News Media and Hate Speech Promotion in Mediterranean Countries

Elias Said Hung *Universidad Internacional de la Rioja, Spain*

Julio Montero Diaz *Universidad Internacional de la Rioja, Spain*

A volume in the Advances in Media, Entertainment, and the Arts (AMEA) Book Series Published in the United States of America by IGI Global Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global) 701 E. Chocolate Avenue Hershey PA, USA 17033 Tel: 717-533-8845 Fax: 717-533-8861 E-mail: cust@igi-global.com Web site: http://www.igi-global.com

Copyright © 2023 by IGI Global. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored or distributed in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, without written permission from the publisher. Product or company names used in this set are for identification purposes only. Inclusion of the names of the products or companies does not indicate a claim of ownership by IGI Global of the trademark or registered trademark. Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Said-Hung, Elías, 1979- editor. | Montero Díaz, Julio, editor. Title: News media and hate speech promotion in Mediterranean countries / edited by: Elias Said-Hung, Julio Montero-Diaz.

Description: Hershey PA : Information Science Reference, [2024] | Includes bibliographical references. | Summary: "This book will provide relevant theoretical frameworks and the latest empirical research findings about hate speech' studies. It will be written for professionals and researchers who want to contribute to a debate about hate speech from an approach focused on digital media in a specific geographic and linguistic area (Mediterranean countries). This project can generate a relevant impact in the institutional, professional and academic fields associated with the study of the proposed topic, giving visibility to projects that are currently being advanced around it but also offering the possibility of establishing a new approach, taking into account the particularities of linguistic, media and journalistic characteristics of the Mediterranean countries and of other socioculturally related ones (Latin America)"-- Provided by publisher.

Identifiers: LCCN 2023012755 (print) | LCCN 2023012756 (ebook) | ISBN 9781668484272 (hardcover) | ISBN 9781668484319 (paperback) | ISBN 9781668484289 (ebook)

Subjects: LCSH: Hate speech--Mediterranean Region. | Discrimination in language--Mediterranean Region. | Discrimination in mass media--Mediterranean Region. | Hate--Mediterranean Region.

Classification: LCC P95.54 .N49 2024 (print) | LCC P95.54 (ebook) | DDC 302.2309182/2--dc23/eng/20230512

LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2023012755

LC ebook record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2023012756

This book is published in the IGI Global book series Advances in Media, Entertainment, and the Arts (AMEA) (ISSN: 2475-6814; eISSN: 2475-6830)

British Cataloguing in Publication Data A Cataloguing in Publication record for this book is available from the British Library.

All work contributed to this book is new, previously-unpublished material. The views expressed in this book are those of the authors, but not necessarily of the publisher.

For electronic access to this publication, please contact: eresources@igi-global.com.



Advances in Media, Entertainment, and the Arts (AMEA) Book Series

Giuseppe Amoruso Politecnico di Milano, Italy

> ISSN:2475-6814 EISSN:2475-6830

Mission

Throughout time, technical and artistic cultures have integrated creative expression and innovation into industrial and craft processes. Art, entertainment and the media have provided means for societal self-expression and for economic and technical growth through creative processes.

The Advances in Media, Entertainment, and the Arts (AMEA) book series aims to explore current academic research in the field of artistic and design methodologies, applied arts, music, film, television, and news industries, as well as popular culture. Encompassing titles which focus on the latest research surrounding different design areas, services and strategies for communication and social innovation, cultural heritage, digital and print media, journalism, data visualization, gaming, design representation, television and film, as well as both the fine applied and performing arts, the AMEA book series is ideally suited for researchers, students, cultural theorists, and media professionals.

COVERAGE

- Visual Computing
- Design Tools
- Design of Interiors
- Gaming
- Fabrication and prototyping
- Sports & Entertainment
- Drawing
- Computer aided design and 3D Modelling
- Applied Arts
- Film & Television

IGI Global is currently accepting manuscripts for publication within this series. To submit a proposal for a volume in this series, please contact our Acquisition Editors at Acquisitions@igi-global.com or visit: http://www.igi-global.com/publish/.

The Advances in Media, Entertainment, and the Arts (AMEA) Book Series (ISSN 2475-6814) is published by IGI Global, 701 E. Chocolate Avenue, Hershey, PA 17033-1240, USA, www.igi-global.com. This series is composed of titles available for purchase individually; each title is edited to be contextually exclusive from any other title within the series. For pricing and ordering information please visit http://www. igi-global.com/book-series/advances-media-entertainment-arts/102257. Postmaster: Send all address changes to above address. Copyright © 2023 IGI Global. All rights, including translation in other languages reserved by the publisher. No part of this series may be reproduced or used in any form or by any means – graphics, electronic, or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, taping, or information and retrieval systems – without written permission from the publisher, except for non commercial, educational use, including classroom teaching purposes. The views expressed in this series are those of the authors, but not necessarily of IGI Global.

Table of Contents

Preface	 xvi

Acknowledgment	V V 11

Section 1 Detection

Chapter 1

Chapter 2

Creating an Online Network, Monitoring Team and Apps to Counter Hate Speech, and Hate	
Crime Tactics in Europe	14
Roberto Moreno López, Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha, Spain	
Fabienne Baider, University of Cyprus, Cyprus	

Chapter 3

Chapter 4

Spreading Organised Hate Content	
Sergio Arce-Garcia, Universidad Internacional de La Rioja, Spain	
Jarnishs Beltran, Universidad de Valparaiso, Chile	

Chapter 5

 Approximation of Hate Detection Processes in Spanish and Other Non-Anglo-Saxon Languages 65 Juan José Cubillas Mercado, Universidad Internacional de La Rioja, Spain Óscar De Gregorio Vicente, Universidad Internacional de La Rioja, Spain C. Vladimir Rodríguez Caballero, ITAM, Mexico

Chapter 6

Section 2 Mediterranean Countries' Approaches

Chapter 7

Chapter 8

Chapter 9

The Southernification of the Pandemic in Italy: Images of the South, Fears of Contamination, and
the First Wave of COVID-19 in Italy
Chapter 10
Are There Hate Speeches on Spanish Television? Methodological Proposal and Content Analysis
Over the 2020 Year
Sandra Martínez Costa, University of A Coruña, Spain
Teresa Nozal Cantarero, University of A Coruña, Spain
Antonio Sanjuán Pérez, University of A Coruña, Spain
José Juan Videla Rodríguez, University of A Coruña, Spain
Chapter 11
Hate Speech or Hate Shot? Finding Patterns of the Anti-Muslim Narratives in Italy 203
Alessandra Vitullo, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy
Chapter 12
The Expression of Hate in Portuguese Digital Media: Ethnic and Racial Discrimination
David Ramalho Alves, Iscte-Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Portugal
Helena Belchior-Rocha, Centro de Investigação e Estudos de Sociologia, Iscte-Instituto
Universitário de Lisboa, Portugal
Chapter 13
Online Hate Speech and the Representations of Refugees in #VatanimdaMülteci
(#RefugeeinMyCountry)
Semra Demirdis, Cankiri Karatekin University, Turkey
Chapter 14
Analysis of Radicalisation Prevention Policies From the Perspective of Educommunication in
Mediterranean Countries
Arantxa Azqueta, International University of La Rioja, Spain
Ángela Martín-Gutiérrez, Universidad de Sevilla, Spain
Angel Freddy Rodríguez-Torres, Universidad Central, Ecuador

Chapter 15

New Narratives to Defuse Hate Speech	
Maximiliano Bron, Universidad Nacional de La Rioja, Argentina	
Óscar Javier Arango Arboleda, Universidad de Barcelona, Spain	
Angelica María Rodríguez Ortiz, Univdersidad Autónoma de Manizales, Colombia	
Héctor Claudio Farina Ojeda, Universidad de Guadalajara, Mexico	
Compilation of References	
About the Contributors	
Index	

This book is the result of the collective effort of each of the authors participating in it and those who submitted it during the opening period of the call for proposals. The book results from the project 'Taxonomy, presence and intensity of hate speech in digital environments linked to the Spanish professional news media - Hatemedia (PID2020-114584GB-I00)', financed by the State Research Agency - Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain.

Are There Hate Speeches on Spanish TV? Method Proposal and Content Analysis Over 2020

Sandra Martínez Costa University of A Coruña, Spain

Teresa Nozal Cantarero University of A Coruña, Spain

Antonio Sanjuán Pérez University of A Coruña, Spain

José Juan Videla Rodríguez University of A Coruña, Spain

ABSTRACT

Hate speech on television is difficult to measure, partly due to the difficulty of obtaining and analyzing broadcast content. However, the spreading of those hate messages implies a high reach. For this study, the researchers propose an experimental methodology to analyze the content broadcast on the 24 hours of the five Spanish free-to-air television channels with the highest share over one year (2020): La1, La Sexta, Cuatro, Antena 3 and Tele 5. The authors examined the presence of abusive or hurtful vocabulary and quantified the insults aired. They extracted and studied a sample through content analysis to detect if those insults were accompanied, in any way, by expressions of hatred. Although the messages the researchers studied for this article cannot be considered speeches or hate crimes, there are some offensive comments related to gender, race or religion, mainly on fictional products.

BACKGROUND

Defining hate speech is complex and depends on many factors, some of which are subjective. According to legal definitions, the Council of Europe describes hate speech as

All types of expression that incite, promote, spread or justify violence, hatred or discrimination against a person or group of persons, or that denigrates them, by reason of their real or attributed personal characteristics or status such as 'race', color, language, religion, nationality, national or ethnic origin, age, disability, sex, gender identity and sexual orientation.

In Spain, the 510 article of the Penal Code (Ley Orgánica 10/1995) identifies hate crimes as

The incitement, direct or indirect to hatred, hostility, discrimination or violence against a group, part of it or against a specific person because of their belonging to that group, for racist, antisemitism or other reasons related to ideology, religion or beliefs, family situation, membership of their members to an ethnicity, race or nation, their national origin, gender, sexual orientation or identity, gender reasons, illness or disability.

The 510 legal article also describes a hate crime as "the possession and distribution of material that directly or indirectly promotes hostility against the groups or individuals previously defined and the denial or glorification of crimes against humanity committed during an armed conflict." Therefore, in summary, the researchers define for this study, hate speech as any message that discriminates or encourages discrimination, humiliation, harassment, stigmatization or contempt for individuals or social groups with the characteristics or attributes defined by the laws.

Within this frame of reference, the research on hate speech has increased significantly in the last decade, as the emergence and consolidation of social networks have multiplied its spread and reach, promoting cyber hate and cyber racism that is becoming more and more explicit (Bustos Martínez et al., 2019). Nevertheless, hate speech is restricted on television because the editorial control over the broadcasted content is higher than in social networks. In Spain, the Union of Commercial Open Television (UTECA) maintains its commitment to the 2030 agenda promoted by the United Nations and has increased its non-tolerance policy about messages that encourage hate or inequality. In the First Barometer on the Perception of the Contribution of TV to Sustainable Development Goals (Deloitte, 2020), 58% of the surveyed population considers that "in free-to-air television, there is a greater control over the spread of content that incites violence and hate, than that at the Internet." That is not a casual perception. In social networks, the user's speech is uncontrolled, and any person can take part anonymously, without filtering the tone or content, and with the freedom to hold their opinions on any subject. In television, otherwise, there are journalistic control and the audiovisual content is selected within a schedule and a programming grid that can restrict anonymous or violent interventions.

Free-to-air television remains a relevant media for sharing ideas. It reaches the most dispersed and educationally disadvantaged populations and creates a social imaginary through a large number of people (Scheufele, 1999). Likewise, many of these viewers are part of the called "social TV". So, they are social network users who search for content or share their opinions about what they see on television and online platforms, spreading their statements about hate speeches. (Odunaiya et al., 2020). Even so, many of the hate speech forged on social networks are only known among small groups of users until it is communicated by other broadcasters. As a result of that, popular opinion is usually generated around the hate speech issue when it is discussed on television or in other mass media. For this reason, the social responsibility of television is even much higher (Roy, 2019).

That adds to the political polarization that has increased its exposition on television in recent years (Barreda, 2021; Pérez-Escolar & Noguera-Vivo, 2022; Baghel, 2020), which has contributed to the distrust of their audiences, that consider they spread false news and disinformation (Masip et al., 2020). Polarization and politicization are also present in debates and sports (Rojas-Torrijos & Guerrero, 2021; Mauro & Martínez-Corcuera, 2020) or other sensationalist products (De-Casas et al., 2020; Elias, 2020) as talk shows (Sakki & Hakoköngäs, 2022). That is why it is essential to check to what extent hate speech is allowed or communicated on television and what contents and discourse formulas uses to serve this purpose. Only this way will it be possible to combat their effects.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A part of the research on hate speech in recent years focuses on the Internet and social networks. This is quite because of the aforementioned editorial work of the sender, which means that it is easier for television broadcasters to avoid this type of content, which results in a lower perception of hate speech among viewers (Deloitte, 2020). But also, content analysis on a social network or in the online press is more accessible to researchers since there are numerous databases and tools to analyze the content published on them (Tontodimamma et al., 2021; Paz et al., 2020). On the contrary, the research on television content is expensive and laborious for the academic community and limits its results since it requires watching many hours of broadcast content. That is a substantial restriction when it comes to

managing the available resources. Hence the contribution of this research, which scans 24 hours of television broadcast over 12 months.

The research on audiovisual content can be done by watching online databases television platforms, but not all broadcasters have everything of their content available to the audience or even have digitized their video and audio files. In recent years, initiatives such as Verba Volant (a web containing the News from La 1 de Televisión Española and its corresponding transcripts) have emerged. These databases are just the ones that allow research on television content, as they do on social networks or the Internet. Most of the studies in those fields are from a linguistic and semantic point of view, which means the search on the Internet for an issue and some related words to that topic. From there, the researchers analyze the semantic structure around that subject to understand their meanings and if there is a positive or negative point of view.

However, some more difficulties concern the analysis of hate speech on television. It relies on a visual symbolic code consisting of elements that suggest the topic not only by the sum of words or by the sum of its meanings but by conventions such as image, tone, voice volume, etc. that affect the perception the viewer may have about it. Thus, the process that guides the detection of an issue on television and the measurement of the time spent on the screen are relevant to the whole research on the topic.

Many academic studies on hate speech on television focus on political debates and election campaigns (Ezeibe, 2021); fictional content (Martínez de Bartolomé & Rivera-Martín, 2022); News (Arévalo et al., 2021; Caldevilla-Domínguez et al., 2023); how that hate speech is perceived based on the political ideology of the receiver (Abuín-Vences et al., 2022) and the limits of freedom of expression (Pavlides, 2019). They also aim to define what hate speech is (Gelber, 2019) and report politicians and influencers as propagators of it (Gelgel et al., 2023). Other authors' research highlights the differences between cyber hate and hate speech in other media (Castaño-Pulgarín et al., 2021); and reinforces the importance of control and editorial policy in television broadcasts (Brown, 2017).

Furthermore, the academic works that identify the elements of hate speech against specific groups are relevant to this research. Special attention is given to racist language and stereotype detection (Kroskrity, 2021; Idevall, 2019). The studies that focus on the knowledge of the discourse against migrants (Arcila et al., 2022; Valdez-Apolo, 2019; Paasch-Colberg et al., 2021), women (Piñeiro-Otero & Martínez-Rolán, 2021) and the LGTBIQ collective (Carratalá & Herrero-Jiménez, 2019; Heim, 2020) are also numerous.

Related to the forms and strategies that define hate speech, other research works focus on detecting those linguistic elements that generate prejudices and hostility towards some social groups (Mullen & Leader, 2005; Amores et al., 2021; Istaiteh et al., 2020). Also, once the linguistic elements are defined, the researchers work on automated detection mainly on the Internet and social networks (Pervez Akhter et al., 2021; Pariyani et al., 2021; Arcila et al., 2020). However, the main difficulty in hate speech research is not only the detection of offensive words but, as mentioned above, the acknowledgement of those elements that affect the viewer's perception of it. That is why it is essential to recognize and measure the tone of the speech and other metaphorical terms that can be hate speech (Neitsch et al., 2021). For that, most studies use content analysis as a research tool (Valdez-Apolo et al., 2019) to approach both the language and the rhetorical strategies used (Paz et al., 2020).

Following the agenda-setting theories (Edelstein, 1993; McCombs et al., 2014), the study of hate speech on television is also relevant because of the notable influence of this and other mass media. According to their theory, mass media decide the topics that will become the object of the public interest and the significance assigned to each of them. Therefore, this is important for the validation of policies against hate speech since mass media help draw attention to a given topic considered newsworthy (Colombini et al., 2016).

For this study, the researchers consider that the perception of hate speech as a public interest problem depends fundamentally on the intensity of its media coverage (Spies, 2020). Mass media can transform or create a state of mind among viewers (Tewsbury & Scheufele, 2019) since by focusing on some aspects of the situation, others are left out (Goffman, 2006). Following the studies of Navarro and Olmo (2018), the researchers can say that the public visibility of a topic is not enough to endow it with value, but it is nevertheless essential since content that does not appear in the media does not exist for the audiences.

Together with the analysis of the presence (or absence) of hate speech on television, it is, therefore, necessary to consider how it is contextualized and framed. Despite having evolved since its inception (Ardévol-Abreu et al., 2020; Lazarsfeld et al., 2021; Deuze & McQuail, 2020; Noelle-Neumann, 2013), the framing theory remains valid when applied the hate speech in media studies (Cacciatore et al., 2016; Tewsbury & Scheufele, 2019). Framing analyzes how media presents topics of public interest and their interpretation (Binderkrantz, 2017; Crow & Lawlor, 2016), making it relevant to the present study. Also, those frames are useful to address stereotypes about social groups, which helps in political and media speeches to speak about that groups (Sánchez-Junquera et al., 2021b).

Based on those and other previous research on hate speech (Matamoros-Fernández & Farkas, 2021; Paz et al., 2020), the authors developed for this work an experimental methodology to measure the presence and relevance of offensive and abusive language on television. That experimental and quantitative method was complemented by qualitative content analysis, as detailed in the following sections.

QUESTIONS

In this context, the main goals of this research are twofold: first, to create and validate a research methodology that helps to detect hate speech on television; second, to identify if there is hate speech in the television broadcast by the five free-to-air Spanish channels throughout the year 2020.

Based on this, the authors lead to the following research questions (Q):

Q1. Can a clear and reliable research methodology be established to identify hate speech on television?

And also:

Q2. Is there hate speech spread on Spanish television?

Q3. If there is hate speech, are there relevant differences between the public ownership television channel (La 1) and the others in the study?

Finally, it would be interesting to know:

Q4. Which are the groups or individuals that are the target of this hate speech?

METHOD

Measuring hate speech on television is not easy. The number of hours of audio-visual content and the diversity of language that can indicate attitudes of hatred towards a minority or a group can be broad and have lots of shading. Consequently, it is hard to define a stable corpus that facilitates the work of researchers and makes it necessary to create an appropriate research methodology.

For this research, the authors present an experimental methodology that helps to study the content broadcasted in the 24-hour programming of the five Spanish free-to-air television channels with the highest share over a year (Barlovento Comunicación, 2021): La1, La Sexta, Cuatro, Antena 3, and Tele 5. The researchers reviewed its profanity or hurtful vocabulary and measured the insults aired. Then they extracted and studied a sample through content analysis to detect if those insults were included, in any way, with expressions of hatred. For this work, the authors developed an experimental research technique, for which they have, thanks to a collaboration with the TV service provider company Cinfo S.L., subtitles of a total of 24h of the five TV channels that are the subject of the study. These subtitles are intended to integrate the population with hearing difficulties and are generated in an automated way in some channels and semi-automated in others (speech-to-text detection plus human review). This means that, for this study, the researchers analyzed 43,200 hours of broadcasted content and approximately 363,175,000 words¹ divided into text files with the subtitles of the TV channels. Therefore, they observed both nonfictional and fictional content, which is interesting to know about a complete framework for hate speech on TV.

The complex and enormous volume of data generates a significant amount of work for the researchers. Thus, the first measure to detect hate speech is to check the growth in the television medium of those words that are insulting or offensive since they denote hurtful attitudes (Hayaty et al., 2020; Jay, 2023) that can be indicative of expressions of hate. This detection system through improper words has been previously developed by researchers such as Lee and Cheng (2020) and used in deep learning tools, although with relatively low precision in the advanced phases. So, for this study, the researchers considered that content analysis is essential to confirm the presence of hate speech in offensive expressions.

To create a rude vocabulary corpus and with the help of the NVivo software, the researchers detected all the words said on the five TV channels over 30 days. Although the year 2020 was different in media programming due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the month of June was randomly chosen to collect that vocabulary. The 8,000 most said words were listed, but the researchers reduced them to 5,000 by eliminating the derivatives (feminine, plural and verbal conjugations, as well as numbers). Then they choose those that could be offensive, violent or rude and evaluated their offence degree on a scale of 1 to 5. Despite the prominent presence of nasty language, only insults and other hurtful words were chosen. For example, the word "shit" occupies position 362 that month (2,813 times), but despite its negative connotation, it is eliminated for not being a personal offence. Finally, the selected words for this study were: whore and fag (puta y puto) and their plurals; bastard (cabrón/a), bitch (perra) and their plurals; racist(s); idiot(s); fucktard(s) and silly(s) (imbécil-es). At this point, it is necessary to clarify that the word "puto" (fag) is used in Spanish as male-whore and also as the word "fucking" (for example, the sentence "drive the fucking car" could be in Spanish "conduce el puto coche").

The word "ass" (burro) was eliminated from the list, after verifying that the mentions of that month mostly refer to the animal (donkey), and "fat" and "fatty" were also eliminated because they were not used as insults. It happens the same with the words "cow" (vaca), "pig" (cerdo/a) and "dog" (perro). However, "bitch" (perra) is kept on the list because the feminine has a different and more offensive connotation than its masculine (dog/perro). That offensive use of the word was detected in some expressions said on television during the month of June.

"Gay" was also eliminated from the list, since the researchers agree that in Spain it is not considered an aggressive or degrading word. "Niger/black" (Negro) also appears in position 736 of the most mentioned, but it is discarded for the study due to its double meaning in Spanish (Negro is used interchangeably for the color and the Black people) and because the authors considered that, if there is hate speech towards the black race, it will be accompanied by other insults that could be perceived during the content analysis. Therefore, under the assumption that hate messages usually contain specific insulting vocabulary, the researchers choose the corpus of offensive words.

Then, they validated the analysis methodology. To do this, they reviewed the entire television content of the five TV channels under study for one day, with the purpose to measure the agreement between the offensive words detected using the nVivo software and the units of analysis defined by the researchers manually.

The day chosen was June 19 because it was one of the days with the highest number of insults. Therefore, the validation was done with 120 hours of broadcast content, which represented 922,370 words. Previously, an intercoder test verified the reliability of the qualitative analysis method, with a Fleiss kappa value of 0.71, a reasonable figure due to the complex definition of hate speeches.

The manual review of the television content allowed the identification of 19 units of analysis that had not been detected by searching simply insults. Their duration was 36 minutes and 45 seconds. Therefore, this time adds to the 2 hours 28 minutes 06 seconds detected by searching offensive words. Both reviews show that the coincidence degree between the two methods is 80.06%. Therefore, is quite high (Lee & Chen, 2020). So, in response to the question of whether it is possible to establish a methodology with clear reliability that serves to recognize hate speech on television (Q1) the authors can say that, far from being perfect, the proposed method allows identifying quite precisely expressions that are susceptible to be measured as hate speech.

Thus, the researchers explored all the broadcasted content of the day of each month with the highest number of insults. They jointly evaluated, on a scale of 1 to 5 degree, if there was hate speech in all of those 12 days and also, if those hate messages provoked action against an individual or a group or if it was only a denigrating expression. Those that exceeded an average evaluation of 4 were considered constitutive of hate speech. They also identified if this was for reasons of sex, race, religion, gender, belonging to a minority, a political or cultural group or for social or economic causes.

In short, the proposed research methodology combines quantitative techniques for data collection and qualitative analysis, which is essential for the measurement of hate speech.

RESULTS

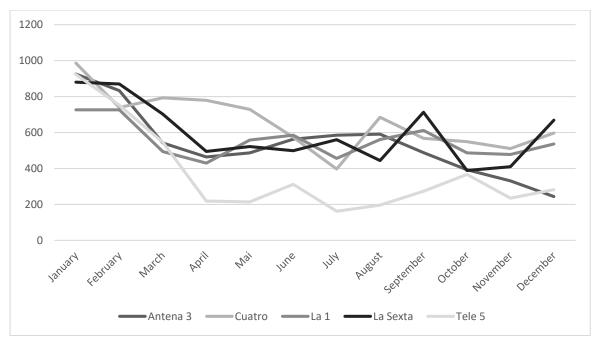
To enable the analysis of the results below, they are divided into two subsections. The first is dedicated to the frequency and trends of insults aired on the five free-to-air television channels during 2020. The second focuses on the analysis content of those items that could be considered hate speech.

Overall frequency of abusive words on television

In the first stage of this study, the researchers could draft the trend in the presence of insults aired on Spanish television broadcasts. Although the coronavirus pandemic was not a subject of analysis for this research, its outbreak and the announcement of confinement in Spain on March 13, 2020, caused relevant changes in the TV programming grids that affected the study. For that reason, there was a notable decrease in the number of insults broadcasted on television from March 2020 (Figure 1).

This drop occurred among all broadcasters, although Cuatro showed a more stable trend on the insults aired. Most of the TV channels increased their news programs, specials and other live broadcasts in March, April, May and June 2020, which could justify this collapse, as the detected insults were said mostly in fictional or entertainment products, as discussed below.

Figure 1. Total offensive words aired, by channel. 2020.



Source: Compiled by Authors.

Cuatro was the television network of the study that used the highest number of offensive words throughout the year, with 24.22% of the total detected (<u>Table 1</u>), followed by La Sexta with 21.91%. It can be noticed that Tele 5 is the one that uses them the least (only 13.73% of the total identified in 2020).

TV channel	Total insults	Percentage of the insults detected
Antena 3	6446	19,75%
Cuatro	7907	24,22%
La 1	6649	20,37%
La Sexta	7153	21,91%
Tele 5 4481 13,73%		13,73%
Total	32636	100%

Table 1. Total insults, by channel. 2020.

Source: Compiled by Authors.

Of these results, the case of La 1 stands out, as it is the one with public ownership and therefore has a greater responsibility in the enforcement of social welfare policies (Túñez-López et al., 2020). For this reason, it could be expected that the use of language on La 1 is taken care of, avoiding as much as possible, offensive or hurtful vocabulary and the spread of hate speech. This study highlights that La 1 is not the channel with the least number of hurtful words, but it is in the middle of the ranking of TV broadcasters. This answers, in part, question Q3, since we cannot clearly say that La 1 stands out for the use of more careful language than its rivals in this study.

Frequency and categorization of the hate speech on public and private television

Once the researchers reviewed the offensive words for all the year 2020, they made the content analysis of the day of each month with the highest number of insults. Thus, the researchers studied the following 12 days: January 28, February 2, March 21, April 19, May 31, June 19, July 25, August 9, September 19, October 17, November 22 and December 5. A total of 151 units of analysis in which there was some approach to hate speech were extracted.

Of the 151 units, those that were not related to possible hate crimes were analyzed separately. A total of 78 units of content had negative connotations towards some group, ethnicity, or due to race, sex, gender and physical or religious causes. Therefore, were susceptible to constituting hate speech. In those analysis units, there could be one or more insults, so the total number of offensive words present in those 78 units of content was 209, out of the total of 2,121 insults detected in those 12 days. Hence, answering the question about the presence of hate speech on content television (Q2), the researchers can say that 9.8% of the insults analyzed on those 12 days could somehow induce hatred. The other offensive words located through the nVivo program referred to abusive terms with no further connotations, were insults to oneself ("I feel stupid"), were not insults (for example, in the case of the word "bitch" it was used offensively only six times); or were used to emphasize an expression ("motherfucking / de puta madre"), ("it's a fucking mess / es un puto desastre, etc.").

Once the authors identified the units of analysis with the potential of being hate messages, four researchers gave a value ranging from -1 to 1 to each one of them for defining if there was an offense or not. Of the 78 units of analysis, 15 were eliminated because the researchers could not reach an agreement. The total broadcast time of the 63 remaining units was 2h 22m 42", or 142 minutes and 42" out of 86,400 examined (1,440 minutes x 12 days x 5 channels). Therefore, only 0.16% of the studied time was considered as offensive or violent speech, which averages to 0.03% of each channel's broadcasts. The 63 units of analysis were categorized into five types of offences: racial and ethnic hate; religious causes; gender or sexual orientation; belonging to a social, political, or ideological group; and physical appearance. In addition, messages inciting any type of violent action were coded, as well as those that did not. It should be noticed that only 2 of the 63 were in entertainment programs, while the remaining 61 belonged to fictional content.

Hate speeches	Hate speeches urging violent actions (20)	Hate speeches not urging violent actions (43)
Racial and ethnic hate	14	12
Religious causes hate	4	3
Gender or sexual orientation hate	0	24
Hate for belonging to a social, political, or ideological group	0	4
Physical appearance hate	2	0

Table 2. Total insults, by channel. 2020.Note. The 15 units of analysis in which there was no consensus among the researchers are not included in this table.

Source: Compiled by Authors.

The research reveals that ethnic or racial groups were the ones that received the most hate speeches urging violence (<u>Table 2</u>). Of these, 14 were expressions such as "I'm going to kill you, stinking Arab" or "One day we're going to kill all the blacks and Jews. And then the world will be okay." All of these expressions were in fictional content. The rest of the hate speeches were due to behavior or sexual orientation. There are also 7 units of analysis with violent content for religious causes, all against Jews; and 2 for physical appearance reasons. Responding to question Q4, the groups that are the object of hate are Black people (8), Chinese (5), Russians (5), Arabs (4), Mexicans (3) and Somalis (1); Jews were

insulted for religious reasons (7); homosexuals (5) and women (19) for their sexual behavior; Twitter users (2), talk show speakers (1) and communists (1) for their belonging to a political or social group; and finally, fat people for their physical appearance (2).

Although data are small to confirm a global trend, the presence of the units considered by the researchers as hatred inciters are slightly increasing as the importance of the coronavirus in television broadcasts decreases towards the end of 2020, as shown in <u>figure 2</u>. That highlights once again the relevance of the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak that caused the changes in the program scheduling of the TV channels.

As can be seen in <u>figure 2</u>, when the population came out of confinement and the habitual agenda of the channels recovered, the trend to expose messages that incite hatred increased steadily.

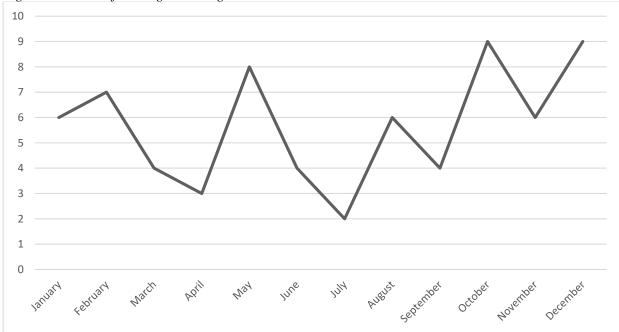


Figure 2. Trends of messages inciting hate. 2020.

Source: Compiled by Authors.

By channels, the authors can say that most of the expressions of hate are given on La 1 (24), followed by Cuatro (18), Antena 3 (10), La Sexta (9) and Tele 5 (2).

In the content study, the researchers also detected 73 units of analysis with information on hate crimes and mentions of complaints or trials about situations that could be constitutive of crime. These units of analysis were given special review by the researchers, as they indicate that the broadcasters are sensitive to information related to hate speeches and because, in this case, it could be considered as a tool for fighting it. Of that information units, 30 were broadcasted on La Sexta, the channel that dedicated more time to talk about hate speech and hate crimes, followed by La 1 (13), Cuatro (11), Tele 5 (11) and Antena 3 (8). Therefore, except for La Sexta and Tele 5, the channels broadcasted more offensive messages than information on hate crimes. These data can help to answer the Q3 question about the differences between public (La 1) and private ownership channels, because they indicate that La 1 is not the broadcaster that spends the most time combating hate speech.

The total duration of those 73 units of analysis was 4h00m39", so almost twice the time dedicated to expressions inciting hatred. It is to be noted, about the time of that information, that it is more complex to explain the forms, causes and consequences of a crime, even more something as complex as hate speech, than to broadcast an insult related with issues of race, ethnicity, religion or sex in fictional content. Therefore, it can also explain the long time dedicated to those units of information.

Additionally, some paradoxes stand out. The public TV channel La 1 is the one that uses insults that could generate hatred the most, despite the assumed fact of its public service usefulness.

Also, the review of the content broadcast on the same channel throughout one day indicates that unique situations can occur. For example, La Sexta on February 8 reported on "Chinophobia" due to the fear of COVID-19 transmission which was beginning to spread in cities like Madrid, and also on the same day broadcasted a film in which there were racist insults towards Chinese people.

CONCLUSIONS

From this research on the presence of hate speech on TV during 2020, the following conclusions highlights:

First, the researchers can determine that hate speech on Spanish television is low. Insults and messages that may be offensive or hurtful hesitate and depend on the television programming grid. They are mainly on fictional content, which can be modified in exceptional circumstances, such as, for example, those derived from the COVID-19 pandemic.

The researchers made content analysis of 3.2% of television programming for a year, and only 9.8% of the insulting messages detected were considered hate speech. And of these, only 25% were competent in inciting violent actions. However, those are specific expressions that are part of a broader discourse marked by stereotypes that are racist and offensive. Those stereotypes are functional and help to economize on fictional audiovisual language and to explain plots efficiently. But there is a problem if they are associated with negative issues that end up building a polarized and racist message (Sánchez-Junquera et al., 2021a; Mostert, 2019).

Moreover, the construction of stereotypes touches on several sensitive topics. The authors cannot consider that there is a hate crime in the messages sent from one fictional character to another. There is no crime, even though the insults can go against real individuals or groups: Moors, Chinese, Russians, homosexuals, Jews, etc.

Also, those stereotypes can generate negative actions that lead to hatred because they are often associated with race, ethnicity, sex or gender issues. For example, Moors and Mexicans are frequently presented as drug dealers. The Chinese and Russians as human traffickers. In all of the analyzed cases, they were insulted by mentioning their races or origins. That is why, although there is no explicit hate speech, there is a construction in the collective imagination in which some races or ethnicities are supposed to be violent or criminal, and therefore, they are "demonized" by others.

On television, those messages oppose information that analyzes hate speeches and crimes of hate, which indicates the importance that UTECA and the free-to-air televisions give to the goals set for 2030. This effort to avoid offensive expressions shows the two faces of hate on television and the attempt of public institutions to hold back a problem that could grow indiscriminately through the Internet and social networks. Television helps, in this sense, to act as a "firewall", constructing an educational attitude towards its audience.

Although, as mentioned at the beginning of this article, it is often perceived that there is hate speech in politics, sports, or sensationalist talk shows. Although offences of some kind may occur in these programs, the authors did not detect them with the research methodology proposed here. Also, it should be considered that sometimes the appreciation of verbal violence is subjective and may be due to physical or non-verbal vehemence (pitched voices, gesticulations or disagreement) that the viewer sometimes perceives less consciously than with the verbal language.

Finally, the authors can say that despite the positive results of the methodology used for this study, there are ways to generate hatred without using offensive words (Miller, 2021). That is why the researchers understand that this method has its limitations. For example, it is hard to detect hate speech with low levels of offence (there must be at least an insult in the speech to be detected) and does not take into account other subtle aspects of language or the context of a particular expression. The error-index derived from the validation of the methodology, for example, is due in part to the lack of that context in language, and to the fact that a reduced corpus was used to facilitate the analysis work since only 7 insults (and their feminine and plural derivatives) were sought. Being the most used on television, the detection of expressions of hatred associated with them was high, but a more complete search of offensive words would help find more units of analysis susceptible to incite to hatred.

Moreover, it is necessary to bear in mind the particularities of each language and culture, which affect the meaning or the implicit hate in some words and the perception of verbal and non-verbal violence. For example, the word "black" has been a problem in this research because of its double meaning in Spanish, as explained before. The researchers had to study the insults to Black people qualitatively, but the word "negro" (black, in Spanish) may have been used offensively on more occasions than the ones detected by the authors.

In English, however, this double meaning does not exist since the word for the color black is different from the word used as an insult to Black people. Something similar occurs with the term "puta" (whore or fucking, in English) or with the perception of these words as an insult in Spanish culture. For this reason, it is important to consider the particularities of the language of each country, when studying and defining hate speech.

Consequently, and despite the effectiveness of the experimental methodology presented here, the researchers consider that the detection of violent or hate speeches towards a particular social group can have many gradations that are difficult to detect using only verbal language or analyzing decontextualized phrases, which is a handicap to overcome for this and other future research on hate crimes in the media.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

According to the study, the researchers have detected some possible improvements in the proposed method. In addition to the weaknesses already mentioned in the conclusions section, a more exhaustive test of the research process is necessary. The hate speech detection method must be tested in more research works along with different media to validate its application and correct other possible mistakes.

As an extension of this work, it would be proper to compare the approach of the media coverage to such content during the year 2020 to that after January 2021, when fiction content increased on the television programming schedule.

It would also be convenient to carry out a more exhaustive qualitative analysis since it is essential to measure the presence of hate speech in visual and sound elements that were not considered for this study.

Likewise, as other authors have done before, it could be interesting to define the effects between live television content in which hate speech is being broadcasted and the conversation generated around that issue on social networks at the same time.

REFERENCES

Abuín-Vences, N., Cuesta-Cambra, U., Niño-González, J. I., & Bengochea-González, C. (2022). Hate speech analysis as a function of ideology: Emotional and cognitive effects. [in Spanish]. *Comunicar: revista científica iberoamericana de comunicación y educación*, nº 71, v. XXX, 37-48. https://doi.org/10.3916/C71-2022-03

Amores, J., Blanco-Herrero, D., Sánchez-Holgado, P., & Frías-Vázquez, M. (2021). Detectando el odio ideológico en Twitter. Desarrollo y evaluación de un detector de discurso de odio por ideología política en tuits en español. *Cuadernos.info*, (49), 98-124. https://dx.doi.org/10.7764/cdi.49.27817

Arcila, C., Blanco-Herrero, D., & Valdés, M. B. (2020). Rejection and hate speech on Twitter: content analysis of tweets about migrants and refugees [in Spanish]. *Spanish Journal of Sociological Research*, 172, 21-40. http://dx.doi.org/10.5477/cis/reis.172.21

Arcila, C., Sánchez Holgado, P., Quintana Moreno, C., Amores, J. J., & Blanco Herrero, D. (2022). Discurso de odio y aceptación social hacia migrantes en Europa: análisis de tuits con geolocalización. *Comunicar: revista científica iberoamericana de comunicación y educación*. v. XXX, n. 71, april, 21-35. https://doi.org/10.3916/C71-2022-02

Ardèvol-Abreu, A., De Zúñiga, H. G., & McCombs, M. E. (2020). Orígenes y desarrollo de la teoría de la agenda setting en Comunicación. Tendencias en España (2014-2019). *El profesional de la información*, 29(4).

Arévalo-Salinas, A. I., Al-Najjar Trujillo, T., & Aidar-Abib, T. (2021). La cobertura informativa de la inmigración en Televisión Española. El caso del barco Aquarius. *Estudios sobre el mensaje periodístico*, 27 (1), 13-25. https://dx.doi.org/10.5209/ esmp.73744

Baghel, S. S. (2020). Ethics in Journalism: A Forgotten Pillar. *MediaSpace: DME Journal of Communication*, Vol. 1, 92-107.

Barreda, M. (2021). Political polarization in current democracies: expressions and consequences [in Spanish]. *Manuel Giménez Abad Notebooks*, 21. https://doi.org/10.47919/FMGA.CM21.0109

Binderkrantz, A. S. (2017). Interest group representation and framing in the media: A policy area perspective. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 20, e2009. https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2009

Brown, A. (2017). What is so special about online (as compared to offline) hate speech? *Ethnicities*, 18(3) 297–326. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468796817709846

Bustos Martínez, L., De Santiago Ortega, P. P., Martínez Miró, M. A., & Rengifo Hidalgo, M. S. (2019). Hate speeches: an epidemic that spreads on the web. State of the art on racism and xenophobia on social networks [in Spanish]. *Social Mediations*, 18, 25-42. https://doi.org/10.5209/meso.64527

Cacciatore M. A., Scheufele, D. A., & Iyengar, S. (2016). The end of framing as we know it. and the future of media effects. *Mass Communication and Society*. 19, 7–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/15205436.2015.10688119 Caldevilla-Domínguez, D., Barrientos-Báez, A., & Padilla-Castillo, G. (2023). Dilemmas Between Freedom of Speech and Hate Speech: Russophobia on Facebook and Instagram in the Spanish Media. *Politics and Governance*, Volume 11, Issue 2, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.17645/pag.v11i2.6330

Carratalá, A., & Herrero-Jiménez, B. (2021). La regulación contra el discurso de odio hacia el colectivo LGTBI en los medios: Análisis comparado de diez leyes autonómicas. *RAEIC. Revista de la Asociación Española de Investigación de la Comunicación*, 6(12), 58-80. https://doi.org/10.24137/raeic.6.12.3

Castaño-Pulgarín, S., Suárez-Betancur, N., Tilano Vega, L., & Herrera López, H. (2021). Internet, social media and online hate speech. Systematic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 58, 101608, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2021.101608.

Colombini, M., Mayhew S. H., Hawkins B., Bista, M., Kumar Joshi, S., Schei, B., & Watts, Ch. (2016). Agenda setting and framing of gender-based violence in Nepal: How it became a health issue. *Health Policy and Planning*. 31, 493–503. 10.1093/heapol/czv091

Crow, D. A., & Lawlor A. (2016). Media in the policy process: Using framing and narratives to understand policy influences. *Review of Policy Research*. 33, 472–491. https://doi.org/10.1111/ropr.12187

De-Casas, P., Vizcaíno-Verdú, A., & Aguaded, I. (2020). La televisión sensacionalista y hábitos de consumo en España e Italia. *Estudios sobre el mensaje periodístico*. 26(2) 2020: 483-496. https://doi.org/10.5209/esmp.67582

Deloitte (2020). First Barometer on the Perception of the Contribution of TV to Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) [in Spanish]. https://bit.ly/3wNbZV2

Deuze, M., & McQuail, D. (2020). *McQuail's Media and Mass Communication Theory*. Sage Publications.

Edelstein, A. S. (1993). Thinking about the criterion variable in agenda setting research. *Journal of Communication*. 43, 85–99. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.1993.tb01264.x

Elias, C. (2020). *Hate speech in Egyptian television talk shows: a qualitative study*. [Thesis, The American University in Cairo, School of Global Affairs and Public Policy]. https://bit.ly/3zAM4BM

Ezeibe, C. (2021). Hate Speech and Election Violence in Nigeria. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, Vol. 56(4) 919–935. 10.1177/0021909620951208

Gelber, K. (2019). Differentiating hate speech: a systemic discrimination approach. *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 24, 4, 393-414. https://doi.org/10.1080/13698230.2019.1576006

Gelgel, N. M. R. A., Limilia, P., & Ratri Rahmiadji, L. (2023). Politicians and Celebrities: Propagators of Hate Speech in Indonesia. *Proceedings of Indonesia Focus*, [S.l.], v. 1, n. 1, 6. https://www.indonesiafocus.net/index.php/PIF/article/view/90

Goffman E. (2006). *Frame Analysis. Los marcos de la experiencia.* Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas (CIS), Siglo XXI Editores.

Hayaty, M., Adi, S., & Hartanto, A. (2020). Lexicon-Based Indonesian Local Language Abusive Words Dictionary to Detect Hate Speech in Social Media. *Journal of Information Systems Engineering and Business Intelligence*, 6 (1), 9-17. http://dx.doi.org/10.20473/jisebi.6.1.9-17

Heim, J. (2020). Italian LGBTQ representation in transnational television. Journal of Italian Cinema & Media Studies, Volume 8, Issue 2, 189 – 203. https://doi.org/10.1386/jicms_00016_1

Idevall, K. (2019). "She has promised never to use the N-word again": Discourses of racism in a Swedish media debate. *Discourse, Context & Media*, Volume 31, 1-8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcm.2019.100322

Istaiteh, O., Al-Omoush, R., & Tedmori, S. (October 19TH - 22ND, 2020). Racist and sexist hate speech detection: literature review. 2020 *International Conference on Intelligent Data Science Technologies and Applications (IDSTA)*, IEEE 95. Valencia, Spain (online).

Jay, T. (2023). 86 Hurtful words and hate speech. In G. Schiewer, J. Altarriba & B. Ng (eds.) *Language and Emotion. An international handbook*, vol. 3. De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110795486

Kroskrity, P. (2021). Covert Linguistic Racisms and the (Re-)Production of White Supremacy. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*. Volume 31, Issue 2, 180-193. https://doi.org/10.1111/jola.12307

Lazarsfeld, P. F., Berelson, B., & Gaudet, H. (2021). *The People's Choice. How the Voter Makes up his Mind in a Presidential Campaign*. Columbia University Press.

Lee, P., & Cheng, C. (2020). Profanity and Hate Speech Detection. *International Journal of Information and Management Sciences*. 31, 3, 227-246. 10.6186/IJIMS.202009_31(3).0002

Ley Orgánica 10/1995, de 23 de noviembre, del Código Penal. *Boletín Oficial del Estado*, n. 281, November 24, 1995. https://www.boe.es/biblioteca_juridica/abrir_pdf.php?id=PUB-DP-2022-118

Martínez de Bartolomé, I., & Rivera-Martín, B. (2022). Hate speech against the LGTBIQ+ community and its representation in Veneno series. *VISUAL REVIEW International Visual Culture Review*. 12(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.37467/revvisual.v9.3718

Masip, P., Suau, J., & Ruiz-Caballero, C. (2020). Percepciones sobre medios de comunicación y desinformación: ideología y polarización en el sistema mediático español. *Profesional de la Información*, 29(5). https://doi.org/10.3145/epi.2020.sep.27

Matamoros-Fernández, A., & Farkas, J. (2021). Racism, Hate Speech, and Social Media: A Systematic Review and Critique. *Television & New Media*, 22(2), 205–224. https://doi.org/10.1177/1527476420982230

Mauro, M. & Martínez-Corcuera, R., (2020). Hypermasculinity and racist discourses in the Spanish media. The spectacularisation of radio sport programming. In: J. O'Brien, R. Holden & X. Ginesta (eds.) *Sport, Globalisation and Identity. New Perspectives on Regions and Nations.* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003007104

McCombs, M. E., Shaw D. L., & Weaver D. H. (2014). New directions in agenda-setting theory and research. *Mass Communication Society*. 17, 781–802. https://doi.org/10.1080/15205436.2014.964871

Miller, K. (2021). Hostility Toward the Press: A Synthesis of Terms, Research, and Future Directions in Examining Harassment of Journalists. *Digital Journalism*, oct., 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2021.1991824

Mostert, M. (2019). Stereotypes fomenting hate. Perceptions, stigma, and real-world consequences for Africans with disabilities. In M. Sherry, T. Olsen, J. Solstad Vedeler & J. Eriksen, *Disability Hate Speech*. Routledge.

Mullen, B., & Leader, T. (2005). Linguistic factors: antilocutions, ethonyms, ethnophaulisms, and other varieties of hate speech. In J. Dovidio, P. Glick, L. Rudman (eds.) *On The Nature of Prejudice: Fifty Years After Allport*, Wiley Online. 10.1002/9780470773963

Navarro, J. A., & Olmo, A. (2018). Political presence on Spanish Television (La1) in the previous electoral processes [in Spanish]. *Studies in Journalism Message*. 24, 1473–1488. https://doi.org/10.5209/ESMP.62229

Neitsch, J., Niebuhr, O., & Kleene, A. (2021). What if Hate Speech Really Was Speech? Towards Explaining Hate Speech in a Cross-Modal Approach. In S. Wachs, B. Koch-Priewe, A. Zick (eds) *Hate Speech - Multidisziplinäre Analysen und Handlungsoptionen*. Springer VS. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-31793-5_6

Noelle-Neumann, E. (2013). The Spiral of Silence. Routledge Oxforshire.

Odunaiya, O, Agoyi, M., & Sunday Osemeahon, M. (2020). Social TV Engagement for Increasing and Sustaining Social TV Viewers. *Sustainability*, 12(12), 4906. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12124906

Paasch-Colberg, S., Strippel, C., Trebbe, C., & Emmer, M. (2021). From Insult to Hate Speech: Mapping Offensive Language in German User Comments on Immigration. *Media and Communication*, Volume 9, Issue 1, 171–180. https://doi.org/10.17645/mac.v9i1.3399

Pariyani, B., Shah, K., Shah, M., Vyas, T., & Degadwala, S. (February 04-06, 2021). Hate Speech Detection in Twitter using Natural Language Processing, *Third International Conference on Intelligent Communication Technologies and Virtual Mobile Networks (ICICV)*, Tirunelveli, India. 1146-1152, 10.1109/ICICV50876.2021.9388496

Pavlides, G. (2019). The right of freedom of expression and its limits: Hate speech in Cyprus public television (CyBC). Interview given by the singer Notis Sfakianakis on the CyBC programme 'Tête-à-Tête'. *The Cyprus Review*, 31(2). https://bit.ly/2TzwGWS

Paz, M. A., Montero-Díaz, J., & Moreno-Delgado, A. (2020). Hate Speech: A Systematized Review. *SAGE Open*, October-December 2020: 1–12 https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244020973022

Pérez-Escolar, M., & Noguera-Vivo, J. M. (2022). *Hate Speech and Polarization in Participatory Society*. Knowledge Unlatched (KU). 10.4324/9781003109891

Pervez Akhter, M., Jiangbin, Z., Raza Naqvi, I., AbdelMajeed, M., & Zia, T. (2021). Abusive language detection from social media comments using conventional machine learning and deep learning approaches. *Multimedia Systems* 28, 1925–1940. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00530-021-00784-8

Piñeiro-Otero, M. T., & Martínez-Rolán, X. (2021). Step outside and say that: analysis of hate speech against women on Twitter. *El profesional de la información*, v. 30, n. 5, e300502. https://doi.org/10.3145/epi.2021.sep.02 Rojas-Torrijos, J. L., & Guerrero Caballero, M. (2021). ¿Un periodismo deportivo apolítico?: Estudio de las referencias al 'procés' catalán en la prensa deportiva digital en España. *Estudios sobre el mensaje meriodístico*, 27 (3), 947-960. https://doi.org/10.5209/esmp.72554

Roy, S. (2019). Role of Nonviolent Communication in our Daily Life. *Pragyaan: Journal of Mass Communication*. Volume 17, Issue 1 & 2, January-December 2019. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/344219287_Role_of_Nonviolent_Communication_in_our_Daily_Life

Sakki, I., & Hakoköngäs, E. (2022). A Critical Discursive Psychological Study of Dialogical Constructions of Hate-Speech in Established Media and Online Discussions. In K. Pettersson & E. Nortio, (eds) *The Far-Right Discourse of Multiculturalism in Intergroup Interactions. Palgrave Studies in Discursive Psychology*. Palgrave Macmillan, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-89066-7_4

Sánchez-Junquera, J., Rosso, P., Montes y Gómez, M., & Chulvi, B. (2021a). Masking and BERTbased Models for Stereotype Identification. *Procesamiento del Lenguaje Natural*, 67, 83-94. https://bit.ly/3CBdyJb

Sánchez-Junquera, J., Chulvi, B., Rosso, P., & Ponzetto, S. P. (2021b). How Do You Speak about Immigrants? Taxonomy and StereoImmigrants Dataset for Identifying Stereotypes about Immigrants. *Applied Sciences*, 11, 3610. https://doi.org/10.3390/app11083610

Scheufele, D. (1999). Framing as a theory of media effects. *Journal of Communication*, 49 (1), 103-122. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.1999.tb02784.x

Spies, A. (2020). The portrayal of victims of intimate femicide in the South African media. *Journal of African Media Studies*, 12, 41–59. 10.1386/jams_00010_1

Tewsbury, D., & Scheufele, D. (2019). News Framing Theory and Research. In M. B. Oliver, A. Raney & J. Bryant, (eds.) *News Framing Theory and Research* (1-18). Routledge.

Tontodimamma, A., Nissi, E., Sarra, A., & Fontanela, A. (2021). Thirty years of research into hate speech: topics of interest and their evolution. *Scientometrics*, 126, 157–179. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-020-03737-6

Túñez-López M., Vaz-Álvarez M., & Fieiras-Ceide C. (2020). COVID-19 and public service media; the impact of the pandemic on public television in Europe [in Spanish]. *The professional of information*. 29 (5) e290518. https://doi.org/10.3145/epi.2020.sep.18

Valdez-Apolo, M. B., Arcila-Calderón, C., & Jiménez Amores, J. (2019). El discurso del odio hacia migrantes y refugiados a través del tono y los marcos de los mensajes en Twitter. *RAEIC, Revista de la Asociación Española de Investigación de la Comunicación*, 6, 12, 361-384. https://doi.org/10.24137/raeic.6.12.2

¹ The average is 199,000 words per channel and day.