaking techniques for developing a relationship with the audience.

3.1.2 NEWSPAPER ARTICLE ANALYSIS

NEWS ARTICLE ANALYSIS WORKSHEET

Newspaper: __________________________________ Pages: ______________

Name of article: _______________________________ Date: _______________

Analyse:

• What do you already know about that topic?
• Comprehensiveness of information
• Headline
• Lead
  A. The 5 "W's" and "H"
  B. Were all the 5 "W's" and "H" answered?
  C. Of all the 5 "W's" and "H", star the one you think is the most important. Tell why.
• Structure
  Magnitude of the event in story
  A. Is it international, national or local?
  B. What is its impact? How many people were affected by it?
• Objectivity
• Subjectivity:
  A. Stylistic devices
  B. Modality
• Reliability of sources
  A. Is there an author's name
  B. Did the article come from a wire service?
  C. Who are the sources in the article itself?
• Personal Reaction
  What do you think of this article?

  While analyzing take into account:

  - text type /form
  - author's intention
  - text's function
  - readership
  - style and sentence structure (cohesion)
  - register
  - information content and information structure
  - syntax
  - use of lexis/specialist terms and phraseology
  - cultural references
  - lexical peculiarities
  - particular linguistic difficulties

  Recommended Internet Resources:
Newspapers from England: http://lt.webwombat.com/

3.1.3 SAMPLE TEST

I. Explain the meaning of the following headlines.
1. SMITH ILL: BLOW TO WORLD CUP HOPES
2. TEACHERS SLAM SCHOOL CUTBACKS
3. QUEEN DUE IN BERLIN TODAY
4. GOVERNMENT FACES FLACK OVER VAT
5. LAST-MINUTE HITCH DELAYS SATELLITE LAUNCH
6. CROWD VIOLENCE MARS CUP FINAL
7. IRELAND ROCKED BY QUAKE
8. STRIKING POSTMEN FACE SACK
9. IMPORTS TOP LAST YEAR’S FIGURES

II. Chose the right variant.
1. What should the lead paragraph of a news story contain?
   A. At least 2 of the 5 Ws and 1 H
   B. A human interest hook
   C. All of the 5 Ws and 1 H (or at least as many as possible)
2. What is inverted pyramid style?
A. Top heavy news story because the beginning contains the most important information.
B. Bottom heavy news story because the conclusion contains the most important information.
C. A style of writing that emphasizes the human interest angle

3. What is a lead paragraph?
A. The last paragraph of a news story
B. The first paragraph of a news story
C. A paragraph containing interview questions

4. 1. What does it mean to write concisely?
A. Use active voice as much as possible
B. Get right to the point
C. Both A and B

5. How many sentences will you find in a lead paragraph in a typical news story?
A. One to two
B. Two to three
C. Three to Five

6. What should be included in a sports story?
A. Game scores
B. Quotes from coaches, players and/or fans
C. Both A and B

7. What type of hook do journalists typically use for a news story lead?
A. The date of the event
B. A cute or clever observation
C. The piece of information that will be most important to the readers

8. What is a feature story?
A. A news story with a human interest angle
B. An article based on the writer's opinion concerning an important issue
C. Fluff material such as horoscopes and crossword puzzles

9. What is an opinion piece?
A. A news story with a human interest angle
B. An article based on the writer's opinion concerning an important issue
C. Fluff material such as horoscopes and crossword puzzles

10. What does it mean to be objective?
A. Include your opinion in your story
B. Use personal pronouns (such as I, you, we)
C. Reporting just the facts

11. Which of the following type of article requires objectivity?
A. An editorial
B. A news story
C. An opinion article

12. What is the difference between an opinion article and an editorial?
A. An editorial is the opinion of the entire staff and uses the word 'we'
B. An opinion piece is the opinion of just the writer of the article
C. Both A and B
3.2 ИТОГОВЫЙ КОНТРОЛЬ ЗНАНИЙ (ЗАЧЕТ)

Вопросы к зачету по дисциплине «Функционально-речевые аспекты СМИ»

1. The concepts of mass media and communication.
2. Key functions of mass media.
3. Peculiarities of print mass media audiovisual mass media.
4. Digital video broadcasting, closed-circuit broadcasting, Internet, mobile satellite radio and TV transmitting. Advantages of telecommunication resources.
6. Journalistic style as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means.
7. The structure of TV news: news program language features
8. Traditional news structures. Language and style of TV news.
9. Social, political and economic roots of TV news language.
11. The language of reporting: linguistic and stylistic peculiarities.
13. Current news writing: news values; timeliness; novelty; accuracy; fairness; brevity; clarity.
15. Elements of good news writing: neutral language; logical order; grammar; spelling; style.
16. Information interview as form of screen dialogue
17. Interview structure. Interview as just a talk with someone about a specific topic. Rules for interview conducting.
18. Interview specific language features: open-ended questions to invite lengthy answers; leading questions, back up questions, specific information and terminology. Vox-pop style.
19. Hard news stories: brief news items and communiqués; press reports (parliamentary, of court proceedings, etc.); editorials, commentary and criticism articles; advertisements and announcements.
22. Newspaper article structures. Traditional news structure.
23. Modern newspaper article headline: definition and concept; the function of headlines; logical sentence structure of headlines.
24. Language features of newspaper headlines.
27. Newspaper language as the main carrier of the message. Newspaper article tone: sarcastic, ironic, pessimistic, optimistic, and humorous.
29. Phonological aspect: rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, assonance, transliteration, homophones.
30. Figurative language analysis: metaphoric feature, personification, simile, paradox, synecdoche, rhetorical questions.
31. Advertising psychology: motivation theory (daily decisions are governed by drives, over which persons have little conscious control) and consumption (material objects as a system of meanings, through which persons express themselves and communicate with each other).
32. New powers of TV persuasion: psychological-linguistic and non-verbal techniques.
33. Visual culture and story-line dialogues in TV advertising discourse.
34. Advertising texts as forms of discourse. Four functions of advertising: AIDA. Structure of advertising.
36. Radio ads peculiarities: prosodic features: intonation, stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style. 37. Advantages and disadvantages of ads.
38. Psychological manipulation for changing perception or behavior of others through underhanded, deceptive, or even abusive tactics.
41. The ethics of journalism. Rights and obligations of journalists. Fairness, balance and accuracy in reporting.
42. Mass media as a means of public relations for shaping positive images of organizations and nations. Methods and tactics. Typical activities and common techniques.
43. Public speaking as a form of communication. Public speaking techniques for developing a relationship with the audience.
44. Persuasive writing in mass media practice. The purposes of persuasive writing. Persuasive writing characteristics.

IV. ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

4.1 ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ «ФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНО-РЕЧЕВЫЕ АСПЕКТЫ СМИ»

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Интеграция Беларуси в мировое информационное пространство, а именно в пространство многоаспектного взаимодействия сопряжена с поиском новых путей формирования личности современного специалиста в области коммуникации, способного свободно ориентироваться в поликультурном мире, понимая его ценности
и смыслы, воплощая их в личностной позиции и достойных образцах цивилизованного речевого поведения. Очевидное возрастание роли СМИ во всех сферах жизни общества: политической, экономической, культурной, образовательной и даже бытовой, объясняет повышенный интерес в системе образования к текстам СМИ, их воздействию на общество, общественное мнение, и поведение языковой личности.

Особый интерес для специалистов в областях вербальной коммуникации, теории воздействия, общественных отношений представляет изучение применяемым в текстах СМИ техник прямого и опосредованного манипулирования сознанием адресата. Подобные исследования реализуются в разных аспектах: лингвистическом, прагматическом, эстетическом, этическом, коммуникативном, философском, психологическом.

Для лингвистов изучение языка СМИ актуально с позиции лингвистической прагматики. Последняя предполагает рассмотрение высказываний и целостных текстов, продуцируемых в этой сфере речевой деятельности, как целевых действий, призванных обеспечить запланированное или интуитивно предполагаемое воздействие на адресата посредством использования специального комплекса языковых и неязыковых средств, специфической структуры, организации, особого лексикограмматико-синтаксического и стилистического наполнения текстов.

Целью изучения дисциплины «Функционально речевые аспекты СМИ» является формирование у слушателей курса глубокого и системного знания о языке и текстах СМИ как об отдельной коммуникативной технологии, воплощающейся в целом комплексе используемых лингвопсихологических техник (на примере англоязычной культурсферы).

Задачи изучения дисциплины:
• ознакомление с типологией, терминологией, структурой, экстрапрагматическими элементами текстов СМИ: газетных статей, телевизионных и радионовелл, рекламных текстов;
• анализ используемых лингво-социальных и экстрапрагматических техник в сфере информационного общения;
• знакомство с современными коммуникативными технологиями делового общения с позиции деятельности менеджера по связям с общественностью, менеджера по кризисным ситуациям, рекламного агента, имиджмейкера, спичрайтера.

Слушатели курса должны знать:
• вербальные лексико-грамматико-синтаксические и стилистические особенности языка СМИ;
• структурные и функциональные особенности построения текстов коммуникации в зависимости от их цели и коммуникативной ситуации;
• лингво-психолого-поведенческие техники, применяемые в сфере информационной коммуникации в работе пиар менеджера, рекламного агента, имиджмейкера, спичрайтера, теле- и радио репортера.

Слушатели курса должны уметь:
• использовать полученные теоретические знания для анализа прагматики иноязычных газетных, радио и телевизионных текстов;
• применять изученные техники лингво-психологического и экстрапрагматического характера для совершенствования общения на иностранном
языке в лингвистическом, социолингвистическом, информационно-аналитическом и коммуникативном направлениях.

Курс «Функционально-речевые аспекты СМИ» является составной частью подготовки специалистов-филологов в сфере иноязычной коммуникации, непосредственно связан с изучаемыми дисциплинами общего языкознания, перевода, межкультурной деловой и экономической коммуникации.

Программа дисциплины рассчитана на 54 часа, включает 6 тематических разделов, 21 тему. Работа по темам предполагает привлечение аутентичных текстов, заимствованных из современных английских и американских средств массовой информации и дающих адекватное представление о предмете изучения. Методическая работа с материалом ведется в двух направлениях: вычленение и анализ вербальных, структурных, функциональных особенностей текстов СМИ и развитие на их основе устной иноязычной речи, коммуникативных умений.
### I. СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

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<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Topic 1.2 Modern information and telecommunication resources Digital video broadcasting, closed-circuit broadcasting, Internet, mobile satellite radio and TV transmitting. Advantages of telecommunication resources. Telecommunication speech peculiarities. New vocabulary of digital communication.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Topic 1.3 Stylistics of journalistic genre Journalistic genre variations. Journalistic style as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means. Distinctive properties of journalistic language. Primary functions of journalistic style.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td><strong>Unit 2. TV News Today</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Topic 2.1 The structure of TV news: news program language features Traditional news structures. Language and style of TV news. Social, political and economic roots of TV news language.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Topic 2.2 Reporting Reporting as news presented by reporters for newspapers or radio or television. Fairness and accuracy in reporting. Peculiarities of the genre, story types, the job of a reporter. The language of reporting: linguistic and stylistic peculiarities. Digital reporting. Investigative reporting.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
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<td>2.4</td>
<td>Topic 2.4 Information interview as form of screen dialogue Interview structure. Interview as just a talk with someone about a specific topic. Rules for interview conducting. Specific language features: open-ended questions to invite lengthy answers; leading questions, back up questions, specific information and terminology. Vox-pop style.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>Unit 3. Textual and stylistic peculiarities of newspaper articles</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3.1 | Topic 3.1 Types and structure of newspaper stories  
Hard news stories: brief news items and communiqués; press reports (parliamentary, of court proceedings, etc.); editorials, commentary and criticism articles; advertisements and announcements. Specific language features of hard news stories. Soft news stories: features or human interest stories. Specific language features of soft news stories. Newspaper article structures. Traditional news structure. |
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<td>-</td>
<td>УМК, опорный конспект</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| 3.2 | Topic 3.2 Modern newspaper article headline  
Definition and concept. The function of headlines. Logical sentence structure of headlines. Language features of newspaper headlines: very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech. Headline punctuation (the comma, the colon, single quotation marks); figurative language; stereotypes; exaggeration. |
| 2  | 2                                               |
| -  | УМК, опорный конспект                              | [1,2,3,4,5]        |
| 3.2 | Topic 3.2 Modern newspaper article headline  
Definition and concept. The function of headlines. Logical sentence structure of headlines. Language features of newspaper headlines: very short sentences, interrogative sentences, nominative sentences, elliptical sentences, sentences with articles omitted, headlines including direct speech. Headline punctuation (the comma, the colon, single quotation marks); figurative language; stereotypes; exaggeration. |
<p>| 2  | 2                                               |
| -  | УМК, опорный конспект                              | [1,2,3,4,5]        |</p>
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<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Printed page aesthetics and newspaper design</th>
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<th>УМК, опорный конспект [1,2,3,4,5]</th>
<th>Индивидуальный опрос, деловая игра, дискурсивная беседа.</th>
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<tr>
<td>News design as the process of arranging material on a newspaper page, according to editorial and graphical guidelines and goals. Typography. Color. Photos. The interrelation of language, image and layout.</td>
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<th>Topic</th>
<th>Stylistic-linguistic analysis of newspaper article</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>Опорный конспект, электронные ресурсы [1,2,3,4,5]</th>
<th>Индивидуальный опрос, деловая игра, дискурсивная беседа.</th>
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<p>| Unit 4. Structural and functional aspects of ads | 2 | 6 | 2 |  |  |  |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>4.1 Topic 4.1 Psychological-linguistic and non-verbal techniques of TV ads</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Advertising psychology: motivation theory (daily decisions are governed by drives, over which persons have little conscious control) and consumption (material objects as a system of meanings, through which persons express themselves and communicate with each other). New powers of TV persuasion: psychological-linguistic and non-verbal techniques. Visual culture and storyline dialogues in TV advertising discourse.</td>
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<tr>
<th>4.2</th>
<th>Topic 4.2 Press advertising</th>
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<th>4.3</th>
<th>Topic 4.3 Radio ads peculiarities.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sound symbolism concept. Prosodic features: intonation, stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style. The effect of noise, music and songs. Attention-seeking strategy in radio ads. Topic change and turn-taking.</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<th>4.4</th>
<th>Topic 4.4 Advantages and disadvantages of ads</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative and positive aspects of advertising as the process of commercial promotion of goods and services. Psychological manipulation for changing perception or behavior of others through underhanded, deceptive, or even abusive tactics.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Unit 5. Mass media and law</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Topic 5.1 Deformation, appropriation and the problem of false light</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Freedom of speech as governmentally-acknowledged right of people. Types of defamation — slander and libel. Information as a matter of public interest and concern. Legal balance between free speech and censorship.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Topic 5.2 Copyright Law in press</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International copyright norms. Copyright protection of creative communication works and intellectual property. Plagiarism as a crime. Problems of copyrighting in mass media.</td>
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<td>5.3</td>
<td>Topic 5.3 Press and invasion of privacy. Media etiquette</td>
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<td>The right of the individual to a private life. Victims of unfair media coverage. Information not for publication. The ethics of journalism. Rights and obligations of journalists. Fairness, balance and accuracy in reporting.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Unit 6. Mass media in building public opinion</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Topic 6.1 Mass media and public relations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Public relations as the practice of managing the flow of information between an individual or an organization and the public. Mass media as a means of public relations for shaping positive images of organizations and nations. Public relations as the art and science. Methods and tactics. The sphere of public relations use. Typical activities and common techniques.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Topic 6.2 Public speeches</td>
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<td>Public speaking as a form of communication. The purposes of public speaking: motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply ethos. Public speaking techniques for developing a relationship with the audience.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Topic 6.3 Persuasive writing</td>
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<td>Persuasive writing in mass media practice. The purposes of persuasive writing. Persuasive writing characteristics.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Всего аудиторных часов: 54</td>
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III. ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

4.2 МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ УКАЗАНИЯ ПО ИЗУЧЕНИЮ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

В ходе лекционных занятий вести конспектирование учебного материала. Обращать внимание на категории, формулировки, раскрывающие содержание тех или иных явлений и процессов, научные выводы. Желательно оставить в рабочих конспектах поля, на которых делать пометки из рекомендованной литературы, дополняющие материал прослушанной лекции, а также подчеркивающие особую важность тех или иных теоретических положений.

В ходе подготовки к семинарам магистранты должны изучить основную литературу, ознакомиться с дополнительной литературой, новыми публикациями в периодических изданиях: журналах, газетах и т.д.

Подготовить тезисы для выступлений по всем учебным вопросам, выносимым на семинар. Составить план-конспект своего выступления. Продумать примеры с целью обеспечения тесной связи изучаемой теории с реальной жизнью. Своевременное и качественное выполнение самостоятельной работы базируется на соблюдении настоящих рекомендаций и изучении рекомендованной литературы. Студент может дополнить список использованной литературы современными источниками, не представленными в списке рекомендованной литературы, и в дальнейшем использовать собственные подготовленные учебные материалы при написании курсовых и дипломных работ.

Важной составной частью учебного процесса являются семинарские и практические занятия.

Семинарские занятия по дисциплине «Функционально-речевые аспекты СМИ» требуют научно-теоретического обобщения литературных источников, что помогает глубже усвоить учебный материал, приобрести навыки творческой работы. Ведение записей способствует превращению чтения в активный процесс, мобилизует, наряду со зрительной, и моторную память. Следует помнить: у студента, систематически ведущего записи, создается свой индивидуальный фонд подсобных материалов для быстрого повторения прочитанного, для мобилизации накопленных знаний. Особенно важны и полезны записи тогда, когда в них находят отражение мысли, возникшие при самостоятельной работе.

На семинаре каждый его участник должен быть готовым к выступлению по всем поставленным в плане вопросам, проявлять максимальную активность при их рассмотрении.

4.3 СПИСОК УЧЕБНОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ И ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-АНАЛИТИЧЕСКИХ МАТЕРИАЛОВ

Основная литература

3. Зинина, О.А., Телень М.П. Язык СМИ: Газетные статьи для анализа и обсуждения / О.А. Зинина, М.П. Телень. – Минск, 2010.


Дополнительная литература


12. Крупнов, В.В. Язык современной прессы. Англо-русский словарь-справочник / В.В. Крупнов – М., Высшая школа, 1993

4.4 ТЕРМИНОЛОГИЧЕСКИЙ ГЛОСАРИЙ

**Advertising** – Persuasive messages used to sell products or ideas. Also used to inform consumers about new products. Advertising is the commercial basis of most media.

**Animation** – Technique by which inanimate objects seem to come alive by flashing a series of minutely changed images, called "cells," at a rate which the brain interprets as movement.

**Avatar** – A graphic representation of a video game player or real person in a virtual world.

**Blog** – An online journal, or web log, that is frequently updated and publicly available on the Web. A "blogger" is someone who keeps an online journal. The universe of all blogs is known as the "blogosphere."

**Broadcasting** – Refers to content carried over air waves. Usually designed to appeal to a broad audience segment.

**Characterization** – The development of characters in a narrative. Characters can be well-developed (round characters) or poorly developed and stereotyped (flat characters).

**Cheat** – Code or information that a video game player uses to modify a game or advance to a higher level.

**Cloud Computing** – Internet-based computing accessible through a web browser and that uses data farms to store and make available software and information in real time.

**Commercial** – For profit. Also, paid announcements produced for targeted audiences to sell products or ideas. The economic force that finances commercial media.

**Copyright** – The laws that require compensation for the use of property and information owned by artists, writers and media producers.
Creative Commons – A non-profit organization that seeks to expand how creative work is available for others to use legally.

Crop – To cut an image, usually a photograph, down to size so that it fits into a prescribed space. To cut out unwanted portions from a photograph.

Cut – An abrupt transition between two video or audio sources. The cut conveys a change of place, time or mood.

Cyberspace – All of the information available through networked computers.

Digital Rights Management (DRM) – A system that seeks to protect the copyright of data circulated via the Internet.

Director – The person responsible for the overall look of a video or film product. Directs the action behind and in front of the camera. Sometimes directs the editing process.

Documentary – Refers to film or video that explores a subject in a way the public expects to be factual and accurate. Documentaries may be balanced by including various viewpoints, or they may be subjective, offering the viewpoint and impressions of one producer.

Dot Com (.com) – A company that operates on the Web.

Dot Edu (.edu) – A educational institution that operates on the Web.

Dot Gov (.gov) – A government agency that operates on the Web.

Dot Org (.org) – A non-profit organization that operates on the Web.

Editing – The process of arranging, assembling or excluding images, text and sound to produce a completed media product.

Editor – The person responsible for assembling the various parts of a media product.

Fair Use – The legal guidelines which exempt educators from certain copyright restrictions. Fair use of educational materials allows some media products to be used to a limited degree in the classroom.

Feedback – The process of communication whereby a person can disagree, ask a question, repeat information for understanding, or otherwise talk back in the communication process.

First Amendment – The right of free speech in the U.S. Constitution, which historically protects media messages from regulation and censorship.

Gatekeepers – Those in control of the flow of information. The gatekeeper can choose to accept or reject a piece of information for public consumption. Newspaper publishers, editors and reporters, television producers, press secretaries, government spokespersons, radio station owners and broadcasting executives have all been cited as examples of media gatekeepers.

Genre – Specific kinds of media content, e.g., drama, entertainment, information, news, advertising, etc. Each category is defined with traditional conventions, but categories may overlap as in "docu-drama" or "info-tainment."

Hardware – The technology used to create and communicate with media. The physical device that enables messages stored on software to pass from a sender to a receiver. Television, radio, computers, movie projectors, telephones, etc., are hardware.

Instant Messaging (IM) – A form of text communication between two people that takes place in real time via computers connected to the Internet.

Information – Messages used as the basis for decision-making.

Internet – A network of computer networks that operates worldwide using a common set of rules that govern the format of the information that is exchanged between computers.

Logo – The copyrighted symbol used to represent a corporation, company or individual.

Mash-Up – A song, video or website that is the result of combining multiple songs, videos or websites.

Mass Communication – When a sender distributes messages to many people simultaneously.
Mass Media – Mass media are channels of communication through which messages flow, produced by a few for consumption by many people. As the messages go through the channels, they may become distorted. When people receive mass-media messages, they have no opportunity for immediate feedback with the producers of the messages.

Media – Vehicles that carry messages. Common media channels are televisions, radios, telephones and newspapers.

Media Languages – Media conventions, formats, symbols and narrative structures that cue the audience to meaning. The symbolic language of electronic media works much the same way as grammar works in print media.

Media Literacy – The ability to read, analyze, evaluate and produce communication in a variety of media forms (television, print, radio, computers, etc.).

Media Targets – Audiences are media targets. Audiences are targeted, sold and delivered to advertisers by media agencies. Groups are targeted on the basis of demographics, media-use patterns, ZIP codes, and polling by those who wish to sell or persuade.

Medium – Any singular, physical object used to communicate messages. Television is a mass medium, but there are many other kinds of mass media, such as newspapers and radio.

Multimedia – A medium that uses different forms of content (eg., text, audio, graphics, video) to relay information or to entertain.

Narrative Structure – Traditional devices used to tell a story. Simple narrative structure begins with setting and character development. The story rises to a conflict and falls to a conclusion.

Narrowcasting – Producing and designing media content in order to target a highly specific segment of the audience. Narrowcasting is often practiced by magazines, radio stations and cablecasters. Opposite of broadcasting.

News – Information the public expects to be factual and accurate. Nonfiction events reported to the public through print or electronic media.

Objective – The ideal that the media producer or reporter is representing a balanced viewpoint on issues. The ideal that media producers are fair, accurate, unbiased conduits for information. Opposite of subjective.

Personal Broadcasting – The act of individuals producing and designing content and making it available to others via digital media. Examples can include blogs and video clips available on YouTube.

Podcasting – A method for delivering audio or video files to users who subscribe to them.

Plot – the Beginning, Middle and End in Narrative Structure and All the Devices That Move the Story from One Scene to Another.

Producer – The final authority in the electronic media production process. Sometimes the producer is the person who raises the money to produce media products.

Product Placement – A process that advertisers use to have their brand or product appear in TV shows, movies and video games as part of the production.

Production – The working process of putting together media content to make a finished media product. Production techniques include editing transitions, design, style, color, placement in the frame or on a page, scripting, printing, broadcast engineering, etc.

Representation – The relationship between actual places, people, events and ideas and the resulting media content. Stereotypes are a common form of media representation. As messages pass through media, they are distorted so that media does not represent reality as much as it represents reality.

Really Simple Syndication (RSS) – A web feed that delivers frequently updated content to users who have subscribed to it, for example, headlines from a website that specializes in news content.
**Smart Phone** – A mobile phone that offers more advanced computing ability and connectivity than a basic feature phone.

**Software** – The place where media messages are stored. Intended for use with hardware. Software can take the form of computer diskettes, videocassettes, film, audiocassettes, etc.

**Social Networking Site** – A website where users can create profiles, post information about themselves and exchange messages with other users. Classmates.com was the first, but many others, such as MySpace and Facebook, have emerged on the Web.

**Sound Effects** – Special effects using sound to suggest a story element such as background, time, place, character, etc. Also used to heighten and intensify action or evoke an emotional response.

**Special Effects** – Sound or video used in the editing process to heighten drama or suggest a time, place or story element. Often used as a transition.

**Storyboard** – A graphic plan for the frame-by-frame action in a film or on video. Usually done sequentially, a complete storyboard represents a print rendition of the final film or video product.

**Short Message Service (SMS)** – A form of electronic communication sent to or from a mobile phone. The number of characters typically allowed is limited.

**Twitter** – A social networking and microblogging service that allows users to send and read other user messages called "tweets," which are capped at 140 characters long.

**User Generated Content (UGC)** – Online content, including text, graphics, video and audio, found on websites and blogs that individual users create rather than traditional producers, such as commercial broadcasters and production companies.

**Viral Marketing** – A form of advertising that propagates itself. Examples include websites and email messages that encourage users to "tell-a-friend."

**VLOG/VBLOG** – A web log, or blog, that uses video to present information.

**Visual Literacy** – The ability to look at visual information with perception. A visually literate person understands how visual elements contribute to the meaning of the whole.

**Web 2.0** – The second-generation of Internet-based services, such as social networking sites, wikis and communication tools.

**Web 3.0** – The next or third generation of Internet-based services geared toward delivering more intelligent searches and tailored information to users.

**Website** – A single address on the World Wide Web, typically consisting of multiple pages organized around a topic or by an information provider.

**Wiki** – A collaborative website that allows anyone who has access to it to add and edit content. Wikipedia, an online encyclopedia, is an example of a wiki.