

**MEDIA INFLUENCE ON RUSSIAN STUDENTS IN
THEIR PERCEPTION OF AMERICA**

By

ANASTASIA G. KONONOVA

Bachelor of Arts in International Journalism

Rostov State University

Rostov-on-Don, Russia

2003

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
July, 2006

**MEDIA INFLUENCE ON RUSSIAN STUDENTS IN
THEIR PERCEPTION OF AMERICA**

Thesis Approved:

Dr. Paul Smeyak

Thesis Adviser

Dr. Stan Ketterer

Dr. Jami Fullerton

Dr. A. Gordon Emslie

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The following is a study using survey as the research design. The aim of the study was to find how media influence the perception of America by Russian students. The survey was conducted in February – April, 2006.

It would be difficult to accomplish this study without help of many people. I am grateful to my thesis adviser, Dr. Paul Smeyak. I appreciate his time, valuable suggestions and guidelines for this work. I offer sincere thanks to Dr. Jami Fullerton, who allowed me to use her questionnaire in this study. Sincere appreciation is expressed to Dr. Stan Ketterer who taught how to use statistics in mass communications research and in this particular study.

I am extremely grateful to the Head of the Department of Mass Communications Dr. Tom Weir and all faculty members who have helped me to stay at Oklahoma State University for one more semester and finish my Master's program. I also offer many thanks to my sponsor organization, Fulbright Fund, for an amazing opportunity to study at Oklahoma State University.

I am exceptionally grateful to my parents, Kapitolina V. Kononova and Georgy I. Kononov for their love, support, and optimism. I offer special thanks to Arif Mamedov for forcing me to finish this thesis and changing my attitude toward the United States of America.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background and significance	1
Statement of the problem and purpose of the study	5
Theoretical framework.....	6
Methodology	7
Research questions	8
Limitations	8
Thesis plan	9
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	10
Plan of the literature review	10
History of Russian-American media relations	10
The world attitude toward America.....	29
Public diplomacy	38
What causes Anti-Americanism?	40
III. METHODOLOGY.....	45
Purpose of the study	45
Method	45
Research questions	46
Operational definitions	50
Preparing the questionnaire.....	53

Sampling and data collection techniques.....	55
Data analysis and interpretation.....	56
Limitations.....	56
IV. FINDINGS.....	58
Introduction.....	58
Respondent profile.....	58
Media consumption.....	60
Attitudes differed by Group.....	63
Relationships between the media use and attitudes.....	73
Summary of significant results.....	82
V. DISCUSSION.....	84
Findings.....	84
Comparisons.....	85
Implications.....	94
Limitations and future research.....	97
Conclusion.....	99
ENDNOTES.....	103
REFERENCES.....	104
APPENDIX.....	110

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. T-Test Comparing TV consumption by Group.....	61
II. T-Test Comparing respondent’s Video/DVD consumption by Group.....	62
III. T-Test Comparing Internet consumption by Group.....	62
IV. T-Test Comparing Magazines consumption by Group.....	63
V. T-Test Comparing Belief about Accuracy of Depiction of Americans on TV by Group.....	64
VI. T-Test Comparing Attitude toward American people by Group.....	65
VII. T-Test Comparing perception of Quality of American Education by Group..	66
VIII. 8 T-Test Comparing Group perception of Violence of Americans.....	67
IX. 9 T-Test Comparing the Perception of Sexual Morality of American women by Group.....	68
X. T-Test Comparing the Perception of Tolerance of Americans by Group.....	68
XI. T-Test Comparing the perception of Religiosity of Americans by Group.....	69
XII. T-Test Comparing Law-abiding by Group.....	70
XIII. T-Test Comparing Respondent’s Desire to live in America by Group.....	71
XIV. T-Test Comparing Respondent’s perception of American Treatment of Muslims by Group.....	72
XV. T-Test Comparing General Attitude by Group.....	72

XVI. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for General Attitude toward America.....	73
XVII. T-Test Comparing American media consumption by Group.....	74
XVIII. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as violent people.....	76
XIX. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of American women as sexually moral.....	77
XX. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant or intolerant people.....	78
XXI. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of religiosity of Americans.....	79
XXII. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as law-abiding or law-following people.....	80
XXIII. Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of the way Americans treat Muslim.....	81

LIST OF FIGURES

Title	Page
I. The Nation Brand Hexagon.....	30
II. The Brand America Hexagon.....	31

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A Russian housewife who had never been in the U.S. was asked:

- *Where would you like to go if you were invited to America?*
- *To Santa Barbara, of course! – the woman answered.*
- *Why?*
- *I know everybody there!¹*

Russian humor

Background and significance

International mass communication systems have changed substantially during the last 20 years. One of the reasons is the end of the Cold War. The Soviet Union collapsed, and Soviet bloc countries turned toward democracy in the early 1990s. Thomas McPhail (2002) noticed interest in international news decreased rapidly. “The old rationales – cold war rhetoric, concern about communism, fear of nuclear destruction, and national security objectives – became less prominent in the new environment of openness and cooperation” (p. 3). Simultaneously, international economic development and technological progress shifted the world view to a global image. Nations became increasingly interdependent. Globalization allowed companies from different countries to participate in world markets, including the media market. New communication technologies such as cable, satellite TV, satellite radio, Internet, cellular telephones, and portable computers sped up the transborder information flow.

Political, economical, cultural and technological innovations affected Russia as well as many other countries of the former Soviet bloc. The post-Cold War period was contradictory and difficult for this country since dramatic transformations occurred in all spheres of the Russian people's lives. Russians began to adapt to Western values, which had been considered subversive. *Perestroika* and *glasnost* gave Russians alternative ways to interpret the theory of democracy. Concepts of freedom of speech and freedom of the press became meaningful. In 1991, the first president of the republic of Russia was elected. In 1993 the Russian people could participate in free elections of parliament. It was also the time of difficult and unsuccessful economic reforms, including democratization, liberalization, and privatization of markets (*The Newest History. 1939 – 1992, 1993*).

The Russian Foundation for Basic Research reports that new informational and communicative technologies influenced significantly the distribution of information in Russia and changed the communication landscape. Since 1989, multiple channels and ways of working with news appeared and several sources of information developed. The traditional sources are newspapers, radio, and television; new sources are the Internet and databases. According to the Fund *Public Opinion* (Фонд *Общественное мнение*) (2006), 21% (23.8 million) of Russian people had access to the Internet in winter 2005-2006. This number is relatively high compared to 5% (8 million) of Russian people who had access to Internet in 2002.

According to the research conducted by the Russian publishing house *Computerra* (1994), information and communication markets are now developing quickly in Russia. The telecommunication market grew about 33%, computer equipment market – 16%,

software market – 28%, and IT market – 30% in 2002. In general, private companies' investments into the segment exceeded investments by government and foreign companies.

The Russian cultural portrait has changed during the past ten years. Many people have lost their ideological base in the transition from a socialistic past to a “democratic” present. After Russian media markets were opened to imports from Western countries, Russian audiences began to consume more Hollywood motion pictures and television programs. Many domestic media products, mostly TV-shows, were adapted from Western media products. For example, a number of reality shows were copied from the *Big Brother*. The famous American soap opera, *Santa Barbara*, attracted millions of Russian women who developed a new dream about America and the American way of life. The Russian people gained new values, and their attitude toward the Western world and the United States of America improved (Shirayev, E., Zubok V. 2000; Fedorov, A.V., 2004).

Although Russians developed high loyalty to American media products, their interest in American reality has declined. Watching American motion pictures and talk shows provided a diversion from the difficulties of economic and social change (Fedorov, A.V., 2004). McPhail (2002) wrote that after the Cold War ended, international news lost the sense of significance. After anti-American propaganda was reduced in the Soviet Union, many Russian people lost the interest in news about the United States. The interest of Russians toward American reality increased after the 9/11 tragedy happened. The Russian public condemned terrorists and sympathized with Americans (*Izvestia*,

2001). But the attitude turned more negative after American troops invaded Iraq, according to the Russian Center for Civic Education.

It is worth saying that the American media interest in Russia declined as well. Elena Shalabanova (1998) has found that the number of CNN news stories about Russia decreased from 1993 to 1997. The researcher has also discovered that “in 1997 the picture of Russia became less clear” (p. 72). The American media are still focused on the negative coverage of Russia. The most popular issues include Putin’s “authoritarianism,” corruption in Russia, the war in Chechnya, and violations of freedom of the press, as many Russian sources report (Geyman, A.M., 2005).

Today, relationships between Russia and America are still controversial. Lahutsina (2002) found that Russia is too weak economically and politically to be an equal partner for the United States. However, this country supports the United States and European Union in their fight against world terrorism. Stable relations between “empires” can make the world much safer. The country can be a prospective participant in the international market as not only an owner of raw materials supplies but also a field to invest into development of new businesses. Finally, “it is natural and necessary for two of the biggest countries in the world to cooperate” (p. 9).

Today, the image of the United States that Russians have is not accurate and Americans also have an inaccurate image of Russia. Previous Cold War stereotypes were changed, but new clear and accurate images have not yet formed. In such nebulous conditions, it is important to understand that both nations neither want poor relations again nor a return to a new Cold War. The role of the media in promotion of openness among the youth growing up in new global environment is very important.

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study

A new generation of Russian students growing up in the post-Cold-War time is likely to have a different vision of the world and could improve relationships between Russia and America. This might be the time for the youth to form new images of one another. What these images are and how media influence students' perceptions of each nation is an important problem to analyze.

The goal of this research is to determine the role of contemporary media in the process of the United States image formation in minds of young Russians, mostly students, who represent a new generation born in the post-Cold-War time and exposed to Western media. The study will compare the attitudes of Russians who have been or still live in America with Russians who have never traveled or lived in the United States.

The survey research will determine if the two sampling groups of Russian students differ in their perception of America. Also the study will determine whether media influence the groups' attitudes toward the United States. It can be assumed that media is the primary source about America for Russian students who have never been in this country. These students have not had a chance to experience American style of life, communicate with Americans on the regular basis, and study and work in the United States. They could be more exposed to media influence than those students who have ever visited America and probably changed their views while living in this country. Finally, this researcher assumes that the American image created in minds of the students who have not visited America can be less accurate than the image of the Russian students who have lived and studied there. This study was designed to investigate these assumptions.

Theoretical framework

The communication and sociological theory of social construction of reality can be applied in this study. The social construction of reality is the process by which a person develops his or her views of the world. Media representations of social realities reflect ideological bents in their portrayal of human nature, social relations, and the norms and structure of society (Severin and Tankard, 1997). The social construction of reality theory explains changes not only in attitudes, behavior, or knowledge, but also in a person's perception of reality, his or her common view of the world and different countries. The theory of social construction of reality works at the ideological level. Ideas about the world are perceived as truth. As DeFleur & DeFleur (2003) noticed, people always give names to features of the environment what results in "standardization of interpretations of phenomena, stabilizing the meaning attached to all the aspects of reality with which people had to deal" (p. 103). Media play a part in developing the meanings individuals acquire for events, situations, and objects in the environment through representations in media content.

In mass communication research and, particularly, in this study, the social construction of reality theory can be applied if people are exposed to the media influence more than the influence of reality. For example, the majority of Russians, including Russian students, have never been in the United States; many of them may construct their "American reality" and form their attitudes through media such as American movies, Russian versions of adapted American TV-programs, television news, online newspapers, books, and other sources. Views of America formed by media can be distorted because journalists may select the most attractive and unusual topics for their reports (gate

keeping theory, Severin and Tankard, 1997) and ignore those representing typical features of American life. In addition, the reality of America is often distorted in American movies, which are so popular in many countries including Russia. In this case, media images replace reality. In this study, the social construction of reality theory will be used to explain why Russian students may have distorted images of America.

Methodology

Survey research is the method employed in this study. This method seems to be the most appropriate to reach the goals outlined in this research. Asking people is the only way to learn about their attitudes toward different aspects of American life and the frequency and volumes of their media consumption (DeFleurs, 2003).

This study includes Web-based electronic and paper-based questionnaires. Types of questions used in the survey questionnaire are five-point Likert-type scale, five-point semantic differential questions, open-ended, and multiple choice questions.

The type of sampling is nonprobability purposive. Two groups of Russian students participated in the survey. The first one consists of Russian students from the Local Government Administration Department of the Institute of International Business in Rostov-on-Don, Russia. The second group includes Russian students who have been or/and currently study in the United States of America.

The study includes three main phases: preparing of a survey questionnaire, data gathering (surveying students in the United States and in Russia), and data analysis in SPSS and interpretation.

Research questions

This survey tries to answer the following questions:

1. What is the media consumption of Russian students? How much do Russian students consume American and Russian media?
2. What are respondent's attitudes toward the United States government, United States foreign policy, American people and their values, American business and multinational corporations, American education, and American media products?
3. Is the frequency and amount of media consumption and the choice of media related to study participants' attitudes toward the United States?

Limitations

First, a nonprobable purposive sample of 87 Russian students in Russia and America cannot represent the attitude of the entire population of Russian students toward America. It makes it difficult to generalize results. Because of this fact, this study is indicated as preliminary for the future research.

Second, the method includes a Web-based survey. Although Buddenbaum and Novak (2001) stated that typical response to such a kind of questionnaire can be very low, it seems to be the most appropriate way to reach Russian students who study in universities in America. This researcher sent personal e-mails to every potential participant of the study to increase the response to the Web-based questionnaire.

Thesis plan

Chapter II is the literature review, which provides information about the history of the media image of America in Russia, previous research at the topic, anti-Americanism in the world, and American public diplomacy. Chapter III is devoted to the methodology. Chapter IV summarizes results and presents interpretation of findings. Chapter V presents summaries, conclusions, discussions, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Plan of the literature review

The literature review consists of four sections. The first section is devoted to the history of the media image of America in Russia. It is very important topic to study since it can explain some current stereotypes and myths of the Russian people about America.

The second section describes previous researches on the topic of foreign public attitudes toward the United States and the role of media in it. Information from the second part of the literature review was used mostly to design a questionnaire for this survey.

The third section presents literature at the topic of public diplomacy. And the final part describes some works devoted to anti-Americanism.

History of Russian-American media relations

It is important to view the history of Russian-American media relations in order to understand some of the stereotypes and myths of the Russian people about America.

Pre-mass media era: the XVII – XIX centuries. According to the book *Beyond the Cold War Soviet and American Media Images*, early Russian-American diplomatic relations began in the late eighteenth century during the reign of the Empress Ekaterina

II. America was viewed as a huge territory consisting of settlements and states on the East Coast stretching to the Midwest. The western part of North America was not settled, and the Russian czarina planned to colonize the Pacific coast area. The empress even patronized disgraced Jesuits who could go to Alaska and California as missionaries to help Russia in its colonization plans.

In his essay *Early Russian-American Relations Reconsidered*, David Griffiths (2002) described the activity of Francis Dana, an American diplomat, who spent the winter of 1783 in Russia. Dana tried to convince the Russian empress and Russia's top authorities to become closer commercial partners with the United States. He wanted to build a coalition against Great Britain, which maintained control of the New World. Dana strongly supported the idea of an independent America and tried to bring attention of the Russian empress to the benefits of free trade with the United States, but not with the British Empire.

In spite of Dana's belief in the universality of the "appeal of American trade," Russia ignored his offers. First of all, it was not beneficial for Russia to risk relations with Great Britain. Second, America was perceived as a strong competitor by Russia. America "challenged Russia's long-standing dominance of the international grain trade" (p. 22). Griffiths (2002) mentioned Russia's economic fear of the United States; their far away country with similar climate and geographical characteristics produced a number of common goods and also supplied a number of other countries with iron and naval stores, just as Russia did.

The first articles about America appeared in Russian media in the second half of the eighteenth century. According to Yassen N. Zassoursky (1990), these articles were

devoted to “the life of American natives, whereas later writings focused on the American Revolution” (p. 11). Representatives of the Russian Enlightenment viewed America as a country of contradictions. Mickiewicz wrote: “On the one hand, America stood for models of political organization and technological diffusion that Russia should emulate; on the other, it represented practices to be avoided” (p. 21). In his *Journey from Petersburg to Moscow* (1790), Alexander Radishchev admired the American Constitution’s allowance of freedom of the press. However, this writer condemned slavery, which spread throughout the United States.

According to the Russian textbook *The History of the World Journalism* (2004), the Russian mass press was launched just at the end of the nineteenth century because the majority of the Russian population was illiterate and the technology to produce a mass press was not available. Before that time, newspapers and magazines were published mostly for Russian aristocrats, officials, public activists, diplomats, critics, artists, and other educated people. Representatives of this sophisticated audience could also set their works published in newspapers and magazines. Epistolary genres were highly popular, especially, among those who traveled. The letters and diaries of many educated Russians, such as official Nikolai Rezanov (1806), diplomat Pavel Svinin (1814), officer Dmitri Nedelkovich (1860-1865), chemist Dmitri Mendeleev (1876), composer Peter Tchaikovsky (1891-1892), and others are now some of the best sources of information about how Russians perceived America in the nineteenth century.

Some Russian travelers to America did not try to characterize precisely this country, and their writings cannot be a primary source of information for this literature review. For example, letters of the Russian official Resanov (1806) refer to the famous

love-story involving the Russian diplomat and the daughter of San-Francisco's commandant Conchitta. The man, who had fallen deeply in love, recounted random facts of everyday life but provided no deep analysis. The famous Russian composer Peter Tchaikovsky (1891-1892) was impressed with America by his communications with many interesting people from the artistic and scientific elite. His descriptions of America and city life were extremely subjective and did not portray a picture of the typical American lifestyle.

In the middle of the nineteenth century, western America was viewed by Russians as a part of the Russian Empire since Russia had colonies in Alaska, the Aleutians, and California. Russian officer Dmitri Nedelkovich (1864-1865) was one traveler who viewed America as a part of his Motherland. Some of the officer's notes were published in the newspaper *Krondshtatskiy Vestnik* in 1864-1865. Nedelkovich devoted his diaries to the journey to Russian colonies in America. He analyzed the history of Russian-American company development. He described both the geography and climate of Russian America, its economic development and trade system. The officer provided information about local populations: Russians, Yakuts, Aleuts, and Native Americans, and interactions between these ethnic groups. Finally, he characterized the social structure of the local societies.

Although America was perceived as a good economic and political partner and this partnership was strengthened after Alaska was sold to the United States in 1867, relations between the two nations remained contradictory. Zassoursky (1990) wrote that the traveler and writer Eugenie Markov liked American individual initiative, which provided basis for enterprise success. The Russian diplomat Pavel Svinin admired the

American talent for technological adaptation, free American press, American philanthropy, and public education. However, he noted that Americans were obsessed with money and he believed this could lead to an increase in corruption.

Some Russians were excited by American utopianism represented by the Mormon style of life. Russian public activists and travelers Vladimir Dobroliubov and Vasily Alekseev even lived in Mormon communes.

Although the outstanding Russian writer Fyodor Dostoevsky never traveled to the United States, he had mostly negative, anti-utopian attitudes toward America. In his novel *The Obsessed* (1872), Dostoevsky described America as a symbol of the Devil's power. Dostoevsky assumed that America was not a spiritual country where materialistic people lived and their traditions had killed any kind of Christian feelings in the soul. The Russian scientist Dmitri Mendeleev (1876) "announced that America had appropriated 'not the best but the mediocre and worst aspects of European civilization'" (p. 21), as Mickiewicz (1990) mentioned.

Genesis of mass media in Russia: the beginning of the XX century. Russian mass press began to form in the end of the nineteenth century. Vladimir Korolenko (1893) and Maxim Gorky (1906), Russian writers who worked for the newspapers *Ruskiye vesty* and *Russkiy vestnik*, were the first to help ordinary Russian readers discover America.

In 2000, the author of this thesis analyzed pamphlets about America published by Vladimir Korolenko (1893) and Maxim Gorky (1906), who lived in the Russian Empire, and by Vladimir Mayakovsky (1925), Ilya Ilf and Eugene Petrov (1935-1936), who worked in the Soviet State. The researcher focused on the image of New York because

New York was the first American city in which travelers and immigrants arrived. It was the symbol of American freedom and prosperity for many of those settlers.

Simultaneously, it was the city of poverty, anger, and broken dreams.

In his novel *Without Language*, Vladimir Korolenko (1893) portrayed a frustrated Russian peasant-immigrant, who experienced deep contradictions between the principles of the New World and the traditions of old monarchical Russia. Korolenko (1893) was concerned that Russia would choose a new path of development copied on the American experience, thereby losing its distinctive national character. By the end of the nineteenth century, however, Russia continued to be mostly agrarian country. This economic factor influenced the lifestyle of many Russians who lived in houses built on ancestral land, observed old traditions and trusted in both God and the Tsar. Industrial changes could be very painful for them.

Gorky's (1906) view of America was similar to that of Korolenko (1893). The writer was struck by Americans' obsession with money. Gorky (1906) described New York as the symbol of real America, which was based on the capitalistic rule: Money was the only thing needed in order to exist and be happy. The collection of Gorky's feuilletons includes the main publication titled *The City of the Golden Devil*, where he used metaphors to convey his impressions of the city. New York was a terrific living organism where all the things were concentrated around the "yellow metal," gold or "golden devil."

The Great October Revolution and the first years of the Soviet state. After the 1917 October Revolution, diplomatic relations between the two countries changed

substantially. Zassursky (1990) quoted Vladimir Lenin whose ideological principles in foreign affairs determined future relations between the two powers:

Bourgeois civilization has borne all its luxurious fruits. America has taken first place among the free and educated nations in the level of development of the productive forces of collective United Human endeavor, in the utilization of machinery and of all the wonders of modern engineering. At the same time, America has become one of the foremost countries in regard to the depth of the abyss which lies between the handful of arrogant multimillionaires who wallow in filth of luxury, and millions of working people who constantly live on the verge of pauperism. (V. I. Lenin, *Collected Works*, 1965, pp. 62-63) (p. 15).

This policy was reflected in media images of the United States created by Soviet journalists and writers. Russia needed sophisticated American technologies, but it did not accept the capitalist ideology, which was the basis of American life.

Vladimir Mayakovsky (1925) visited the United States after the Soviet government launched a New Economical Policy (NEP). The Soviet government needed to reconstruct all the fields of Russian life after the Civil War (1918-1922). The economic policies of the two countries became similar in some aspects. Private trade and small enterprises were allowed in the USSR. Soviet peasants got more rights and freedoms to develop free trade. The Decree about Overall Nationalization was canceled. Private banks were founded to strengthen national currency, the ruble. American businessmen visited Russia frequently in order to help construct industrial enterprises (*The Newest History*, 1993).

Mayakovsky (1925) belonged to the group of poets-futurists who adhered to the principles of technocracy in arts. The Soviet futurist admired technocratic beauty and shine of New York, its fast subway, high skyscrapers, electricity and every-day-and-night bright streets. He was interested in what he and his fellow citizens could borrow to improve life at home, in the USSR.

Ilf and Petrov (1935-1936) worked together in Russia and were popular satirists exposing the shortcomings of the Soviet society. The writers visited America in 1935-1936 and seemed to have been confused by the inconsistent city. Vulis (1960) wrote that “satirists registered details as they were gotten in their fields of vision” (p. 78). They registered but didn’t analyze. Once they returned to their hotel after a long walk down the New York streets and wrote: “We returned to the hotel at night; we weren’t disappointed by New York but didn’t admire it; we were disturbed by its huge sizes, richness and poverty” (p. 79). The visit to New York was the beginning of the writers’ travel around America.

In 1933, the leading Soviet poet Samuel Marshak (1933) published *Mister Twister* in which he described a picky American capitalist who visited the Soviet Union. The businessman could not understand why an Afro-American lived in the same hotel and had the same rights as other people. Zassursky (1990) said the poem reflected ironic attitudes towards the United States of America and its racism.

Kononova (2000) found that Korolenko (1893), Gorky (1906), Mayakovski (1925), Ilf, and Petrov (1935-1936) saw New York as a city of contrasts. It was a city of luxury and poverty with brilliant streets, stores, hotels and beautiful and famous people, but, at the same time, it was the city of poor houses and hungry people, “unfortunate

workers for capitalism.” New York was a city of tall buildings. Korolenko (1893) could see six-or-seven-story buildings along the Atlantic Coast. Gorky (1906) saw fifteen-or-twenty-story “skyscrapers.” Multi-floor houses met Mayakovsky (1925) on his arrival at New York. Ilf and Petrov (1935-1936) mentioned the 102-story Empire State Building. However, there were a lot of small and narrow streets consisting of two-floor houses, where most of New York’s citizens lived. Writers noted that New York was a huge, noisy, crazy organism moving constantly. They had the same vision of this city swallowing up an individual and his or her soul.

The Second World War and the Cold War: from allies to enemies. According to Zassoursky (1990), although World War II strengthened friendly relations between the two Superpowers, “the Soviet press reported that American conservatives and businesses were still suspicious of, if not hostile toward, the Soviet Union” (p. 16). A year after World War II ended, the Cold War between East and West started. The image of the United States of America created by the USSR national press had been transformed from “the USA-Ally,” which helped Russia with lend-lease during the Second World War, to “the first international enemy” or “aggressive opponent.” It became a habit for Soviet people who had survived in the Second World War to have an international enemy. Having an external enemy was also necessary to draw attention away from internal problems. Soviets had hated German fascists and struggled against them. Now they had a new “opponent” to fight.

The Cold War meant a political, strategic and ideological confrontation between two competing blocks of countries. One block included countries whose governments supported the ideology of capitalism. These were primarily Western countries, of which

the USA was considered to be the leader. The other block consisted of countries with a socialist or communist system. The Socialistic block leader was the USSR. Countries belonging to opposite groups and their leaders, in particular, struggled to extend their political and economic systems throughout the world.

Since one of the main battles of the Cold War was in the informational-psychological sphere of communications, the concept of the Cold War was closely connected to the concept of psychological war. Formation of a negative image of America was one of the Soviet government's tactics in the "cold" struggle against the United States. There was no doubt that the majority of Soviet people felt that the United States of America was the main enemy of the Soviet Motherland. It was the result of effective psychological influence and manipulating the public consciousness.

In her previous work, Kononova (2003) read a number of Cold War era articles about America printed in national newspapers *Pravda* and *Komsomolskaya Pravda* in 1946 – 1955. The research found that the two newspapers used American and European news agencies and American newspapers as primary sources. Additionally, Soviet journalists took trips to America and wrote about their experiences and observations.

The tone and style of the articles in the two newspapers were very similar. Anti-American feuilletons, lampoons (pamphlets), short-stories and anecdotes were published mostly in *Komsomolskaya Pravda*, a newspaper for Soviet youth, than in *Pravda*, the official state newspaper. *Pravda* was a monopoly in the field of pseudo-scholar ideological publications including criticism of cosmopolitanism, capitalism, genetic, and Catholicism. Genetic was presented as a pseudo-science, and its followers were derided.

Catholicism was described as a false religious doctrine supporting the false ideology of capitalism.

The image of the United States created by Soviet publicists was the image of a country in a deep crisis. American capitalists were called “warmongers” who corrupted Americans and other people from allied countries. America symbolized global evil. In contrast, the image of the Soviet Union was of a protagonist, a positive hero, a peacemaker resisting the villain.

American capitalism was portrayed as a “rotten ideology,” and its foreign policy was considered to be an “aggressive policy of expansion.” The United States allies were known either as the victims of America or “jackals of the capitalism.” The United Nations was nicknamed “The Dead House” because its representatives worked to the benefit of America.

American researchers found that the Soviet satirical magazine *Krokodil* (*Crocodile*) published many Anti-American caricatures and anecdotes. “*Krokodil* divided Americans into two categories: the poor, lean, and exploited ordinary people fighting for peace, and the fat capitalists who smoked cigars and prepared for World War III” (p. 17), Zassoursky (1990) wrote.

American domestic life was also condemned by Soviet correspondents who tried to show in every possible way that the USA was in deep crisis. *Pravda* and *Komsomolskaya Pravda* reported on the race of arms and dangerous strengthening of military sector of American economy, deterioration of American educational quality and unemployment, labor strikes and the jailing of communists. The country was portrayed in dark, gloomy and depressive colors. American education was accused of corrupting

students. Bourgeois culture based on advertisement, comics, cheap movies, and tabloids news was ill and doomed to die.

Soviet authors used grotesque and black humor to create caricatures of Americans and their way of life. Visual elements were plain but efficient ways to make people receive and understand negative information. Looking at satiric pictures, a reader could conclude that America consisted of angry people in tall hats with malicious eyes and sharp teeth. Usually nuclear bombs, cold steel and the dollar sign (\$) were represented in such caricatures.

The evil the United States symbolized to Soviet people was personified in Soviet print media with negative articles about President Truman, Generals Doolittle, McArthur, Eton and other famous American officials and military men. American communists, workers and Afro-Americans were portrayed in a positive manner.

Larissa Fedotova (1990) noted that the first empirical research on the image of America created by the Soviet press was conducted in 1967-1969 by Professor Boris Grushin who titled his study *The Soviet Middle Town Public Opinion*. Grushin found that Soviet people did not know much about the United States and would like to know more about American life, American economics, and American teenagers. Nearly 99% of Soviet people were sure that America “created a situation of war tension,” and 81% of them believed the “USA treated USSR with hostility.”

The level of trust in national newspapers by the Soviet people was very high, and they believed that they had to hate and to be prepared for a new “warm war.” As a result, Soviet citizens paid less attention to their domestic problems such as the very low quality of life and political repressions. Many Soviet shortcomings were justified by the media

because of the conflict with America. The consequences of more than 30 years of imperialistic hatred, psychological opposition and the painful expectations of a new world catastrophe were the negative stereotypes formed in the consciousness of millions Soviet people.

Perestroika. Many Soviet authors (Mickiewicz, 1990; Kolesnik, 1990; Fedotova, 1990; Richter, 1990; Lukosiunas, 1990) described the dramatic shift in Soviet media coverage of the United States during the years of perestroika. People began to believe in the possibility of cooperation between the two countries.

Ellen Mickiewicz (1990) described a significant reduction of negative portrayals of the United States in Soviet news and documentaries. She also found that the American president was a newsmaker for Soviet news in 2% of reports during the Chernenko period. This figure rose to 3.3% during the Gorbachev era. During the time of perestroika Soviet media disclosed many positive things about America to Soviets. The Soviet people learned about American farmers, computer technologies, highways, and telecommunications. “These examples are reminiscent of earlier times when Lenin and those before him sought to adapt models from the experience of other cultures” (p. 29).

Svetlana G. Kolesnik (1990) stressed the role of television spacebridges during perestroika when Americans and Russians had the opportunity to communicate with each other in real time. In December 1985, Phil Donahue and Vladimit Pozner connected TV studios in Seattle and Leningrad (St. Petersburg) via satellite for a program called *Citizen's Summit*. Soviet journalists experienced huge cultural difficulties when working on the program. The Soviet reporters did not expect that Americans and Russians would be so different.

Vladimir Mukusev, one of the spacebridge directors and now anchor of “The Outlook,” a program that occupies first place in the ratings, described his impressions: “Everybody present in the Leningrad TV control room was left with one feeling at the end of the TV bridge with Seattle—that it had been a complete failure” (p. 38).

The Soviet television audience was not psychologically ready to interact with American journalists who had aggressive ways of moderating discussions and sometimes did not understand Russian mentality.

The situation changed in the late 1980s when American talk show host Phil Donahue began a TV program *Donahue in Russia*. He focused on Soviet reality issues, which were taboo topics of discussion for Soviet people: sex, social problems, poverty, and economic deficits. This talk show program generated controversial Russian feedback. Some Soviets still could not accept uncensored information about their life and criticized the program. But the program also succeeded with the positive feedback. Many Soviet TV-viewers liked that it showed negative aspects of Soviet life. That was one of the factors indicating that the Soviet society was ready for serious changes. In 1987 a new spacebridge *Capital-to-Capital* was started by Gosteleradio and ABC News.

This series was extremely vital to the erosion of the enemy image. The “Capital-to-Capital” spacebridges gave an average American and Soviet citizen an exceptional opportunity to see political leaders at close range. And for the first time many Soviets got the chance to create their own images of American politicians, not on the basis of Soviet caricatures but by seeing their faces on the screen. The research department of Gosteleradio estimated that almost 24 percent

of those who answered a questionnaire noted the “Capital-to-Capital” programs as the best programs of the year” (Kolesnik, p. 42).

Larissa Fedotova (1990) described the results of a content analysis study on the television program *Vremya (Time)* in 1984-1987, which was conducted by the Department of Journalism at Moscow State University. Researchers found that, in general, capitalistic countries were being shown as political systems. Government activities, officials’ statements, war activities and public manifestations were widely discussed, but information about social aspects of American life were lacking. Finally, the authors noted that information about the United States became more balanced by 1986.

Andrey G. Richter (1990) and Marius Aleksas Lukosiunas (1990) conducted content analyses of the newspapers *Novoe Vremya* and *Izvestia*. The researchers found a similar positive attitude shift toward the United States by the end of perestroika. Richter concluded that in 1989 media created a friendly image of the United States; it was the image of a nation from which Soviet people could learn much.

The absence of negative information about unemployment, abuses of human rights, and CIA activities adds idealistic features to the image. Pro-American enthusiasm compensates for the grim perception of the United States in days gone by. But it might bring about ill-grounded hopes for gratuitous assistance and various conceptions to the Soviet Union. The hopes will be replaced by disillusionment and disappointment (p. 99).

Russia looks at America in the twenty-first century. The image of America in the Russian press remained more or less balanced for the rest of the twentieth century. The

twenty-first century began with the 2001 terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center that killed nearly 3000 people. People from all over the world and many national governments sent their condolences to Americans. The world was relatively sympathetic to the United States of America after the tragedy. However, this sympathetic attitude changed after America invaded Afghanistan and Iraq in 2002-2003. Media played the important role in forming the image of America during that time.

Kononova (2003) tried to define the character of newspaper articles in *Izvestia* devoted to the first days of the American war in Iraq. She did a content analysis of 74 articles by Russian journalists published in newspapers between March 20 – 29, 2003.

The findings showed that Russian journalists wrote their reports about the war using primarily secondary information sources, such as the international news agencies the Associated Press and Reuters, Middle East cable television Al-Jazeera, and British American and Russian television.

Russian newspaper reports on the war in Iraq focused on logistics, equipment and the political situations while few articles dealt with the human side of the war. Reporters described officially American and Iraqi troops' actions and different countries' positions in regard of the war in 60% of the articles. Nearly 20% of the articles were devoted to the official statements of politicians and military men. Only 20% of the articles showed the war as the human problem. Life of personalities such as soldiers of American army, peaceful civil citizens of Iraq, journalists, guerrillas, refugees, and NGO volunteers was covered.

The war coverage by *Izvestia* was not complete. Russian correspondents lacked information on the Iraqi war, and their reporting was limited by a number of facts

received from secondary sources. Frequently, journalists guessed about what was happening in Iraq and they invented their own hypotheses.

An unattractive image of the United States of America was created as *Izvestia* reporters sympathized with Iraq. First, war was the worst thing happening in the world; America started it and caused negative feedback of public and governments in many countries, including Russia. Second, forty years of the Cold War influenced Russians in their not very favorable attitudes toward the United States. The war in Iraq was a good reason for Russia to show its attitude toward America one more time. Additionally, Iraq and the USSR were partners for a long time. Since 1972 when the Baathist government signed a Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation with the Soviet Union, both countries had been economic, trade, scientific, technical, and even military partners.

Prominent Russian journalist Maxim Sokolov (2003) found one additional cause for Russian reporters to create a negative image of the United States and a neutral (or positive in some ways) image of Iraq. The author compared the military campaign against Iraq and Saddam Hussein with the cartoon “Tom and Jerry.” The cat Tom (antagonist) symbolized Iraq and, hence, the mouse Jerry (protagonist) symbolized America. The situation was clear: Jerry (America) punished Tom (Iraq) for the cat’s harmful actions. But as the audience watched how villain Tom was hurt, it began to sympathize with Iraq, but not with Jerry or America. As a result, recipients sympathized with weak Iraq, not with the world power America.

In 2003, the Pew Research Center for the People and the Press conducted an annual Pew Global Attitude Project. Five hundred and one Russians were surveyed and the findings showed that 64% of the respondents were dissatisfied with the way things

were going in America. Thirty-two percent had a somewhat unfavorable opinion about the United States while 25% held a somewhat favorable view. Forty-three percent of the respondents had unfavorable attitude toward America because of President George Bush while 32% did not like America in general. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents thought that the situation in the Middle East was more unstable because of the United States policies, and 43% had a great concern about the U.S. invasion of Russia. More than half of the participants favored American efforts to fight terrorism. In addition, 31% of the respondents liked imported American democratic ideas and 41% did not.

Almost 90% of the Russian respondents thought that it was very good or somewhat good for their country to engage in greater economic trade and faster communications with America. Nearly 35% of the people stated that they disliked the way Americans did business, and 34% did not approve of American business practices. Finally, seventy-five percent of the respondents said they would not consider not buying American products.

More than 60% of the participants had very favorable or somewhat favorable attitudes toward the American people. Sixty-five percent of the respondents considered American ideas and customs to be bad for their country; almost half of the Russians disliked American music, movies, and television. Finally, 41% of Russians said Americans were not religious enough, while only 25% found Americans to be too religious.

In 2003, the Russian Center for Civic Education supported by the Foundation for Development of Democratic Culture finished a three-year project devoted to images of America in the minds of Russians. Students, teachers, pensioners, and NGO employees

from different parts of Russia expressed their opinions in a one-hour TV-program. The project showed that Russians then knew less about America than they did 15 years earlier. The study indicated that their opinions were based on deep stereotypes and myths.

Russians were suspicious of Americans who, in their opinions, were extremely materialistic and pragmatic. The majority of participants argued that a partnership between Russia and America was impossible because Russia was weaker economically and politically and could only be hurt by a partnership. Some of the project participants doubted any benefits which Russia could get from multinational companies entering Russian markets.

Russians condemned the United States for aggressive foreign policies in Vietnam, Afghanistan, and Iraq. The majority of participants did not have a very favorable attitude toward both the American and the Russian governments. In addition, the participants tried to separate ordinary American and Russian people, willing to build a dialogue, from the governments of the two countries acting in their own interests.

Some stereotypes of Russians were related to their belief in the superiority of Russian education, science, and technologies. Some of the participants compared American and Russian cultures and said that they thought the latter to be much richer and older than the former. Only one interviewee attempted to find common cultural features in the two nations: He emphasized the multicultural and multinational character of America and Russia.

The project participants displayed a huge reliance on Russian media when they discussed Russian-American relations. Some respondents condemned American movies

and Russian versions of adapted American TV-shows for an abundance of sex and violence.

Igor Nagdasev, the director of the Russian Center for Civic Education, concluded that Russian peoples' attitudes could remain unfavorable because of the war in Iraq and a great reliance on the national media controlled by the Russian government.

The world attitude toward America

Russian professor of international relations and sociology I.U. Kiselev (1998) considered the image of a nation state as a philosophical and sociological concept in his article *The image of a state in international affairs and social cognition*.² He relied on the theory of cognition. The author began his analysis by clarifying the concept of image. Image is considered a form of fixed knowledge that creates meaning. Kiselev (1998) assumed that image is a subjective picture of the world or its fragments including a subject, other people, and space and time environment. Kiselev's image works as a stereotype or simplified, schematic or distorted thinking by an average mind about a societal object.

Kiselev (1998) analyzed the image of a nation state at the national and international levels. There are two ways of how a country is viewed in an international arena. The first way is how citizens of this country view their state's position in the world (look from inside.) The second way is how people from other nations view this country (look from outside.) This research will focus on the latter dimension.

While Kiselev (1998) viewed the image of a nation state as a philosophical, psychological, and sociological notion, many American mass communication researchers

prefer to consider it as a brand or marketing and communicative phenomenon. Some authors (Jeannet & Hennessey, 2004) viewed a nation's image as a collection of brands exported to foreign countries. The United States is known for its jeans; France for high-fashion shoes and perfume; Germany for beer. There is also a strong image correlation between perceived product quality and its country-of-origin.

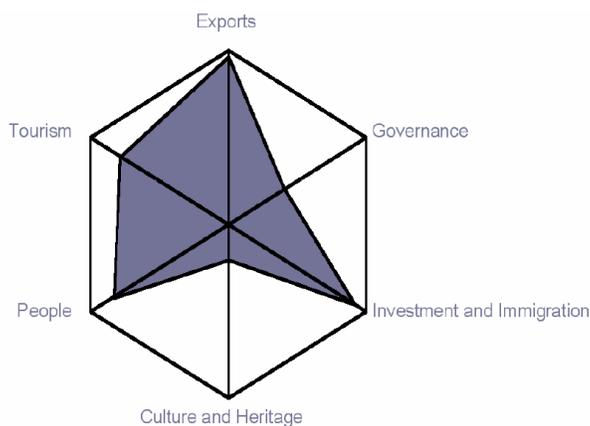
Simon Anholt (2005) developed the concept of the Nation Brands Index (NBI). In 2005, a hundred consumers from Canada, China, Denmark, France, Germany, India, Japan, South Korea, United Kingdom, and the United States were interviewed and from the results 25 Nation Brands Indexes were created. "The nation brand is the sum of people's perceptions of a country across six areas of national competence. Together, these areas make the Nation Brand Hexagon" (p. 2). The hexagon includes tourism, export, people, governance, culture and heritage, investment and immigration areas as the most typical features for a country as an international actor.

Figure I. The Nation Brand Hexagon (Simon Anholt, 2005, p. 2)



The researchers considered tourism to be the most visibly promoted aspect of the nation brand. They asked respondents whether they would like to visit each country as tourists. Questions about exports determined the level of consumers' satisfaction with products and services produced in each country. Questions about governance were designed to find respondents' attitudes towards domestic and foreign policies of countries-participants of the study. Investment and Immigration category included the extent of consumers' desire to live and do business in each country for a while. Also respondents had to estimate culture and heritage of countries. Finally, consumers were offered to describe people or "human capital" of each country in several ways. The respondents were asked to put themselves as managers and decide what nationality their preferred employees should be ("business-to-business" question.) Also participants answered the question about hospitability of people in each country ("non-business" question.) Based on the results of the research, researchers designed a special rating hexagon for each country.

Figure II. The Brand America Hexagon



The United States of America was one of the countries included in The 2005 Nation Brands Index research. Anholt (2005) ranked countries by the NBI factor and the United States was rated fourth behind Italy, Sweden, and the

United Kingdom.

America has the best image as a producer of goods and services. However, the author noticed that most of the respondents in the survey were from allied countries and countries-trading partners of the United States of America appeared to be a champion in “investment nomination;” nobody, excluding the French, seemed “in any doubt that the United States is the best place to set up a business in” (p. 3).

The United States was found as the fourth choice of destination for the survey participants after Italy, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. The Statue of Liberty was the most required attraction after the Great Wall. Opinions about American cultural heritage reflected a complex picture. Some respondents stated that “the country lacks culture,” and others say that “the country is rich in culture.” In spite of this, the United States was ranked last in the category “Cultural Heritage.”

Twenty-seven percent of respondents expressed their negative attitudes toward the United States government. “Over 10% of our respondents describe the US government as ‘unpredictable’; 7% describe it as ‘sinister’ and over 10% actually use the adjective ‘dangerous’ (this figure includes around a quarter of the French, British and German respondents and a fifth of the Danish; the only country where virtually no respondents selected this particular adjective was Japan). Even in a group of countries which are, by and large, allies of the United States, disapproval of the U.S. foreign policy still runs very deep” (p. 12).

In the “People” category America was ranked the fourth. The cliché “Ugly Americans” still dominates, and “rude” is the most common adjective to describe American character, according to results of the 2005 NBI.

Although Anholt's study (2005) provides interesting characterizations, there are two significant limitations. First, only 11 countries out of the 193, registered by the United Nations, took part in the survey. Second, respondents were mostly from developed countries and the Third World was represented only by China, India, and South Korea, leaders of developing Asia. This imbalance could create a more positive attitude toward Western countries than toward countries of other cultures such as Russia, Turkey, South Korea, China, and India.

There was no need for this researcher to construct Anholt's hexagon in her research since her research studies the only one brand, America. However, categories such as "Government," "People," "Cultural heritage," and "Exports" or "Products" were used in the questionnaire for this research because public attitudes toward these aspects of American life construct an image of the United States.

In 2004, Harris Interactive, a worldwide market research and consulting firm, conducted a research study clarifying the attitude of residents of five European countries (France, Germany, Spain, Great Britain, and Italy) and Canada toward American people, American lifestyles, American systems of government and justice, President George Bush and his foreign policies.

The major finding was that:

Canadian attitudes to the United States are often similar to the attitudes of people in the five European countries surveyed, but that they feel more warmly than most Europeans toward the American people and toward American films and television programs. Canadians also feel much more positively than Europeans toward

American food, probably because Canadian and American foods are very similar (p. 1).

Thirty-six percent of Canadians feel positively toward the United States while thirty-six percent feel negatively. A very similar result (36% and 33%) came from the European countries surveyed. French and Germans showed the most negative attitude toward the United States, President George Bush and his foreign policy. Attitudes toward American TV programs and movies, American people, American business, American quality of life, and American values are more positive than negative in Canada and the European countries surveyed. The American courts and system of justice, American system of government, and American multinational corporations' activity were mostly disliked by Canadians and Europeans in five European countries.

The second six-nation survey *Impressions of America: How Arabs view America. How Arabs learn about America* was commissioned by the Arab American Institute and conducted by Zogby International in 2004. A total of 3,300 Arabs living in Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Lebanon, the United Arab Emirates and Egypt participated in the study. The researchers found that Arabs still perceive American values, people, and products positively, but their attitudes toward these issues declined between 2002 and 2004. The participants did not consider the United States policy in Iraq and Palestine and policy on terrorism to be appropriate. In general, favorable ratings about America have declined since 2002.

Zogby research (2004) not only reported about attitudes toward the United States but also analyzed respondents' sources of information about America. Most Arabs have only indirect knowledge about the country. The principle source of that knowledge is

Arab media. Arabs who have learned about America by visiting America, knowing Americans or watching American television programs have more favorable views about American values, people and products. However, these factors have no impact on Arab attitudes toward American policy, which is still not positive. Arabs who receive information mostly from Arab commentary or Arab media, excluding the Saudi Arabians, have less favorable attitudes toward American values, people and products. The most popular sources of information are Arab media, Arab commentaries, and American movies. The least popular are American television and books.

The question DeFleur & DeFleur (2003) tried to answer is whether American media is shaping negative attitudes towards the U.S. in the teenagers. The researchers concentrated on the influence of American popular culture on youth around the world. This type of culture is highly attractive for teenagers. They want to watch *MTV*, *Sex in the City* and listen to Madonna, Michael Jackson, and Britney Spears. However, the gap between the images of America formed by pop culture and the reality of America is widening. Also the authors found no gap in the perception of American government and ordinary Americans by international teenagers:

An important distinction must be made between Americans as people and the United States as an official entity. By 'ordinary Americans' we mean persons such as you, your family, your friends, your neighbors, and the people with whom you work. It is important to understand that is not the same as beliefs and attitudes toward the 'United States' as a government... The youths studied definitely do not show that typical dual pattern. For the most part the teenagers studied have

quite negative view of both the U.S. government and of ordinary Americans (p. 18 – 19).

A total of 1313 young people from twelve countries (Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, South Korea, Mexico, China, Spain, Taiwan, Lebanon, Pakistan, Nigeria, Italy, and Argentina) participated in the research. The majority of them, even representatives of Mexico, showed negative attitude toward the United States. As the researcher said, it could be caused by many factors: religious differences, pique, images of American soldiers, and other factors. Italy and Nigeria showed generally neutral attitude while Argentina was positive towards the United States.

DeFleur & DeFleur (2003) also found a correlation between negative attitude of respondents towards America and “the influences of images derived from their depictions in media entertainment products and media culture, such as movies and television programming” (p. 68). Teenagers who were surveyed mostly thought that ordinary Americans were violent and involved in crimes, and American women were immoral, as frequently portrayed in American movies.

Kendrick & Fullerton (2004) studied international students’ response to the *Shared Values Initiative (SVI)*, an advertising campaign started by the U.S. Department of State under the direction of Undersecretary of State for Public Diplomacy and former advertising executive Charlotte Beers. The campaign consisted of five television commercials about how Muslims were treated in the United States of America and was oriented to countries with large Muslim population. It failed after some Middle Eastern TV stations refused to run the propaganda videos.

Kendrick & Fullerton (2004) surveyed 105 international students from different countries studying at Regent College in London in July 2003. The researchers showed five commercials to the students and found that their first impressions were mostly negative (44.8%). Sixty-four percent of people called videos “one-sided” and not believable. The Muslims showed a positive attitude toward the United States after they viewed the commercials while the Christians and students who were not identified as religious maintained their negative attitudes. In general, respondents agreed that Muslims were treated fairly in the United States after viewing the video show. Thirty-nine percent considered the videos to be appropriate for running in other countries, including Muslim countries, while thirty-seven percent said that the commercials were inappropriate. Almost half of participants agreed that the videos were effective. They liked the ‘objective’ and ‘friendly’ style of the commercials. Women were more positive about the commercials than men. The researchers concluded that the *SVI* commercials produced immediate and significant attitude shift.

Researches of Anholt (2005), Harris Interactive (2004), Zogby International (2004), DeFleur and DeFleur (2003) and Kendrick and Fullerton (2004) have something in common. First, they are devoted to the theme of foreign public attitudes toward the United States. Second, the same method of survey research was employed by the studies. This researcher also conducted a survey and used some elements of described studies to design a questionnaire. Following DeFleurs (2003) and Kendrick and Fullerton (2004), this researcher focused on young people in their perception of America. This researcher measured attitudes toward different aspects of American life, as Anholt (2005) did; attitudes toward American government, people, products, cultural heritage, and other

constructed the image of the United States in this research. Questions about the attitude toward American media products and sources of information about America were included in the questionnaire, following DeFleurs (2003), Kendrick and Fullerton (2004), Harris Interactive (2004), and Zogby International (2004). The third chapter of this thesis, *Methodology*, provides detail information about the methodology of this study.

Public diplomacy

Public diplomacy is the field of professional communication activity dealing with the image of a country abroad. It is important to review literature on the topic of American public diplomacy because American government actions influence the image of the United States in foreign countries including Russia.

A nation cannot only generate consumer products and their brand names; it can become a brand itself. The tragedy of 9/11 and the invasion of Iraq forced Americans to rethink their foreign public diplomacy actions. “After September 11, the White House organized interagency communications crisis response teams similar to those used in political campaigns. It also created the Strategic Communications Policy Coordination Committee and the Office of Global Communications to help spokesmen stay on message and facilitate contacts with foreign journalists” (p. 1).

Johnson, Dale, and Cronin (2005) described the mission of public diplomacy for the United States of America. Its core goal is “to promote U.S. interests and security proactively through understanding, informing, and influencing foreign publics and broadening dialogue between American citizens and institutions and their counterparts abroad on a long-term basis” (p. 5).

The authors criticized the policy of the White House for the lack of organization, coordination, and strategy. They offered the following suggestions to improve the United States image abroad:

- Strengthen State Department public diplomacy by providing adequate authority and resources;
- Streamline foreign broadcasting to ensure better coordination with global public diplomacy and development goals;
- Integrate efforts across the government by appointing a high-level coordinator and establishing an independent foreign polling center;
- Create a public diplomacy doctrine and global strategy, developed by lead public diplomacy actors; and
- Abolish domestic access limits on public diplomacy products contained in legislation dating from the 1940s (p. 4).

Ann Joachim (2003) outlined four main characteristics of a nation's brand. *Brand experience* depends on "how well our government keeps its word" (p. 38). A good-quality brand is always oriented on *long-term relationships*. A *consistent*, not contradictory, *message* is based on the same information disseminated in various media. *Brand integrity* implies mutual understanding between global and local cultures and adequate awareness about each other. Rewording Joachim's theory, brand is related strongly to reality. A Ukrainian professor in Mass Communications, G.G. Pocheptzov, (2003) noted that a national image should be based on facts. "Image cannot develop well, if reality does not support it. For example, creation of an image of the Commonwealth of

Independent States for Western Countries is not only a communicative goal. A positive image would rise on the basis of well-functioning economy” (p. 273).

Another influence on a nation’s public diplomacy is culture. A report by the Advisory Committee on Cultural Diplomacy U.S. Department of State (September 2005) said cultural diplomacy is the “linchpin” of public diplomacy. Cultural diplomacy creates “a foundation of trust” with other nations and institutions and “a neutral platform for people-to-people contact.” It demonstrates American values (family, faith, and the desire for education) and educates Americans on the values of other societies. It provides “a positive agenda for cooperation in spite of policy differences,” builds diplomatic relations with new countries, “reaches out to reference groups,” young people, non-elites, and broad audiences with a much reduced language barrier. Finally, it counterbalances misunderstanding, hatred, and terrorism, and encourages openness and tolerance.

James Grunig (1993) used the term “international public relations” as a substitute for the term “public diplomacy.” Public diplomacy or international public relations is to exert an influence on attitudes of foreign audience using persuasion and propaganda. The goal is to create a climate of mutual understanding.

What causes Anti-Americanism?

Anti-Americanism is discussed in the chapter *Findings, interpretations, and discussion* of this thesis. It is necessary to include literature review on anti-Americanism because it would help explain some unfavorable attitudes of Russian students toward the United States.

Shlapentokh and Wods (2004) distinguished two groups of factors which influence Anti-Americanism in the rest of the world: external and internal factors. The group of external factors includes effects of American economic and cultural expansion, international policies, and military actions. Shlapentokh and Wods considered anti-Americanism to be a reflection of American foreign policy and military actions in Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Guatemala, East Timor, Sudan, Iraq, Yugoslavia, and Afghanistan.

Internal factors are political, cultural, and psychological. The political dimension of anti-Americanism is based on resistance of local political and religious elites to global changes, such as modernization and consumerism, in order to “justify their dominance in society in spite of evident failures” (p. 169). The cultural dimension implies cultural differences between the United States and other nations. Shlapentokh and Wods (2004) said that some authors “insist that certain critiques of the United States are irrational or pathological” (p. 168). Feelings such as envy and pique can cause negative attitudes (psychological factor). Finally, negative attitudes can appear as a distorted image of America transmitted by media. In this way, researchers deal with media implanted images, but not the real life pictures.

Sergio Fabbrini (2004) examined roots of Anti-Americanism in Europe and applied to external factors in trying to explain this phenomenon. Fabbrini said that anti-Americanism is not only attributable to non-Western public opinion. It exists in Europe as well. He considered the concept of anti-Americanism as comprising “both the criticism of the American system as such (*its global power, its model of democracy* – [mine Italics]) and of specific foreign policies” (p. 80). He emphasized unilateral military

actions in Iraq in 2003, Americanization of Western societies by globalization and modernization, and democratization in a manner of American “plebiscitarian” or “Madisonian” democracy. The only country in which roots of anti-Americanism differ from those in other European states is France. This fear of America stems from fear of historical marginalization, losing French cultural identity, pique (affected national pride and dignity), and shadowing of French civilization.

Thomas Friedman (2002), a journalist for *The New York Times*, produced a documentary about his trip to Muslim countries (Indonesia, Qatar, Bahrain, and others) after 9/11. He was curious why 19 young Muslims killed themselves and thousands innocent people in the World Trade Center, and why their actions were widely supported by public opinion in the Middle East. In his movie, Friedman (2002) showed young Muslim students who expressed their contradictory opinions about the United States. They liked American cultural products and wanted to study in the States, but they hated America’s economic and military force. “Dignity,” the journalist repeated several times. Dignity of nations having a long history of thrift, power and rich culture; dignity of nations now suffering from poverty and being unable to compete with a young and successful America could contribute to strong Middle East feeling of anti-Americanism.

DeFleur & DeFleur (2003) examined external as well as internal factors in their explanation of roots of anti-Americanism. The authors focused on the theory of social construction of reality through the American media, particularly, American pop culture products. They built a chain of consistent conclusions. The DeFleurs began with theories of profits and product quality to explain manufacturers’ desire to produce and export pop-cultural media products. Theories of mass communication such as uses and gratifications,

incidental learning, and social construction of reality were also included in the analysis.

The researchers created a “Master theory,” which contains the following propositions:

1. Making a profit is a requirement for producers in a capitalistic economic system, and to do so necessitates producing a product that will appeal to the consumers making up the relevant market.
2. For producers of media entertainment as popular culture, that market consists, for the most part, of the large and growing proportion of the world’s population who are in their teenage years – whose interests and tastes are much less conservative than those of other people.
3. To satisfy that market in a highly competitive environment, producers of media entertainment as popular culture must constantly exceed the boundaries of conservative tastes and morality in their products, stopping or retreating only when vocal critics protest strongly – and then waiting for desensitization to occur before presenting the limits forward again.
4. The products produced under the above conditions contain an abundance of incidental lessons about the people, behavior, lifestyles, and conditions in societies depicted that may exceed conservative norms and be seriously flawed and misleading.
5. Those flawed incidental lessons may be unwittingly learnt when audience members seek personal gratification by attending to the content of the media entertainment content that is readily available to them.
6. From exposure to those incidental lessons, members of an audience, who may lack of other sources of information, develop social constructions of reality

that define the nature of whatever or whomever is portrayed in the media depictions to which they attend.

7. Those constructions of reality – accurate or flawed – are a result of repeated exposures over long periods of time to similar and corroborative incidental lessons (p. 106-107).

This model by the DeFleurs (2003) works on the level of values and beliefs of people from different countries. American media can create positive as well as negative attitudes toward western countries. Pique appears when people from the “Third world” nations compare living standards in their countries with standards of life in the United States promoted by some media. Hatred based on culture and religion can also appear after regular watching of American movies and other television programs portraying Americans as violent and promiscuous people. This depiction of America and Americans contradicts some values (family, religion, kindness) of people in non-western countries. It also creates worry about young generations who are obsessed with *MTV*, Hollywood movies and situation comedies.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the study

The goal of the research is to compare the extent of media influence on the attitudes of Russian students who have visited or live in the United States with Russians who have never been in America but have been exposed to American cultural media products.

One of the tasks of this research is to identify the frequency and amounts of participants' media consumption. The study also tries to determine participants' attitudes toward the United States government, United States foreign policy, American people and their values, American multinational corporations, American education, and American media products. Finally, this survey examines if participants' personal characteristics influence the extent of media consumption, choice of media, and images of America in their minds.

Method

A survey is employed in this study to collect data for quantitative and qualitative analyses. It is a common research tool used by politicians, journalists, marketing and public relations managers, advertisers, businessmen, non-governmental organizations

(NGOs) employees, and others. A survey has been chosen for this study because it is the most popular method of human research to measure attitudes, beliefs, and opinions of people. Many researchers (Anholt, 2005, DeFleur and DeFleur, 2003, Harris Interactive, 2004, Kendrick and Fullerton, 2004, Pew Annual Research, 2003, and Zogby International, 2004) used it to find public attitudes toward America.

Wimmer and Dominic (1994) emphasized four advantages of surveys. They help investigate problems in realistic settings, have low costs, allow collecting data from a variety of people easily, and give access to plenty of primary and secondary sources.

Buddenbaum and Novak (2001) added that survey data were very reliable if a survey was conducted properly.

The study can be divided into three phases. The first phase is preparing the survey questionnaire and ensuring its quality through a test. The second phase is data gathering: surveying separate groups of students in the United States and in Russia. The third phase is statistical (SPSS) and qualitative data analysis and interpretation.

Research questions

This research tries to answer the following questions and sub-questions:

1. What is the media consumption of Russian students? How much do Russian students consume American and Russian media?
 - a. Does the consumption of television differ by group?
 - b. Does the consumption of cinema differ by group?
 - c. Does the consumption of videos/DVDs differ by group?
 - d. Does the consumption of Internet differ by group?

- e. Does the consumption of newspapers differ by group?
 - f. Does the consumption of magazines differ by group?
2. What are respondent's attitudes toward the United States government, United States foreign policy, American people and their values, American business and multinational corporations, American education, and American media products?
- a. Does respondent's belief that Americans are portrayed accurately by American television differ significantly by group?
 - b. Does respondent's attitude toward American government differ by group?
 - c. Does respondent's attitude toward American foreign policy differ by group?
 - d. Does respondent's attitude toward American people differ by group?
 - e. Does respondent's liking of American brand products differ by group?
 - f. Does respondent's attitude toward the quality of American education differ significantly by group?
 - g. Does respondent's attitude toward the degree from an American university differ significantly by group?
 - h. Does respondent's perception of Americans as violent vs. peaceful differ by group?
 - i. Does respondent's perception of Americans as greedy vs. generous differ by group?

- j. Does respondent's perception of Americans as promiscuous vs. sexually moral differ by group?
- k. Does respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant vs. intolerant differ by group?
- l. Does respondent's perception of Americans as materialistic vs. not materialistic differ by group?
- m. Does respondent's perception of Americans as religious vs. not religious differ by group?
- n. Does respondent's perception of Americans as domineering vs. not domineering differ by group?
- o. Does respondent's perception of Americans as law abiding vs. law breaking differ by group?
- p. Does respondent's perception of Americans as carrying for the poor vs. not carrying for the poor differ by group?
- q. Does respondent's perception of Americans as having weak vs. strong family values differ by group?
- r. Does the desire of study respondents to live in the United States of America differ by group?
- s. Does respondent's attitude toward the adaptation of American values in Russia differ significantly by group?

- t. Does respondent's attitude toward American media products differ significantly by Group?
 - u. Does respondent's perception of American treatment of Muslims differ significantly by group?
 - v. Does Russian students overall attitude toward America differ by group?
3. Is the frequency and amount of media consumption and the choice of media related to study participants' attitudes toward the United States?
- a. Is there a relationship between general attitude toward America and the total consumption of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?
 - b. Does respondent's attitude differ based on their consumption of American media in their effort to learn about the USA?
 - c. Does the attitude toward America differ significantly by watching American TV programs?
 - d. Does the attitude toward America differ significantly by liking American TV programs?
 - e. Does the attitude toward America differ significantly by watching American TV programs adapted to Russian television?
 - f. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of Americans as violent vs. peaceful and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?

- g. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of American women as promiscuous vs. sexually moral and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?
- h. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant vs. intolerant and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?
- i. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of Americans as religious vs. not religious and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?
- j. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of Americans as law abiding vs. law breaking and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?
- k. Is there a relationship between the respondent's perception of Americans as treating Muslims well vs. treating Muslims badly and their use of media such as television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines?

Operational definitions

Image of a country. The main goal of this research is to find what the image of America in the minds of Russian students is; hence, it is necessary to define image.

Image is a multidimensional concept. The broadness of interpretation of this phenomenon makes this researcher define "image" specifically as a mass communication

construct and correlate some dictionary and encyclopedia definitions (Wikipedia, 2005, Oxford, 2005, Longman, 2005, YourDictionary.Com, 2005).

In general, image is an artifact that reproduces the likeness of some subject, reproduction of the form of a person or object. In this context, media image can be considered as a relatively impartial reflection of reality by media, for example, by television.

Another dimension of image is mental image. Mental image exists in someone's mind. It can stem from reality or media substitute of reality. Perceived information is reflected by mindsets of a person. The subject of a mental image can be symbolic, for example, poverty or philosophy; hence, mental image can be caused by something that one not only sees, hears, tastes or remembers but also imagines. We cannot see or taste poverty as such, but we can imagine a group of poor, hungry, and sad people who can symbolize poverty. We cannot see a country as a whole but we can imagine some of its symbols to create an image. Statue of Liberty, American flag, cowboys, President George Bush, democracy, multinational corporations, and other can symbolize the United States of America.

Elements of the image of a country. Attitudes. Horace Barlow (1990) mentioned the Gestalt school to support his assumption that an image is seen as a collection of separated fragments constructing the whole picture of something. For example, the image of America, as a whole, can be considered as a number of related images and attitudes (images of cities and sightseeing, officials and celebrities, attitudes toward political and business actions.) Jeannet & Hennessey (2004), Thakor & Katsanis (1997), Lyn & Shin (2002) viewed a nation's image as a collection of brands exported to foreign countries.

The United States is known for its jeans; France for high-fashion shoes and perfume; Germany for beer.

The notion of image is connected to the notion of attitude. Attitude in psychology is a positive or negative view of an object (Wikipedia, 2005). According to DeFleur & DeFleur (2003), attitude is “a configuration of related evaluative beliefs about some attitude object” (p. 36).

It is necessary to find people’s attitudes toward significant elements of American life to determine the image of America in the minds of people. Anholt (2005) stressed six elements to measure images of countries. Attitudes toward tourism, export, people, governance, culture and heritage, investment and immigration formed Nation Brand Index or the image of a country in the world. In their survey, Kendrick and Fullerton (2004) tried to measure students’ attitudes toward American government and foreign policy, American people and their values, American brands, media products, and advertising. DeFleur and DeFleur (2003) and Harris Interactive (2004) mentioned an attitude toward American media products in their works.

Following the previous research, this researcher tries to measure respondents’ attitudes toward the United States government, United States foreign policy, American people and their values, American business and multinational corporations, American education, and American media products. The category “American education” has been added in the list because there were students surveyed.

Media sources of information about a country. It is necessary to find types, frequency, and amount of media consumed by the respondents in order to determine media influence on their perception of America. Types of media are television, radio,

movies in cinema theatres and on videos/DVDs, music, Internet, newspapers, magazines, books, and comics in Russia and America. Frequency of media consumption means how often (how many times per day, week, or month) the respondents use different types of media. Amount of consumed media means how long (how many hours per day, week, or month) the respondents use different types of media.

The country of residence. This researcher assumes that the country of residence, Russia or America, influence the image of the United States in minds of Russian students. The country of residence can be viewed as an independent variable influencing dependent variables such as the respondents' attitudes, types, frequency, and amounts of consumed Russian and American media.

Preparing the questionnaire

The questionnaire for this research was modeled after a questionnaire used in a Global Advertising Survey conducted by Dr. Jami Armstrong Fullerton, an associate professor of advertising at Oklahoma State University in Tulsa. The questionnaire was prepared for international students and determined their attitudes toward the United States of America and their reactions to American public diplomacy actions. Since the goals of the two studies were similar, Dr. Fullerton agreed to allow her survey instrument to be modified and used in this project.

New multiple-choice questions about American education, American cultural heritage, and media sources of information about America were included in the questionnaire for this survey. In addition, Likert scale questions devoted to values of

American people were replaced with semantic differential scale questions in order to avoid respondents' biases. To eliminate leading questions, the 5-point Likert scale:

STRONGLY DISAGREE **DISAGREE** **NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE** **AGREE** **STRONGLY AGREE**

was changed to 5-point semantic differential scale:

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.

The ten-page questionnaire included two groups of questions. The first group of questions was devoted to type, frequency, and amount of respondents' media consumption. The second group of questions determined respondents' attitudes toward American institutions, policies, actions, and other issues such as their government, foreign policy, values, education, product brands, and media products.

The questionnaire used five-point Likert scales, five-point differential scales, multiple-choice and open-ended questions to elicit responses. Likert and semantic differential scales were most appropriately used to measure attitudes. Responses to open-ended questions allow recipients to respond in their own words and this provides qualitative information that can add dimension and nuance to quantitative data.

The questionnaire was pre-tested on three Russian-speaking students at Oklahoma State University. In general, they accepted the way questionnaire was designed. In addition, they suggested informing respondents how long it would take to answer the questionnaire, changing formulations of some questions, and adding questions about education.

To view questionnaires, please, see Appendixes 1 and 2.

Sampling and data collection techniques

The type of sampling is nonprobability purposive. This means that subjects in the study were chosen without special statistical procedures.

Two groups of Russian students were surveyed in this study. The first group consists of 65 Russian students from the Local Government Administration Department of the Institute of International Business in Rostov-on-Don, Russia. According to the statute of the Local Government Administration Department, its students are oriented to careers of local governors and state bureaucrats. Group administration technique of data-collection was used to conduct a survey among the first group of participants. Group administration means the participants were brought together and the survey was administered in a group setting. This procedure increases the response rate. Additionally, it should be less expensive and easier for Russian students to fill out a paper (not Web-based) questionnaire because Internet services are expensive and of not very good quality in Russia. The paper-based survey was administered by Kapitalina V. Kononova, teacher of culture of Russian language in the Institute of International Business.

The second group of respondents consisted of 22 Russian students who were studying in the United States of America. Some of these students will probably seek employment with international companies and non-governmental organizations. The majority of Russian students are participating in J-1 exchange programs administrated by the United States Department of State. Major funding agencies⁴ that provide support to Russian exchange students were asked for help in contacting Russian students in the United States. A Web-based questionnaire was sent to these students with a report for their help with the study and a letter explaining the purpose of the study by e-mail.

Questionnaires for both groups of students participating in this study were translated into Russian as some respondents were not fluent in English.

Data analysis and interpretation

Quantitative and qualitative data were gathered through the questionnaire offered to two different groups of Russian students. The group of Russian students who have never been in the USA was coded as “Russian Russians.” The group of people who have visited and/or studied in the USA was titled “Americanized Russians.” T-tests, standard regressions, and frequency tables were used to analyze quantitative data. Before the statistical tests were conducted the data was screened using screening techniques for grouped data. The grouped data was examined for missing values, univariate outliers or extreme values, univariate normality, and multivariate homoscedasticity. New 26 variables were created and used in the statistical tests.

Limitations

Buddenbaum and Novak (2001) stressed a number of disadvantages and limitations of a survey. The information gathered is self-reported by participants who may not always answer questions honestly and accurately. A survey does not provide a researcher with detailed information about what motivates someone to answer in a certain way. Additionally, the response rate of surveys has declined over the years. Wimmer and Dominic (1994) emphasized that independent variables cannot be manipulated in surveys, and it is difficult for a researcher to verify relationships between variables.

Ambiguous words and questions in a questionnaire may provide faulty information or inadequate responses.

Another limitation of this research is the nonprobable purposive sample of approximately one hundred Russian students in Russia and America. Nonprobable samples provide sample results that are difficult to generalize to larger population.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

The goal of this research is to determine the role of contemporary media in the process of United States image formation in the minds of young Russians, mostly students, who represent a new generation born in the post-Cold-War era and exposed to Western media. The study will compare the attitudes of Russians who have been to or still live in America with Russians who have never traveled to or lived in the United States.

Descriptive statistics was used to obtain basic information about demographic issues and media consumption by participants. T-tests were employed to compare attitudes of students in the two groups. Also T-tests were used to find differences in the media consumption by participants. Standard regressions and t-tests were conducted to find relationships between media consumption and the attitude of students toward America.

Respondent profile

A total of 87 Russian students were surveyed for this study. The first group (65 subjects; 74.7%) includes Russian students who have never been to America; the second

group (22 subjects; 25.3%) consists of Russian students who go to school in America or have visited the United States. The first group of participants has been coded “Russian Russians;” the second group – “Americanized Russians.” The split of 74.7% to 25.3% is well within the range of 90% to 10% which makes the survey statistically valid.

Women dominated the study as 64.1% of the respondents were female and 37.9% were male. Students ranging in age from 16 to 22 years old composed 78.6% of participants; 17.8% were between the age of 23 to 29; and 3.6% were over the age of 31. All of the participants are enrolled as full-time students in a university. Also almost all (97.8%) are Russian citizens.

Although 70.1% of the participants have classes in English at their universities, only 32.2% say they are fluent in English. Finally, although 82.6% of the respondents have access to Internet, e-mail or both, only 37.7% use these means of communication regularly.

Most of “Russian Russians” (95.4%) have never applied to participate in an exchange program to study in the United States of America. However, 42% believe they could gain admission to an American university. In addition, 77% percent of “Russian Russians” would like to visit America and get acquainted with Americans. Almost seventy percent of “Americanized Russians” have applied to study in America. Ninety percent would like to get acquainted with Americans; and 95.5% would like to visit the United States again.

Media consumption

The first research question asked about the consumption of media by the respondents.

Television and the Internet are the most popular sources for information about America among the survey participants: 85.1% use television to learn about America, and 42.5% use the Internet for the same purpose. “Russian Russians” consume more TV than Internet to get information about America (87.7% vs. 27.7%), while “Americanized Russians” use the Internet (86.4%) for information more than television (77.3%).

Almost 50% of “Russian Russians” reported that Russian media is the principal source of information about America and 15.4% use international media for this purpose. “Americanized Russians” use mostly American media (42.9%) and international media (38.1%) to get news about America. Only 19% of “Americanized Russians” use Russian media for this purpose. There are no statistical significant differences among participants in their reported use and perception of American television programs, American television programs adapted for Russian television, and American magazines adapted for Russian media audience. About 70% of participants from both groups watch and like American television programs. Approximately 60% watch American programs adapted for Russian television; and 46.5% read Western magazines translated or adapted into Russian. More than 60% of respondents have a neutral attitude toward Western media adapted for Russian audience.

A t-test was used to determine if there were differences in media consumption (TV, Cinema, DVDs, Internet, Newspapers, and Magazines) between the respondents in the two groups.

Sub-question 1a asked if TV consumption would differ by group. The t-test illustrated in Table I indicated that there was significant difference in TV consumption by “Russian Russians” and “Americanized Russians” ($t(84)=3.74$, $p=.0005$). Russian students studying in America consume less television ($M=7$) than Russian students studying in Russia ($M=13$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.143$) indicates that group variable explains 14.3% of the variation in the students’ TV consumption.

TABLE I
T-Test Comparing TV consumption by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	64	13	7.2	3.74**	.143
Americanized	22	7	5.8		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Sub-question 1b asked about differences in cinema consumption by the respondents. The t-test indicated that there was no significant statistical difference in cinema consumption between respondents in the two groups ($t(85)=.144$, $p=.886$). Russian students studying in Russia consume somewhat similar amount of motion pictures ($M=4.89$) as Russian students in America ($M=4.77$).

Sub-question 1c asked whether videos/DVDs consumption would differ by group. The t-test shown in Table II supported the assumption; there was significant difference in videos/DVDs consumption by “Russian Russians” and “Americanized Russians” ($t(85)=3.0$, $p=.004$). Russian students studying in America watch fewer videos/DVDs productions ($M=8.2$) than Russian students studying in Russia ($M=12.1$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.095$) indicates that group variable explains 9.5% of the variation in the students videos/DVDs consumption.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	12.1	5.5	3.0*	.095
Americanized	22	8.2	5.0		

* p=< .05 ** p=<.001

Sub-question 1d asked whether Internet consumption would differ by group. The t-test illustrated in Table III indicated that this assumption was supported and there was significant difference between Internet consumption by Russian students who have never studied in America and Russian students who have (t(83)=-7.4, p=.0005). It was also found that Russian students studying in America utilize the Internet more (M=20.3) than Russian students studying in Russia (M=7.4). An analysis of association ($n^2=.396$) indicates that group variable explains 39.6% of the variation in the students Internet consumption.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	64	7.4	7.3	-7.4**	.396
Americanized	21	20.3	5.5		

* p=< .05 ** p=<.001

Sub-question 1e asked if there would be the difference in newspapers consumption between the groups. The difference was not statistically significant in a t-test analysis (t(85)=-.19, p=.849). Respondents from both groups reported similar amounts of newspaper consumption (M1=3.6; M2=3.7).

Sub-question 1f asked if magazine consumption would differ by group. The t-test analysis shown in Table IV supported the assumption, hence, there was significant difference between magazine consumption by Russian students who have studied in America and Russian students who have not ($t(85)=2.8, p=.007$). “Russian Russians” consume almost twice as much information from magazines ($M=6.5$) as “Americanized Russians” ($M=3.4$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.083$) indicates that group variable explains 8.3% of the variation in magazine consumption.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	6.5	5.0	2.8*	.083
Americanized	22	3.4	2.5		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Attitudes differed by Group

The second research question asked about attitudes of the survey participants toward different aspects of American life. T-test was used to determine differences in attitudes between groups of students.

Sub-question 2a asked whether respondent’s belief that Americans are portrayed accurately by American television would differ significantly by group. A t-test was used to compare two means from each group. As Table V indicates, Russian students studying in Russia ($M=1.75$) are less willing to accept as accurate the depiction of Americans as shown in American television programs than Russian students studying in America

(M=2.36) ($t(84)=3.5$, $p=.001$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.125$) indicates that group variable explains 12.5% of the variation in the students' belief.

TABLE V
T-Test Comparing Belief about Accuracy of Depiction of Americans on TV by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russian	64	1.75	.69	3.5**	.125
Americanized	22	2.36	.79		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Sub-question 2b asked if the attitude of respondents toward the United States government would differ by group. This assumption was not supported by a t-test analysis ($t(85)=-.567$, $p=.572$). Russian students studying in Russia have similar attitude toward American government (M=1.86) as Russians students studying in the United States of America (M=1.68).

As SPSS frequency tables indicate, 32.2% of all participants have somewhat favorable attitude toward the United States government; 23% have a very unfavorable attitude; 17.2% have somewhat unfavorable attitude; and only 7% reported liking the American government very much.

Sub-question 2c asked if respondent's attitude toward American foreign policy would differ by group. The assumption was not supported in a t-test analysis ($t(85)=.775$, $p=.441$). Russian students studying in Russia have similar attitudes toward American foreign policy (M=1.6) as Russian students studying in the United States of America (M=1.8).

As descriptive statistics indicate, 32.2% of all participants have a somewhat favorable attitude toward American foreign policy; 25.3% have a very unfavorable attitude; and 21.8% have a somewhat unfavorable attitude.

Sub-question 2d asked if the attitude of respondents toward Americans would differ significantly by group. As Table VI shows, Russian students studying in the United States (M=3.1) have more favorable attitudes toward Americans than Russian students studying in Russia (M=2.2) ($t(85)=3.12, p=.003$). An analysis of association ($n^2=.102$) indicates that the group variable explains 10.2% of the variation in this students' attitude.

TABLE VI
T-Test Comparing Attitude toward American people by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	2.2	1.3	3.12*	.102
Americanized	22	3.1	1.0		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

More than 60% of all respondents have very favorable (16.1%) or somewhat favorable (47.1%) attitudes toward Americans, while 12.6% have somewhat unfavorable attitudes and 5.7% have very unfavorable attitudes toward American people.

Sub-question 2e asked whether the liking of American brand products would differ by group. A t-test analysis indicated that this assumption was not supported ($t(84)=.522, p=.603$). Russian students studying in Russia have similar attitudes toward American brand products (M=4.2) as Russians students studying in the United States of America (M=4.0).

More than 70% of participants do not care if products they purchase are produced in the United States or not; they choose products that they like best, regardless of the brand's national origin. Ten and a half percent of respondents report they prefer American brands. Sixteen and a half percent of respondents report they do not buy American products often or sometimes. The most popular American brands among the participants are *McDonalds*, *Coca Cola*, and *Ford*. Some national brands such as *Adidas*, *Sony*, and *Nokia* are considered as American brands by participants even though they are not. This indicates that some students (all of them are "Russian Russians") do not differentiate between American brands and other foreign (mostly European and Japanese) brands.

Sub-question 2f asked whether respondent's attitudes toward the quality of American education would differ significantly by group. This assumption was supported. The results of a t-test shown in the Table VII indicate that "Americanized Russians" (M=2.8) consider the quality of American education as more valuable than "Russian Russians" (M=3.05) ($t(84)=4.1$, $p=.0005$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.163$) indicates that the group variable explains 16.3% of the variation in the students' attitude toward the quality of American education.

TABLE VII

T-Test Comparing perception of Quality of American Education by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	64	2.17	.94	4.1**	.163
Americanized	22	3.05	.65		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Although Russian students studying in Russia consider a degree from an American university to be less valuable (M=2.66) than Russian students studying in

America (M=3.05), the difference between attitudes is not significant ($t(83)=1.7, p=.092$). The assumption of sub-question 2g that the attitude toward degrees from American universities differs by group was not statistically supported.

Sub-question 2h asked whether the perception of Americans as violent people would differ significantly by group and this assumption was statistically supported. The t-test illustrated in Table VIII indicates that “Americanized Russians” (M=3.4) consider Americans to be less violent than “Russian Russians” (M=2.8) ($t(85)=-2.9, p=.005$). An analysis of association ($n^2=.091$) indicates that group variable explains 9.1% of the variation in the students’ attitude toward American people.

TABLE VIII
T-Test Comparing Group perception of Violence/Peacefulness of Americans

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	2.8	.84	-2.9*	.091
Americanized	22	3.4	1.0		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

There was no statistically significant answer to sub-question 2i that asked if the perception of Americans as generous people would differ by group ($t(84)=-1.8, p=.083$). There is no statistically significant difference in perception of Americans as greedy or generous by respondents (M1=2.56; M2=3).

Sub-question 2j asked if the perception of American women as sexually immoral would differ significantly by group. T-test results illustrated by Table IX indicated that the assumption was supported and the difference was significant ($t(85)=-3.7, p=.0005$.) “Americanized Russians” (M=3.6) perceive American women to be more sexually moral

than “Russian Russians” (M=2.7.) An analysis of association ($n^2=.141$) indicates that the group variable explains 14.1% of the variation in the students’ attitude toward American women.

TABLE IX
T-Test Comparing the Perception of Sexual Morality of American women by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	2.7	1.0	-3.7**	.141
Americanized	22	3.6	.96		

*p=< .05 ** p=<.001

Sub-question 2k asked whether the perception of Americans as tolerant or intolerant people would differ significantly by group, and this assumption was supported by t-test results (Table X) and the difference was significant ($t(85)=-2.04, p=.045$). “Americanized Russians” (M=3.6) perceive Americans to be more tolerant than “Russian Russians” (M=3.13.) An analysis of association ($n^2=.46$) indicates that group variable explains 4.6% of the variation in the students’ attitude toward American people.

TABLE X
T-Test Comparing the Perception of Tolerance/Intolerance of Americans by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	3.13	.845	-2.04*	.046
Americanized	22	3.6	1.05		

*p=< .05 ** p=<.001

Sub-question 2l asked if the perception of Americans as materialistic or not materialistic would differ significantly by group. A t-test analysis indicated that the

assumption was not supported and the difference was not significant ($t(85)=2.48$, $p=.43$). Both groups of students perceive Americans as materialistic ($M_1=2.27$; $M_2=2.52$).

Sub-question 2m asked if the perception of Americans as religious people would differ significantly by group. Table XI shows that the assumption was supported and the difference was significant ($t(85)=-3.22$, $p=.002$). Russian students studying in America ($M=4.14$) perceive Americans as more religious than Russian students studying in Russia ($M=3.26$). An analysis of association ($n^2=.109$) indicates that group variable explains 10.9% of the variation in the students' attitude toward American people.

TABLE XI
T-Test Comparing the perception of Religiosity of Americans by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	3.26	1.16	-3.22*	.109
Americanized	22	4.14	.89		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Sub-question 2n asked whether the perception of Americans as people who like to dominate other people would differ significantly by group. The t-test results indicated that the assumption was not supported and the difference was not significant ($t(85)=-.037$, $p=.97$). Respondents from both groups perceive Americans as people who like to dominate ($M_1=2.35$; $M_2=2.36$).

Sub-question 2o asked whether the perception of Americans as law-abiding people would differ significantly by group and t-test results shown in Table XII indicated that the assumption was supported and the difference was significant ($t(85)=-3.39$, $p=.001$). “Americanized Russians” ($M=3.86$) perceive Americans as more law-abiding people than “Russian Russians” ($M=3.06$). An analysis of association ($n^2=.119$) indicates

that group variable explains 11.9% of the variation in the students' attitude toward American people.

TABLE XII
T-Test Comparing Law-abiding by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	3.06	1.0	-3.39**	.119
Americanized	22	3.86	.89		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Sub-question 2p asked whether the perception of Americans as charitable people would differ significantly by group. A t-test analysis indicated that the assumption was not supported and the difference was not significant ($t(85) = -1.33$, $p = .186$). All participants had positive perception of Americans as charitable people ($M_1 = 3.09$; $M_2 = 3.45$).

Sub-question 2q asked if the perception of Americans as people who have strong family values would differ significantly by group. A t-test analysis of the responses indicated that the assumption was not supported and the difference was not significant ($t(85) = -.9$, $p = .37$). All Russian students had similar perception of Americans as having relatively strong family values ($M_1 = 3.43$; $M_2 = 3.68$).

Sub-question 2r asked if the desire of respondents to live in the United States of America would differ significantly by group. The t-test results of responses shown in Table XIII indicated that the assumption was supported and the difference was significant ($t(85) = -2.0$, $p = .046$). Russian students studying in Russia ($M = 2.55$) want to live in America much less than Russian students studying in America ($M = 3.27$). An analysis of

association ($n^2=.046$) indicates that group variable explains 4.6% of the variation in the students' attitude toward American people.

TABLE XIII
T-Test Comparing Respondent's Desire to live in America by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	2.55	1.4	-2.0*	.046
Americanized	22	3.27	1.5		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Sub-question 2s asked if the attitude of respondents toward Russian adaptation of American values would differ significantly by group. A t-test analysis indicated that the assumption was not supported and the difference between groups was not significant ($t(85)=-1.2, p=.243$). Both “Russian Russians” and “Americanized Russians” ($M1=2.3$; $M2=2.6$) report they wish to maintain their own cultural values and appear reluctant to accept American values.

Sub-question 2t asked whether the attitude toward American media products would differ significantly by group. A t-test analysis indicated that this assumption was not supported and the difference among groups was not significant ($t(85)=1.2, p=.225$). The majority of respondents from both groups reported liking American media products ($M1=3.57$; $M2=3.27$).

Sub-question 2u asked if the respondent's perception of the way Americans treat Muslims would differ significantly by group. A t-test results shown in Table XIV indicated that the assumption was supported and the difference was significant ($t(82)=-4.7, p=.0005$). Russian students studying in America ($M=3.68$) think that Americans treat Muslims more fairly than Russian students studying in Russia ($M=2.57$). An analysis of

association ($\eta^2=.216$) indicates that group variable explains 21.6% of the variation in the students' attitude toward American people.

TABLE XIV
T-Test Comparing Respondent's perception of American Treatment of Muslims by Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	62	2.52	.91	-4.7**	.216
Americanized	22	3.68	1.2		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

The general attitude of respondents toward America has been found by taking a mean score of semantic differentials (questions 46-59 in the questionnaire). A new variable "General Attitude toward America" was created. Sub-question 2v asked if the attitude of Russian students toward America would differ by group. As the t-test in Table XV indicates, the assumption was supported and there was a significant difference between attitudes of Russian students by group ($t(85)=-3.1, p=.003$). Russian students studying in America have a more positive attitude ($M=3.3$) toward America than Russian students studying in Russia ($M=2.8$). An analysis of association ($\eta^2=.10$) indicates that group variable explains 10% of the variation in the students' attitude.

TABLE XV *T-Test Comparing General Attitude by Group*

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Russians	65	2.8	.62	-3.1*	.10
Americanized	22	3.3	.57		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Relationships between the media use and attitudes

The third research question asked whether there was a relationship between the use of media and attitudes of participants. T-tests and standard regressions were used to analyze responses and determine relationships between respondents' attitudes toward America and media consumption.

A standard regression was conducted to determine relationships between the respondent's general attitude toward America and the independent semantic variables: respondent's total consumption of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable of general attitude. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no correlation was found. The results of an F-test ($F(1, 83)=5.23, p=.025$) indicated that the independent variable was significantly related to the general attitude toward America. The assumption of sub-question 3a that asked if the use of the Internet would influence the general attitude of participants toward America was supported (Table XVI). Greater Internet consumption is correlated to a more positive general attitude toward America ($b=.012^*$). The dependent variable contributed to the prediction of general attitude ($Beta=.243$). It accounted for 5.9% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 5.9% of the variation in the general attitude ($R^2 = .059$).

TABLE XVI
Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for General Attitude toward America

Variables	Attitude	Internet consumption	b	Beta	s ² (unique)
Internet consumption	.231*		.012*	.243	.059
Means	3.0	12.9	Intercept = 2.807		
S.D.	.6	12.7	R ² = .059		
			Adjusted R ² = .048		
			R = .243		

*p<.05 **p<.01

A standard regression was also used to find a relationship between the general attitude respondents had toward America and a number of independent nominal variables. These independent nominal variables were the use of international, Russian, and American media to learn about American issues. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, American media, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable, general attitude. Other nominal variables were excluded from the analysis since no other correlations were found. A t-test was conducted to ascertain differences in the attitudes of respondents toward America between Russian students who use American media and those who do not.

Sub-question 3b asked if the use of American media consumed to learn about the USA would influence respondent's attitudes. The t-test illustrated in Table XVII indicated that the assumption was supported, and there was a significant difference between the attitudes of those who do not consume American media to learn about America and those who do ($t(84)=3.4, p=.001$). Russian students who use American media to learn about America have a more positive general attitude toward the United States ($M=3.56$) than

Russian student who do not use American media (M=2.87). An analysis of association ($n^2=.122$) indicates that the usage of America media explains 12.2% of the variation in the students' attitudes.

TABLE XVII
T-Test Comparing American media consumption by Group

American media use	N	Mean	SD	T	Eta-Squared
Yes	11	3.56	.577	3.4**	.122
No	75	2.87	.628		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Three t-tests were conducted to determine if the general attitudes of respondents toward America would differ if respondents watched American TV programs and American TV programs adapted for Russian television and liked American TV programs. The three assumptions developed for these tests were not supported. Sub-question 3c asked whether respondent's attitudes toward America would differ significantly if they watch American television programs. This assumption was not supported ($t(83)=1.7$, $p=.085$; $M1=3$, $M2=2.8$). Sub-question 3d asked whether attitudes of respondents toward America would differ significantly if they liked American television programs. This assumption was not supported ($t(82)=.029$, $p=.977$; $M1=2.96$, $M2=2.97$). Sub-question 3e asked whether respondent's attitudes toward America would differ significantly if they watched American television programs that were adapted for Russian television. This assumption was also not supported ($t(83)=.42$, $p=.679$; $M1=2.98$, $M2=2.92$).

Four simple regressions were conducted to determine any relationships between the respondent's perception of Americans as violent or peaceful, tolerant or intolerant, religious or not religious, law abiding or law breaking (dependent variables), and their

use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines (independent variables). A standard regression was also used to determine if there were relationships between Russian students' perception of American women as sexually moral or promiscuous (dependent variable) and their use of media (independent variable). Finally, a standard regression was conducted to determine if the use of TV, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines by respondents influenced their perception of the treatment of Muslims in America.

A standard regression was conducted to determine if respondent's perception of Americans as violent or peaceful people was influenced by the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable of the perception of Americans as violent or peaceful. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no correlation was found. The results of an F-test indicated ($F(1, 83)=7.0, p=.010$) that the independent variable was significantly related to the dependent variable as illustrated in Table XVIII. The assumption of sub-question 3f was supported: The more Russian students use the Internet the more positive their perception of Americans as peaceful people becomes ($b=.02^{**}$). This variable contributed to the prediction of general attitude ($Beta=.279$). It accounted for 7.8% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 7.8% of the variation ($R^2 = .078$).

TABLE XVIII
Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as violent people

Variables	Perception	Internet consumption	b	Beta	s ² (unique)
Internet consumption	.279**		.020**	.279	.078
Means	2.9	12.9	Intercept = 2.671		
S.D.	.9	12.7	R ² = .078		
			Adjusted R ² = .067		
			R = .279		

*p<.05 **p<.01

A standard regression was conducted to determine relationships between the perception of American women as sexually moral or promiscuous and the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines. The correlation table showed that only two of the semantic variables, cinema and Internet consumption, were significantly related to the dependent variable. Other semantic variables were excluded from the analysis. The results of an F-test indicated that at least one of the two independent variables was significantly related to the perception of American women as sexually moral ($F(2,82)=7.6, p=.001$). As the regression coefficients in Table XIX indicate, both variables contributed significantly to the prediction of respondent's perception of American women. Beta weight indicated that the consumption of cinema (Beta=-.1) was the strongest predictor. The negative value of Beta indicated that the more cinemas are consumed by Russian students, the more negative image of American women they have ($b=-.1^{**}$). The consumption of Internet also predicts the dependent variable (Beta=.026). The positive value of Beta indicated that the more Internet respondents consume, the more positive image of American women they develop ($b=.026^{**}$). Cinema consumption

accounts for 8.7% of the unique variance ($sr^2=.087$), while the consumption of Internet explains 9% of the unique variation in the perception of American women ($sr^2=.09$). Overall, the model ($R^2=.156$) explained 15.6% of the variation. The assumption of sub-question 3g that the use of cinema and Internet would influence respondent's perception of American women as sexually moral or promiscuous was supported.

TABLE XIX *Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of American women as sexually moral*

Variables	Perception	Cinema	Internet	b	Beta	sr^2 (unique)
Cinema	-.231			-.1**	-.3	.087
Internet	.263	.149		.026**	.307	.09
Means	2.93	4.91	12.9	Intercept = 3.09		
S.D.	1.06	3.14	12.65			
				$R^2 = .156$ Adjusted $R^2 = .136$ $R = .395^{**}$		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

A standard regression was conducted to determine if the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines would influence respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant or intolerant people. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no correlation was found. The results of an F-test indicated ($F(1, 83)=5.6$, $p=.02$) that the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent variable. As illustrated in Table XX, the assumption of sub-question 3h that Internet usage would influence the respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant or intolerant was supported. The greater Internet use by Russian students, the more positive their perception of Americans as tolerant people becomes ($b=.018^*$). This variable contributed to the prediction of general

attitude (Beta=.251). It accounted for 6.3% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 6.3% of the variation ($R^2 = .063$).

TABLE XX
Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as tolerant or intolerant people

Variables	Perception	Internet consumption	b	Beta	sr^2 (unique)
Internet consumption	.251*		.018*	.251	.063
Intercept = 3.01					
Means	3.2	12.9			
S.D.	.92	12.7			
$R^2 = .063$					
Adjusted $R^2 = .052$					
$R = .251$					

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

A standard regression was conducted to determine if the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines would influence respondent's perception of Americans as religious. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no significant correlation was found. The results of an F-test indicated ($F(1, 83) = 5.6, p = .02$) that the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent variable. As illustrated in Table XXI, the assumption of sub-question 3i that Internet usage would influence the respondent's perception of Americans as religious or not religious people was supported. The greater Internet consumption by Russian students, the more they perceive Americans as religious people ($b = .022^*$). This variable contributed to the prediction of general

attitude (Beta=.251). It accounted for 6.3% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 6.3% of the variation ($R^2 = .063$).

TABLE XXI
Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of religiosity of Americans

Variables	Perception	Internet consumption	b	Beta	sr^2 (unique)
Internet consumption	.251*		.022*	.251	.063
Intercept = 3.205					
Means	3.5	12.9			
S.D.	1.13	12.7			
$R^2 = .063$					
Adjusted $R^2 = .052$					
$R = .251$					

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

A standard regression was conducted to determine if the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines would influence respondent's perception of Americans as law-abiding or law breaking people. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no significant correlation was found. The results of an F-test indicated ($F(1, 83) = 7.73, p = .007$) that the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent variable. As illustrated in Table XXII, the assumption of sub-question 3j that Internet usage would influence the respondent's perception of Americans as law-abiding or law-breaking people was supported. The greater Internet use by Russian students, the more they perceive Americans as law-abiding people ($b = .02^{**}$). This variable contributed to

the prediction of general attitude (Beta=.292). It accounted for 8.5% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 8.5% of the variation ($R^2 = .085$).

TABLE XXII					
<i>Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of Americans as law-abiding or law-following people</i>					
Variables	Perception	Internet consumption	b	Beta	sr ² (unique)
Internet consumption	.292**		.02**	.292	.085
			Intercept = 3.083		
Means	3.34	12.9			
S.D.	.87	12.7			
			$R^2 = .085$		
			Adjusted $R^2 = .074$		
			$R = .292$		

*p<.05 **p<.01

A standard regression was conducted to determine if the use of television, cinema, videos/DVDs, Internet, newspapers, and magazines would influence respondent's perception of the way Americans treat Muslims. The correlation matrix showed that only one independent variable, total consumption of Internet, had a strong correlation with the dependent variable. Other variables were excluded from the analysis since no significant correlation was found. The results of an F-test indicated ($F(1, 80)=5.27, p=.024$) that the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent variable. As illustrated in Table XXIII, the assumption of sub-question 3k that Internet usage would influence the respondent's perception of the way Americans treat Muslims was supported. The greater Internet use by Russian students, the more they believe that Americans treat Muslims fairly ($b=.021^{**}$). This variable contributed to the prediction of general attitude

(Beta=.249). It accounted for 6.2% of the variance in the dependent variable. Overall, the model explained 6.2% of the variation ($R^2 = .062$).

TABLE XXIII					
<i>Standard Regression of Semantic Variables for the respondent's perception of the way Americans treat Muslims</i>					
Variables	Perception	Internet consumption	b	Beta	sr ² (unique)
Internet consumption	.249*		.021*	.249	.062
Means	2.8	12.9	Intercept = 2.51		
S.D.	1.1	12.8	$R^2 = .062$		
			Adjusted $R^2 = .05$		
			R = .249		

*p<.05 **p<.01

Summary of significant results

Descriptive statistics were examined and t-tests and standard regressions were conducted to analyze information gathered about the media consumption of participants, compare their attitudes toward America by group, and find relationships between media consumption and attitudes of students toward America.

It was found that television and the Internet were the most popular sources of information about America among participants. “Russian Russians” use television more than the Internet to get information about America while “Americanized Russians” use the Internet more than television. To get news about America, “Russian Russians” use mostly Russian media while “Americanized Russians” use mostly American and international media.

Russian students studying in America are more likely to believe that Americans are depicted accurately by American television than Russian students studying in Russia. At the same time, “Russian Russians” have less favorable attitude toward Americans than “Americanized Russians.” Also Russian students studying in America consider the quality of American education to be more valuable than Russian students studying in Russia. Additionally, attitudes toward America differ between those who do not consume American media to learn about American issues and those who do.

“Americanized Russians” consume less TV, video, DVDs, and magazines than “Russian Russians.” However, their use of Internet is greater than that of “Russian Russians.” Standard regressions showed that there was a relationship between Internet consumption by participants and their general attitude toward America.

Finally, positive relationships between the use of Internet and respondent’s perception of Americans were found. The more Russian students utilize the Internet, the more they perceive Americans as peaceful, tolerant, religious, and law-abiding people. Also Internet consumption influences respondent’s perception of the way Americans treat Muslims. The more Russian students utilize the Internet, the more they believe that Americans treat Muslims fairly. In addition, the consumption of motion pictures (cinema) and Internet influence significantly the way how Russian students perceive American women. The more Russian students consume cinema products, the more they perceive American women as sexually immoral. On the contrary, the more respondents consume Internet, the more they think about American women as sexually moral.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Findings

The goal of this research was to examine the impact of contemporary media on the process of United States image formation in the minds of young Russian students. Two groups of students were surveyed: group 1, Russian students studying in Russian universities who have never been to America, and group 2, Russian students have studied in American universities or who visited America. Research questions and hypotheses were divided into three content areas. The first content area was devoted to respondent's media consumption. The second content area included questions and hypotheses related to participants' attitudes toward the United States of America. The third content area was devoted to the relationship between media consumption by participants and their attitudes.

Media consumption. Television and Internet were found to be the most popular sources of information about America among participants. However, there was a difference in exposure to these sources between the two groups. Respondents in group 1 ("Russian Russians") consumed more TV than Internet to get information about the USA. Group 2 ("Americanized Russians") respondents utilized the Internet more than television. Respondents in both groups had access to Internet and e-mail and used them regularly. Additionally,

“Americanized Russians” consumed less TV, videos, DVDs, and magazines than “Russian Russians.” To get news about America “Russian Russians” used mostly Russian media while “Americanized Russians” used mostly American and international media.

Attitudes. As shown in the Results section, there were some significant differences in attitudes between the groups. The most important finding was that Russian students studying in America had a more positive general attitude toward the U.S. than Russian students studying in Russia. In addition, respondents in group 2 had a greater desire to live in America and thought the quality of American education was more valuable than respondents in group 1.

“Americanized Russians” were more positive that Americans were depicted accurately on TV and had a more favorable attitude toward American people than “Russian Russians.” In addition, respondents in this group thought that Americans treated Muslims in America more fairly than students in group 1 did.

“Russian Russians” perceived Americans to be more violent and American women to be more sexually promiscuous. They also considered Americans to be less tolerant, less religious, and less law-abiding than “Americanized Russians.”

Relationships. There was a relationship between Internet use and exposure to American media and a more positive general attitude toward America. Students who used the Internet more often and those who were exposed to American media to learn about American issues, mostly “Americanized Russians,” had a more favorable attitude toward the United States.

Comparisons

Previous studies. The first empirical research on the image of the United States of America in Russia, *The Soviet Middle Town Public Opinion Survey*, was conducted by

Professor of Journalism B. Grushin in 1967-1969. He found only one to six percent of Soviet news media content was devoted to capitalist countries. “There were few instances of coverage of social issues such as those dealing with economy, democracy, ideology, welfare of people, and opportunities for personal development” (Fedotova, 1990, p. 60). Ninety five percent of “social” information about America in Soviet media was negative. Grushin found that because Soviet media covered mostly American political issues Soviet people lacked information about social issues and wanted to learn more about them. In fact, around 90% of respondents said their only sources for information were Soviet media and they felt America was a threat to the Soviet Union.

The current research does not focus on the media coverage of American issues, but rather media use by Russians and their attitudes toward the United States. Compared to the time period of Grushin’s 1967-1969 study, Russian people now have more sources of information about America: Internet, videos/DVDs, and cable TV. Although the majority of respondents still used Russian media to learn about American issues, some of them also used American and international media and they had access to the Internet. Respondents reported they watched and liked American TV programs, movies and sitcoms, and cable TV channels, particularly MTV. Finally, participants in the study made a distinction between the American government and the American people, so they did not perceive America only as a political system. For example, almost a half of respondents found American government and foreign policy to be unfavorable while the attitude toward American people was mostly favorable.

While there were no big differences in the perception of American government between the two groups of students in the statistical data (close-ended questions), there

were wide discrepancies in the open-ended responses as people described the American government as “smart, goal-oriented, and independent” and others described it as “stupid, not always just, and dominant.” However, there was a significant difference in the perception of American people. Some Russian students who have never been in America tended to describe American people as “fat, stupid, funny, and ugly,” while some Russian students who had studied in America described American people as “nice, kind, friendly, and helpful.”

A Pew research (2003) project reported some findings similar to the current study. Pew (2003) found that the majority of respondents had favorable attitudes toward American people and said that they would consider buying American products. The majority of Russian students surveyed for this research had similar sentiments about Americans. They did not care about brand nationality (if these brands were American or not) and their attitudes about Americans were mostly positive. Most of the Pew research respondents considered American ideas and customs to be bad for their country, as did the participants of this study. Finally, according to the Pew report, 40% of Russians surveyed said Americans were not religious enough. The “Russian Russians” in this study also thought that Americans were not very religious.

The only significant contrast between this study and the Pew research (2003) was related to the attitude toward American media products. Almost half of the Russians surveyed by Pew reported that they disliked American music, movies, and television. However, more than 70% of Russian students surveyed in this study liked American media products. This contrast can be explained by the number of participants surveyed for this study and the age of the participants. Pew research interviewed 501 participants

from the general population, which would have included all age groups. In this study, only 87 participants going to Russian or American universities were surveyed and the average age of respondents was that of younger, college age population.

Jami Fullerton (2006) surveyed 16 and 17 year old high school Russian students and found that a large percentage of the respondents “agreed most strongly with the statement ‘I like American music, movies and television’” (p. 3). This finding can be explained by the age factor. Young Russians are exposed to American pop-culture more than older people. However, these Russian high school students strongly agreed that American ideas and customs were bad for their country, which corresponds to previous research studies.

Participants in the Fullerton survey (2006) reported that *Coca-Cola* and *McDonalds* were the most popular American brands. *McDonalds* and *Coca-Cola* were also mentioned by the majority of respondents in this study, as well as *Ford*, *Microsoft*, and *Pepsi*. Some respondents, all of them “Russian Russians,” listed *Adidas*, *Nokia*, and *Sony* as American brands, showing that these students did not pay attention to a product’s country of origin. During Fullerton’s (2006) presentation of her research at the conference *Russia, America, and the Commonwealth of Independent States...* she also noted that Russian high school students were not well-informed about American products and confused them with other European and Japanese brands. As this study indicated, some Russian students (all of them in the “Russian Russians” group) could not determine the national origin of the media they used to learn about America.

Results and predictions. The predictions (or hypotheses) for this research project were divided to three categories. The first category dealt with media consumption by

participants. It was assumed that media consumption differed by group. The results of the survey indicated that some of the predictions were correct. For example, “Russian Russians” watched significantly more television than “Americanized Russians,” who in turn used the Internet significantly more. These results can be explained by the fact that the Internet infrastructure is still developing in Russia while it is already highly developed in America. According to the Russian foundation *Obschestvennoe mnenie (Public Opinion)* (2006), only 21% of the Russian population (mostly urban) has access to Internet and very few people living in rural areas receive information from the World Wide Web. It is still not common for Russians, even students, to use electronic libraries, do online shopping or pay bills online. According to the research conducted by *SpyLog*, a Russian company occupied in statistical research on the Internet and development of technological solutions in the Internet area, in 2004, only 8.6 million of Russian people (about 6% of the entire population) did online shopping monthly (Travin, 2004). A number of authors (Kokorina, 2001; Bulycheva, and Novikov, 2002) noted that online banking and e-libraries have just started developing in Russia. “Americanized Russians” who are studying in the United States have Internet skills and easy Internet access through their universities, and the majority of them report they use the Internet more than six hours per week.

All “Americanized Russians” reported being fluent in English, which increased the number of media they could use and many of them used international and American media to learn about America. The majority of “Russian Russians” reported they could not speak English and they used mostly Russian media to learn about America.

“Russian Russian” students consumed more videos/DVDs products and magazines than “Americanized Russians.” Several explanations could account for these findings. First,

videos/DVDs products in Russia are cheap (approximately \$3 for videotape and \$5 for a DVD) because most are not licensed. Video and DVD piracy is considered to be a big problem for Russian entertainers and producers (BBCRussian.com, 2006). Second, “Russian Russians” living and studying in their “native” environment probably spend less time on education and have more time for entertainment (watching DVDs and reading entertainment magazines). “Americanized Russians” living abroad and dealing with a language barrier probably spend more time studying. Also “Americanized Russians” who have more access to the Internet can use online versions of magazines, while “Russian Russians” who do not use the Internet as much prefer reading hardcopies of magazines.

The second category of predictions dealt with attitudes toward America and the significant difference between these attitudes in both groups. The third category established correlations between media consumption and attitudes. Some of the predictions in the second and the third categories were also supported by the research. Findings from the second and the third categories of questions are discussed together because the findings from one category help explain the results in the other category.

The general attitude of Russian students toward America, the desire to live in the United States of America, and the perception of the quality of American education differed between the groups. “Americanized Russians” reported a greater desire to live in America than “Russian Russians.” They had a more positive attitude toward America, in general, and American education, in particular. It could be possible to explain these differences through their media consumption, for example, their use of the Internet. Simple regressions indicated that there were relationships between general attitude toward America, attitude toward American education and the total use of the Internet by

all participants. “Americanized Russians” used the Internet more than “Russian Russians.”

It was also found that Russian students studying in Russia perceived Americans as more violent and prone to engage in criminal acts, and less tolerant than “Americanized Russians” and perceived American women to be more sexually immoral (promiscuous) and Muslims to be treated less fairly in America. Simple regressions indicated that the use of the Internet influenced significantly these attitudes. As was mentioned, students who used the Internet more had a more favorable attitude toward Americans than those who used it less. It was also found that cinema influenced the image of American women as sexually moral/immoral (promiscuous) in Russian students.

It is important to recognize other (non-media) variables that could lead to differences in attitudes between the groups. For example, the positive attitude of Russian students who studied in America could be caused not only by media messages but also by their interpersonal relationships with Americans, their experience of working/studying in American institutions, and their integration into the American way of life. It is also important to remember that Russian students who apply to study in another country are probably acting out of interest and attraction toward the potential host nation. It would be logical to assume that these students were already favorable pre-disposed toward the United States and had searched out information sources that reinforced their views.

There were hypotheses related to differences in attitudes which were not supported. For example, a majority of participants from both groups had a similar propensity to buy American brand products. They chose the products that they wanted and liked and did not care about the national origin of the brands. This finding coincided

with the findings in Pew (2003) and Zogby International (2004) studies. In general, Russian respondents in the Pew research had no qualms about buying American products. Almost all of them said it was good for Russia to establish greater economic trade and faster communications with America. Zogby (2004) found that purchasing American products was one of a few issues toward which Arabs had a positive attitude.

One more similarity between this research and the Pew study (2003) was that Russian students (there was no difference between groups) agreed that it was not good for their country to adapt American values. However, the majority of Russian students liked American media products because they were “interesting, informative, and funny.” Open-ended questions helped understand which programs Russian students watched. “Russian Russians” preferred *MTV* and *Discovery Channel*, American movies and television situation comedies. It is important to note that the majority of these programs are translated into Russian and the translation reflects Russian culture but this can cause some distortions of American media messages. “Americanized Russians” watched *CNN*, *Comedy Central* (*Daily Show*, *Colbert report*, and cartoons such as *South Park*), *History Channel*, *Discovery Channel*, movies and situation comedies. These students usually have access to original (not translated) versions of these media products.

Other hypotheses related to questions in the third category, that predicted that the general attitude toward America would be influenced by respondent’s watching TV-programs, using Internet to gain information about American issues, watching American TV programs and American TV programs adapted for Russian television, were not supported. Rejection of these hypotheses could be caused by several factors. First, the questionnaire might have confused some participants. More than 10% of the respondents

did not answer questions about the percent of time they devoted to different Russian and American media products. This information could have provided additional data for analysis and led to more relevant and significant conclusions. Second, the concept of media used in this study was not restrictive. All types of media, such as television, cinema, music, videos and DVDs, newspapers and magazines, books and comics, and Internet were analyzed in this research. In the research questionnaire, there was no differentiation made between news (news programs or websites) and entertainment media such as talk-shows, movies, and situation comedies. Future research on this topic should make the distinction between news and entertainment since different characteristics of media provide different information and, hence, influence the perceptions in different ways. Third, there was no emphasis on media content in this study. Complementary content-analyses should be conducted to learn more about the character of information, which would provide insight into respondent's answers.

Finally, there is always the possibility that news coverage of America is not a major factor in the creation of a positive or negative image of a country and its people. "Americanized Russians" learn about American reality through interpersonal communication and adapting to the American life style without relying heavily on the media. For Russian students living in Russia, information about America might not be a priority. As McPhail (2002) noted, the perceived need for international news declined after the end of the Cold War. The principle of news proximity hypothesizes that news events close to an individual are of more importance than events taking place in distant regions. If news is not important in image formation, American entertainment products (for example, movies) and U.S.-based corporate brands could be the only way for

Russian students to develop images of America. However, some respondents reported they did not trust American movies and television images to accurately portray America. They were also unable to distinguish between American (*McDonalds, Coca-Cola*) and non-American (*Nokia, Sony*) brands. This lack of knowledge and distinct of media to provide an accurate image of the USA could create a faulty or inconsistent perception of America and affect the findings reported in this study.

Implications

Russian students with Internet access have a more positive image of America than Russian students who do not have Internet access. The Internet provides users with different types of information from different sources, which partially balances their beliefs and opinions of America. It was also found that “Americanized Russians” used the Internet much more than “Russian Russians.” Also the Internet did not have any significant impact on various attitudes of “Russian Russians” toward the United States. Additional t-tests were conducted in this group of students based on the median split, and no difference between the attitudes by the use of Internet was found.

A similar pattern of logic can be applied to another finding on the influence of American media on Russian attitudes toward America. Bilingual Russian students have access to American and international media as well as Russian media. They can compare and analyze information about America from these media sources and form more balanced opinions. On the contrary, Russian students who speak Russian language only use mostly Russian media to get information about the United States and their limited one-sided view of America will possibly be more negative. Previous analyses of Russian

mass media showed that Russian news media tended to stress the negative side of American life. However, new content studies of Russian media are needed to make more precise conclusions about Russian news coverage of America.

This author used the social construction of reality theory to explain some of the study results related to attitudes of “Russian Russians” toward the United States. The social construction of reality theory can be applied if people rely heavily on the media rather than personal experience to create a view of reality. This media world can become reality for those who have limited external contacts which might challenge the media’s reality.

This researcher applied the social construction of reality theory in this research project to the group of Russian students who have never been to America. These students reported they had limited media sources to learn about America. The group participants had never been to the United States and a half of them did not believe they would ever study or travel to the USA (some of participants explained that the cost of travel to America was the reason). More than a half of the respondents did not have relatives or friends (interpersonal source of information) who had visited or lived in the United States. The only way these people received most of their information about America was through different media messages, such as TV and radio news (mostly Russian), American movies and situation comedies translated into Russian, and the Internet. However, the results of this study indicated that the media did not have a significant impact on the attitudes and beliefs of “Russian Russians” and, thus, did not construct American social reality in the minds of these young people. No relationship was found between the consumption of radio, newspapers, video/DVD, and magazines and the

general attitude of participants toward America. The only relationships found in this study were between the perception of American women as sexually immoral (promiscuous) and watching cinema. Also respondents did not believe much that Americans were portrayed truthfully on television which indicated a distrust of American TV programs.

As it was previously mentioned, the principle of proximity to news events can be applied to explain some of the results of this study. Proximity in mass communications means that recipients of media messages are interested mostly in news events near them or events that have saliency. National news from distant regions of a country and international reports attract low public attention because they do not inform about local life and have direct influence (*Media Effects*, 1994). “Russian Russians” who did not plan to study in the United States or did not believe they could ever visit America would have less interest in news about America. In addition, these young students did not believe in the “American dream” shown by American TV. Although students liked American media products, they did not believe these products portrayed life in the United States.

A lack of knowledge can also influence the image of America in minds of Russians. In his video project, Igor Nagdasev (2003), the director of the Russian Center for Civic Education, concluded that Russian people did not know much about the United States of America. Participants in his project knew less about America than their parents and grandparents who lived in the Soviet Union. He noted that respondents were mostly negative about America because of the war in Iraq and the influence of the Russian government on the national media to provide negative news coverage of the USA. Some of Nagdasev’s (2003) conclusions were supported in this study.

“Russian Russian” students seemed to have a more limited knowledge of the United States of America than “Americanized Russian” students. All the respondents in this study were asked about American government, foreign policy, people, and brands. These questions implied some superficial knowledge about the subjects. Approximately 20% of “Russian Russians” did not know or did not want to answer questions about American government, foreign policy, and people. Some explained that they did not have adequate knowledge of American policies or the opportunity to talk with Americans. Only 10% of “Americanized Russians” did not know or did not want to answer the same questions. In addition, there was confusion among “Russian Russians” about American brands. Some respondents considered European and Japanese brands to be American. Finally, some of the “Russian Russian” participants could not recall or identify sources of information about America.

Limitations and future research

Buddenbaum, Novak (2001), Wimmer and Dominic (1994) noted a number of limitations in the survey method, such as low response rate for web-based surveys, difficulty in verification of relationships among variables, ambiguous questions, and the lack of information about what motivates someone to answer in a certain way.

A serious limitation for this study was the sample size. The small sample size (only 87 students were surveyed and there were only 22 “Americanized Russians” who participated in the research) and the character of the sample (nonrandom purposive) made generalization of the results and conclusions difficult. However, this study did provide

good preliminary information and highlighted errors that should be avoided in future research.

Another problem was that more than 10% of participants were confused by the questions asking them to specify the percent of their time devoted to the consumption of Russian and American media and they did not respond or they responded incorrectly. Some respondents noted that these questions took a lot of time to answer and this may have also reduced the response rate.

Knowledge of the amount/percentage of the time respondents used for different Russian or American media would help researchers understand which media (Russian or American; electronic, on-line, or published, etc.) had the greatest impact on the attitudes of students toward America. In addition, it was impossible to evaluate the character of information about America consumed by participants (negative or positive; news or entertainment, etc.) because media content analysis was not included in the research. Complementary content-analyses of contemporary media would be valuable for future research.

Finally, non-media factors could influence the attitudes of students who studied in the United States and result in attitudinal differences between the groups. The positive attitude of “Americanized Russians” could be partially caused by their interpersonal communication with Americans, the experience of working/studying in American institutions, and integration into the American way of life. It is also important that some of “Americanized Russians” liked America which led them to apply to study in American universities.

Conclusion

During more than two hundred years, Russian media reflected political, economic, and social trends of development of Russian-American relationships. At various times, Russian media described America as a colony, a partner, a competitor, an enemy, a friend, and a benefactor (*Russian Discovery of America*, 2002; *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images*, 1990). Media became especially influential at the end of the nineteenth century when the mass press was launched in Russia (*The History of the World Journalism*, 2003). Outstanding Russian journalists and writers discovered America for Russian mass audiences. Ordinary Russians got a chance to learn about this faraway country from newspapers and, then, in the twentieth century, radio and television programs (*Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images*, 1990).

The attitude of the Russian public toward the United States of America was often ambivalent. Russian travelers to America admired the democratic and law-abiding society, highly developed economy and industrial and business technologies, and great masterpieces of American literature. However, they were disappointed with America's cruel history based on slavery, killing of Native Americans, and an American obsession with money (*Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images*, 1990). As representatives of old Soviet generations stated, during the last years of the Cold War, Russian propaganda worked well against the United States and it had huge influence on Soviet attitudes. At the same time, it was prestigious for Soviet people (mostly political and art elites) to have rare business trips to the USA. It was popular to wear American jeans, which were not common in the Soviet Union. The Russian public also loved American movies about cowboys and Native Americans.

Oleg Dark (2003), Russian literary critic and writer, wrote that many Russians did not believe that America was a real country. The writer described an episode from his childhood. He knew someone who asserted that the radio *Voice of America* was made by Soviets and jammed by Soviets to gain believability. Dark's acquaintance did not believe in the *Voice of America* or that America existed. This metaphor explains how Russians perceive America. The majority of them do not believe they can visit this country. They perceived that travel to America was equal to going to another world or another planet. Dark stated that according to Russian classic writers Dostoevsky and Chernyshevsky, to travel to America meant changing your soul and lifestyle and then coming back to the Motherland as a different person.

Young people, especially "Russian Russians," who participated in this study may have an ambivalent perception of America. They like American people but do not like the American government; they like American media products but do not believe that American reality is depicted accurately by American media; they would like to visit the USA and get acquainted with Americans but they do not speak English and do not believe they can study in an American university. Russian students who have traveled to the United States have different perception of this country. These students are changed by the American style of life; they use the Internet and prefer American brands; they have a more positive attitude toward America than Russian students who have never been in the United States; they are aware of American national and foreign policy and have the experience of working with American institutions. Because of their experiences some would like to stay in America.

The difficulties in understanding of the image of America in young Russians can be explained by the time when this image is formed. The new generations of Russians grew up in a rapidly changing Russia. Political, economic, social, and even cultural changes created the necessity for Russian society to find a new national identity; this need for a new identity influenced a change in the perception of America. Eric Shiraev and Vladislav Zubok (2000) noted that national identity “is a unifying psychological phenomenon that develops within concrete territorial, conceptual, and spiritual dimensions. This type of identity bonds those people who accept it through common language, citizenship, ethnicity, religion, norms, and – most importantly – values” (p. 64). Sometimes national identity forms through the opposition to the Others (other countries, regions, societies, ethnicities). Shiraev and Zubok (2000) asserted that, to some extent, anti-Americanism, in new Russia could become an essential component of the Russia’s search for a new national identity: Russians can find themselves by opposing Americans. This can determine the character of Russian media reports about America and, thus, the way Russian mass audience perceives the United States.

Explaining anti-Americanism, Shlapentokh and Wods (2004) distinguished two groups of factors which influence this phenomenon: external (economic and cultural expansion) and internal factors (political, cultural, and psychological factors). Using this scheme, this author concluded that Russia today has many reasons to return to the negative attitude toward its Cold War enemy. U.S. based multinational corporations open their offices in Russian cities. Hollywood movies are successfully sold to the Russian public. Western societies, including America, push the Russian government to honor principles of democracy and freedom, which have become meaningless for Russians

during the “reign” of Russian President Boris Yeltsin. Finally, envy and pique among Russians “who did not win the Cold War” and found themselves facing massive economic and societal changes could cause the negative attitude toward the United States and become the basis for a new Russian identity.

This research and a number of previous studies (Russian Center for Civic Education, 2003; Shiraev and Zubok, 2000) indicated that Russian people who have never been in America do not know much about this country. The lack of knowledge can also contribute to the development of anti-Americanism. The Russian media play an important role in image formation of other countries. Shiraev and Zubok (2000) examined and wrote about the news reports on the war in Kosovo: “The polls showed that the overwhelming majority of the Russian public believed the story of the Russian press and completely disregarded the story circulated by Western media” (p. 121). Limited access to American and international media (cable television is expensive in Russia and only 21% of people have access to the Internet) forces Russian audience to rely on Russian media, primarily television. According to the *Russian Center of Public Opinion Studies (Всероссийский Центр Изучения Общественного Мнения)*, 75% of the Russian media audience is the audience of Russian television and two main television channels in Russia are ORT and RTR (Rosbalt News Agency, 2006). As many informal Internet resources stated, ORT and RTR support the Russian government’s opinions on national and foreign policies. Russian people who have limited access to various media and have never been in the United States may form one-sided images of America based on biased information from Russian media.

ENDNOTES

¹The American TV soap opera *Santa Barbara* was very popular among Russian housewives in the beginning of 1990s.

²Образ государства в международных отношениях и социальное познание (Russ.)

³Имидж не может хорошо развиваться, если за ним не будет стоять поддерживающая его реальность. Например, создание имиджа стран СНГ для западного мира не является чисто коммуникативной задачей, пока не заработает экономика, на базе которой и вырастет положительный имидж. (Почепцов, Г.Г. (2003). *Информационные войны*. Москва, Россия: Издательство Центр. С. 273. Pocheptzov G.G. (2003). *Informational Wars*. Moscow, Russia: Izdatelstvo Centr. P. 273.)

⁴International Research and Exchange Board (IREX), Muskie and Fulbright Funds, the Institute of International Education (IIE), and the American Councils for International Education (ACTR-ACCELS) are major funding agencies providing support of Russian students in America.

REFERENCES

- Advisory Committee on Cultural Diplomacy for the U.S. Department of State. (2005). *Cultural Diplomacy: The Linchpin of Public Diplomacy. Report*. Retrieved on October 15, 2005, from <http://www.businessfordiplomaticaction.org/learn/research.php>.
- Anhold, S. (2005). *Nation Brands Index: How the World Sees the World*. Retrieved on October 15, 2005, from <http://www.businessfordiplomaticaction.org/learn/research.php>.
- Arab American Institute and Zogbi International, Inc. (2004). *Impressions of America: How Arabs View America. How Arabs Learn about America. Six-nation survey*. Retrieved on October 15, 2005, from <http://www.businessfordiplomaticaction.org/learn/research.php>.
- Baran, S. J. and Davis, D. K. (1981). *Mass Communication and Everyday Life*. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Buddenbaum, J. M. and Novak, K. B. (2001). *Applied Communication Research*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa University Press.
- Bulycheva, O.S. and Novikov, V.D. (2002). *Sources of Information and Users of the Science E-library*. Булычева, О.С., Новиков В.Д. (2002). *Информационные Ресурсы и Пользователи Научной Электронной Библиотеки*. Retrieved on July 2006 from <http://www.elbib.ru/index.phtml?page=elbib/rus/journal/2002/part1/BN>.
- Buranov, I. (2003). The Audience of the Internet will Increase. *Kommersant*, 177, 3.
Буранов, И. (2003). Аудитория Рунета Вырастет. *Коммерсант*, 177, 3.
- Chomsky, N. (1994). *Media Control: the Spectacular Achievements of Propaganda*. New York: Seven Stories Press.
- Dark, O. (2003, May 27). Afterworld America. "In My Life," *online magazine of literature essays*. Дарк, Олег. (2003, 27 мая). Потусторонняя Америка. "В Моей Жизни," сетевой журнал литературных эссе. Retrieved on March 30, 2006, from <http://www.vavilon.ru/inmylife/01dark.html>.

- Dedovic, M. (2001). *The Images of Bosnia and Herzegovina in Television: a Content Analysis of CNN News Programming from 1992 to 1996*. Master's Thesis. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma State University.
- DeFleur, M. and Ball-Rokeach, S. (1989). *Theories of Mass Communication*. New York: Longman.
- DeFleur, M. L. and DeFleur, M. H. (2003). *Learning to Hate Americans: How U.S. Media Shape Negative Attitudes among Teenagers in Twelve Countries*. Spokane, WA: Margaret Books.
- Fabbrini, S. (2004). Layers of Anti-Americanism: Americanization, American Unilateralism and Anti-Americanism in a European Perspective. *European Journal of American Culture*, 23(2), 79 – 94.
- Fedorov, A.V. (2004). Violence on the screen. *Man*, 5. Федоров, А.В. (2004). Насилие на экране. *Человек*, 5.
- Foundation of Economic Research *New Economy*. (2003). *The Development of Market of Information and Communication Technologies in Russia*. Фонд экономических исследований *Новая Экономика*. (2003). *Развитие Рынка Информационно-Коммуникационных Технологий в России*. Retrieved on October 13, 2005, from <http://lenta.neweco.ru/ict/811/print>.
- Foundation *Public Opinion*. (2005 – 2006). *Project "Internet in Russia/Russia in Internet."* Polls "Internet in Russia," 14, 1-36. Фонд *Общественное мнение*. (2005 – 2006). Проекты "Интернет в России/Россия в Интернете." Опросы "Интернет в России," 14, 1-36. Retrieved on June 5, 2006, from <http://www.fom.ru>.
- Friedman, T. L. (2002). *Reporting: Searching for the Roots of 9/11*. DVD. Retrieved on September, 27, 2005, from Oklahoma State University Tulsa-Library.
- Fullerton, J. A. (2006). Russian Students' Attitudes toward American Brands and Brand America. *America, Russia, and the Commonwealth of Independent States: a New Generation Builds New Relationships. The Conference Proceedings*. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma State University (would be published on August 2006).
- Fullerton, J. A. (2005). "Why Do They Hate Us?" International Attitudes towards America, American Brands and Advertising. *Henry Stewart Publications*, 1(2), 129–140.
- Galvan, J. G. (1999). *Writing Literature Review*. Los Angeles, CA: Pyczak Publishing.
- Geyman, A.M. (2005). *Western media about Russia and the Ukraine*. Гейман, А.М. (2005). *Западные СМИ о России и Украине*. Retrieved on October 2005 from http://zhurnal.lib.ru/g/gejman_aleksandr_mihajlowich/ukr1.shtml.

- Globalization and Demassification: Will Mass Media Survive? (1999). *Backgrounder of Russian Foundation for Basic Research*, 3(17). Глобализация и Демассификация: Выживут ли СМИ? (1999). *Вестник Российского Фонда Фундаментальных Исследований*, 3(17). Retrieved on October 13, 2005, from http://www.rfbr.ru/default.asp?article_id=5610&doc_id=5216#id5610.
- Grunig, J. E. (1993). Public Relations and International Affairs: Effects, Ethnics, and Responsibility. *Journal of International Affairs*, 47(1), 137 – 162.
- Harris Interactive Research. (2004). *A Comparison of American, Canadian and European Perceptions of the U.S.* Retrieved on October 15, 2005, from <http://www.businessfordiplomaticaction.org/learn/research.php>.
- Ilf, I., Petrov, E. (1961). *One-Story America*. Moscow, Russia: Detskaya Literatura. Ильф, И., Петров, Е. (1961). *Одноэтажная Америка*. Собрание сочинений в 5-ти томах. Т. 4. Москва, Россия: Детская Литература.
- Iraq. The Soviet Union*. (1998). Retrieved on January 2, 2006, from <http://www.country-data.com/cgi-bin/query/r-6638.html>.
- Jeannet, J-P., Hennessey, D. H. (2004). *Global Marketing Strategies*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Joachim, A. (2003) *Country as a Whole Shapes U.S. Brand*. P. 38 (no journal title and volume was indicated). Retrieved on September 20, 2005, from EBSCO Database.
- Johnson, S., Dale, H. C., Cronin, P. (2005). Strengthening U.S. Public Diplomacy Requires: Organization, Coordination, and Strategy. *Executive Summary Backgrounder*, 1875, 1 – 16. Retrieved on October 15, 2005, from <http://www.businessfordiplomaticaction.org/learn/research.php>.
- Kendrick A., Fullerton, J. A. (2004). Advertising as Public Diplomacy: Attitude Change among International Audience. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 44(3), 297 – 311.
- Kokorina, V. (2001). *Another Statistics*. Кокорина, В. (2004). *Другая Статистика*. Retrieved on July 2006 from <http://www.rambler.ru/db/rumetrica/otherstat.html?mid=5055293>.
- Kolesnik, S. G. (1990). Soviet-American Television: the Crucial Years. In Dennis, E. E., Gerbner, G. and Zassoursky, Y. (Eds.), *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images* (pp. 36 – 46). London, UK: Sage publications.
- Kononova, A.G. (2000). *Reportages and Feuilletons about New York City Written by Russian and Soviet Journalists and Writers Vladimir Korolenko (1980s), Maxim Gorky (1900s), Vladimir Majakovsky (1925), Ilya Ilf and Evgeny Petrov (1935)*.

- Kursovaja Rabota (Final Paper)*. Rostov State University: Rostov-on-Don, Russia.
- Kononova, A.G. (2003). The USA Image in Soviet Press during the Cold War. *Rostov University Initiative. The Conference Proceedings*. Rostov State University: Rostov-on-Don, Russia.
- Kononova, A.G. (2003). The War in Iraq Coverage in Russian and American Newspapers. *Journalism Department Scholarly Conference. The Conference Proceedings*. Rostov State University: Rostov-on-Don, Russia.
- Lahutsina, M. (2002). *US-Russian Relations*. Retrieved on October 13, 2005, from <http://www.debatabase.org/details.asp?topicID=182>.
- Lukosiunas, M. A. (1990). Enemy, Friend, or Competitor? A Content Analysis of the *Christian Science Monitor* and *Izvestia*. In Dennis, E. E., Gerbner, G. and Zassoursky, Y. (Eds.), *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images* (pp. 100 – 111). London, UK: Sage publications.
- McPhail, T. L. (2002). *Global Communication: Theories, Stakeholders, and Trends*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Media Effects*. (2002). In J. Bryant and D. Zillman (Eds.) New Jersey & London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Mickiewicz, E. (1990). Images of America. In Dennis, E. E., Gerbner, G. and Zassoursky, Y. (Eds.), *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images* (pp. 21 – 31). London, UK: Sage publications.
- Pocheptcov, G.G. (2003). *Information Wars*. Moscow, Russia: Izdatelstvo Centr.
Почепцов, Г.Г. (2003). *Информационные войны*. Москва, Россия: Издательство Центр.
- Pratkanis, A. R. and Aronson, E. (1991). *The Age of Propaganda*. New York: Henry Halt and Company, LLC.
- Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. (2001). Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Richter, A. G. (1990). Enemy Turned Partner: a Content Analysis of *Newsweek* and *Novoye Vremya*. In Dennis, E. E., Gerbner, G. and Zassoursky, Y. (Eds.), *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images* (pp. 91 –100). London, UK: Sage publications.
- Russian Center for Civic Education. (2000-2003). *TV-project*.
- Russian Discovery of America*. (2002). Moscow, Russia: ROSSPEN. *Русское Открытие Америки*. (2002). Москва, Россия: РОССПЕН.

- Russian Militia Fights Pirates and Promotes Cheap Legal Movies. (2006). *BBCRussian.com*. МВД Борется с Пиратами и Ввезет Дешевые Фильмы. (2006). Официальный сайт БиБиСи в России. Retrieved on July, 2006 from http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/russian/russia/newsid_4969000/4969690.stm.
- Russians Trust the Russian President and Russian Media the most. (2006). *Rostbalt News Agency*. Больше Всего Россияне Доверяют Президенту и СМИ. (2006). *Информационное агентство Росбалт*. Retrieved on July 2006 from <http://www.rosbalt.ru/2006/05/23/254279.html?#1623>.
- Severin, W.J. and Tankard, J.W. (1997). *Communication Theories*. New York: Longman.
- Shalabanova, E. M. (1998). *The Content Analysis of Russia's Coverage in CNN News Programs, 1993 – 1997. Master's Thesis*. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma State University.
- Shiraev, E., Zubok, V. (2000). *Anti-Americanism in Russia: from Stalin to Putin*. New York: Palgrave.
- Shlapentokh, V. and Wods, J. (2004). The Threat of International Terrorism and the Image of the United States Abroad. *Brown Journal of World Affairs*. X(2), 167 – 180.
- Sokolov, M. (2003, March 27). Obstacles could not be Avoided. *Izvestia*. Соколов М. (2003, 27 марта). Гладко не было на Бумаге. *Известия*.
- Still not Loved. Now not Envied. (2005, June 25). *Economist*, 35.
- Tchaikovsky, P. I. (2000). *Diaries*. Moscow, Russia: L'Age d'Homme. Чайковский, П. И. (2000). *Дневники*. Москва, Россия: L'Age d'Homme.
- The History of the World Journalism*. (2003). Russia, Moscow – Rostov-on-Don: MarT. *История мировой журналистики*. (2003). Москва – Ростов-на-Дону: MarT.
- The Newest History. 1939 – 1992*. (1993). Moscow, Russia: Prosvestchenie. *Новейшая История. 1939 – 1992*. (1993). Москва, Россия: Просвещение.
- Travin, A. (2004). *Fifteen Hundred Russian E-stores*. Травин, А. (2004). *Полторы Тысячи Российских Интернет-магазинов*. Retrieved on July 2006 from <http://gs.spylog.ru/tcu/1/node/431.html>.
- Vulis, A. (1960). *I. If and E. Petrov*. Moscow, Russia: Detskaaya Literatura. Вулис, А. (1960). *И. Ильф и Е. Петров*. Москва, Россия: Детская Литература.
- Wimmer, R. D. and Dominic, J. R. (1994). *Mass Media Research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Zassoursky, Y. N. (1990). Changing Images of the Soviet Union and the United States. In Dennis, E. E., Gerbner, G. and Zassoursky, Y. (Eds.), *Beyond the Cold War: Soviet and American Media Images* (pp. 11 – 21). London, UK: Sage publications.

In addition, articles from Russian newspapers *Izvestia* (*Известия*), *Kommersant* (*Коммерсантъ*) and *Computerra* (*Компьютерра*) were used in this research project.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRES IN ENGLISH AND IN RUSSIAN

GLOBAL MEDIA SURVEY

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey to measure attitudes of Russian people toward the United States of America. This study is a part of Master's thesis in Mass Communication. The project is prepared by a graduate student of Oklahoma State University. To fill this questionnaire will take you 20 to 25 minutes. Your individual responses will be anonymous, so please do not write your name on this survey. The information you provide will not be directly associated with you in any way.

1. What are your most frequent sources for news about Russian issues (circle as many as apply)?
 - a. Television
 - b. Newspapers
 - c. Radio
 - d. Magazines
 - e. Internet
 - f. Friends/relatives
 - g. Other
 - h. Don't know/Don't want to answer
2. What are your most frequent sources for news about international issues (circle as many as apply)?
 - a. Television
 - b. Newspapers
 - c. Radio
 - d. Magazines
 - e. Internet
 - f. Friends/relatives
 - g. Other
 - h. Don't know/Don't want to answer
3. What are your most frequent sources for news about American issues (circle as many as apply)?
 - a. Television
 - b. Newspapers
 - c. Radio
 - d. Magazines
 - e. Internet
 - f. Friends/relatives
 - g. Other
 - h. Don't know/Don't want to answer
4. What principle sources do you use to learn about America?
 - a. International mass media
 - b. American mass media
 - c. Russian mass media
 - d. Other mass media
 - e. Don't know/Don't want to answer

5. What are the principle media sources you use to learn about Russian-American relationships?
 - a. International mass media
 - b. American mass media
 - c. Russian mass media
 - d. Other mass media
 - e. Don't know/Don't want to answer

6. How many hours do you spend watching television during an average week?
 - a. Less than 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. More than 25

7. How often do you go to the cinema to watch a movie in an average month?
 - a. Less than 1
 - b. 1-4
 - c. 4-10
 - d. more than 10

8. How often do you watch movies on video or DVD in an average month?
 - a. Less than 1
 - b. 1-4
 - c. 4-10
 - d. more than 10

9. How many hours do you spend using Internet during an average week?
 - a. Less than 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. More than 25

10. How many hours do you spend reading newspapers during an average week?
 - a. Less than 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. More than 25

11. How many hours do you spend reading magazines during an average week?
- a. Less than 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. More than 25

12. Do you ever see U.S. television programs when you watch television? Yes
 No
 Which programs?

13. I believe that U.S. television programs show characters that reflect average Americans.

STRONGLY DISAGREE DISAGREE NEITHER AGREE STRONGLY
 DISAGREE AGREE NOR DISAGREE AGREE

14. Are there entertainment television programs or movies from the United States that you **like**? Yes No
 Please explain.

15. Are there entertainment television programs or movies from the United States that you particularly **dislike**? Yes No
 Please explain.

16. Do you ever see Russian television programs which are adapted versions of American (talk shows, reality shows, other shows) when you watch television? Yes
 No
 Which programs?

17. Adapted to Russian TV American programs are...

STRONGLY UNATTRACTIVE UNATTRACTIVE NEITHER ATTRACTIVE STRONGLY
 UNATTRACTIVE ATTRACTIVE NOR UNATTRACTIVE ATTRACTIVE

18. Do you ever read Russian magazines which are adapted versions of American/Western magazines? Yes No
 Which magazines?

19. Russian versions of American/Western magazines are...

STRONGLY
UNINTERESTING AND
UNUSEFUL

UNINTERESTING
AND UNUSEFUL

NEUTRAL
ATTITUDE

INTERESTING
AND USEFUL

STRONGLY
INTERESTING
AND USEFUL

Think about an average week and the amount and types of media that you consume. Try to think about how much of that media originates in the United States or in Russia. In the spaces below write the percentage of U.S. or Russian media you consume out of the total time you spend using that media.

(For example if you watch 10 hours of TV each week and 2 hours are U.S. programs, then 20% of your time is spent watching U.S. TV.)

20. What percentage of your total television viewing is spent with U.S. **television programs**?

_____ %

21. What percentage of your total radio listening is spent with U.S. **radio stations**?

_____ %

22. What percentage of your total cinema visits are spent watching U.S. **movies**?

_____ %

23. What percentage of your total video/DVD viewing is spent with U.S. **videos/DVDs**?

_____ %

24. What percentage of your total use of recorded music is spent listening to U.S. **music**?

_____ %

25. What percentage of your total Internet usage is spent surfing U.S. **web sites**?

_____ %

26. What percentage of your total newspaper readership is spent with U.S. **newspapers**?

_____ %

27. What percentage of your total magazine readership is spent with U.S. **magazines**?

_____ %

28. What percentage of your total book reading is spent with U.S. **books**?

_____ %

29. What percentage of your total comic readership is spent with U.S. **comics**?

_____ %

30. What percentage of your total television viewing is spent with Russian **television programs**?

_____ %

31. What percentage of your total radio listening is spent with Russian **radio stations**?
 _____ %
32. What percentage of your total cinema visits are spent watching Russian **movies**?
 _____ %
33. What percentage of your total video/DVD viewing is spent with Russian **videos/DVDs**?
 _____ %
34. What percentage of your total use of recorded music is spent listening to Russian **music**?
 _____ %
35. What percentage of your total Internet usage is spent surfing Russian **web sites**?
 _____ %
36. What percentage of your total newspaper readership is spent with Russian **newspapers**?
 _____ %
37. What percentage of your total magazine readership is spent with Russian **magazines**?
 _____ %
38. What percentage of your total book reading is spent with Russian **books**?
 _____ %
39. What percentage of your total comic readership is spent with Russian **comics**?
 _____ %

Below are questions about your views toward a number of governments in various countries, their foreign policies as well as the people of those countries.

40. What do you think about **the government of the United States**?

Very Unfavorable	Somewhat Unfavorable	Somewhat Favorable	Very Favorable	Don't Know/ Don't want to answer
------------------	----------------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------------------------

41. What do you think about **American foreign policy**?

Very Unfavorable	Somewhat Unfavorable	Somewhat Favorable	Very Favorable	Don't Know/ Don't want to answer
------------------	----------------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------------------------

42. What do you think about **the American people**?

Very Unfavorable	Somewhat Unfavorable	Somewhat Favorable	Very Favorable	Don't Know/ Don't want to answer
------------------	----------------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------------------------

43. What three words would you use to describe the **United States government**?

44. What three words would you use to describe the **American people**?

45. What three words would you use to describe the **cultural heritage of America**?

For each statement, please CIRCLE a number from 1 to 5 that indicates the extent to which the statement applies to your opinion about American people:

46. American people are:

Violent Peaceful
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

47. American people are:

Greedy Generous
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

48. Many American **women** are:

Sexually immoral Decent
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

49. Americans are:

Intolerant to other cultures Tolerant to other cultures
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

50. American people are:

Materialistic Spiritual
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

51. American people are:

Not religious Very religious
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

52. American people:

Like to dominate Do not like to
dominate other people other people
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

53. Many American people:

Engage in Do not engage in
criminal activities criminal activities
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

54. American people are:

Not sympathetic Very sympathetic
with their poor with their poor
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

55. American people:

Do not have Have strong
strong family values family values
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

56. If I had the opportunity:

I would not like to I would like to
live in the United States live in the United States
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

57. How do you feel about spreading American customs and ideas in your country?

It is bad It is good

1.....2.....3.....4.....5

58. American music, movies and television are:

Production of bad quality Production of good quality

1.....2.....3.....4.....5

59. Muslims who live in America are:

Treated unfairly Treated fairly

1.....2.....3.....4.....5

60. When you think of the United States, what three brands of products or services come to your mind?

61. Which U.S. brands do you like the most?

62. Which U.S. brands do you dislike the most?

63. Which of the following statements best reflects your views?

- a. I prefer to buy products with U.S. brands.
- b. Some of the time I will NOT buy products with a U.S. brand if I can find another one not from the U.S.
- c. I do not care if the products that I buy are from the U.S. or not, I choose the products that I like best, regardless of the national origin of the brands.
- d. Most of the time I will NOT buy products with a U.S. brand if I can find another one not from the U.S.
- e. I refuse to buy any products with a U.S. brand.

64. If you have a choice, how would you like to travel to the USA?
- Tourism
 - Business trip for affairs of the firm registered in Russia
 - Permanent job in the United States
 - Emigration
 - Studying in an American school/university
 - Marriage
 - It does not matter for me how to go to the USA
 - I do not want to go to the USA

65. Have you ever heard that the U.S. government finances educational programs which offer international students from Russia to study in America for free? Yes ___ No ___
If yes, which programs?

66. Have you ever applied for studying in America? Yes _____ No _____

67. What is your opinion toward the quality of American education?

VERY BAD BAD OK GOOD EXCELLENT

68. You think that to get a degree in an American university is...

DISGRACEFUL NOT PRESTIGIOUS ORDINARY PRESTIGIOUS VERY PRESTIGIOUS

69. Do you believe you can get you degree in an American University? Yes _____ No _____
Why yes or why no?

70. Where would you go to study if you had a choice?

- America
- Russia
- Other country _____
- I am not planning to study any more
- I do not want to answer

There are only a few more questions. These questions are about you.

71. Are you Male _____ or Female _____?

72. Your age is: _____

73. Do you speak English fluently? YES _____ NO _____

74. Do you study in English? YES _____ NO _____

75. Do you have a job? YES _____ NO _____
76. What is your occupation? _____
77. Do you attend school on a full time basis? YES _____ NO _____
78. What is your field of academic study? _____
79. Your country of citizenship _____
80. Your country of residence _____
81. Your ethnicity _____
82. Have you ever visited the U.S.? Yes _____ or No _____
83. If yes, did you like America?
- Did not like it at all Did not like it Have neutral feelings I liked it I liked it very much
84. Do you know anyone in the U.S.? Yes _____ or No _____
85. Please describe who you know – are they friends, relatives, co-workers or others?
86. Would you like to visit the U.S. some day? Yes _____ or No _____
87. Would you like to get acquaintance with an American? Yes _____ or No _____
88. Which of the following do you have access to on a regular basis?
 ___ the Internet
 ___ e-mail (electronic mail)
 ___ both
89. Do you have regular e-mail contact with friends, co-workers or relatives in the U.S.?
 Yes _____ No _____

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN OUR STUDY!

Исследование глобальных средств массовой информации

Спасибо за Ваше согласие участвовать в исследовании, целью которого является выявление отношения русских студентов к Соединенным Штатам Америки. Анкетный опрос займет 20 – 25 минут Вашего времени. Это исследование является частью магистерской диссертации по дисциплине «Массовые коммуникации» и подготовлено магистрантом государственного университета штата Оклахома. Анкетирование анонимно, поэтому, пожалуйста, не указывайте Ваше имя. Информация, которую Вы предоставляете, ни в каком случае не коснется Вас лично.

1. Какими средствами массовой информации Вы наиболее часто пользуетесь для получения местных, национальных новостей (укажите все используемые Вами источники)?
 - a. Телевидение
 - b. Газеты
 - c. Радио
 - d. Журналы
 - e. Интернет
 - f. Друзья/родственники
 - g. Другое
 - h. Не знаю/Не хочу отвечать

2. Какими средствами массовой информации Вы наиболее часто пользуетесь для получения международных новостей (укажите все используемые Вами источники)?
 - a. Телевидение
 - b. Газеты
 - c. Радио
 - d. Журналы
 - e. Интернет
 - f. Друзья/Родственники
 - g. Другое
 - h. Не знаю/Не хочу отвечать

3. Какими средствами массовой информации Вы наиболее часто пользуетесь для получения новостей о Соединенных Штатах Америки (укажите все используемые Вами источники)?
 - a. Телевидение
 - b. Газеты
 - c. Радио
 - d. Журналы
 - e. Интернет
 - f. Друзья/Родственники
 - g. Другое
 - h. Не знаю/Не хочу отвечать

4. Какой основной источник информации Вы используете, чтобы получить новости о Соединенных Штатах Америки?
 - a. Международные средства массовой информации
 - b. Американские средства массовой информации
 - c. Российские средства массовой информации
 - d. Другие средства массовой информации
 - e. Затрудняюсь ответить

5. Какой основной источник информации Вы используете, чтобы получить новости о российско-американских отношениях?
 - a. Международные средства массовой информации
 - b. Американские средства массовой информации
 - c. Российские средства массовой информации
 - d. Другие средства массовой информации
 - e. Затрудняюсь ответить

6. Какое примерно количество часов в неделю Вы смотрите телевизор?
 - a. Меньше, чем 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. Более 25 часов

7. Как часто Вы ходите в кинотеатры, чтобы посмотреть фильм?
 - a. Меньше 1 раза в месяц
 - b. 1-4 раза в месяц
 - c. 4-10 раз в месяц
 - d. Более 10 раз в месяц

8. Как часто Вы смотрите фильмы на видео и DVD?
 - a. Меньше 1 раза в месяц
 - b. 1-4 раза в месяц
 - c. 4-10 раз в месяц
 - d. Более 10 раз в месяц

9. Какое примерно количество часов в неделю Вы пользуетесь Интернетом?
 - a. Меньше, чем 5
 - b. 5-10
 - c. 10-15
 - d. 15-20
 - e. 20-25
 - f. Более 25 часов

10. Какое примерно количество часов в неделю Вы читаете газеты?

- a. Меньше, чем 5
- b. 5-10
- c. 10-15
- d. 15-20
- e. 20-25
- f. Более 25 часов

11. Какое примерно количество часов в неделю Вы читаете журналы?

- a. Меньше, чем 5
- b. 5-10
- c. 10-15
- d. 15-20
- e. 20-25
- f. Более 25 часов

12. Смотрите ли Вы американские ТВ программы во время просмотра телевизора?
_____ Да _____ Нет

Какие именно американские программы Вы смотрите?

13. Я уверен, что американские ТВ программы показывают американских людей такими, какие они есть в настоящей жизни.

ПОЛНОСТЬЮ НЕ СОГЛАСЕН	НЕ СОГЛАСЕН	ОТНОШУСЬ НЕЙТРАЛЬНО	СОГЛАСЕН	ПОЛНОСТЬЮ СОГЛАСЕН
--------------------------	-------------	------------------------	----------	-----------------------

14. **Нравятся** ли Вам какие-либо американские развлекательные ТВ-программы или фильмы?

_____ Да _____ Нет

Поясните, пожалуйста, почему.

15. Какие американские развлекательные ТВ-программы или фильмы Вам **не нравятся**?

_____ Да _____ Нет

Поясните, пожалуйста, почему.

16. Смотрите ли Вы российские программы, которые являются адаптированными версиями американских ТВ программ (ток-шоу, реалити-шоу, другие программы) во время просмотра телевизора? ___ Да ___ Нет
Какие именно американские программы Вы смотрите?

17. Вы находите адаптированные версии американских ТВ программ:

СОВЕРШЕННО НЕ УВЛЕКАТЕЛЬНЫМИ	НЕ УВЛЕКАТЕЛЬНЫМИ	ОТНОШУСЬ НЕЙТРАЛЬНО	УВЛЕКАТЕЛЬНЫМИ	ОЧЕНЬ УВЛЕКАТЕЛЬНЫМИ
------------------------------	-------------------	---------------------	----------------	----------------------

18. Читаете ли Вы адаптированные версии американских журналов?
_____ Да _____ Нет

Какие именно американские программы Вы смотрите?

19. Вы находите адаптированные версии американских журналов:

СОВЕРШЕННО НЕ ИНТЕРЕСНЫМИ И НЕ ПОЛЕЗНЫМИ	НЕ ИНТЕРЕСНЫМИ И НЕ ПОЛЕЗНЫМИ	ОТНОШУСЬ НЕЙТРАЛЬНО	ИНТЕРЕСНЫМИ И ПОЛЕЗНЫМИ	ОЧЕНЬ ИНТЕРЕСНЫМИ И ПОЛЕЗНЫМИ
--	-------------------------------	---------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------------

Подумайте о том, какое количество медиа продукции Вы потребляете в среднем за неделю. Какие типы средств массовой информации Вы при этом используете? Постарайтесь определить, какую часть потребляемой информации составляет американская медиа продукция, а какую – российская медиа продукция. В ниже представленных формах укажите процент времени, которое Вы тратите на медиа, в расчете на общее время, которые Вы тратите на СМИ еженедельно.

(Например, Вы проводите 10 часов в неделю у телевизора; два часа этого времени занимает просмотр американских программ; следовательно, Вы тратите на американские программы 20% Вашего времени.)

20. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на просмотр телевизора, занимает просмотр американских ТВ программ?
_____ %

21. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на прослушивание радио, занимает прослушивание американских радио станций?
_____ %

22. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на посещение кинотеатров, занимает просмотр американских фильмов?
_____ %

23. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на просмотр видео/DVD, занимает просмотр американских видео/DVD?
_____ %
24. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на прослушивание музыки, занимает прослушивание американской музыки?
_____ %
25. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на работу в Интернете, занимает просмотр американских веб-сайтов?
_____ %
26. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение газет, занимает чтение американских газет?
_____ %
27. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение журналов, занимает чтение американских журналов?
_____ %
28. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение книг, занимает чтение американских книг?
_____ %
29. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение комиксов, занимает чтение американских комиксов?
_____ %
30. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на просмотр телевизора, занимает просмотр российских ТВ программ?
_____ %
31. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на прослушивание радио, занимает прослушивание российских радио станций?
_____ %
32. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на посещение кинотеатров, занимает просмотр российских фильмов?
_____ %
33. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на просмотр видео/DVD, занимает просмотр российских видео/DVD?
_____ %
34. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на прослушивание музыки, занимает прослушивание российской музыки?
_____ %

35. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на работу в Интернете, занимает просмотр российских веб-сайтов?
_____ %
36. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение газет, занимает чтение российских газет?
_____ %
37. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение журналов, занимает чтение российских журналов?
_____ %
38. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение книг, занимает чтение российских книг?
_____ %
39. Какой процент Вашего общего времени, потраченного на чтение комиксов, занимает чтение российских комиксов?
_____ %

Следующие вопросы касаются Ваших взглядов на разные страны и людей, живущих в этих странах.

40. Пожалуйста, укажите, как Вы относитесь к **правительству Соединенных Штатов Америки.**

Очень Отрицательно	В целом Отрицательно	В целом Положительно	Очень Положительно	Не знаю/ Не хочу отвечать
-----------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

41. Пожалуйста, укажите, как Вы относитесь к **внешней политике Соединенных Штатов Америки.**

Очень Отрицательно	В целом Отрицательно	В целом Положительно	Очень Положительно	Не знаю/ Не хочу отвечать
-----------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

42. Пожалуйста, укажите, как Вы относитесь к **американскому народу.**

Очень Отрицательно	В целом Отрицательно	В целом Положительно	Очень Положительно	Не знаю/ Не хочу отвечать
-----------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	-----------------------	------------------------------

43. Какими тремя словами Вы описали бы **правительство США?**

44. Какими тремя словами Вы описали бы **американцев?**

45. Какими тремя словами Вы описали бы культурное наследие Америки?

Пожалуйста, обведите номер от 1 до 5 в соответствии со степенью Вашего согласия с утверждением.

46. Американцы:

Жестоки
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Миролюбивы

47. Американцы:

Жадные люди
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Щедрые люди

48. Большинство американских женщин:

Сексуально
безнравственны
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Порядочные
женщины

49. Американцы:

Не толерантны
(не терпимы к ближним)
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Толерантны
(терпимы к ближним)

50. Американцы:

Материалисты
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Духовные люди

51. Американцы:

Не религиозны
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Религиозны

52. Американцы:

Любят доминировать
над другими людьми
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Не любят доминировать
над другими людьми

53. Многие американцы:

Преступники
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Законопослушные граждане

54. Американцы:

Не заботятся
о бедных людях
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Хорошо заботятся
о бедных людях

Нам осталось задать несколько вопросов, связанных с Вашими персональными данными.

71. Ваш пол: мужской _____, женский _____.
72. Ваш возраст: _____.
73. Свободно ли Вы говорите на английском языке? ___ Да ___ Нет
74. Изучаете ли Вы дисциплины, преподаваемые на английском? ___ Да ___ Нет
75. У Вас есть работа? ___ Да ___ Нет
76. Где Вы работаете: _____.
77. Учиться ли Вы очно (полный учебный день)? ___ Да ___ Нет
78. Укажите Вашу учебную специализацию: _____.
79. Ваше гражданство: _____.
80. В какой стране Вы сейчас находитесь? _____.
81. Ваша национальность (этническая группа): _____.
82. Были ли Вы когда-либо в США? ___ Да ___ Нет
83. Если да, то понравилась ли Вам Америка?
Вовсе не понравилась Не понравилась Нейтрально Понравилась Очень понравилась
84. Знаете ли Вы кого-либо в США? ___ Да ___ Нет
85. Пожалуйста, опишите, кого Вы знаете из живущих в США (друзья, родственники, сослуживцы и т. д.).
86. Хотели бы Вы посетить США? ___ Да ___ Нет
87. Хотели ли Вы познакомиться с американцем(кой)? ___ Да ___ Нет
88. К каким из указанных видов коммуникации у Вас есть регулярный доступ?
_____ Интернет
_____ Электронная почта (E-mail)
_____ К обоим
89. Общаетесь ли Вы регулярно с Вашими друзьями, коллегами или родственниками в США по электронной почте? ___ Да ___ Нет

БОЛЬШОЕ СПАСИБО ЗА УЧАСТИЕ В ЭТОМ ИССЛЕДОВАНИИ!

VITA

Anastasia Kononova

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Arts

Thesis: MEDIA INFLUENCE ON RUSSIAN STUDENTS IN THEIR PERCEPTION OF AMERICA

Major Field: Mass Communications

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Lvov, Ukraine (the USSR), October 29, 1981, the daughter of Kapitolina and Georgy Kononov.

Education: Completed the requirements for the Master of Arts degree with a major in Mass Communications at Oklahoma State University in July 2006. Received Bachelor of Arts degree in International Journalism at Rostov State University, Rostov-on-Don, Russia in June 2003.

Experience: Chief coordinator for the conference *America, Russia, and the Commonwealth of Independent States: A New Generation builds New Relationships*, Stillwater, Oklahoma, October 2005 through April 2006. Intern for the Europe and Central Asia Desk in the Committee to Protect Journalists, New York, May through August 2005. Editor-in-Chief for a newsletter *Vse po polochkam*, Trade Company *DOM*, Rostov-on-Don, Russia, August 2003 through December 2004. Public Relations Manager for the NGO *Support and Sympathy*, Rostov-on-Don, Russia, April 2001 through May 2003. Correspondent for local newspapers and radio stations, Rostov-on-Don, Russia, October 1996 through November 2002.

Professional Membership: Membership in the Charles A. Fleming of the Kappa Tau Alpha National Journalism and Mass Communication Honor Society.

Name: Anastasia Kononova

Date of Degree: July 2006

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: MEDIA INFLUENCE ON RUSSIAN STUDENTS IN THEIR
PERCEPTION OF AMERICA

Pages in Study: 129

Candidate for the Degree of Master of Arts

Major Field: Mass Communications

Scope and Method of Study: The method of survey was employed in this study. A total of 87 Russian students were surveyed for this thesis project. The first group includes Russian students who have never been to America ("Russian Russians"); the second group consists of Russian students who go to school in America or have visited the United States ("Americanized Russians"). Descriptive statistics were examined and t-tests and standard regressions were conducted to analyze information gathered about the media consumption of participants, compare their attitudes toward America by group, and find relationships between media consumption and attitudes of students toward America.

Findings and Conclusions: Russian students with Internet access have a more positive image of America than Russian students who do not have Internet access. The Internet provides users with different types of information from different sources. Bilingual students such as "Americanized Russians" have access to both Russian and American sources, which partially balances their beliefs and opinions of America and reduces prejudices, stereotypes, and myths. A similar pattern of logic can be applied to another finding on the influence of American media on Russian attitudes toward America. The principle of proximity to news events can be applied to explain some of the results of this study. "Russian Russians" who did not believe they could ever visit America would have less interest in news about America. These young students did not believe in the "American dream" shown by American TV. A lack of knowledge can also influence the image of America in minds of Russians. "Russian Russian" students seemed to have a more limited knowledge of the United States of America than "Americanized Russian" students. Finally, some of the "Russian Russian" participants could not recall or identify sources of information about America.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. Paul Smeyak
