UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

ASSESSMENT OF MEDIA LITERACY IN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE NSAWAM-ADOAGYIRI MUNICIPALITY

MATILDA OSEI-ASIBEY

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NSAWAM-ADOAGYIRI MUNICIPALITY

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Matilda Osei-Asibey, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and that it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature: ………………………………

Date: ……………………………………

Supervisor's Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

PROF. ASONABA KOFI ADDISON, PHD (Principal Supervisor)

Signature: ………………….…………………

Date …………………………………………….

MRS. EMMA SARAH ESHUN (Co-Supervisor)

Signature: ………………………………

Date …………………………………….

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DEDICATION

To my lovely son, Andrian Nyameye Abora and my mother, Mrs. Monica Onwona

Akuamoah. May her gentle soul rest in perfect peace.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Support for media literacy education has grown significantly in recent years with teachers and students advocating for its inclusion in the curricula. However, there are manifest differences in the ways people use media in teaching and learning of school subjects as well as in the level of their competence. This study assessed media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. In order to achieve the purpose of the study, a descriptive survey design was employed. A sample size of 150 comprising 45 English language teachers and 105 students was used in the quantitative phase through multistage sampling technique. The research was underpinned and guided by pragmatist paradigm. Descriptive statistics involving frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation was used to provide counts of the factors underpinning the analysis of the questionnaire data and the demographic responses. In the qualitative phase, a sample size of 8 comprising 4 students and 4 teachers was employed. Data from the teachers' questionnaires were analysed using descriptive statistical methods involving frequency, percentages, mean, standard deviation and average per item rating. The qualitative data collected through the interview was analysed using thematic approach. The findings of the study revealed that students are sometimes given instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. It was also discovered that students and teachers do not feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding. The study recommends that the Ministry of Education through the Ghana Education Service should furnish basic schools with English Language curriculum that features media literacy so as to equip teachers with the requisite knowledge and skills to impact on the students they handle at school. It is suggested that further research be done in other basic schools in the country, as well as, in private basic institutions on the use of media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in order to do the comparative analysis on the system prevailing in these sectors. This suggestion comes against the backdrop that the study has a limited scope thus, involving students and teachers from sampled schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0   Overview

The chapter deals with the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations, organisation of the study and operational definition of terms.

1.1   Background of the Study

According to Kubey (2003), for twenty-five years now there has been a worldwide movement in media literacy education and this has been marked by a number of recent activities (p. 352). Educators of media around the world are meeting and sharing curricula, research, and strategies with increasing frequency. Children, adolescents, and adults use a wide variety of media in many parts of the world. These include news media and books, radio broadcasting and audio formats, film and television, computers and the Internet. In countries in which these media are based on constitutional rights securing freedom of opinion, information and the press, they offer a broad variety of programmes, from information and communication to entertainment and gaming to education and counselling (Tulodziecki & Grafe, 2012). Youth between the ages of 8 and 18 spend an average of over 7 ½ hours a day involved with media activities such as watching TV, listening to music, and playing video games (Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010).

Now, critical thinking skills are necessary to help youth navigate a complex and fast-changing information environment and to prepare them for a future in the 21st century workplace and community. Increasingly, educators and administrators recognize that teaching media literacy skills is a critical part of education in today's world. Teachers have been left on their own with the responsibility of meeting these

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guidelines of integrating media literacy education into course objectives. Teachers often create and incorporate media literacy education into their classes without having had any formal training in media literacy themselves and without utilizing evidence-based programmes or curricula. Schools of Education do not typically list courses on media literacy for degree requirements. In fact, the results of a survey designed to probe the availability of media literacy instruction in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education found that of the 242 colleges or universities that had a representative respond to the survey, only 158 (65%) of these institutions offered courses on media literacy (Stuhlman & Silverblatt, 2007).

Also 34 of those courses were offered under the discipline of Education as opposed to other disciplines like Communication or Media Studies. As Hobbs (2004) asserted, most teachers simply have not had the time or perceived the need to understand how to use media texts or media issues to promote critical thinking. Torres and Mercado (2006) in support of this position, argue that the inclusion of critical media literacy as part of the foundations of education, and for that matter a component of the core curriculum of teacher education, is long overdue. While media literacy as a field of study is rapidly growing in importance, it is not necessarily clear that educators receive sufficient instruction in basic media literacy skills and media literacy education pedagogy. Thus, there is currently a gap between best practice recommendations to employ evidence-based programmes, the objectives that teachers are expected to meet as outlined in educational standards, and the actual curricula and training opportunities available.

A great variety of perspectives exists in media literacy as it means many things to many people in academic literature (Martens, 2010). Traditionally, it has involved the ability to analyze and appreciate respected works of literature and, by

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extension, to communicate effectively by writing well. Media literacy according to UNESCO (2009) may be defined as the ability to access the media, to understand and evaluate critically their contents and to create communications in a variety of contexts. They argue that, the definition of media literacy is the result of the work of many different people (e.g., institutions, media professionals, teachers, educators) and it is built on three main elements: i) access to media and media content; ii) critical approach, ability to decipher media messages, awareness of how the media work; and iii) creativity, communication and production skills. Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and other new digital communication technologies.

Dvorghetsa and Shaturnayab (2015) also define media literacy as an individual's ability to access media, analyze, evaluate, and produce communication in different forms. It has been emphasized that media literacy education: requires active inquiry and critical thinking about the messages we receive and create; expands the concepts of literacy (i.e., reading and writing) to include all forms of media; builds and reinforces skills for learners of all ages, and like print literacy, those skills necessitate integrated, interactive and repeated practice; develops informed, reflective and engaged participants essential for a democratic society; affirms that people use their individual skills, beliefs and experiences to construct their own meanings from media messages (Scheibe & Rogow, 2008).

The value of media literacy is being gradually recognized worldwide. After the time of the lonesome innovators isolated in their classrooms, after the time of extended communities of practice around researchers and field practitioners working

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at the grassroots level, the moment of policy-makers has arrived (Parola & Ranieri, 2011). A threshold has been reached, where the body of knowledge concerning media literacy has matured, where the different stakeholders implicated in education, in media and in civil society are aware of the new challenges developed by the so-called Information Society, and the new learning cultures it requires for the well-being of its citizens, the peaceful development of civic societies, the preservation of native cultures, the growth of sustainable economies and the enrichment of contemporary social diversity. For a long time, it was believed that the main objective of media literacy was to demystify the ideological dimensions of media representations, thus developing critical sense.

As Cappello (2010) explains, media educators have long believed that any kind of media production in the classroom was a form of 'technicism', of 'cultural reproduction', of 'deference and conformity' to dominant media practices. This view has been widely criticized by several scholars (Cappello, 2010; Buckingham 2007). According to the new approaches to media literacy, the risk of 'technicism' still lingers on, but media creation cannot be reduced to just using devices and technological tools. Media have a symbolic value that plays a crucial role in the lives of young people and children by providing them with opportunities for creative self-expression and play (Cappello, 2010).

Social media has been an issue of interest to educational success. It is no doubt that language and communication play an important role in exchanging data and sharing information on the use of technology in education (Reinhardt & Zander, 2011). Social media tools such as Facebook and Twitter enhance communication and can potentially be exploited for language learning (Thurairaj, Roy & Subaramaniam, 2012). It has been incorporated in academic course content to encourage students'

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participation, which allows students to interact, learn and share information with others. There is research to suggest using social media in English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom helps facilitate language learning (Reinhardt & Zander, 2011). For example, Boonmoh (2010) found that using blogs in ESL writing class can encourage students to write and practise self-expression.

Similarly, Puthikanon (2009) states that using WebQuests in ESL reading class can improve critical thinking. Furthermore, Bakar, Latif, and Ya'acob (2010) carried out a study on how to integrate the blog as an educational tool in the ESL classroom. The results revealed positive responses from the students about using the blog in learning the second language. They perceived that the use of blog had generally enhanced their reading and writing skills, established their self-confidence, enhanced their communication skills and reduced their anxiety (Anankulladetch, 2017). It has become a productive learning tool, especially for the English Language learning students.

Teaching and learning of the English language is centered on reading comprehension, summary, grammar, spelling and writing skills and other such related areas to the disregard of oral communication skills. Owu-Ewie and Eshun (2015) assert that the language of education is crucial to learners' academic success. A survey of trends in the teaching and learning of the English language reveals that teaching and learning as key concepts go in tandem. The teaching of the English language by far needs to be done in a way and manner that will boost students' knowledge and enthusiasm in the language, as the standards and performances in the English language in the formal educational sectors have taken a down turn.

Many people are of the view that the teaching and learning of the English language in institutions in Ghana in recent times is centered on reading

comprehension, summary, grammar and writing skills to the disregard of oral communication skills. The use of the English language as the medium of instruction in Ghanaian schools, especially at the lower basic elementary level, dates back hundreds of years when foreign missionary workers set up schools. With the inception of formal education came the use of English as a formal language, and the indigenous language was considered inappropriate for use as a teaching tool.

Ghana's formal language is English although it has several indigenous languages. Ethnologists recently counted at least 79 different spoken languages and dialects in Ghana, with other language experts claiming that there are more than 100 different languages. The three major languages spoken, however, are Akan, Ewe, and Ga, but no part in Ghana is ethnically homogenous. This has led many to believe that the use of the English language came with the onset of formal education in Ghana. On the other hand, others believe that the use of the English language in Ghana came long before formal education. Some historians indicate the colonists exposed a selected few to the English language during colonial rule so they could act as interpreters for the colonial government. Some might argue that the training of interpreters was the beginning of British education in Ghana, and thus the introduction of the English language was for educational purposes.

Because most students in Ghana are unable to communicate fluently or learn effectively in English because they often come from non-English-speaking homes and backgrounds, the educational system should be restructured to provide specialized or modified instruction in both the English language and in academic courses. Some educators have suggested that developing teachers' skills specific to English Language instruction is critical to reducing regression in academic performance created by Ghana's English-only policy (Echevarria & Graves, 2001). Others have

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also suggested that English Language learners in Ghana need scaffolded instruction to facilitate their learning process and flexible grouping structures to allow them to interact with peers and discuss content, problem solve situations, and complete projects (Reiss, 2008). This practice will move students progressively toward stronger understanding and, ultimately, greater independence in the instructional language. In order to do well academically, Goldenberg (2008) argues that English Language learners must develop both conversational and academic language proficiency in English of which media literacy seeks to address.

1.2   Statement of the Problem

Research has shown that the language being used to teach the child has influence on his or her academic success (Qorro, 2009). There is positive and significant correlation between language performance and performance in other academic subjects (Owu-Ewie, 2012). This implies that students perform well in the subject being taught if they are proficient in the language of instruction. The corollary of this, according to Qorro (2009) is that students who are not proficient in the language of instruction generally perform poorly in subjects taught in that language. The language of instruction plays a major role in ensuring effective communication in the classroom. However, media literacy has been found to be one of the efficient means of improving the teaching and learning of English Language.

The increased scholarly attention for media literacy education may seem unproblematic at first sight. However, the academic literature reveals that media literacy education is a multifaceted (and contested) phenomenon. In finding out the kind of media literacy that pupils study in schools, Hobbs (2006) empirically examined instructional practices concerning the uses of video, films and other mass media in the K-12 classroom (Martens, 2010).

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Many teachers use video and mass media in routine ways without much explicit reflection on their education aims and goals. This study found little evidence of the critical use of popular media such as facebook, twitter etc. in the classroom. Referring to the use of digital media in order to support teaching and learning processes in schools, OECD (2011) argues that while school books and other print materials are used regularly, the empirical data concerning the use of computer and Internet is disillusioning.

Researches have revealed that media literacy can be used to enhance students' learning abilities through interactions among learners and teachers (Al-Rahmi & Othman, 2013; Olaleke, Iroju & Olajide, 2015). Media literacy integration therefore facilitates students' academic experience, which relates to students' academic performance. This is because, media literacy increases a chance of student learning outside the traditional classroom situation.
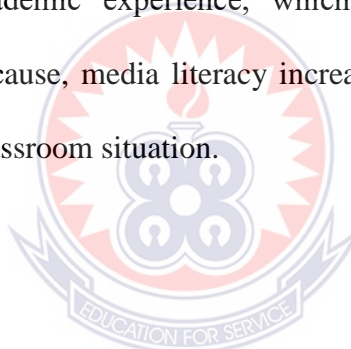
The dearth of evaluation of media literacy education programs has been cited by many studies (Hobbs & Frost, 2003). There is certainly a need for more study in this area, but what research there is seems to imply that media literacy education can produce measurable results in children's ability to analyze, critique, and produce media messages. Worth (2004) asserts that media literacy evaluation research has been conducted in two forms, experimental and observational. They both give insights into how children are learning about media. There is also evidence that profound effects can occur when media literacy is integrated into the curriculum, rather than taught as a stand-alone or one-off special subject. For instance, Buckingham (2007) claims that effective practices in media education empower pupils to take active rather than passive role in acquiring new knowledge and skills. In this way, they become fully able to participate as critical consumers and citizens in a media-saturated society. According to Martens (2010), media literacy when well integrated in the curriculum can help to maximize positive media effects and in turn minimize negative ones.

Contrarily, studies have also proved that social media can be detrimental to students' academic life if caution is not taken in its usage. For instance, the study conducted by Obi, Bulus, Adamu and Sala'at (2012) concluded that social media has negative effects on students use of English. They use short-handwriting when chatting with friends and unconsciously get used to it thereby replicating same errors during examinations. Even though one may argue that these are minor challenges, it is important to acknowledge the increasing rate at which these errors are replicated in the education sector and if care is not taken future generation may see it as a norm. Maya (2015) among others have revealed unequivocally that social media can be problematic to students' academic life if caution is not taken in its usage.

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In spite of these negative effects associated with the use of media in learning, media undoubtedly generate new opportunities to engage students in education as they are remarkably effective at connecting people and facilitating the exchange of information.

It is in view of this backdrop that this study seeks to assess the media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to assess media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

1.4 Research Objectives

The following specific objectives guided the study:

1. to identify the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

2. to explore teachers' and pupils' competencies in the use of media in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

3. to investigate the impact of media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

4. to find out the challenges encountered in teaching and learning of English Language using media in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

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1.5   Research Questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

2. What are teachers' and pupils' competencies in the use of media in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

3. What are the impact of media literacy on teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

4. What challenges do teachers and pupils face in using media in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

1.6   Significance of the Study

This study will contribute to English Language education in Ghana in a number of ways. Firstly, it adds significantly to the advancement of teaching and learning of English Language as it provides teachers and school principals with effective technological strategies and tools to help facilitate instructional practices so as to ensure students' success in the field of academics.

Also, the findings of the study will contribute to knowledge by drawing the attention of education planners to the need for the integration of technology through media literacy into the English curriculum in order to facilitate the learning of English Language through effective communication.

This, in one way or the other, will help students to learn how to manage their use of social media platforms while also attaching importance to doing their class works and home works.

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Also, the results of the study will help policy makers especially the Ministry of Education, with valuable information for enhancing policy guidelines, procedures and model that will help actualize the goal of media literacy education in Ghana.

Moreover, the utmost beneficiary of every classroom instruction is the learner. Assessment of media literacy in this study will help empower pupils through critical thinking and creative problem-solving skills in order to make them informed consumers and producers of information. This study to a larger extent can help improve pupils' academic achievement in learning of English Language as a discipline.

1.7   Delimitation

There are specific delimitations to this study. The primary delimitation is that this study is meant to focus on the assessment of media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality and does not assess media literacy in the teaching and learning of other disciplines.

1.8   Organisation of the Study

The study was presented in six (6) chapters. Chapter one provides a general introduction to the study which includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance, delimitation and organisation of the study. Chapter two reviews the existing literature on media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language. This captured the theoretical, conceptual and empirical frameworks of existing and relevant literature on the subject matter. Chapter three presents the methodology employed in the study. This details research design, researchers' methodological position, research setting, population, sample and sampling techniques, research instruments, issues of validity and reliability, pre-testing, data collection procedures,

data analysis procedures, and ethical consideration.. Chapter four focuses on the report of results and findings of the study while chapter five captures the discussion of the findings. Finally, chapter six presents a summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Introduction

This section of the study centred on the review of related literature regarding the study. In view of this, the literature took due cognisance of the theoretical and conceptual framework, as well as, empirical studies underlying the research topic. It also focused on the variables in the four research questions raised for the study. Accordingly, the literature dwelled on the kinds of media used, teachers' and students' competencies in using these media, the impact of media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language and the challenges both teachers and students face in employing media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language.

2.1   Theoretical Framework

There are numerous theoretical frameworks that are useful in this study. Among them, the researcher anchors the study on one (1) major theory: Constructivism.

2.1.1 Constructivism

According to Jonassen (2006), constructivism is an epistemology that affects the way learning has been conceived the past decade. Lev Vygotsky, Jean Piaget, and John Dewey are the main proponents of this theory. From their viewpoint, the learner has come to be seen as increasingly active and selective in their use and interpretation of mass-media messages and the emergence of new communication technology have changed traditional assumptions of how people use media (Baran & Davis, 2012). They argue that notions about an active learner that uses media content to create meaningful experiences are at the center of current communication perspectives. An

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active learner is at the basis of constructivist learning theory. Ertmer and Newby (1993) state "as one moves along the behaviorist – cognitivist – constructivist continuum, the focus of instruction shifts from teaching to learning, from the passive transfer of facts and routines to the active application of ideas to problems" (p. 66). Therefore, learners from the constructivists' point of view are not only active processors of information but also creating and constructing meaning. This is one of the most basic philosophical assumptions underlying constructivism.

Constructivists do not necessarily deny the existence of a material world, but they argue that it is not the material world which conveys meaning. Rather, it is the language system or any other system that is used to represent this material world (Hobbs & Jensen, 2009). One of the main differences of constructivism with objectivism is that it does not assume that the mind can mirror the world (or reality). Instead, it assumes that reality is in the mind of the learner (Jonassen, 2006). The learner interprets the world based on his or her prior beliefs, mental structures, and experiences. Meaning therefore does not simply exist, but is a function of how the individual creates meaning from his or her experiences (Jonassen, 2006). This according to Buckingham (2007) relates to a concept described as the zone of proximal development by Vygotsky (1978).

He defines the zone of proximal development as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). When teaching media literacy, the teacher should therefore not just stand on the side, but work in these 'zones of proximal development' and guide or scaffold his or her pupils. They are required to help pupils to construct their own meaning instead of structuring it for

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them. This means that instructional goals and objectives in everyday classroom should be negotiated, not imposed.

According to Schilder (n.d.), task and content analysis should focus less on identifying and prescribing a single, best sequence for learning. Consequently, evaluation of learning would then become less criterion-referenced. This view on reality therefore alters the way instruction should be designed and assessed. For example, context gains importance in instruction since learning occurs best in context. They claim that the context in which knowledge is developed and deployed is not separable from learning and that cognition and human actions are dependent on the context in which they occur. Learning becomes more real and meaningful if we are able to create meaning in context (Schilder, n.d.). According to Hall (1997) "it is social actors who use the conceptual systems of their culture and the linguistic and other representational systems to construct meaning, to make the world meaningful and to communicate about that world meaningfully to others" (p. 25). According to Jonassen (1991), our world is created by our minds, so no world is more real than another world. Learners are therefore increasingly seen as active constructors of meaning.

Duffy and Jonassen (1992) have argue that because of two changes in the world scholars have return to constructivism. These are the volume of information in society and the new opportunities provided through technologies. Duffy and Jonassen (1992) state that the information age and technological capabilities have caused us to conceptualize the learning process again and to design new instructional approaches. Information is rapidly changing and more readily available.

Mastering and storing of information have become less important or even impossible, as there is too much information to store and since information rapidly

changes over time (Hobbs & Jensen, 2009). Media literacy is a field that particularly plays into this. The changes in information and technologies are often mentioned as the reason or purpose for media literacy education (Buckingham, 2007). Because of these changes, Duffy and Jonassen (1992) argue that the goal of education should not be to master content, but rather to understand and use information to solve a real-world problem. This understanding and use of information also appears as one of the goals of media literacy education. Consequently, the marriage of media literacy and constructivist learning theory seems logical.

In summary, media literacy scholars have itemized their conceptual understandings to provide a theoretical framework for teachers who would like to teach media literacy of the field over the years (Hobbs, 2004). Many of them have currently agreed over the new democratic and constructivist paradigm which focuses on preparing pupils rather than protecting them. Constructivism however alters the relationship of the teacher and the student as: Teacher rarely tells pupils a personal opinion about a particular issue; does not accept a single statement as an answer to a question; and encourages student-student interaction as opposed to student-teacher interaction (Hobbs & Jensen, 2009).

2.2   The Concept of Media Literacy

Nowadays, the term literacy is much broader than it used to be in the previous centuries. Baker, Rozendal and Whitenack (2000) argue that in the 21st century "what it means to be literate has changed due to the change in culture demands. This is because, our culture today is becoming more technological as we spend more time watching television and using computers.

Media literacy is typically defined as the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and produce communication in a variety of forms including books, newspapers,

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magazines, videos, movies, recorded music, and everything available via the Internet (Dvorghetsa & Shaturnayab, 2015). In other words, it is the ability to access the media, to understand the media and have a critical approach towards media content and to create communication in a variety of contexts. Media literacy can also be considered as the ability to access, understand and have a critical approach towards media content and to create communication in a variety of contexts (Slavikova, 2014).

According to Slavikova, teachers use the media in their ENGLISH classroom, mainly for the purpose of language teaching. Consequently, they also teach the pupils how to work with the media and how to interpret the content they offer. Hence, language lessons can significantly contribute to the teaching of media literacy.

For a long time it was believed that the main objective of media literacy education was to demystify the ideological dimensions of media representations, thus developing critical sense. This preference for critical analysis led to a substantial devaluation of "production creation" activities, because they were considered of no pedagogical value. As Cappello (2010) explains, media educators have long believed that any kind of media production in the classroom was a form of technicism. This view has been widely criticized by several scholars (Cappello, 2010; Livingstone 2011; Buckingham, 2007).

According to the new approaches to media literacy, the risk of 'technicism' still lingers on, but media creation cannot be reduced to just using devices and technological tools. Media have a symbolic value that plays a crucial role in the lives of young people and children by providing them with opportunities for creative self-expression and play.

Media literacy refers also to the skills, knowledge and understanding to enable citizens to use media effectively (Parola & Ranieri, 2011). It should empower them

through critical thinking and creative problem-solving skills to make them informed consumers and producers of information. Media literacy is an extremely important factor for active citizenship in today's information society, a real key pre-requisite just as literacy was at the beginning of the twentieth century. It is a fundamental skill not only for the young generation but also for adults (elderly people, parents, teachers and media professionals). As a result of the evolution of media technologies and the presence of the Internet as a distribution channel, an increasing number of Europeans can now create and disseminate images, information and contents. In this context, media literacy is viewed as one of the major tools in the development of citizens' responsibilities.

Despite the efforts at incorporating media literacy education into course objectives, teachers have been left, for the most part, with the responsibility of meeting these guidelines on their own. Teachers often create and incorporate media literacy education into their classes without having had any formal training in media literacy themselves and without utilizing evidence-based programs or curricula. Schools of Education do not typically list courses on media literacy for degree requirements. In fact, the results of a survey designed to probe the availability of media literacy instruction in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education found that of the 242 colleges or universities that had a representative respond to the survey, only 158 (65%) of these institutions offered courses on media literacy (Stuhlman & Silverblatt 2007). As Hobbs (2004) asserted, "most teachers simply have not had the time (or the perceived need) … to understand how to use media texts or media issues to promote critical thinking" (56). Similarly, Torres and Mercado (2006) state that "the inclusion of critical media literacy as part of the foundations of education, and hence a component of the core curriculum of teacher education, is long overdue" (p. 278).

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While media literacy as a field of study is rapidly growing in importance, it is not necessarily clear that educators receive sufficient instruction in basic media literacy skills and media literacy education pedagogy. Thus, there is currently a gap between best practice recommendations to employ evidence-based programs, the objectives that teachers are expected to meet as outlined in educational standards, and the actual curricula and training opportunities available.

It is apparent that media literacy has become a fundamental piece in the pyramid of literacies, which the civilised people encounter in their everyday lives. It is not only necessary to know how to utilise the media, but also how to abstract trustworthy information from them. Warlick (2004) supports this notion by asserting that, what our children know will be less important than what they can do with it considering the rapid changing world. He further argues instead of considering information to be the end product, we must look at information as a raw material that pupils not only learn, but also use in some way. The 21st century pupils of English should be trained to be successful information seekers and they should know how to process the information for their own benefit. If the English teachers work with the new media in their English classrooms on a regular basis, they help their pupils to achieve this goal more easily.

2.3   Kinds of Media used in Classrooms

Education should prepare pupils for the real life. Nowadays, many people live in the world where the media are ubiquitous and as Tafani (2009) postulates, essential because we get to know the world through using them. Media work as tools which provide people with the information about the world. It is the reason why the media can be considered to be a useful instrument, which can help pupils with their learning.

Support for media literacy education has grown significantly in recent years with teachers and teacher educators alike advocating for its inclusion in programs and curricula. Domine (2011) even offered media literacy education as a framework for teacher education, noting that the "multidimensional nature of media literacy education renders it a meaningful framework with which to conceptualize the pursuit of technological proficiency, promote pedagogical excellence, and to magnify the democratic ideals and purposes of public education in the United States" (p. 194). While scholars have argued that media literacy in teacher education is critical, undergraduate teacher preparation programs rarely include media literacy especially in elementary programs.

This anecdote holds back media literacy as something ill fit for the English curriculum and the classroom that have never given media literacy a concrete look at what it could teach students about critical thinking and messages that are upon them every day. Mass media is already educational. Those who argue for media literacy in every curriculum insist that educators need to be proactive in encouraging students to be more thoughtful about their media environment and that, educators need to understand that teaching media literacy means teaching critical thinking and critical questioning.

However, teachers' media use varies across contexts and is markedly different in respect to preferred tools, focused activities and instructional goals (Suwannasom, 2010). According to Slavikova (2014), English teachers have used many more different types of media for conveying instruction and supporting learning since 1912. The mass media such as newspapers, movies, radio and television have been used alongside with the traditional educational media such as textbooks, chalkboards or overhead projectors. Slavikova asserts that English teachers can work with the interactive whiteboards, notebooks, tablets etc. due to the range of the media available today. According to Manioci (2018), the most traditional form of media used in the language classroom is print media such as textbooks, newspapers and magazines. Furthermore, textbooks are perhaps the most popular because of their immediacy and availability.

Despite the availability of various media used in the English classroom, it is commonly used for the purpose of bringing a piece of real world into the lesson (Chan, 2011). As Chan stated, "media are essentially realia to be brought into a classroom from the outside world in an attempt to make language activities appear more realistic, more interactive, and therefore, more meaningful" (p. 132). This is affirmed by Erbaggio, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs and Liu (2012) who argue that, media are regarded as motivators and as a means to overcome the cultural barrier to language learning. Erbaggio at al. further observe that using media (authentic materials) allows pupils to connect with the target culture in a more personal way than if the culture is presented uniquely through someone else's narrative (e.g., the authors of the English textbook). It means that the use of media in the English classrooms is essential for a successful second language acquisition.

It is obvious that the media can spice up the English lesson in many ways. Their great advantage is that some of them are multi-purpose, i.e. they are a combination of words, sounds and images or they sometimes even work through the tactile channels (Nguyen, 2014). It helps the pupils with their learning of English because it is generally assumed that the more senses are involved in the learning, the better is the understanding of the topic. Moreover, the media can help teachers to implement various discovery techniques into their English classrooms, which also usually brings positive learning outcomes. For example, pupils can be asked to read a magazine article or an online text and with the help of the accompanying pictures elicit the structure and the meaning of the given words.

Slavikova (2014) in his study found out that, the media which pupils use most often in their free time are the Internet (90%), portable computers (64%) and smartphones (63%). These are followed by television (39%), books (35%) and personal computers (31%). This is consistent to the PISA 2009 study results indicate that 64.6% of 15-year-old pupils use a computer at school (Nguyen, 2014). Magazines are the media which are most commonly used sometimes: 41% of respondents chose this option. The survey shows that the 21st century pupils only rarely read newspapers and listen to the radio. These results may be caused by the fact that both news and radio can be read and listened to on the Internet or they are provided by television.

These findings display that the new media such as the Internet, portable computers and smartphones are more popular with the secondary school English pupils than the old media. They spend much of their free time using them and they are probably familiar with their workings, benefits and drawbacks. It was found out in the Slavikova's survey that the traditional printed media such as textbooks, newspapers and magazines or books are similarly considered to be effective tools for studying

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English by the first graders. The traditional electronic media such as audio recordings or films and videos are also regarded as useful tools, which help with the study of English.

Erbaggio et al. (2012), who have compared the vocabulary teaching using a textbook with teaching the same using the Internet, give the second example. They observed that "employing internet-based activities permits teachers to address another deficiency evident in many foreign language textbooks, i.e. the lack of interactivity that enhances engagement, particularly among contemporary pupils, who prefer learning in a social environment. In language textbooks, vocabulary is often presented as a list of words to be memorized and used in the context of grammar-based exercises. Websites, with their active links, images, sounds, and texts, are purposely interactive and user-friendly, and consequently more engaging.

However, which types of the new media can be used in the English lessons? Nowadays, when the methodologists talk about the new media in language teaching, they usually mean by these the computers or more precisely their portable versions, i.e. laptops and tablets with the wireless Internet access. But they may also include smartphones, digital cameras or other types of the electronic media. In the study conducted by Stein and Prewett (2009), it was found out that the English teachers most commonly use textbooks and audio recordings in their lessons. Some of the teachers were identified to be using media such as newspapers and magazines, films and videos. Textbooks, audio recordings, films and videos or newspapers and magazines are also regarded as the most effective tools for teaching English.

Nguyen's (2014) study also revealed that more than half of the teachers surveyed also use a computer with the Internet often or sometimes, which means that this medium has already gained its place in the English lessons and it is used

repeatedly. He noted that almost all the teachers surveyed regarded this medium as effective.

In view of this discussion, it appears that many teachers only use a limited range of media tools and their technology still stays at a personal, rather than pedagogical level (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010). Teachers should be viewed as the agent of change with their variables of "knowledge, self-efficacy, pedagogical beliefs, and subject and school culture" having significant impact on their decisions of technology uptake in their classroom instruction (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010, p. 255).

2.4   Media Practices in the Classroom

Corresponding to the various conceptual views of media literacy education, there is an extensive variety of materials and examples of applications in schools (Tulodziecki & Grafe, 2012). They further stress that, though there are available empirical results with regards to the practice of media literacy in schools, yet there are still significant expansion needs. Gysbers (2008) found out that most primary school teachers consider that media should be integrated in as many school subjects as possible, and that students should learn in school to critically review and analyse media. As part of Gysbers's findings, the results showed that on average every teacher carried out 2.7 media literacy activities or projects of a given list of seven at least once in their teaching career. However, but only a few of them perform media-educational activities in their lessons as revealed in the findings of Tulodziecki and Grafe (2012).

In a foreign language learning context, Ramos (2001) described a project in which a group of Irish students of Spanish were encouraged to conduct comparative analysis and discussion on four articles focusing on the same issue but with disparate

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viewpoints and discourse strategies. Critical reading activities performed in the project included identifying sources of information, analyzing wording in the headline of articles, and analyzing discursive features of articles. Other complementary activities were a debate, a final written task, analysis of a song and some cartoons on the targeted issue. At the conclusion of the project, students claimed to have gained knowledge of the topic, become more aware of their positions, and acquired a certain degree of critical media literacy. While the success stories are encouraging, it has to be noted that development of media literacy may not always be achieved within a single course.

In Manuel's (2002) experimental study conducted in a US university to assess students' development of information and media literacy, students were first given instruction on media and information literacy and then asked to perform a close reading of an article from a popular science magazine and answer questions about the nature of the information (e.g., fact vs. opinion, primary vs. secondary), the purpose and intended audience of the text, the point of view of the text, among others. Her findings suggested that even after some preliminary instruction, students still often misread or inferred incorrectly. She therefore observed that for students to become critical media literate, they need to be given instruction on media that promotes critical thinking and creativity.

Stein and Prewett (2009) conducted a survey to determine teachers' familiarity with media literacy education in the classroom. In their study, many of the teachers had prior experience teaching about the media. More than two-thirds reported that they had some or a good deal of experience. All of the teachers had integrated media literacy education into the classroom to some degree. While few felt they had achieved a good deal of integration, more than half had integrated at least some media

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literacy education into their classrooms. Moreover, there were no teachers for whom media literacy education was entirely absent from the curriculum. Although most teachers agreed that media literacy education was important to their curriculum, many lacked confidence about their ability to analyze media in the classroom. Though Stein and Prewett (2009) perceived these teachers to be early adopters of media literacy education in the social studies classroom, their motivation to teach media literacy education was found out to be high, but yet they feel inadequately prepared to do so. This reflected in their response to the survey where majority agreed that they had no confidence in integrating media into the curriculum.

The cause of teacher uncertainty about how to integrate media literacy education into their curriculum according to Stein and Prewett (2009) may stem from a lack of knowledge about the state's media literacy education standards. This is evident in their study results where more than three-quarters of teachers conceded that they do not know whether their practices of media literacy correspond with the state academic standards or not. This result however seems to conflict with Tuggle, Sneed and Wulfemeyer's (2000) findings on the preparedness of social studies teachers for media literacy education. Their study reported that three-fourths of the teachers they surveyed felt qualified to employ media in their teachings. Despite the efforts at incorporating media literacy education into subject teaching, Scull and Kupersmidt (2012) claim that teachers have been left with the responsibility of meeting these goals on their own.

They further argue that teachers often create and incorporate media literacy education into their classes without having had any formal training in media literacy themselves and without utilizing evidence-based programs or curricula. According to Stuhlman and Silverblatt (2007), the results of a survey on the availability of media

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literacy instruction in United States Institutions of Higher Education found that of the 242 colleges or universities that had a representative respond to the survey, only 65% (158) of these institutions offered courses on media literacy.

2.5 Effects of Media Literacy on Instruction

Media literate pupils are supposed to have a better understanding of the information that they receive and are more likely to consider its quality and assumptions (Tulodziecki & Grafe, 2012). This means that media are capable of helping pupils to make judgments and ground them in good reasons. As a result, they are better able to succeed when faced with problems that have complex causes or debatable solutions. Most teachers would agree that one of the main goals of education is to help youth develop critical thinking abilities. The pedagogical practices encouraged in media literacy education are closely aligned with the practices recommended for developing critical thinking skills in that they provide students with a more active filter to process media images and messages. One specific set of critical thinking skills that is emphasized in media literacy education involves breaking down media messages in order to understand their underlying persuasive elements and is known as media deconstruction skills. For instance, in order to promote critical thinking, teachers must challenge pupils to ask questions about the target text (Fisher, 2007).

This suggests that media literacy education is in large part about the development of media scepticism where pupils must be motivated to engage in metacognition. Pupils who recognize the importance of critical thinking skills are more likely to use these skills. Using media and its tools such as internet, computer etc. motivate pupils to speak and help them integrate listening, reading, talking and writing skills through various kinds of activities (Tafani, 2009). The reading of

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newspapers in English, for instance, helps pupils advance their knowledge of current lexical items and idiomatic expressions and increases their ability to interpret, analyse, synthesize, and evaluate cultural texts beyond the comprehension of simple facts. Furthermore, the use of the old media in the English language classrooms brings positive motivation, interactivity and collaboration into the lessons. It can be achieved through activities such as analysing a text on a popular topic in a magazine, watching and discussing a teenage film or a short video or reconstructing a book story in pairs or groups. Such activities provide pupils not only with the language practice, but also with information

Critical thinking skills regarding media messages are also important for health outcomes. In fact, less advanced critical thinking skills predict higher rates of current use and future use of alcohol and tobacco in adolescents, even after controlling for other sources of influences including parents and peers (Kupersmidt, Scull & Benson, 2012). Critical thinking about media messages has several potential applications for school-based programs. One method commonly employed is to use media literacy education as a strategy to help protect youth from making harmful consumer-related choices (Hobbs, 2004; Thurairaj, Roy & Subaramaniam, 2012). According to Parola and Ranieri (2011) media literacy has the propensity to empower pupils to better able to produce counter arguments to beer advertisements, suggesting that media literacy education can affect the cognitive processing skills of youth. In addition, a recent evaluation of an alcohol and tobacco prevention media literacy education programme for middle school pupils found that after completing the program, all pupils strengthened their critical thinking skills and previous substance users reported a reduced intent to use alcohol or tobacco products in the future compared to pupils in the control group (Kupersmidt et al., 2012).

These studies provide compelling evidence that media literacy is a vital component of a substance abuse prevention plan. There is also evidence that profound effects can occur when media literacy is integrated into the curriculum, rather than taught as a stand-alone or one-off special subject (Scull & Kupersmidt, 2012). The highest gains have been observed in some of the lower order thinking skills in Bloom's taxonomy with pupils having greater difficulty with higher level thinking tasks (Hobbs & Frost, 2003; Martens, 2010).

A study conducted by Slavikova (2014) revealed among others that media tools (such as tablets) are suitable for working on the English projects because pupils can easily access information on the Internet and process it immediately into a presentation or use it in their further work. In this way, pupils can practice not only communication in English, but also collaboration with the others. He further argue that by using the electronic media for creative projects pupils are able to put language into meaningful practice both in and out of the classroom. Chen (2013) also stated that, using the media in the home encourages learning outside the classroom and helps integrate English into the real life of the pupils. This is to say the synthesis of formal and informal learning has a positive impact on pupils' future learning of English and other subjects. Chen approves it and explains that "by synthesizing learning inside and outside of the classroom, pupils are encouraged to take more responsibility for their learning, thus developing their independent learning skills and benefitting their future studies" (p. 21).

In addition to these classroom experiences, studies have also been carried out to assess the effect of media literacy education on learners' academic achievement. In Hobbs (2004), Grade 11 learners explored issues of objectivity, bias, and point of view in the news through a series of innovative media literacy activities. They also

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learned to examine gender and racial representations in the media and write essays on stereotypes reflected in media texts. Quasi-experimental evidence from this study demonstrated that students receiving media literacy education performed better in reading comprehension (measured by identification of main ideas and supporting details), critical reading (measured by identification of techniques used to attract and hold reader attention, identification of values and point of view, and identification of omitted information), and writing (measured by length of paragraph, spelling errors, and holistic score of writing quality).

Studies have found out that many of the educational applications come from the Anglophone countries so they are perfectly suitable for the English classrooms (Slavikova, 2014). He further stated that there are many free language applications and technologies available to the pupils (e.g. Learn English Grammar developed by the British Council or Two Min English targeted on developing fluency). These applications are usually attractive and easily navigated by the pupils. Among English teachers, media enable them to personalise and differentiate learning more readily because they offer a wide range of applications which are at hand (Chan, 2011).

This is an advantage because almost in every English classroom there are pupils who are faster and good enough to be able to work on more challenging activities whilst some other pupils struggle to complete the task and need some further help. Media also reinforces the role of the teacher as a facilitator. As it was observed by Bannister and Wilden (2013) that, when the pupils are engaged in project and collaborative learning on media, the teacher may need to take a less active role. However, they emphasise that this activity can, at first, feel daunting as the teacher may feel less in control of the lesson. This study affirms what Erbaggio et al. (2012) opined that, web-based teaching has a positive effect on communicative language

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teaching because the use of web based activities helps to foster an independent learning environment and the activities are largely student-centered.

Moreover, there are technologies which are now immensely popular among the 21st century pupils. In addition to e-mails and smartphones, these are social networking tools such as Facebook, Twitter and Youtube. The social networking tools are attractive in that they "enable more user-centered information creation and sharing" (Anankulladetch, 2017). For this reason, it has been found out that many teachers now encourage their learners to use these internet platforms in ways that go beyond sharing their work with an audience beyond the teacher, and which help prepare learners for the technological world – a world where our understanding of knowledge, culture, truth and authority are in the process of being rewritten (Motteram, 2013). This kind of openness, which the internet platforms offer, can be exploited in the English classrooms too.

In writing a personal blog in English or administering a website, pupils are asked to take on an active role and be the creators of the content (Motteram, 2013). Open learning may refer to open resources available online to everyone or it may be related to e-learning, i.e. the education via the Internet. However, according to Anankulladetch (2017), the core of the e-learning is that the individual determines how to proceed based on his or her unique needs, perceptions, and experiences, distinguishes known from unknown, identifies resources available to support learning efforts, and formalizes and tests personal beliefs. In open learning it is the student who decides when and how he or she will proceed and what he or she will learn. Such learning is supposed to promote autonomy, interactivity, working with different resources, questioning and critical thinking and all these skills may be utilised for the

benefit of the English learning as well. E-learning may help the pupils of English to explore the language actively and to proceed in their own pace.

In the study conducted by Sen (2017), teachers find the electronic media suitable for developing the cultural studies, listening and vocabulary, grammar and speaking. These findings prove that the electronic media are used for manifold purposes. From the Sen's study findings, teachers are not only aware of this fact, only 2 out of 105 respondents said that they do not use the electronic media at all, but the electronic media are also used for the development of a great variety of competencies especially in language skills and language systems. Again, the results from Sen (2017) study show that textbooks are considered to be the most effective medium, which helps the pupils to learn English vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and spelling effectively. Textbooks and portable computers were most effective tool for learning vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and spelling. However, several survey studies and numerous evaluations have been conducted on media use in the classroom.

There are similar studies concerning the increasing computer and Internet use in the classroom (Gysbers, 2008). Furthermore, portable and personal computers help the pupils with the acquisition of all four language systems almost equally, which is not true for textbooks, books or magazines. According to the pupils, these media do not support much the acquisition of pronunciation. The reason is that the new media offer multiple functions, which are integrated in one device. Therefore, they can be used fast and easily and they can help with the acquisition of all four language systems at once. This property makes them perfectly suitable for informal learning environments too.

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2.6   Challenges in Integrating Media into Teaching and Learning

In some studies, teachers have been asked to describe problems associated with the media use or reasons why they do not use media in their classroom. From the study of Kupersmidt, et al. (2012) and Hobbs and Frost (2003), teachers waive media because of a general time pressure, little recognizable value, other more suitable methods, insufficient media equipment and learning environments, inappropriate or missing software, and lack of technical knowledge. Moreover, as the functions and applications of the device perpetually change, it is necessary for the teachers to refresh their knowledge regularly and actively take part in the lifelong learning.

According to Martens (2010), many teachers may find this procedure too time-consuming and especially older teachers may find the manipulation with these too difficult.

Also, the typical fear of the teachers is the potential technical problems. That is, the media tools teachers are using could go wrong and they may not be able to repair them on the spot. A good preparation course should therefore prepare teachers for these situations and reassure them that they do not need to be technological experts to be able to use those media. As Worth (2004) noted, one of the most frequently named obstacles, which hinders the teachers in using media in their English lessons is the lesson preparation. Therefore, it could be recommended that the universities and colleges of education should structure their curricula to provide teachers with an appropriate training in media literacy.

According to Chan (2011), there is much concern among teachers that pupils will be involved in other tasks during the lesson and not be focused on what they should be doing. This may be solved by fixed rules about what is acceptable or not and with limited functions on the tablets, e.g. with the limited access to the Internet. It

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was found out in Slavikova's (2014) study that, teachers using media tools in their lessons asserted that they sometimes forget about the general aim of the lesson, i.e. to teach English, and rather focus on the technology itself.

However, it is important to bear in mind that the media tools one may be using is basically meant to make the process of learning and teaching of English more effective. As Hobbs (2004) asserted, majority of teachers have not had the time or yet perceived need to understand how to use media texts or media issues to promote critical thinking. However, it is worth to caution English teachers should teach pupils how to interpret the media, so that they could identify the possible disparities between the texts and the reality.

Hobbs and Frost (2003) examined high school teachers who implemented media literacy in their classrooms for one year and found that at the close of the study, teachers reported still being uncomfortable analyzing and having their pupils analyze advertisements. This important finding is consistent with our observations that media literacy skills are challenging to master, even for adults. Media literacy skills require the ability to engage in both abstract and flexible thinking while applying a general analytic rubric to the deconstruction of specific media message examples. Educators need to feel comfortable and confident in order to successfully include media literacy approaches, topics, and activities into the classroom. Today, new media are expensive and most schools are insufficiently equipped. This could go a long way to hinder the effective implementation of media literacy in schools.

2.9   Summary of Literature Review

There are numerous theoretical frameworks that are useful in this study. Among them, the researcher anchors the study on one major theory: Constructivism. From the constructivist viewpoint, the learner has come to be seen as increasingly active and selective in their use and interpretation of mass-media messages. Also the emergence of new communication technology have changed traditional assumptions of how people use media. The term media literacy has been defined in many ways and in different contents. Media literacy can simply be defined as the ability to access the media, to understand the media and have a critical approach towards media content and to create communication in a variety of context.

Media are considered essential because we get to know the world through using them. Media work as tools which provide people with the information about the world. It is the reason why the media can be considered to be a useful instrument, which can help pupils with their learning. However, teachers' media use varies across contexts and is markedly different with respect to preferred tools, focused activities and instructional goals. English teachers have used many different types of media for conveying instruction and supporting learning for centuries. The mass media such as newspapers, movies, radio and television have been used alongside with the traditional educational media such as textbooks, chalkboards or overhead projector. Research showed that, on the average, every teacher carried out media literacy activities or projects of a given list of seven at least once in their teaching career. However, only a few of them perform media-educational activities in their lessons.

Media literate pupils are supposed to have a better understanding of the information that they receive and are more likely to consider its quality and assumptions. This means that media are capable of helping pupils to make judgments

and ground them in good reasons. As a result, they are better able to succeed when faced with problems that have complex causes or debatable solutions. For instance, in order to promote critical thinking, teachers must challenge pupils to ask questions about the target text. Media literacy has the propensity to empower students' cognitive processing skills. It was also revealed among others that, media tools (such as tablets) are suitable for working on the English projects because pupils can easily access information on the Internet and process it immediately into a presentation or use it in their further work.

From literature, teachers and students assigned various reasons as to why they do not use media in their classroom. Teachers and students waive media because of a general time pressure, little recognizable value, other more suitable methods, insufficient media equipment and learning environments, inappropriate or missing software, and lack of technical knowledge. Moreover, as the functions and applications of the device perpetually change, it is necessary for the teachers to refresh their knowledge regularly and actively take part in the lifelong learning.

Due to the limited number of empirical studies on media literacy and its practices in Ghana, majority of the literature reviewed in the study were drawn from foreign studies. Also, researches have shown that media literacy has some positive influence on students while other researches have also shown that this same media literacy has negative impact on its users. It is against this gap that the study seeks to identify the media used, explore the teachers' and pupils' competence, investigate the impact and to find out the challenges encountered in the teaching and learning of English Language using media in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was adopted in carrying out the study. This comprises the research paradigm, the research design, the population, sample size, sampling technique, the research instruments, data collection procedure, the reliability and validity of the quantitative instrument, trustworthiness of the qualitative data, and data analysis plan. It also discusses the ethical issues that were followed in conducting the study.

3.1   Researcher's Methodological Position

Research paradigm is the philosophical or motivation for undertaking a study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The study was located basically in the pragmatic paradigm. Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy, but focuses on 'what' and 'how' of the research problem. Pragmatists advocate the use of mixed methods in research, and focus on finding out the truth regarding the research questions of the study. In view of this, mixed method approach was employed to gather the required data.

This method according to Bergman (2008) involves combining or integrating qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study in order to provide a broader perspective. Instead of focusing on one type of methodology, mixed methods researchers emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available (quantitative and qualitative) in order to come to a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. Both quantitative and qualitative research approaches have weaknesses. Quantitative research is weak in understanding the context or setting in which data is collected. Qualitative research may include biases and does not lend

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itself to statistical analysis and generalization. Mixed method approach however offsets these weaknesses by allowing for both exploration and analysis in the same study. This provides results that have a broader perspective of the overall issue or research problem.

3.2   Research Design

A research design is a plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analyzing data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The study employed descriptive survey design. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), descriptive research designs help provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how associated with a particular research problem; a descriptive study cannot conclusively ascertain answers to why. Descriptive research is also used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

The purpose of a descriptive study is to provide an in-depth description of a phenomenon or the relationships between two or more phenomena. Descriptive survey is considered appropriate for this study as it enables the researcher to assess media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language.

3.3   Settings

The Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality is approximately 23km from Accra the national capital. The Municipality is situated in the south eastern part of the Eastern Region between latitude 5'.45 N and 5'.58 N and longitude 0.07'W and 0.27' W. The Municipality has a total population of 86,000.It is bordered to the south by the Ga and Tema Municipalities of the Greater Accra Region, to the north by Akuapem North Municipality, to the west by Suhum Municipality and Upper West Akim District. The population of the Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality is 8,930,304; made up of

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4,644,919 males and 4,285,385 females. From the statistical data, 86 percent of the population aged 11 years and older in the district is literate. Close to two thirds (63.7%) of the literate population are literate in English and a Ghanaian language, with 24 percent being literate in English language (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The majority (46.4%) of the population in the district currently in school are in primary schools. Those in JHS and Kindergarten form 18.2 percent and 13.6 percent respectively. Less than 10 percent of the population currently in school is in SHSs with 3.7 percent in tertiary schools (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).
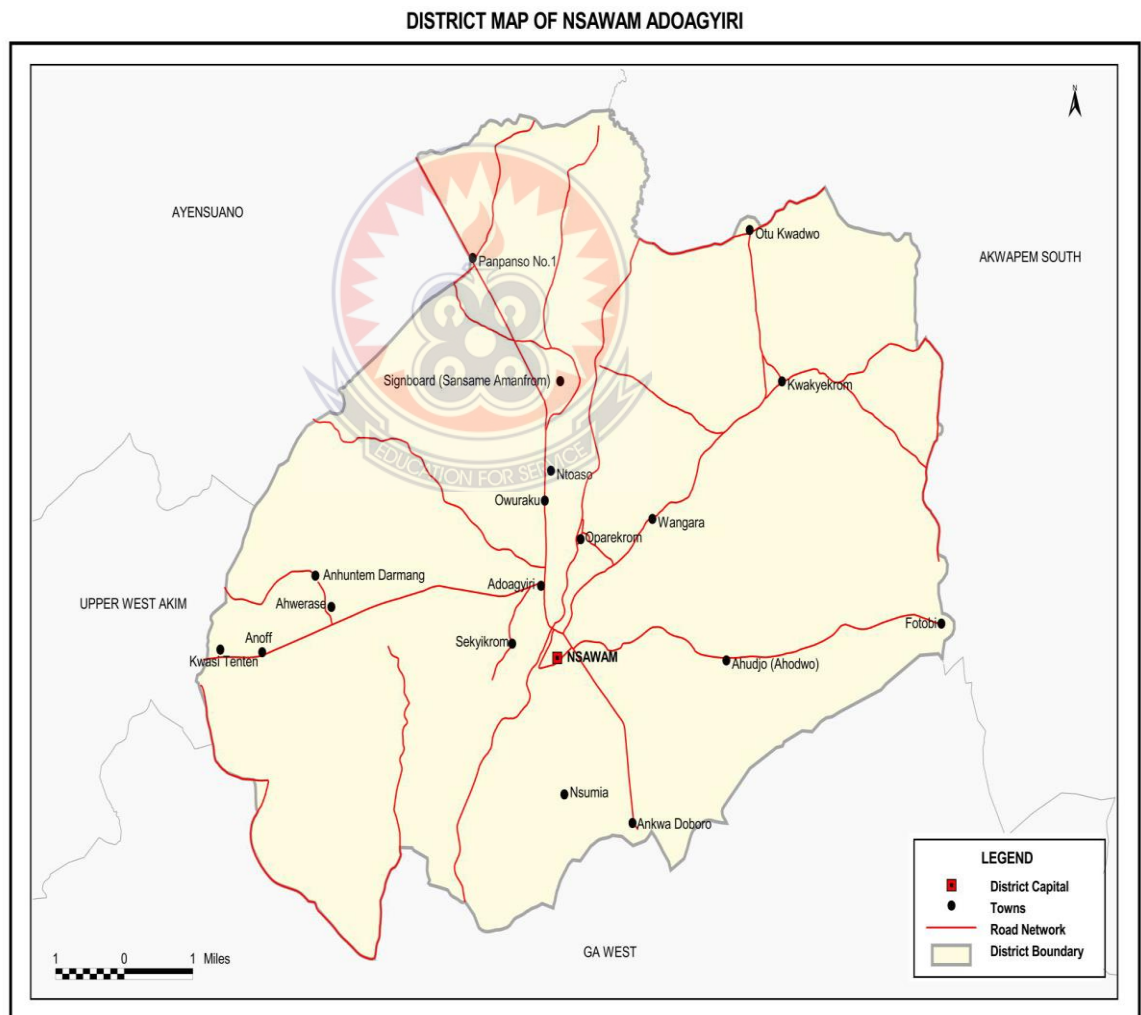
Source: Ghana Statistical Service, GIS (2014)

Figure 1: District Map of Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipal

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3.4   Population

To Anthony-Krueger and Sokpe (2006) population is the total number of the target of the research as defined by the objectives of the study. The target population for the study was made up of all Basic School English Language teachers and JHS pupils in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

The accessible population was made up of all JHS English Language teachers in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality**.** This population consists of 80 English language teachers and 5,528 students. (GES, Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality)

3.5   Sample

Babbie (2005) defines a sample as a small subset of a larger population whose selection is based on the knowledge of the elements of a population and the research purpose. The selection of this subset is done strategically and systematically so that the units or persons that meet a specific criterion are identified and selected. The sample size for the study was 150 comprising 45 English language teachers and 105 students.

In the qualitative phase, a sample size of 8 comprising 4 students and 4 teachers were employed. Yin (2014) propose 6 sources of evidence in qualitative, therefore, 8 participants is deemed appropriate.

3.6   Multistage Sampling

The study employed multistage sampling in selecting the required sample size. In multistage sampling, the final unit or element of population which is used in investigation is obtained after sampling at several stages (Alvi, 2014). Multistage sampling is based on the hierarchical structure of natural clusters within the population. In this technique, a different type of cluster is randomly sampled at each stage, with the clusters nested within each other at successive stages. Clusters are

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natural groupings of people – in this case, the 5 circuits. There are 5 circuits in the Nsawam-Aduagyiri municipality comprising 80 JHS English language teachers and 5,528 JHS students. In selecting 45 English language teachers from the 5 circuits (clusters), 3 strata were formed based on the various levels of JHS. Subsequently, 3 teachers were selected randomly from each stratum in each cluster to form 45 teachers. Also, 105 students were selected from the 5 circuits (clusters), 3 strata were formed based on the various levels of JHS. Following that, 7 students were selected randomly from each stratum within each cluster to form 105 students. These final units (samples) obtained were then investigated in the study. According to Asamoah-Gyimah and Duodu (2007), a sample of 10% to 30% to the accessible size is desirous in quantitative study. Therefore, 56% (n=45) of teachers of the accessible population is deemed appropriate for the study.

3.7   Research Instruments

The main research instruments that were used for data collection in this study were questionnaire and interview guides.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

The study employed a structured questionnaire (Appendix "A" and "B") as the research instrument to collect the required quantitative data for the study. The questionnaire consisted of only closed ended questions in two sections. Section 'A' gathered data on participants' demographic variables such as age, sex, professional qualification, years of teaching experience, and class in which they taught at the time of the study. The second part which is Section 'B' collected data on the kinds of media used in the teaching and learning of English Language. The instrument was

developed by the researcher from the literature review with inputs from the study's supervisor.

The research participants were required to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with 8 items on a 5-point Likert type scale that sought to ascertain benefits and challenges of media literacy by ticking 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Undecided, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. In an attempt to ascertain the kinds of media used in instruction and the extent to which they practice media literacy, 15 items on a 5-point Likert type scale with option 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often and 5=Always were formed.

3.7.2 Semi-structured interview guide

In research, interviews enable the interviewer to get the experiences and views of the person being interviewed through a dialogue (Matthews & Ross, 2010). Bryman (2008) asserts that, using semi-structured interview when interviewing informants ensures flexibility of follow-up questions that may arise in the course of interviewing and create room for easy responses to these questions. In view of this, the researcher employed semi-structured interview in exploring the research questions (See Appendix "C"). Section 'A' of the items was prepared to find out the background of the respondents. It comprised questions on demography such as current class taught, age range, gender, education level, and years of teaching experience. Section 'B' of the interview guide consisted of five questions which sought to get responses from the teachers and pupils on the kind of media they use, how often they use them, how competent they are in using the media, the impact of using media and the challenges that prevents them from practicing media literacy.

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The use of semi-structured interviews helped me to explore the views, feelings and perspectives of the research participants on the research topic. In the interview report, the narrative accounts of eight respondents that is, 4 students (SR1, SR2, SR3 and SR4) and 4 teachers (TR1, TR2, TR3 and TR4) are presented. For the purpose of this study, the interview guide specified themes in accordance with the objectives and research questions. The interviews aided by an interview guide lasted for 35 minutes to an hour with each participant. Again, Akuapem or English was used for the interviews, because the participants were able to speak at least one of the two languages. The interviews were also recorded with the permission of the participants.

3.8   Issues of Validity

An instrument is considered valid when there is confidence that it measures what it is intended to measure in a given situation (Bolarinwa, 2015). In determining the face and content validity of the survey questionnaires, the researcher presented the drafts to the researcher's supervisor in the field of English language education from the Department of Basic Education in the University of Education, Winneba to assess the questions for face and content validity. This is because, the inputs of research supervisors are vital in determining content validity since it depends on expert judgment.

3.9   Issues of Reliability

Reliability is the likelihood of obtaining the same or similar results when the instrument measures the same variable more than once, or when more than one person measures the same variable (Polit, Hungler & Berck, 2001). In ensuring reliability, the researcher piloted the study among teachers and students who were not part of the selected sample. The reliability of the questionnaire was then determined with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Cronbach's

alpha values for each sub-scale under sections B, C, D and E of the questionnaire were as follows: Kinds of Media (α = 0.71), Competency (α = 0.74), Benefits (α = 0.73), and Challenges (α = 0.70). The Cronbach's Alpha reliability co-efficient obtained for the internal consistency of the questionnaire was 0.76 According to Atindanbilla (2013) co-efficient of reliability value above 0.7 is considered reliable (See Appendix "D").

3.10 Dependability

Dependability refers to "the stability of findings over time" (Bitsch, 2005, p. 86). In other words, dependability concerns the degree to which the results of the study are consistent or replicable with the same subjects or in similar context. To ensure that the findings and conclusions are dependable, the researcher closely worked with her supervisor throughout the study and also kept audit trail of all the events and procedures followed in the study. The researcher used the code and recode procedure in analyzing the data.

3.11 Confirmability

Confirmability according to Bowen (2009) is the process of establishing the fact that data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer's imagination, but are clearly derived from the data. In order to establish confirmability the researcher kept an audit trail of audiotapes, field notes, transcripts, interview questions, consent forms and all other relevant information and documents regarding the study. The findings and interpretations of data were as it was presented by the participants. The researcher did not have any influence on the findings. These will be made available for any future auditing of the study for confirmatory purposes. The researcher also worked closely with her supervisor who provided concurrent audit throughout the entire research process.

3.12   Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Head of Department, Basic Education, University of Education, Winneba. The introductory letter aided the researcher to get the needed assistance and co-operation from the respondents of the study. Each of the selected schools was visited three times. The first visit was made to seek permission and familiarize. An arrangement was also made with the respondents regarding the date and time for the actual interview and the administration of questionnaire. The administration of the questionnaire and the interview was conducted on the second visit. Respondents were given a week to respond to the questionnaire. The final visit was made to collect the answered questionnaires. However, the researcher spent five days to conduct the interview to all the sampled participants.

3.13   Data Analysis

The data collected were analysed in the light of the literature reviewed and the objective of the study. With the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software, descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages and the mean and standard deviation were employed to analyse the questionnaire. The data collected using questionnaires were coded into the SPSS software to facilitate the analysis. The use of percentages and frequencies assisted the researcher to clearly represent true data characteristic and findings with a great deal of accuracy devoid of subjectivity. In the analysis, the researcher trichotomised the original 5-point scale of the questionnaire responses (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) by merging responses for 1 and 2 into a disagree category, 3 as undecided, and 4 and 5 into an agree category to facilitate the analysis of data. Also, the researcher trichotomised the original 5-point scale of the questionnaire responses

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(1=never occurs, 2= rarely occurs, 3=sometimes, 4=often occurs, 5=always occurs) by merging responses for 1 and 2 into rarely occurs category, 3 as sometimes, and 4 and 5 into often occurs category to facilitate the analysis of data. This will help the study to gain more interpretability in terms of capturing the trends in the data.

The study also used thematic analysis to analyse the qualitative data collected using the interview guide. In its broadest form, thematic analysis is a categorizing strategy for qualitative data. Thematic analysis identifies, analyses, and reports patterns and themes within the research data with no set specific guidelines. Holloway and Todres (2003) argue that thematic analysis should be viewed as a foundation method, and it should be the first qualitative analytical method that researchers learn when trying to tackle extremely diverse and complex qualitative research approaches and qualitative data for the first time.

One of the primary benefits of thematic analysis is its flexibility, which comes from not being theoretically bound, limited, or constrained. Consequently, thematic analysis becomes a useful, flexible research tool that has the potential to provide 'a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data' if undertaken properly (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.78). The researcher followed the six thematic analysis procedures described by Braun and Clark's (2006) which are: 1) get familiar with the data, 2) generate initial codes, 3) search for themes, 4) review themes, 5) define and name themes, and 6) produce the results. The researcher read through the data several times to get familiar with the data, and to also assist in the definition and categorization of the themes that emerged from the data, as well as to present the findings. The researcher identified various themes which have strong relationship to the study objectives or the research questions. These themes are presented under their relevant research objectives.

3.14   Ethical Consideration

Every study requires the researcher to adhere to the ethics concerning research. The researcher took due cognizance of ethical responsibility in the collection and analysis of data, and the reporting of the information. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Nsawam-Adoagyiri directorate of GES. The researcher encouraged voluntary participation of the respondents, and also ensured that the respondents' rights to be informed, right to privacy and right to choose was respected by maintaining confidentiality of all the information given to aid this study.

This was done by ensuring that their names and other forms of identification were excluded from the data collection and the purpose of the study clearly explained to the participants. The last but not the least, all the schools that took part were acknowledged and given a summary of the report so that goodwill is maintained for future research.
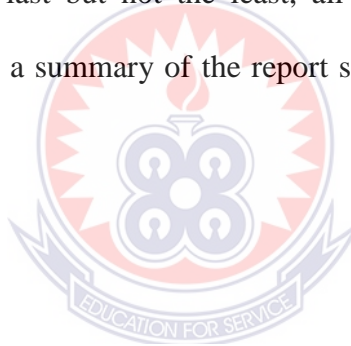
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS/FINDINGS

4.0   Overview

This chapter presents the results and findings of the study. The chapter comprises three major sections which include a presentation of the demographic descriptive statistics, the descriptive data analyses for each of the four research questions and summary of the research findings.

4.1   Introduction

The purpose of the study is to assess media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. The study was also guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

2. What are teachers' and pupils' competence in the use of media in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

3. What are the impact of media literacy on teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

4. What challenges do teachers and pupils face in using media in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

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4.2   Demographic Characteristics of Teacher Participants

The demographic characteristics of 150 participants comprising 45 teachers and 105 students that were considered in the study included sex, highest educational qualification, years of teaching experience and age. The details are presented as follows:

The sex distribution of teacher participants was explored and its details are illustrated in Figure 2.
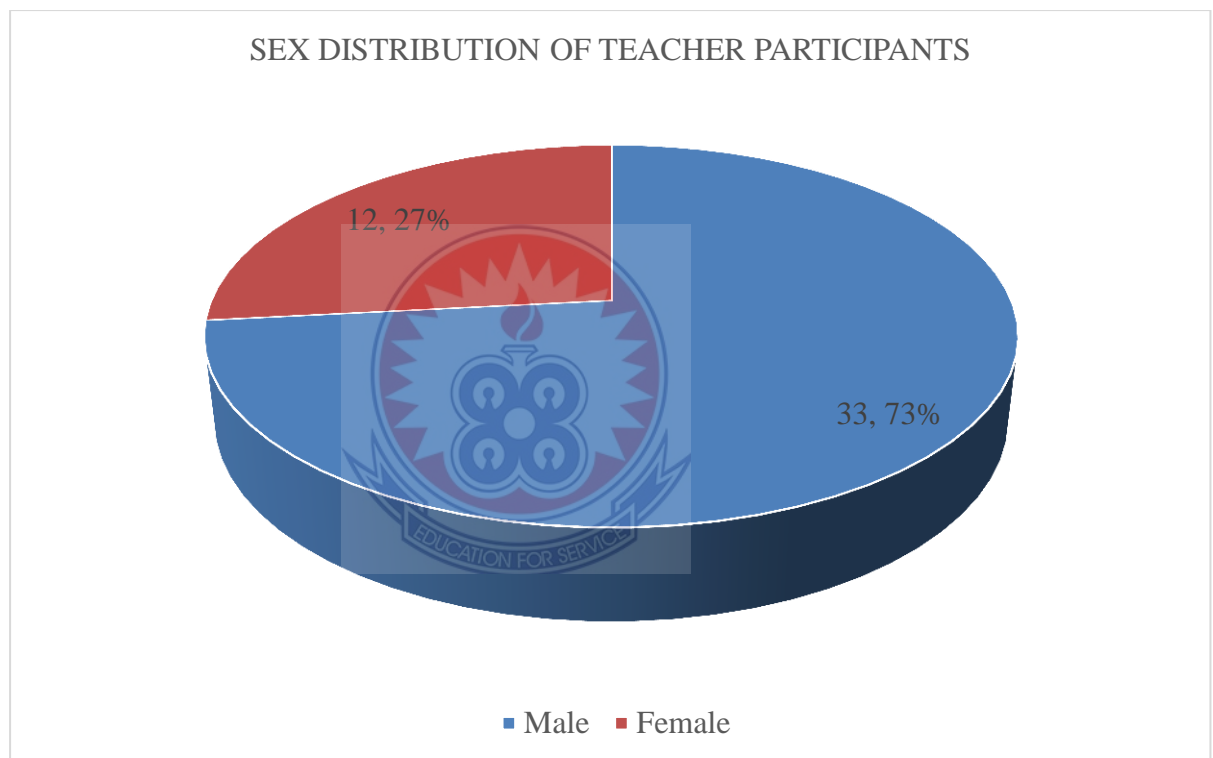
Source: Field Data (2018)

Figure 2: Sex Distribution of Teacher Participants

Figure 2 presents sex distribution of teacher participants. The figure shows that 33 (73%) of the respondents were males whereas 12 (27%) were females. The indication here is that, there were more male teacher participants than female teachers in the study.

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Also, the highest educational qualifications of teacher participants were explored and their details are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Teacher Participants' Educational Qualification

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Highest Educational Qualification	Cert "A"	2	4.4
	Diploma	28	62.2
	Bachelor's Degree	15	33.3
	Master's Degree	0	0.0
	Others	0	0.0
	Total	**45**	**100**

Source**:** Field Data (2018)

As regards the highest educational qualification of teacher participants, it was observed that 28 (62.2%) of the teachers had Diploma in Education with 15 (33.5%) of them holding Bachelor's Degree. The remaining 2 (4.4%) had Cert "A". Inferably, no one holds Master's Degree or other qualification at that level.
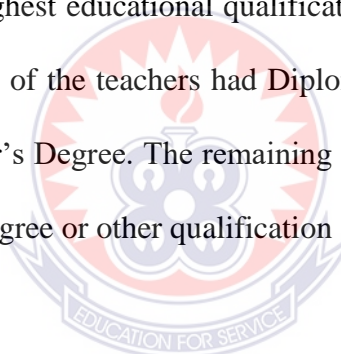
Years of teaching experience of teacher participants were also explored and their details are illustrated in Figure 3.

TEACHERS' YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE
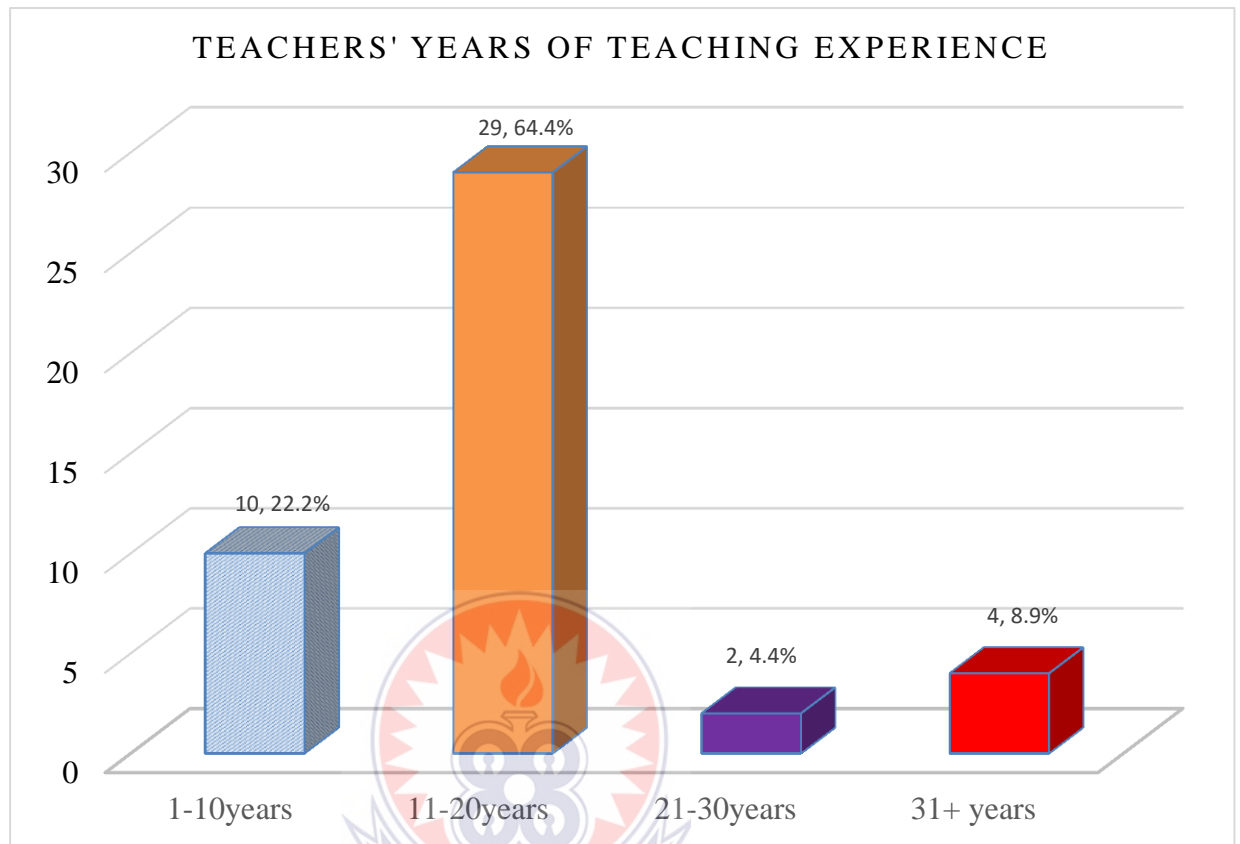
Source: Field Data (2018)

Figure 3: Distribution of Teacher Participants' Years of Teaching Experience

The data results in Figure 3 revealed varieties in the number of years of teaching among the teacher participants. Twenty-nine (64.4%) of the teachers had taught for a period from 11-20years, whereas 10 (22.2%) of them had taught for a period from 1-10years. Four (8.9%) had taught for 31years and more whiles the remaining 2 (4.4%) had taught for a period of 21-30years. It could therefore be seen that, majority of the teacher participants were found to have had some years of teaching experience that spans from 11 to 20 years.

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The sex distribution of student participants was explored and its details are illustrated in Figure 4

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT PARTICIPANTS
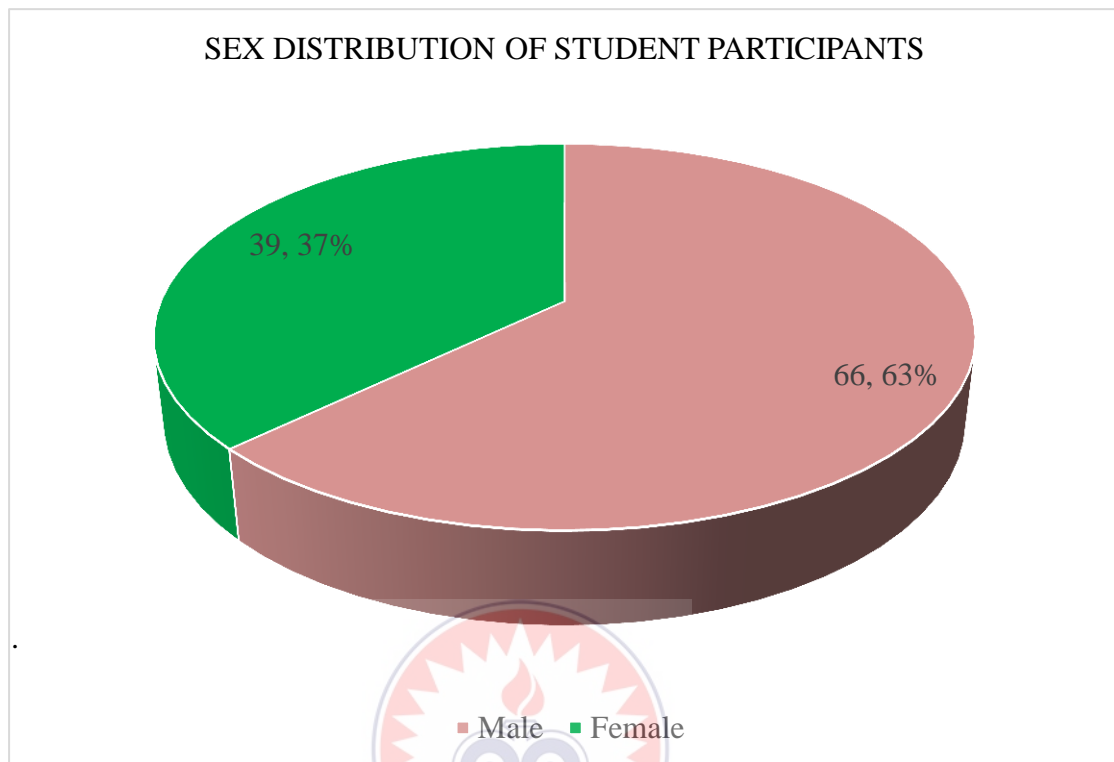
Source: Field Data (2018)

Figure 4: Sex Distribution of Student Participants

Figure 4 presents sex distribution of student participants. The figure shows that 66 (63%) of the respondents were male whereas 39 (37%) were female. The indication here is that, there were more male student participants than female student participants in the study.

Class distribution of student participants was explored and its details is illustrated in Figure 5.
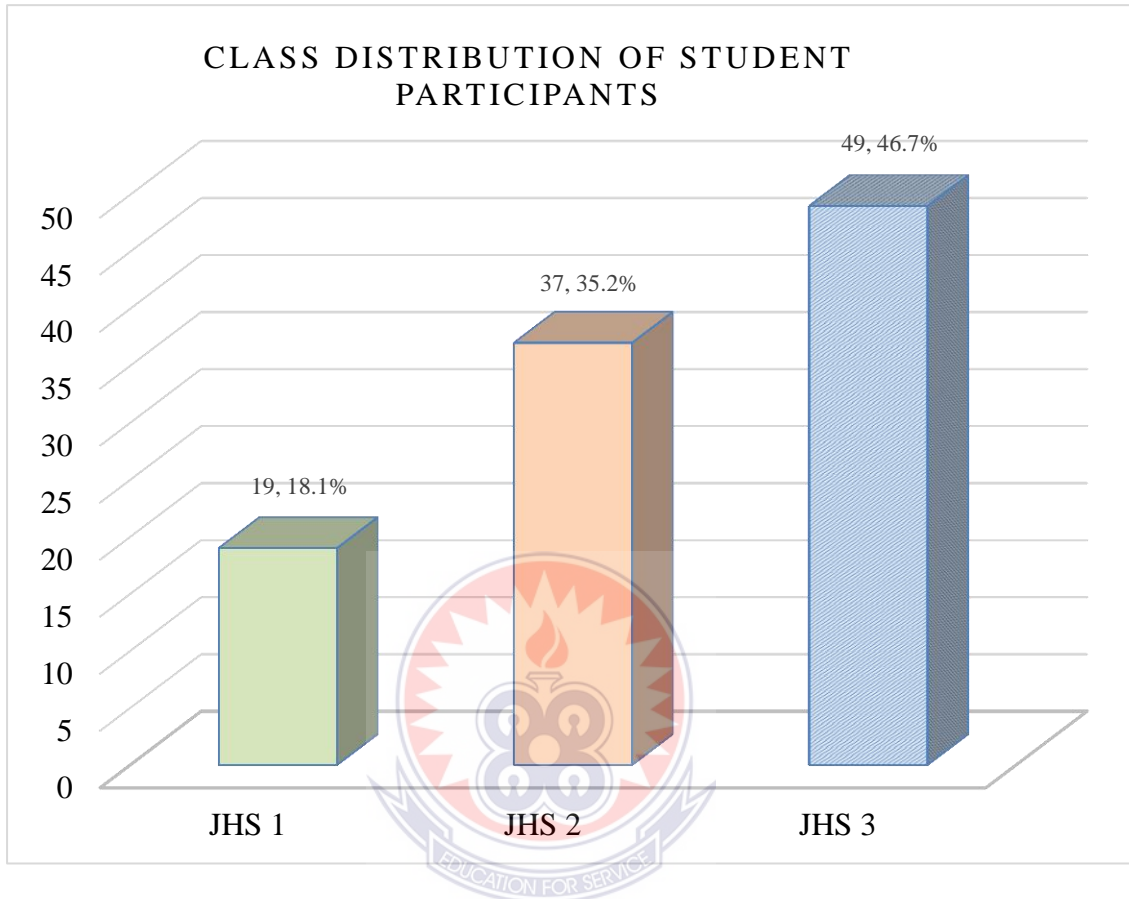
Source: Field Data (2018)

Figure 5: Class Distribution of Student Participants

The results from the analysis of data in Figure 5 show that out of 105student participants selected across all the levels of JHS, 49 (46.7%) were in JHS 3. It was also revealed that 37 (35.2%) of the student participants were in JHS 2, while the remaining 19 (18.1%) student participants were in JHS 1. This shows that,majority of the students participants were from the final level of JHS.

Research Question 1: What are the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

In relation to the first research question, the study aimed at gathering data on the various media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools. The results are presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Kinds of Media Used in Teaching and Learning
of English Language

Items	STUDENTS					TEACHERS				
	R f (%)	S f (%)	O f (%)	*M*	*SD*	R f (%)	S f (%)	O f (%)	*M*	*SD*
1. Newspapers and magazines	99 (94.3)	5 (4.7)	1 (1.0)	1.07	0.29	25 (55.6)	13 (28.9)	7 (15.6)	1.60	0.75
2. Audio recordings	73 (69.5)	28 (26.7)	4 (3.8)	1.34	0.55	24 (53.3)	12 (26.7)	9 (20.0)	1.67	0.80
3. Films and videos,	10 (9.5)	31 (29.5)	64 (61.0)	2.51	0.67	20 (44.4)	13 (28.9)	12 (26.7)	1.82	0.83
4. Computers with the internet	81 (77.1)	10 (9.5)	14 (13.3)	1.63	0.71	10 (22.2)	10 (22.2)	25 (55.6)	2.33	0.83
5. Interactive whiteboards	44 (41.9)	10 (9.5)	51 (48.6)	2.07	0.95	5 (11.1)	17 (37.8)	23(51.1)	2.40	0.69
6. Internet	41 (39.0)	54 (51.4)	10 (9.6)	1.70	0.63	26 (57.8)	11 (24.4)	8 (17.8)	1.60	0.78
7. Computers	25 (23.8)	15 (14.3)	65 (61.9)	2.38	0.85	19 (42.2)	13 (28.9)	13 (28.9)	1.87	0.84
8. Textbooks	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	105 (100.0)	3.00	0.85	4 (8.9)	11 (24.4)	30 (66.7)	2.58	0.66

Source: Field data (2018) **Key: f**–Frequency, %–Percentage, *M*–Mean, *SD*–Standard Deviation,
R–Rarely, **S**–Sometimes, **O**–Often

A look at Table 2 indicates that, students' mean scores ranged from 1.07 to 3.00 and standard deviation from 0.29 to 0.95. This is an indication that basic school students on the average sometimes use kinds of media in learning of English Language. For instance, 41 (39.0%) of the students admitted that they rarely use internet in learning English Language whereas 54 (51.4%) of them sometimes use the internet with a mean score of 1.70 and standard deviation of 0.63. However, the remaining 10 (9.6%) students disclosed that they often use internet in learning English

Language. This indicates that, majority of student participants sometimes use internet in learning English Language. Moreover, 99 (94.3%) of the students conceded that they rarely use newspapers and magazines in learning English Language whereas 5 (5.7%) of them sometimes use the newspapers and magazines with a mean score of 1.07 and standard deviation of 0.29. One (1.0%) remaining student admitted that he/she often uses newspapers and magazines in learning English Language. This indicates that, most of the student participants rarely use newspapers and magazines in learning English Language.

On the part of the teacher participants, their mean scores ranged from 1.60 to 2.58 and standard deviation from 0.66 to 0.84. This is an indication that, basic school teachers on the average sometimes use different kinds of media in the teaching of English Language. With reference to Table 4.2 for example, 26 (57.8%) of the teachers admitted that they rarely use internet in teaching English Language whereas 11 (24.4%) of them sometimes use the internet with a mean score of 1.60 and standard deviation of 0.78. However, the remaining 8 (17.8%) teachers disclosed that they often use internet in teaching English Language. This indicates that, majority of teacher participants rarely use internet in teaching English Language. Also, 25 (55.6%) of the teachers conceded that they rarely use newspapers and magazines in teaching English Language whereas 13 (28.9%) of them sometimes use the newspapers and magazines with a mean score of 1.60 and standard deviation of 0.75. The seven (15.6%) remaining teachers admitted that they often use newspapers and magazines in teaching English Language. This indicates that, most of the teacher participants rarely use newspapers and magazines in teaching English Language in basic schools.

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The researcher through the interview explored on students' and teachers' favourite media and how often they use these tools. From the teacher participants' responses, it was revealed that teachers often use textbooks and computers to aid their English Language teaching. The following excerpt depicts this claim:

"I often use textbooks to aid my English Language instructions in the classroom. For instance, I use textbooks to plan my lessons and give assignment to the students I teach." (TR1)

Another respondent also recounted:

"Mostly, I use computer with Internet to search for information on some English topics." (TR3)

Students who were interviewed also disclosed their favourite media as mobile phones, radio, computer etc. and that, they often use them. This is captured by the excerpt below;

"It is mobile phone. Almost everyday, I use mobile phone to place calls, send and receive messages whenever I close from school." (SR2)

One student participant also commented that:

"When I have free time, I use my dad's computer to play games and learn the spelling and pronunciation of some English words" (SR4)

Research Question 2: What are teachers' and pupils' competence in the teaching and learning of English Language using media in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

With regard to the second research question, the study aimed at gathering data on how competent teachers and pupils are in using media in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools. Table 4.3 details the results as follows:

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of the Practice of Media Literacy in Teaching and Learning of English Language

Items	STUDENTS					TEACHERS				
	R f (%)	S f (%)	O f (%)	*M*	*SD*	R f (%)	S f (%)	O f (%)	*M*	*SD*
1. Students are given instruction on media and information literacy	17 (16.2)	44(41.9)	44 (41.9)	2.26	0.72	12(26.7)	11 (24.4)	22 (48.9)	2.22	0.85
2. In pre-viewing discussion, a topic or theme of the mass media sequence are presented and discussed by the group.	31 (29.5)	44 (41.9)	30 (28.6)	1.99	0.77	11 (24.4)	17 (37.8)	17 (37.8)	2.13	0.79
3. During while-viewing activities, some lexical items crucial to understanding the text are reviewed and explained.	10 (9.5)	64 (61.0)	31(29.5)	2.20	0.60	9 (20.0)	20 (44.4)	16 (35.6)	2.16	0.74
4. Comprehension checks are done periodically in order to determine the students' overall understanding of a story line.	53 (50.5)	38 (36.2)	14 (13.3)	1.63	0.71	10 (22.2)	17 (37.8)	18 (40.0)	2.18	0.78
5. After-viewing activities used within the lesson mostly included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays.	44 (41.9)	39 (37.1)	22 (21.0)	1.79	0.77	6 (13.3)	31 (68.9)	8(17.8)	2.04	0.56
6. Students are asked to examine verbal and non-verbal behaviours of a group of people by collecting and analysing data from multiple sources such TV, internet and movies.	73 (69.5)	28 (26.7)	4 (3.8)	1.34	0.55	23 (51.1)	19 (42.2)	3 (6.7)	1.56	0.62
7. Based on students' feedback, pedagogical suggestions such as: knowledge of various media formats specificity; improved foreign language performance are offered.	85 (81.0)	10 (9.5)	10 (9.5)	1.29	0.63	16 (35.8)	15 (33.3)	14 (31.1)	1.96	0.82

Source: Field data (2018) **Key: f**–Frequency, %–Percentage, *M*–Mean, *SD*–Standard Deviation, **R**–Rarely, **S**–Sometimes, **O**–Often

As it is evident in Table 3, students' mean scores ranged from 1.29 to 2.26 and standard deviation from 0.55 to 0.77. This is an indication that, basic school students on the average sometimes practice media literacy in the learning of English Language. For example, 17 (16.2%) of the students admitted that they are given instruction on media and information literacy in rare cases whereas 44 (41.9%) of them conceded that they sometimes receive instruction on media and information literacy with a mean score of 2.26 and standard deviation of 0.72. However, 44 (41.9%) of the students disclosed that they are often given instruction on media and information literacy. This is an indication that, most of the student participants are sometimes given instruction on media and information literacy in English Language.

Again, 44 (41.9%) of the students conceded that after-viewing activities used within the lesson they rarely included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays whereas 39 (37.1%) of them revealed that sometimes, after-viewing activities used within the lesson they included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays with a mean score of 1.79 and standard deviation of 0.77. The twenty-two (21.0%) remaining students admitted that often times, after-viewing activities used within the lesson they included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays. This means that, most of the student participants after-viewing activities used within the lesson rarely included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays.

In the case of the teacher participants, mean scores ranged from 1.56 to 2.22 and standard deviation from 0.56 to 0.85. The indication here is that, basic school teachers on the average sometimes practice media literacy in the teaching of English Language. From Table 4.3 for instance, 12 (27.6%) of the teachers admitted that they rarely give instruction on media and information literacy whereas 11 (24.4%) of them

conceded that they sometimes give instruction on media and information literacy in English Language with a mean score of 2.22 and standard deviation of 0.85. However, 22(48.9%) of the teachers disclosed that they often give instruction on media and information literacy in Engish. This is an indication that, most of the teacher participants often give instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. Also, 6 (13.3%) of the teachers conceded that after-viewing activities used within the lesson they rarely included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays whereas 31 (68.9%) of them disclosed that sometimes, after-viewing activities used within the lesson they included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays with a mean score of 2.04 and standard deviation of 0.56. The eight (17.8%) remaining teachers admitted that after-viewing activities used within the lesson often included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays.

The researcher through the interview further explored on what teachers and students perceive to be the most powerful media and their reasons for making that choice. From teachers' responses, it was revealed that computer and internet are considered as the most powerful media because they are multi-functional. This is evident in the excerpt below:

> *"I think it is computer with Internet. We can send e-mails to friends and love ones from afar within few minutes."* **(TR2)**

Another teacher respondent similarly stated:

> *"For me, I will say computer. This is because, it [computer] can perform multiple functions including playing of language games, finding synonyms of words etc."* **(TR4)**

From the interview responses, it was revealed that students consider computer and television as the most powerful media because they serve different purposes. A student respondent commented as follows:

> *"The most powerful media tool is computer. I can use computer to watch movies and play games. At times, it [computer] can be used to learn pronunciation of words"* **(SR1)**

Another student participant also recounted:

> *"It is television in the sense that, television can be used to watch news, movies and educational programmes."* **(SR3)**

In view of what teachers and students perceive to be the most powerful media, a follow-up question was asked to explore their competencies in using the media. From the interview responses, it was discovered that some teachers are not sure of how to use most of the media effectively. This is captured in the following excerpts:

> *"To be frank with you, I'm not really sure how to use most of them [media] effectively. For example, I've heard about Twitter, Instagram, browsing and the like but not sure how to use them."* **(TR3)**

Another respondent similarly stated:

> *"I can manipulate most of the tools [media] but not all. I can use my laptop to browse and do a lot of things but, I have never use projector before."* (**TR2)**

Consistently, student participants' responses revealed that they are not sure of how to use most of the media effectively. One of the student participants said:

> *"Apart from using my phone to watsapp, I'm not too sure of how to use some of them especially computer with internet. I've used computer I think once in my entire life."* **(SR3)**

Research Question 3: What are the impact of media literacy on teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

With regard to research question three, the study aimed at gathering data on the impact of media literacy on the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic School. The researcher used Statistical Package for Social Science version 20 in analyzing the descriptive statistics on the questionnaire to relate to the impact of media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language. In the analysis of the data in the table 4.4, the researcher trichotomized the original 5 point scale of the questionnaire responses (1=strongly didagree,2=disagree,3=undecided,4=agree and 5=strongly agree) by merging responses for 1 and 2 into a disagree category, 3 as undecided and 4 and 5 into an agree category. Table 4 represents the results.

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Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the Effects of Media Literacy on Teaching and Learning of English Language

Items	STUDENTS					TEACHERS				
	D	U	A	*M*	*SD*	D	U	A	*M*	*SD*
	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)			f (%)	f (%)	f (%)		
1. Media literacy enhance students' English proficiency	35 (33.3)	16 (15.2)	54 (51.4)	2.18	0.91	11 (24.4)	8 (17.8)	26 (57.8)	2.33	0.85
2. Media literacy develop students' research and higher order thinking skills	48 (45.7)	9 (8.6)	48 (45.7)	2.00	0.96	6 (13.3)	8 (17.8)	31 (68.9)	2.56	0.73
3. Media literacy foster students' collaborative autonomous learning abilities	33 (31.4)	18 (17.1)	54 (51.4)	2.20	0.89	22 (48.9)	13 (28.9)	10 (22.2)	1.73	0.81
4. Media literacy promote students' critical thinking and encourage them to compare different perspectives in media texts	25 (23.8)	6 (5.7)	74 (70.5)	2.47	0.86	15 (33.3)	5 (11.1)	25 (55.6)	2.22	0.93
5. Media literacy stimulate student interest in a wide range of global and local issues, and develop student awareness of the influence of these issues on human life	32 (30.5)	4 (3.8)	69 (65.7)	2.35	0.92	13 (28.9)	12 (26.7)	20 (44.4)	2.16	0.85
6. Media literacy activities help students uncover the sources of their own stereotypes and prejudices	44 (41.9)	10 (9.5)	51 (48.6)	2.07	0.95	6 (13.3)	10 (22.2)	29 (64.4)	2.51	0.73
7. Media literacy portrays success as resulting purely from personal motivation and commitment	26 (24.8)	8 (7.6)	71 (67.6)	2.43	0.86	11 (24.4)	4 (8.9)	30 (66.7)	2.42	0.87
8. Media literacy helps pupils to develop skills of inquiry.	25 (23.8)	15 (14.3)	65 (61.9)	2.38	0.85	6 (13.3)	7 (15.6)	32 (71.7)	2.58	0.72

Source: Field data (2018)   **Key: f**–Frequency, %–Percentage, *M*–Mean, *SD*–Standard Deviation,

D–Disagree, **U**–Undecided, **A**–Agree

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From Table 4, students' scores attracted a range of mean scores and standard deviation of 2.00 to 2.47 and 0.85 to 0.96 respectively. This means that, most of the students on average admitted that media literacy has effect on the learning of English Language. For instance, 54 (51.4%) of the student participants responded to the statement that 'media literacy enhances students' English proficiency' whereas 35 (33.3%) of them disagreed to the statement with a mean score of 2.18 and standard deviation of 0.91.The sixteen (15.2%) students remaining were indecisive about the statement. This indicates that, media literacy enhances students' English proficiency as admitted by majority of student participants. Moreover, 74 (70.5%) of the student participants agreed to the statement that 'media literacy promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts' whereas 25 (23.8%) of them declined to the statement with a mean score of 2.47 and a standard deviation score of 0.86.The six (5.7%) students remaining were undecided. The indication is that, most of the students acknowledge that media literacy promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts.

Among the teacher participants, the mean scores ranged from 1.73 to 2.58 and standard deviation from 0.72 to 0.93. This means that, majority of teachers on average conceded that media literacy has effect on the learning of English Language in the basic schools. As evident in Table 4.4, 25 (55.6%) of the teacher participants responded to the statement that 'media literacy promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts' whereas15 (33.3%) of them disagreed to the statement with a mean score of 2.22 and standard deviation of 0.93. The remaining 5 (11.1%) teachers were indecisive about the statement. This means that, most of the teacher participants believe that media literacy

promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts. Also, 26 (57.8%) of the teacher participants admitted that media literacy enhance students' English proficiency while 11 (24.4%) of them disagreed with a mean score of 2.33 and a standard deviation score of 0.85. The remaining 8 (17.8%) of them were undecided about the statement. The indication is that, most teachers hold the view that media literacy enhances students' English proficiency.

The researcher through the interview further explored on the impacts of using media in the teaching and learning of English. From the teachers' responses, it was revealed that media help teachers to find meanings to some words and also help develop their inquiry skills in the learning of English Language. The following excerpts depict this claim:

> *"In fact, media literacy helps us [teachers] in so many ways. One of them is that, it [media] helps to develop our inquiry skills in teaching English Language in school."* **(TR3)**

> *"Finding meanings of some English words is now made simple. I can just pick my phone and check them in English Dictionary application I have on my phone."* **(TR1)**

Student participants also shared their views on the same question in the following excerpts:

> *"I know it [media] can help develop my research skills in learning of English Language. I can now search for more information on some of the English topics e.g., tenses and learn via the Internet within a shortest possible time."* **(SR2)**

Another one also recounted:

> *"Media is very important in the sense that, it enables students to see whatever the teacher is talking about. This improves our [students] learning."* **(SR4)**

Research Question 4: What challenges do teachers and pupils face in using media in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

With regards to research question four, the study aimed at gathering data on the challenges teachers and pupils face in using media in the teaching and learning of English Language. The researcher used Statistical Package for Social Science version 20 in analyzing the descriptive statistics on the questionnaire related to the challenges teachers and pupils face in using media in the teaching and learning of English Language. The researcher trichotomized the original 5 point scale of the questionnaire responses (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree) by merging responses for 1and 2 into disagree category, 3 as undecided and 4 and 5 into an agree category. Table 4.5 details the results as follows:

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of the Challenges Associated with the Use of Media Literacy in Teaching and Learning of English

Language

Items	STUDENTS					TEACHERS				
	D f (%)	U f (%)	A f (%)	*M*	*SD*	D f (%)	U f (%)	A f (%)	*M*	*SD*
1. Using media in English lessons are time-consuming.	0 (0.0)	10 (9.5)	95 (90.5)	2.90	0.30	5 (11.1)	2 (4.4)	38 (84.4)	2.73	0.65
2. Lesson preparation is more demanding.	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	105 (100)	3.00	0.00	1 (2.2)	3 (6.7)	41 (91.1)	2.89	0.38
3. I don't feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding.	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	105 (100)	3.00	0.00	4 (8.9)	2 (4.4)	39 (86.7)	2.78	0.60
4. I am afraid that media tools might not function.	10 (9.5)	0 (0.0)	95 (90.5)	2.81	0.59	5 (11.1)	3 (6.7)	37 (82.2)	2.71	0.66
5. I am afraid that I might break something.	0 (0.0)	41 (39.0)	64 (61.0)	2.61	0.49	5 (11.1)	3 (6.7)	37 (82.2)	2.71	0.66
6. Economic factors such as power poses as barriers to media literacy.	24 (22.8)	22 (21.0)	59 (56.2)	2.33	0.83	10 (22.2)	10 (22.2)	25(55.6)	2.33	0.83
7. Employing media literacy in English lesson demands a huge cost which threatens its practice.	10 (9.5)	30 (28.6)	65 (61.9)	2.52	0.67	3 (6.7)	11 (24.4)	30 (68.9)	2.62	0.61
8. Gender poses as barrier.	35 (33.3)	11 (10.5)	59 (56.2)	2.23	0.92	3 (6.7)	4 (8.9)	38 (84.4)	2.78	0.56

Source: Field data (2018) **Key: f**–Frequency, %–Percentage, *M*–Mean, *SD*–Standard Deviation, **D**–Disagree, **U**–Undecided, **A**–Agree

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From Table 5, students' scores attracted a range of mean score and standard deviation of 2.23 to 3.00 and 0.00 to 0.92 respectively. This means that, majority of students on average admitted that the outlined factors actually inhibit their use of media in the learning of English Language. From Table 4.5 for example, 95 (90.5%) of the student participants admitted to the statement that 'using media in English lessons is time-consuming' while10 (9.5%) of them were indecisive about the statement with a mean score of 2.90 and standard deviation of 0.30. None of the students registered their disagreement with the statement. This indicates that, majority of students believe that using media in English lessons consumes too much time. Moreover, 105 (100%) student participants forming the entire student study population were found to agree with the statement that 'I don't feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding' with a mean score of 3.00 and a standard deviation score of 0.00. None of them disagreed or was uncertain about the assertion. The indication is that, most of the students do not feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding.

Among the teacher participants, the mean scores ranged from 2.33 to 2.89and standard deviation from 0.38 to 0.83 as depicted in Table 4.5. This means that, majority of teachers on average conceded that the outlined factors inhibit their practice of media literacy in teaching English Language in the basic schools. For example, 38 (84.4%) of the teacher participants admitted to the statement that 'using media in English lessons is time-consuming' while 5 (11.1%) of them disagreed to the statement with a mean score of 2.73 and standard deviation of 0.65. Two (4.4%) teachers were not certain about the statement. This means that, majority of the teacher participants believe that using media in English lessons consumes much time. Also, 39 (86.7%) of the teacher participants admitted that they do not feel sufficiently

familiar with the electronic media commanding while 4 (8.9%) of them disagreed with the statement with a mean score of 2.78 and a standard deviation score of 0.60. The remaining 2 (4.4%) of them were undecided about the statement. The indication is that, most teachers do not feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding.

In an interview, the researcher explored the challenges that inhibit the practice of media literacy among teachers and students. From the teachers' responses, it was revealed that limited time and lack of power supply are some of the challenges they face in the practice of media literacy. A respondent's account is captured in the excerpt below:

> *"Well, I think it is time factor. Using media in teaching English Language consumes much of the instructional time. For example, If I want to even use projector, I need to spend part of the hours meant to teach in setting up the projector." (TR2)*

One teacher respondent narrated that:

> *"Lack of power supply to our school is one of the factors that prevent me from practicing media literacy. You just imagine how the situation will be like, if I want to use a desktop computer."* **(TR4)**

From the responses given by the students in the interview, it was revealed that some of the students are unfamiliar with the uses of some electronic media tools. One of the students commented that:

> *"As for me, I am not used to some of the electronic media. In the house, I am not allowed to use phone so, it is going to be difficult for me to browse for any information concerning the learning of English Language."* **(SR1)**

Another student also stated that:

> *"Ok! I may say that some of the media tools can fail to perform during the time they will be needed for study."* **(SR4)**

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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0   Introduction

In this chapter, significant findings on media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language at Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality are interpreted and discussed. The discussions highlight the major study findings based on the research questions, and the inferences made from them in view of findings from related previous studies. These are:

1. What are the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

2. What are teachers' and pupils' competences in the use of media in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

3. What are the effects of media literacy on teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

4. What challenges do teachers and pupils face in using media in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality?

5.1   Kinds of Media Used in Teaching and Learning of English Language

Knowledge about media and their operations and strategies for increasing media literacy have become important educational assets in the 21st century especially in the teaching and learning of English Language. Support for media literacy education has grown significantly in recent years with teachers advocating for its inclusion in the curricula. Researches have explained that English Language

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teachers needed to be able to help students to analyze and create texts of all kinds, including popular media forms such as music and video. From the study, it was discovered that students and teachers often use textbooks, computers, mobile phones, and radio to aid their English Language teaching.

With the findings of Manioci (2018) that the most traditional form of media use in the language classroom is the print media such as textbooks, newspapers etc. Perhaps, the reason may be attributed to their immediacy and availability.

It was also revealed that students and teachers rarely use newspapers, magazines and internet in teaching English Language in basic schools.

According to Tulodziecki and Grafe, (2012), corresponding to the various conceptual views of media literacy education, there is an extensive variety of materials and examples of applications in schools. However, they argue that in spite of the available empirical results with regard to the practice of media literacy in schools, teachers need to include other media practices eg. Newspapers.

The study again discovered that students sometimes use internet in learning English Language. However, teachers were found to be using internet in rare cases in teaching English Language.

Hobbs and Frost (2003) examined high school teachers who implemented media literacy in their classrooms for one year and found that at the close of the study, teachers reported being uncomfortable analyzing and having their students analyze advertisements. This important finding is consistent with our observations that media literacy skills are challenging to master, even for adults. Media literacy skills require the ability to engage in both abstract and flexible thinking while applying a general analytic rubric to the deconstruction of specific media message examples. In view of this, English Language educators need to feel comfortable and confident in order to

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successfully include media literacy approaches, topics, and activities into the classroom.

5.2   Practice of Media Literacy in Teaching and Learning of English Language

Research has discovered that most primary school teachers consider that media should be integrated in as many school subjects as possible, and that students should learn in school to critically review and analyse media (Gysbers, 2008). As part of Gysbers' (2008) findings, the results showed that on average every teacher carried out media literacy activities or projects of a given list of seven at least once in their teaching career. However, only a few of them perform media-educational activities in their lessons as revealed in the findings of Tulodziecki and Grafe (2012).

Results from the study revealed that students are sometimes given instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. However, teachers disclosed that they often give instruction on media and information literacy in English Language.

In Manuel's (2002) experimental study conducted in a US university to assess students' development of information and media literacy, it was revealed that students were first given instruction on media and information literacy and then asked to perform a close reading of an article from a popular science magazine and answer questions about the nature of the information (e.g., fact vs. opinion, primary vs. secondary), the purpose and intended audience of the text, the point of view of the text, among others.

From the students' responses, it was also discovered that after-viewing activities used within the lesson they rarely included project work, debates, writing critical reviews and role-plays in classroom activities. Contrarily, teachers also

indicated that after-viewing activities used within the lesson, they sometimes included project work, debates, writing critical reviews and role-plays in classroom activities.

Other complementary activities were a debate, a final written task, analysis of a song and some cartoons on the targeted issue. At the conclusion of the project, students claimed to have gained knowledge of the topic, become more aware of their positions, and acquired a certain degree of critical media literacy. One specific set of critical thinking skills that is emphasized in media literacy education involves breaking down media messages in order to understand their underlying persuasive elements and is known as media deconstruction skills. For instance, in order to promote critical thinking, teachers must challenge pupils to ask questions about the target text (Fisher, 2007).

Again, the study revealed that the computer, internet and television are considered as most powerful media because they are multi-functional. However, students and teachers were found to be not sure on how to use most of the media effectively. The cause of teacher uncertainty about how to integrate media literacy education into their curriculum according to Stein and Prewett (2009) may stem from a lack of knowledge about the state's media literacy education standards. This is evident in their study results where more than three-quarters of teachers conceded that they do not know whether their practices of media literacy correspond with the state academic standards or not.

This result however seems to conflict with Tuggle, Sneed and Wulfemeyer's (2000) findings on the preparedness of social studies teachers for media literacy education. Their study reported that three-fourths of the teachers they surveyed felt qualified to employ media in their teachings. Despite the efforts at incorporating media literacy education into subject teaching, Scull and Kupersmidt (2010) claim

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that teachers have been left with the responsibility of meeting these goals on their own. They further argue that teachers often create and incorporate media literacy education into their classes without having had any formal training in media literacy themselves and without utilizing evidence-based programmes or curricula.

5.3   Impact of Media Literacy on Teaching and Learning of English Language

Evidence from the findings shows that, media literacy promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts.

Teachers and pupils who recognize the importance of critical thinking skills are more likely to use these skills. Using media and its tools such as internet, computer etc. motivate pupils to speak and help them integrate listening, reading, talking and writing skills through various kinds of activities (Tafani, 2009). The reading of newspapers in English, for instance, helps pupils advance their knowledge of current lexical items and idiomatic expressions and increases their ability to interpret, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate cultural texts beyond the comprehension of simple facts. Furthermore, the use of the old media (textbooks) in the English language classrooms brings positive motivation, interactivity and collaboration into the lessons.

The study again revealed that media literacy enhances students' English proficiency. Chen (2013) also stated that, using the media in the home encourages learning outside the classroom and helps integrate English into the real life of the pupils. This is to say the synthesis of formal and informal learning has a positive impact on pupils' future learning of English and other subjects. Chen (2013) approves it and explains that "by synthesizing learning inside and outside of the classroom,

pupils are encouraged to take more responsibility for their learning, thus developing their independent learning skills and benefitting their future studies" (p. 21).

Moreover, it was discovered that media helps to develop students' and teachers' inquiry skills in learning of English Language. A study conducted by Slavikova (2014) revealed among others, media tools (such as tablets) are suitable for working on the English projects because pupils can easily access information on the internet and process it immediately into a presentation or use it in their further work. In this way, pupils can practice not only communication in English, but also collaboration with the others. He further argues that by using the electronic media for creative projects pupils are able to put language into meaningful practice both in and out of the classroom. Media also reinforces the role of the teacher as a facilitator. As it was observed by Bannister and Wilden (2013), when the pupils are engaged in project and collaborative learning on media, the teacher may need to take a less active role. However, they emphasise that this activity can, at first, feel daunting as the teacher may feel less in control of the lesson.

5.4   Challenges Associated with the Use of Media Literacy in Teaching and Learning of English Language

Due to perpetual change in the functions and applications of most media tools, it is necessary for the teachers to refresh their knowledge regularly and actively take part in a lifelong learning. From the findings, it was discovered that students and teachers are not familiar with the electronic media commanding. This is inconsistent with the findings of Stein and Prewett (2009) in their survey conducted to determine teachers' familiarity with media literacy education in the classroom. In their study, it was revealed that many of the teachers had prior experience teaching about the media. More than two-thirds reported that they had some or a good deal of experience. The

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cause of teacher uncertainty about how to integrate media literacy education into their curriculum according to Stein and Prewett (2009) may stem from a lack of knowledge about media literacy education standards.

Again, it was discovered that using media in English lessons consumes too much time. This is supported by Martens (2010) argument that, many teachers may find this procedure too time-consuming and especially older teachers may find the manipulation with these too difficult. It was found out in Slavikova's (2014) study that, teachers using media tools in their lessons asserted that they sometimes forget about the general aim of the lesson, i.e. to teach English, and rather focus on the technology itself. However, it is important to bear in mind that the media tools one may be using is basically meant to make the process of learning and teaching of English more effective. As Hobbs (2004) asserted, majority of teachers are yet to understand how to use media texts or media issues to promote critical thinking.

Among the findings, it was discovered that limited time and lack of power supply were some of the challenges that students and teachers face in the practice of media literacy. This is consistent with what Kupersmidt, et al. (2012) and Hobbs and Frost (2003) observed in their studies that, teachers waive media because of a general time pressure, little recognizable value, other more suitable methods, insufficient media equipment and learning environments, inappropriate or missing software, and lack of technical knowledge.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the limitations, summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations on the study. In this study, descriptive survey design was employed. The purpose of the study was to assess media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. The study was conducted in Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality of Ghana. A multistage sampling technique was employed in selecting the required sample size for the quantitative phase. The sample size for the quantitative study was 150 comprising 45 English language teachers and 105 students. In the qualitative phase, a sample size of 8 comprising 4 students and 4 teachers were employed. The researcher used questionnaire and interview guide as the primary tools for collecting data. The questionnaire and interview guide were employed to collect quantitative and qualitative data respectively. The quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS version 20 whereas the qualitative data was thematically analysed.

6.1   Summary of Findings

The first objective of the study was to identify the media used in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. From the study, it was discovered that students and teachers often use textbooks, computers, mobile phones, and radio to aid their English Language teaching. The study also revealed that students and teachers rarely use newspapers, magazines and internet in teaching and learning English Language in basic schools. It was again discovered that students sometimes use internet in learning English

Language. However, teachers were found to be using internet on rare cases in teaching English Language.

The second objective of the study was to explore teachers' and pupils' competency in the use of media in the teaching of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. Results from the study revealed that students are sometimes given instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. However, teachers disclosed that they often give instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. From the students' responses, it was also discovered that after-viewing activities used within the lesson, they rarely included project work, debates, writing critical reviews and role-plays in classroom activities. Contrarily, teachers indicated that after-viewing activities used within the lesson sometimes they included project work, debates, writing critical reviews and role-plays in classroom activities. Again, the study revealed that computer, internet and television are considered as most powerful media because they are multi-functional. Moreover, it was revealed that students and teachers were not sure how to use most of the media effectively.

The third research objective was to investigate the impact of media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. As evident from the findings, media literacy enhances students' English proficiency as admitted by a majority of student participants. It was also discovered that media literacy promotes students' critical thinking and encourages them to compare different perspectives in media texts. The study again revealed that media literacy enhances students' English proficiency. Moreover, it was discovered that media helps to develop students' and teachers' inquiry skills in the teaching and learning of English Language.

The fourth objective of the study was to find out the challenges encountered in the teaching and learning of English Language using media in Basic Schools in the Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality. From the findings, it was discovered that students and teachers are not familiar with the electronic media command. Again, it was discovered that using media in English lessons consumes too much time. Also, it was revealed that limited time and lack of power supply were some of the challenges that students and teachers face in the practice of media literacy.

6.2   Conclusions

The intent of this study was to assess media literacy in the teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools. Media could become a very effective tool and medium for backing the traditional teaching and learning in the classroom. It is considered that media should be employed as instructional tool for developing students' English proficiency.

The reasons could be that, both teachers and students have come to appreciate the efficacy of media in the teaching and learning of English Language in schools. However, the study showed that most teachers and students are incompetent in practising media literacy in the English Language classrooms. It is therefore considered imperative for educators to be equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills to be informed of the media practices in basic schools via professional training. Consequently, this will help curb the situation of teachers and students being unfamiliar with the commands of most electronic media as revealed at the end of the study.

English educators need to feel comfortable and confident in order to successfully include media literacy approaches, topics, and activities into their lesson in the classroom. Undoubtedly, education is meant to help develop critical thinking

abilities of individuals. The pedagogical practices encouraged in media literacy education are closely aligned with the practices recommended for developing critical thinking skills in that they provide individuals with creative minds to process media information. Finally, the evaluation of the current media literacy practices in basic schools with its conclusions and recommendations should help stakeholders in education who are responsible for ensuring success in the implementation of English Language curriculum especially at the basic level.

6.3   Limitations

The study, like other research works falls short of the ideal despite the achievement of its purposes. First, the study focused on only English teachers and pupils in the Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality. Hence, the findings may not be similar to that of other districts and other fields. This study was also limited by the level of details provided by the participants in their responses to the items posed by the researcher especially in the interview. Because of this, we cannot generalise the findings of the study to cover all basic schools in Ghana since the study was only conducted in the Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality.

6.3   Recommendations

Based on the study results, the following recommendations were made for consideration:

1. From the findings, it was evident that students and teachers rarely use newspapers, magazines and internet in teaching and learning English Language in basic schools. Therefore, the study recommends the Directorate of Ghana Education Service at Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality to encourage and support basic schools to produce school magazines and patronize the

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nation's newspapers in the quest to boost students' and teachers' interest in reading and creativity.

2. It was revealed that students are sometimes given instruction on media and information literacy in English Language. Hence, the study recommends that the Ministry of Education through the Ghana Education Service should furnish basic schools with English Language curriculum that features media literacy so as to equip teachers with the requisite knowledge and skills to impact on the students they handle at school.

3. Media literacy helps to develop students' inquiry skills in learning English Language as it was revealed in the study. It is therefore recommended that, English Language teachers should employ media as one of the assessment tools in instructing students in the classroom.

4. Among the challenges that students and teachers face in the practice of media literacy is lack of power supply. The study recommends Government of Ghana to extend electricity to basic schools in the country in order to be able to access power to support the use of some of the media tools (e.g., computers).

6.4   Suggestions for Further Research

This study assessed media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in Basic Schools in Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipality. Therefore, it is suggested that further research be conducted in other basic schools in the country, as well as, in private basic institutions on the use of media literacy in teaching and learning of English Language in order to do the comparative analysis on the system prevailing in these sectors. This suggestion comes against the backdrop that the study has a limited scope involving students and teachers from sampled schools in Nsawam-Adoagyiri Municipality.

The present study also looked at the impact of media literacy on teaching and learning of English Language from a broader perspective. It is suggested that specific studies should be conducted on the specific English Language aspects and skills.

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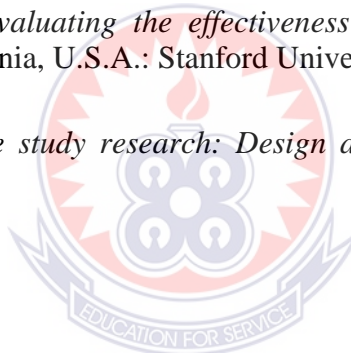
APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

My name is Matilda Osei-Asibey and I am a student of the School of Graduate Studies at the University of Education, Winneba. I am writing my M.Phil thesis which is aimed at the assessment of media literacy in the teaching and learning of English language in basic school and I would be very grateful if you could spend a few minutes answering the following questions and thus help me with my research. Thank you very much in advance. This questionnaire is **anonymous**. There is no right or wrong answer. Just tick the box or complete the answer.

SECTION A: Background Demographic Data

School:………………………………………………… 	Date:………………

1. Gender:

(i) Male □ 	(ii) Female □

2. Highest Educational Qualification

(i) Cert "A" □ 	(ii) Diploma □ 	(iii) Bachelor's Degree □ 	(iv) Master's Degree □ 	(v) Others □

3. For how many years do you teach English?

(i) 1-10 years □ 	(ii) 11-20 years □ 	(iii) 21-30 years □ 	(iv) 30 years and above □

SECTION B: KINDS OF MEDIA USE

1= Never; 2= Rarely; 3= Sometimes;   4=Often; 5=Always

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5

How often are the following media used in your English lesson preparation and/or delivery?

1. Newspapers and magazines

2. Audio recordings

3. Films and videos,

4. Computers with the internet

5. Interactive whiteboards

6. Internet

7. Computer

8. Textbooks

SECTION C: COMPETENCY IN MEDIA LITERACY

1= Never; 2= Rarely; 3= Sometimes;   4=Often; 5=Always

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Students are given instruction on media and information literacy					
2.	In pre-viewing discussion, a topic or theme of the mass media sequence are presented and discussed by the group.					
3.	During while-viewing activities, some lexical items crucial to understanding the text are reviewed and explained.					
4.	Comprehension checks are done periodically in order to determine the students' overall understanding of a story line.					
5.	After-viewing activities used within the lesson mostly included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays.					
6.	Students are asked to examine verbal and non-verbal behaviours of a group of people by collecting and analysing data from multiple sources such TV, internet and movies.					
7.	Based on students' feedback, pedagogical suggestions such as: knowledge of various media formats specificity; improved foreign language performance etc. are offered.					

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SECTION D: IMPACTS OF MEDIA LITERACY

1= Strongly Disagree;   2= Disagree; 3=Undecided; 4= Agree;   5= Strongly Agree

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Media literacy enhance students' English proficiency					
2.	Media literacy develop students' research and higher order thinking skills					
3.	Media literacy foster students' collaborative autonomous learning abilities					
4.	Media literacy promote students' critical thinking and encourage them to compare different perspectives in media texts					
5.	Media literacy stimulate student interest in a wide range of global and local issues, and develop student awareness of the influence of these issues on human life					
6.	Media literacy activities help students uncover the sources of their own stereotypes and prejudices					
7.	Media literacy portrays success as resulting purely from personal motivation and commitment					
8.	Media literacy helps pupils to develop skills of inquiry.					

SECTION E: CHALLENGES OF MEDIA LITERACY

1= Strongly Disagree;   2= Disagree; 3=Undecided; 4= Agree;   5= Strongly Agree

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Using media in English lessons are time-consuming					
2.	Lesson preparation is more demanding					
3.	I don't feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding					
4.	I am afraid that media tools might not function					
5.	I am afraid that I might break something					
6.	Economic factors such as power poses as barriers to media literacy					
7.	Employing media literacy in English lesson demands a huge cost which threatens its practice.					
8.	Gender poses as barrier.					

APPENDIX "B"

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

My name is Matilda Osei-Asibey and I am a student of the School of Graduate Studies at the University of Education, Winneba. I am writing my M.Phil thesis which is aimed at the assessment of media literacy in the teaching and learning of English language in basic school and I would be very grateful if you could spend a few minutes answering the following questions and thus help me with my research. Thank you very much in advance. This questionnaire is **anonymous**. There is no right or wrong answer. Just tick the box or complete the answer.

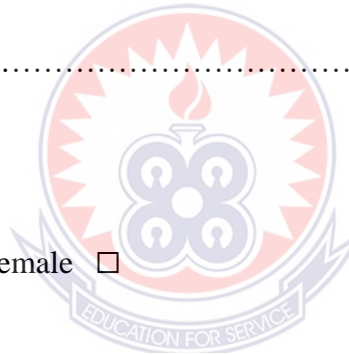**SECTION A: Background Demographic Data**

School:……………………………………………………   Date:………………

1. Gender:

(i) Male ☐   (ii) Female ☐

2. Class

   (i) JHS 1 ☐   (ii) JHS 2 ☐   (iii) JHS 3 ☐

SECTION B: KINDS OF MEDIA USE

1= Never;   2= Rarely;   3= Sometimes;   4=Often;   5=Always

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
	How often are the following media used in your English lesson preparation and/or delivery?					
1.	Newspapers and magazines					
2.	Audio recordings					
3.	Films and videos,					
4.	Computers with the internet					
5.	Interactive whiteboards					
6.	Internet					
7.	Computer					
8.	Textbooks					

SECTION C: COMPETENCY IN MEDIA LITERACY

1= Never; 2= Rarely; 3= Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Students are given instruction on media and information literacy					
2.	In pre-viewing discussion, a topic or theme of the mass media sequence are presented and discussed by the group.					
3.	During while-viewing activities, some lexical items crucial to understanding the text are reviewed and explained.					
4.	Comprehension checks are done periodically in order to determine the students' overall understanding of a story line.					
5.	After-viewing activities used within the lesson mostly included project work, debates, writing critical reviews, role-plays.					
6.	Students are asked to examine verbal and non-verbal behaviours of a group of people by collecting and analysing data from multiple sources such TV, internet and movies.					
7.	Based on students' feedback, pedagogical suggestions such as: knowledge of various media formats specificity; improved foreign language performance etc. are offered.					

SECTION D: IMPACTS OF MEDIA LITERACY

1= Strongly Disagree;   2= Disagree; 3=Undecided; 4= Agree;   5= Strongly Agree

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Media literacy enhance students' English proficiency					
2.	Media literacy develop students' research and higher order thinking skills					
3.	Media literacy foster students' collaborative autonomous learning abilities					
4.	Media literacy promote students' critical thinking and encourage them to compare different perspectives in media texts					
5.	Media literacy stimulate student interest in a wide range of global and local issues, and develop student awareness of the influence of these issues on human life					
6.	Media literacy activities help students uncover the sources of their own stereotypes and prejudices					
7.	Media literacy portrays success as resulting purely from personal motivation and commitment					
8.	Media literacy helps pupils to develop skills of inquiry.					

SECTION E: CHALLENGES OF MEDIA LITERACY

1= Strongly Disagree;   2= Disagree; 3=Undecided; 4= Agree;   5= Strongly Agree

S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Using media in English lessons are time-consuming					
2.	Lesson preparation is more demanding					
3.	I don't feel sufficiently familiar with the electronic media commanding					
4.	I am afraid that media tools might not function					
5.	I am afraid that I might break something					
6.	Economic factors such as power poses as barriers to media literacy					
7.	Employing media literacy in English lesson demands a huge cost which threatens its practice.					
8.	Gender poses as barrier.					

APPENDIX "C"

Interview Guide for Teacher and Students

1. What is your favourite media? How often do you use it?

2. Please describe the different kind of media that you know about?

3. Which of the media do you think is the most powerful? Why?

4. How competent are you in using such media?

5. What do you think is the impact of using media in teaching and learning of English?

6. What do you think are the challenges that prevent you from practicing media literacy?

APPENDIX "D"

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

Reliability Statistics of Kinds of Media

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.714	0.721	8

Reliability Statistics of Media Literacy Competency

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.742	0.744	7

Reliability Statistics of Media Literacy Impacts

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.734	0.744	8

Reliability Statistics of Challenges in Media Literacy

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.702	0.711	8

Reliability Statistics of the Overall Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.761	0.766	31